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OR,
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OF
ARTS, SCIENCES, AND LITERATURE.

VOL. XXXVII.

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Embracing
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VOL. XXV

THE
CYCLOPÆDIA;
OR,
UNIVERSAL DICTIONARY
OF
Arts, Sciences, and Literature.

BY
ABRAHAM REES, D.D. F.R.S. F.L.S. *S. Amer. Soc.*

WITH THE ASSISTANCE OF
EMINENT PROFESSIONAL GENTLEMEN.

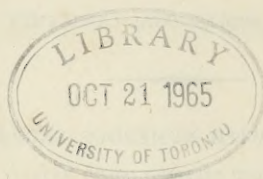
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CYCLOPÆDIA:

OR, A NEW

UNIVERSAL DICTIONARY

OF

ARTS and SCIENCES.

VERMES.

VERMES, in *Anatomy* and *Physiology*. We have explained, under **CLASSIFICATION**, the objections to which the Linnæan class of **Vermes** is liable, considered as one of the great divisions of the animal kingdom; and we have proposed, in place of it, an arrangement grounded on the distinctions of anatomical structure, and therefore better suited to the purposes of comparative anatomy, as well as more conformable to natural method. As the anatomical description of the **MOLLUSCA** (which order includes most of the Linnæan **vermes**) could not be prepared in time to appear under that word, it has been deferred to the present article, which will include also an account of the classes **VERMES** and **ZOOPHYTA**. In his "Handbuch der Naturgeschichte," Blumenbach retains the Linnæan term **VERMES**, dividing the class into, I. *Intestina*; II. *Mollusca*; III. *Tentacea*; IV. *Crustacea* (*Echino-dermata*, Cuvier); V. *Corallia* (*Zoophytes* of most naturalists); and VI. *Zoophyta* (chiefly microscopic animals and the *animalcula infusoria*).

In the following article we shall employ the terms **MOLLUSCA**, **VERMES**, and **ZOOPHYTA**, not in the acceptation in which they are used by Linnæus or Blumenbach, but as they are explained in the article **CLASSIFICATION**;—the same sense in which they are used by the French naturalists generally, and by Cuvier particularly, in his most valuable and useful works, the "*Tableau élémentaire*" and "*Leçons d'Anatomie comparée*."

When, in descending along the scale of living beings, we arrive, after the class of fishes, at the invertebral animals, or such as have no vertebral column, we enter on an immense series of various creatures, the most numerous, and at the same time the most curious and interesting in respect to the difference of their organization and faculties.

At this point in the scale, the vertebral column is annihilated: as this column is the basis of the skeleton, the latter

no longer exists; and consequently the moving parts no longer have their points of action on internal organs.

Moreover, no invertebral animal breathes by means of cellular lungs: none have any vocal organ, nor consequently voice. They appear, at least for the most part, not to have true blood; that is, not to have a fluid undergoing a true circulation, and possessing, as one of its essential characters, the red colour. It would be an abuse of words to call the colourless fluid, which moves slowly in the cellular substance of polypes, blood. We might as well give that name to the sap of vegetables.

This constant and striking difference of colour in the nutritive fluids has been adopted, by some zoologists, as the basis of their first great division of the animal kingdom. The primary division into red-blooded and white-blooded corresponds with that into vertebral and invertebral animals.

The eye has no iris in invertebral animals. They have no kidney.

In the vertebral classes, and particularly in the first, or that of most complicated and perfect organization, all the essential organs are insulated, occupying distinct and separate situations; in the invertebral, they are all brought together.

In his "*Tableau élémentaire*," Cuvier introduces us to the *Zoophytes* as the last or most simple of the animal kingdom in their organization and faculties. The *Mollusca* possess nearly the same apparatus of organs for digestion, circulation, respiration, and sensation as red-blooded animals; and they even come very near in these points to fish. Insects, occupying a lower rank in the scale, have no distinct circulation, and respire by tracheæ. Yet they possess a spinal marrow, nerves, and organs of sense. In most *vermes* we recognize analogous parts, and they probably exist in all. But, in the *zoophytes*, we no longer discern these organic

apparatuses: there are, in a few, barely digestive viscera, and some indications of respiration. They have no circulation, no nerves, no centre of sensation: each part of the body seems to imbibe immediately the materials of its nutrition, and to possess, within itself, the power of sensation.

Hence most of these animals have very strong reproductive powers, quickly restoring injured or lost parts. Some of them indeed are multiplied by a simple division, like plants. There are however different degrees in this simplicity, which is common to all. We pass successively from beings, which have feet, tentacula, hard and soft parts, and distinct viscera (*viz.* the Echino-dermata), to others, whose whole body is a gelatinous mass variously shaped (Medusæ), or, when examined with the most powerful microscope, presents an apparently indivisible atom (Infusoria).

Stagnant water, infusions of vegetable substances, the recent seminal fluids of animals, &c. teem with animated points, round, oval, or of other figures, with or without a small appendix forming a tail, only visible, for the most part, by means of strong magnifying powers.

In the arrangement of Lamarck these creatures form a distinct class, with the name Infusoria. As they are merely microscopic objects, we can only say of them, that they are minute, gelatinous, semitransparent points, in some of which more opaque spots are visible, homogeneous, irritable throughout, and contracting in every direction; consequently changing their form frequently, but generally assuming, when at rest, a determinate figure in each species. We consider that these little bodies, which are mere animated points, and constitute, if we may use such an expression, the ultimate term of organization (ultimate at least to our means of research), are nourished by absorption from their whole surface, and are probably excited by the surrounding influences of caloric, electricity, &c. Thus they resemble vegetables, which live by absorption, executing no digestion, and performing organic motions in consequence of external excitation. But the infusoria are irritable and contractile, and execute sudden motions, which they can repeat: this characterizes their animal nature.

The genus Monas of Cuvier, or Chaos of Blumenbach, includes the simplest known animals. The latter author divides his Chaos into aquatile, infusorium, and spermaticum, according as the animals are found in water, in vegetable infusions, or in animal semen. For a description of the latter, we refer to the article GENERATION; some of the former are noticed under ANIMALCULE. The Volvox is a round, yellowish or greenish, gelatinous, and nearly transparent animalcule, which swims round and round, and moves about without any visible organs of motion. It (volvox globator) abounds in summer in the water of marshes, and then has a reddish colour. In its interior we can distinguish globes similar to itself, which come out of its body, move about in the same way, and are seen to contain other smaller ones; so that the animal may be said to be pregnant at once with several successive generations. The volvox confisor is found in the water of dunghills, and moves by turning alternately to the right and left. It contains internally round moleculæ, which move about also.

The appearance of these animalcules, their motions, and the multiplication of some species, lead us to ascribe them to the animal kingdom; but doubts are entertained on the subject. In that sense, at least, we understand the remark of Cuvier, "On seroit même tenté de croire que plusieurs de ces animaux microscopiques ne se forment que de la décomposition des matières fournies à l'infusion." Tab. Element. p. 663.

They who believe them to be animals, are again divided

in opinion respecting the mode of their production; some arguing from analogy that they are produced by generation of some kind, while others admit of a spontaneous origin, or what has been commonly called *equivocal generation*. Spallanzani made several experiments to determine this point. Long boiling accelerated the production of the animalcules; which were also produced from the infusion of vegetable feeds burnt with the blowpipe. When boiling infusions were put into glass tubes, and these immediately hermetically sealed, no animalcules were produced. Electricity, tobacco-smoke, oleaginous, spirituous, and corrosive liquors destroy them. They will live a month in vacuo; but are not produced in that situation. Spallanzani's Tracts on Animals and Vegetables.

Respecting this doctrine of equivocal generation, we may observe, that the only argument in its favour is the indirect and unsatisfactory one arising from its opposers being unable to shew that the creatures in question are produced by a process of generation. The analogy of all nature, down to the minutest insects, which our microscopes enable us to investigate, affords a very strong presumptive proof against it, and leads us to conclude, that if our means of examination were more perfect, we should find that these creatures are produced and multiplied like all other animated beings.

There are numerous other species named after differences of form, or according to the circumstances under which they are produced. The Proteus has the singular property of changing its form, almost incessantly, into every possible modification of figure. The small animals found in vinegar and palse (Vibrio aceti et glutinis), generally called eels from their elongated figure, are almost large enough to be distinguished by the naked eye. Freezing does not destroy them; but evaporation does, unless they are protected by a little dult from the contact of the air. It is said that they change their skin, that they have different sexes, and produce young ones alive in spring, then lay eggs till autumn.

The genera just enumerated, *viz.* Monas, Volvox, Proteus, Vibrio, together with two others, Burfaria and Kolpoda, make up the order infusoria nuda of Lamarck; that is, such as have no external appendices. He has a second order of infusoria appendiculata, including such infusum animalcules as exhibit any prominent part like hairs or tail, &c. The feminal *vermiculi*, as they have been termed, (cercarizæ, Lamarck,) belong to this order, for they have a tail.

It includes also the genus or family of the tricho-cercæ and trichode.

We come next to animalcules a little more complicated in their structure: they possess stellated organs, consisting of fine ciliated processes surrounding an opening, and susceptible of motion, with the supposed object of drawing their prey towards the aperture.

The following animals are formed by Lamarck into an order which he calls Polypi, and which we deem a very natural one. They are gemmiparous, or multiply by shoots. They have a small elongated body, homogeneous, gelatinous, very irritable, possessing wonderful reproductive powers, provided at its upper end with a mouth, which is surrounded by rotatory organs, or radiated tentacula, and serves as the entrance of an alimentary cavity which has no other opening. This cavity is the only organ they possess; it is usually an elongated bag, seldom folded on itself, or possessing any appendages. Such is the idea of a polype: when several of these little bodies are connected together, and participate a common life, they compose the animals of zoophytes.

The idea, which some have entertained, that the brain and nerves, the muscular system, &c. of which no trace can be discovered in the polypi, nevertheless exist, but are expanded and as it were melted down into the general mass of the body, so that every point is capable of sensation, muscular motion, &c. is a perfectly gratuitous and improbable supposition. On this view, it would follow that a fresh-water polype (hydra) has all the organs of a perfect animal in every part of its body, and consequently sees, hears, smells, &c. at all points. Thus it would be a more perfect animal than man, as each molecule would be equivalent, in the complement of its organization and faculties, to an entire individual of the human species. If we allow this to the polype, how can we refuse it to the monas, to vegetables? The study of nature teaches us in all cases, that when an organ ceases to exist, the faculty is no longer found.

The polypi are very irritable, and are acted on by external influences. Light attracts them towards the quarter whence it comes, as it does the branches, flowers, and leaves of plants. No polype pursues its prey; but when a foreign body touches its tentacula, they stop and convey it to the mouth; it is swallowed without distinction, digested if susceptible to that process, otherwise rejected.

Lamarck objects to the term zoophytes, or animal plants, because these are truly animals, and have nothing of vegetable nature. The only relations between polypi and plants are in the simplicity of their structure, in the connection of several polypi with each other, so as to communicate by their alimentary canal, and form compound animals; and in the external form of the masses which these united polypi compose, a form which for a long time caused them to be taken for true vegetables, since they are often ramified nearly in the same manner. Whether polypi have one or more mouths, we must always bear in mind that they lead to an alimentary cavity, that is, to an organ of digestion which does not exist in any vegetable.

The wheel animal of Spallanzani is a remarkable species of this kind (rotifer redivivus; vorticella rotatoria, Gmel.) It is found in stagnant water, and in the sand of sewers and tiles. It has a tail, and is forked in front; each portion bearing a kind of toothed wheel, which can be drawn in at pleasure. Internally an organ is perceptible with a slow and irregular motion, supposed to be a stomach.

The name of redivivus was given to this creature from its remarkable property, pointed out by Spallanzani, of recovering life after being long dried. This resuscitation will take place at the end of some years; but Spallanzani says, that the animal must be kept in the sand in which it is found. (See his Tracts.) Baker (on the Microscope) makes a similar representation with respect to the eels of blighted corn.

The vorticellæ of Cuvier, polypes à bouquet, (Brachionus, Blumenbach,) have small organs, like fine hairs, coming out of their anterior extremities, turning about rapidly and incessantly: their nature and use are unknown. Some have a tail; others a thread-like peduncle. The latter are united in an arborescent manner. They inhabit stagnant waters, and are so minute, that a mass of them appears only as a spot of film. They multiply by simple division, one of the small bodies splitting, and each half becoming an entire one.

The botrylli, corinæ, and cristatellæ, or polypes à plumet of Cuvier, are allied to the latter: they possess tentacula or ciliated organs; and are either single or collected into arborescent masses.

In the fresh-water polypes (hydra), the organization is

rather more complicated, and the size of the animal increases, so that it is visible with the naked eye. They are gelatinous, semi-transparent, and therefore not easily recognised by a person unaccustomed to look for them. Their body is elongated, small at one end, by which it is attached to some aquatic plant, testaceous animal, &c. and larger at the other. It consists of a cavity terminating at the large end by a round orifice, surrounded by long tentacula. The animal indeed may be regarded as a stomach, provided with instruments for catching its food: the latter is the use of the tentacula. The substance of the body appears, under the strongest magnifying powers, a mere jelly, with more opaque portions interspersed. Blumenbach compares it to boiled fago. They live on naiades, monoculi, and other small aquatic animals, which they seize with their tentacula, and convey into the stomach, where they are digested, and from which the refuse is rejected by the same opening.

They perform locomotion, and seem very sensible to light, although nothing like muscle or nerve can be discerned in them. Neither have any vessels been seen in them: they are said indeed to receive a tint from the food they take, so that it must pass immediately from the stomach into the organs.

The most surprising circumstances, however, in these animals, are their mode of multiplication and their extensive power of reproduction. They propagate by buds from their own body. If cut into six or more pieces, each becomes a perfect animal: they may be inverted, and the external and internal surfaces will be changed and assume each other's functions. When they are partially divided in the longitudinal direction, the separated parts heal so as to form two heads or tails, &c. See the article POLYPE; also, Trembley Mem. pour servir à l'Histoire d'un Genre de Polypes d'Eau douce, &c.; Leid. 1744, 4to. Baker's Natural History of the Polype; Lond. 1743, 8vo. Rösel Historie der Polypen; in the third volume of his Insektenbelustigungen. Schäfer Armpolypen in den süßen Wassern um Regensburg, 1754, 4to.

From the fresh-water polypes, there is an easy transition to the animal of the West India islands described by Ellis, in the Phil. Trans. vol. lviii. tab. 19. fig. 1, and in his Natural History of Zoophytes, tab. 1. fig. 1, under the name of actinia sociata, or cluster animal flower. It is the zoanthæ à dragons of Cuvier, hydra sociata of Gmelin. It is of a tender fleshy substance, consisting of many distinct tubular bodies, each of which swells above into a small bulb: at the top of this bulb is the mouth, surrounded by one or two rows of tentacula, which can be extended or withdrawn at pleasure: in the latter state they look like circles of beads. These bodies are connected below to a firm fleshy wrinkled tube, sticking fast to the rocks, and sending forth other fleshy tubes, which creep along them in various directions, and give origin to similar bodies rising up irregularly in groups. Knobs are observed on the adhering tube, from its insinuating itself into the inequalities of the coral rock. When the animal is dissected lengthwise, a large cavity is exposed, into which a tube opens from the mouth. From this tube eight small cords arise, continued to the lower part of the animal, where they seem to be lost in the fleshy basis.

The small polypi will appear to us more wonderful, and will more powerfully engage our attention, when we find that they produce all those marine substances, formerly called zoophytes, from a notion that they partook both of the animal and vegetable natures, and including corals, corallines, madrepores, millepores, sponges, &c. &c. So active are these minute creatures in some parts of the ocean,

that their constructions form the basis of new islands, constitute extensive and dangerous reefs, block up harbours, create shoals, &c. All which effects are produced by animals not greatly exceeding in bulk the fresh-water polype.

It has been repeatedly found in the West Indies, that wrecks become covered universally and thickly with madrepores and other corals within three-quarters of a year. The formerly excellent harbour of Bantam is now almost entirely occupied by corals. Several volcanic isles of the South-sea, and some even of the West Indian, as for example Barbadoes, are coated over with coral. The dangers to navigators from great coral banks rising out of the bottom of the sea, in unknown tracts, may be illustrated from what Cook and Flinders experienced on the coasts of New Holland.

These productions were formerly described with vegetables, and they will be found so classed by Tournefort: their vegetable nature was even defended by Pallas. Our countryman Mr. Ellis has the honour of demonstrating that they belong to the animal kingdom, and of shewing the animals by which they are formed. See his papers, accompanied by plates, in the 48th, 49th, 50th, 53d, 55th, and 57th vols. of the Phil. Trans.; also his admirable works, "Natural History of Corallines," &c. Lond. 1755, 4to.; "Natural History of many curious and uncommon Zoophytes," &c. 1786, 4to. See also Donati della storia Naturale Marina dell' Adriatico; Venez. 1750, 4to.; Cavolini Memorie per servire alla storia de Polipi Marini; Napoli. 4to.

The animals belonging to these substances may be called compound polypi. The fleshy masses, which are differently circumstanced in different cases, exhibit numerous projecting heads, each of which has a mouth with radiated tentacula. These heads may be either extended or withdrawn. Thus all the polypi are connected into one mass, which is increased by shoots. In structure, these compound polypi do not differ from the simple ones, so far at least as our present knowledge of them goes.

Some zoophytes consist of a horny tube, branching out variously, and hollow internally. The axis of these zoophytes is occupied by a stem of animal substance, and at each of its branches a polype projects. The horny covering probably grows as the shells of the testacea do: and we may suppose, that the tentaculated heads of the animal serve to procure it nourishment. The stercularia is of this kind: the animal is not very intimately connected to the tube.

The tubularia occurs in fresh water as well as in the sea; there is a horny tube, sometimes simple, sometimes ramified. The polype at the end exhibits tentacula, or a bundle of hairs like a pencil. The capularia and stercularia are of the same kind.

In other instances, each polype, instead of being connected to a common item, is contained in a horny or calcareous cell, with thin sides. In these there is not the same direct communication as in the former genera. Each polype is insulated, or, if they communicate, it must be by very fine filaments, traversing the cells.

In these and some other of the zoophytes, vesicles are occasionally seen, and have been supposed to be ovaries: the latter opinion, however, is inconsistent with the views entertained at present. Cellularia, flustra, and corallina, exemplify this: though, with respect to the latter, it must be observed, that its animals have not yet been demonstrated, and its pores are so small, that they must be extremely minute.

The zoophytes which have an axis of solid substance, covered by a fleshy layer, with hollows, which con-

tain tentaculated polypi, have been called cerato-polyta. The axis is sometimes ligneous or horny, or stony, and covered by a fleshy substance capable of contracting. In this there are numerous hollow tubercles, from which there are projected and withdrawn at will, heads, or rather tentaculated mouths formed like polypi, all belonging to the same animal, like the branches of a polype: that is, the soft substance covering the solid axis is to be regarded as the animal, of which these are so many mouths. It has the power of extending itself to form a basis of adherence to solid bodies. We also observe it extending over and forming a new stratum of coralline matter, inclosing foreign bodies that may be attached to the axis. That the coralline axis is formed by the fleshy covering cannot be doubted; we perceive in it concentric strata, indicating its successive depositions, and the surface is marked by longitudinal lines corresponding to the figure of the animal covering. When the trunk of the coralline tree contains ligneous or vegetable matter, probably this is an extraneous body, on which the coral is deposited. The branches are produced by an elongation of the soft flesh, which forms them in its interior: but their strata are not continuous with those of the trunk, as in the case of trees.

Cuvier (Tableau élémentaire, p. 671.) states, that the nourishment taken by any of the polype heads is converted to the use of the whole animal; to which, also, he ascribes a common will, as evidenced by its extension for the purpose of adhering to surrounding objects. We know no facts concerning the structure of the animal covering, at all sufficient to warrant these statements.

The gorgonia nobilis (is nobilis), or red coral, is an example of this structure. The axis is the compact stony substance, of the hardness of marble, of which coral ornaments are made. The fleshy covering is of a bright red, containing calcareous molecules, which form a kind of incrustation when dried, and exhibiting numerous cavities in which polypi are lodged. Each of these has eight denticulated tentacula. The antipathes and isis belong to this division. See the excellent plates of Ellis in the Natural History of Zoophytes, exhibiting all the facts above enumerated; particularly tab. 3. fig. 1—5. for various views of the isis hippuris, or black and white coral: tab. 11. gorgonia flammæ: tab. 12. figs. 1, 2. gorgonia ceratophyta: tab. 13. figs. 3, 4. gorgonia pectinata: tab. 14. figs. 1, 2. gorgonia briareus: fig. 3. gorgonia pinnata.

The pennatula, or sea-feather, belongs also to this division, and it is remarkable among the marine zoophytes, as being unattached, and possessing the power of locomotion. All the others are fixed by their trunks or bases to some other object, as rocks, shells, sea-weed, &c. &c.

The pennatula resembles a feather, and consists of a shaft and barbs. The former is cartilaginous and covered by a fleshy layer; from which, at its smaller half, forty, sixty, or more curved arms proceed on both sides, like the barbs of a feather. Ten, twelve, or more smaller processes are continued from one edge of each of these primary barbs; and in each of these is contained a delicate gelatinous polype, with eight tentacula.

"The stem of the suckers of this animal," says Mr. Ellis, "is of a cylindrical form: from the upper part proceed eight fine white filaments or claws to catch their food; when they retreat on the alarm of danger, they draw themselves into their cases, which are formed like the denticles in the corallines; but here each denticle is furnished with spicula, which close together round the entrance of the denticle, and protect this tender part from external injuries." Phil. Trans. vol. liii. p. 424.

Thus,

Thus, in a seapen of a span long, there are at least above 500 of these polypes. (See Ellis, Zoophytes, p. 6. et seq. tab. 8.) They swim about in the sea by a common motion produced by their numerous polypi; and are remarkable for possessing phosphoric properties; hence one kind has been called pennatulæ phosphorea, and Linnæus says of it, "habitat in oceano, fundum illuminans." (Phil. Transf. vol. liii. tab. 19. fig. 1—5.) The pennatulæ rubra, or Italian seapen, is also strongly phosphoric. Dr. Shaw observes of it, that on the coast of Algiers it sends forth so great a light in the night, that the fishermen can distinguish the fish as they swim by it, so as to know where to cast their nets. See Phil. Transf. vol. liii. p. 21. figs. 1, 2.

The soft covering of the stem of the seapens consists externally of a strong coriaceous membrane, and internally of a thinner membrane: the cavity of the latter is occupied merely by the bone or cartilage. Between the two membranes are innumerable yellowish eggs, floating in a whitish liquor. The fins are also composed of two skins; the outer strong and leathery, the inner thin and clear. The cylindrical part of the fuckers is formed in the same way, except that their outward skins are softer. Both the fins and fuckers are hollow; so that the cavity of the fuckers may communicate with their fins, as their cavity does with the trunk.

See an account of the seapen or pennatulæ phosphorea of Linnæus; likewise a description of a new species of seapen, found on the coast of South Carolina, with observations on seapens in general, by J. Ellis, in the Phil. Transf. vol. liii. with three plates representing various species, with magnified views of the fins and polypes.

The lithophytes are zoophytes with an axis or basis of a stony substance, in which receptacles for polypi are excavated. The madrepores and millepores belong to this division. See Ellis's Zoophytes, tab. 23. for views of the millepora truncata, in which the polypes are seen magnified. They are so numerous in some seas, as to form entire islands: several of those in the South-sea are a mere congeries of madrepores.

The last kind of zoophytes have a spongy friable or fibrous substance for their basis, covered by a fleshy incrustation, which sometimes contains polypes. There are only two genera; viz. alcyonium and spongia. The interior of the latter is light, friable when dry, composed of fine, diverging fibres. The animal covering is a soft incrustation, without calcareous particles, which becomes coriaceous by drying, and is pierced with cells from which the heads of polypes issue. See Ellis in the Phil. Transf. vol. liii. tab. 20. figs. 10, 11, and 13.

Whether the sponges are animals, is still doubted even by good naturalists: at all events, they possess the characters and faculties of animals in the lowest degree. They consist of a more or less dense and flexible fibrous tissue, covered in its recent state by a semifluid and thin kind of animal jelly. Regularly formed round apertures are observed, sometimes pierced in slightly prominent papillæ; but no polypes issue from these, nor has any thing of the kind ever been seen in them. The only circumstance mentioned about them, that can be deemed a sign of life, is a slight and hardly perceptible contraction or shrinking, when they are torn from their situation. After their death, the animal jelly dissolves and is removed, and the fibrous basis alone is left. See Ellis on the Nature and Formation of Sponges, Phil. Transf. vol. iv. pl. 10 and 11.

Next to the polypes, whether existing singly and unconnected, or connected with those contrivances which con-

stitute the zoophytes, we may place, in respect to simplicity of structure, the actinæ and medusæ. The former possesses a coriaceous body, with considerable power of contraction, which enables the animal to change its figure very remarkably, from a half sphere, when the mouth is shut, and the tentacula withdrawn, to a cylinder when it is open. It adheres by a circular disk to the sand, rocks, &c. The opposite end forms a mouth, surrounded by several rows of long, conical, and moveable tentacula, which can be withdrawn or extended at pleasure. The mouth is round, and leads straight into a cylindrical stomach, with rugous sides. They live on small crabs principally, which they seize and envelop with their tentacula. The refuse is rejected by the same passage. Between the parietes of the stomach and the skin there is a vast number of very fine intestines, interwoven with each other, of which the communications and uses have not been found out.

The actinæ are famous for their reproductive powers. When cut in two, each part becomes a perfect animal. The tentacula and other parts are easily restored. The young actinæ are born alive, either at the mouth or through the side of the parent; in the latter case the cicatrix soon closes. They move sometimes on their basis, sometimes on the tentacula.

Lamarck's class of polypi terminates with the actinæ. It includes the following orders:

I. Polypes rotifères (wheel-bearing), having ciliated and retatory organs round the mouth. Urceolariz. Brachioni. Vorticellæ.

II. Polypes à polypier, — polypes connected with hard substances; having radiated tentacula about the mouth, and connected to a hard substance, which does not float loose in the water.

1. With membranous or horny polypier, without any distinct cortex. Crustacea. Plumetella. Cellularia. Sertularia. Flustra. Cellepora. Botryla.

2. Polypier with a horny axis, covered by an incrustation. Acetabulum. Corallina. Spongia. Alcyonium. Antipathes. Gorgonia.

3. Polypier with an axis partly or entirely stony, and covered by a bark-like incrustation. Isis. Corallum.

4. Polypier entirely stony, and without incrustation. Tubipora. Lunulite. Ovalite. Siderolite. Orbalite. Alveolite. Ocellaria. Eschara. Retepora. Millepora. Agarrica. Pavonia. Meandrina. Astarte. Madrepora. Caryophyllia. Turbinolia. Fongia. Cyclolite. Dactylopora. Virgularia.

III. Polypes flottans; loose polypi.

Polypier loose, floating in the water, having a horny or osseous axis, covered by a fleshy investment, to which all the polypi are connected: radiated tentacula round the mouth of the latter. Funiculina. Veretilla. Pennatula. Encrinurus. Umbrellaria.

IV. Naked polypi; mouth with radiated tentacula, often multiplied; no polypier. Pedicellaria. Corina. Hydra. Zoanthus. Actinia.

The substance of the medusæ is transparent and gelatinous (whence their common name of sea-blubber), and almost entirely destroyed by evaporation or boiling. In the state of rest, their body represents the segment of a sphere, with the convexity smooth, and the opposite surface furnished with various tentacula. Coloured lines are observed in their interior, but nothing which indicates circulation. Towards their edges, however, numerous vessels are observed, communicating apparently with the alimentary cavity. They inhabit the ocean, swimming very well by rendering their body

body alternately more and less convex. When the tide ebbs, many of them are left on the shore motionless. Although these creatures are very numerous, and in some instances of great bulk, their structure and economy are hitherto but little known. Messrs. Péron and Le Sueur devoted their attention to them very particularly in their voyage to the Southern islands; have delineated some species in their "Voyage aux Terres Australes;" and have announced a comprehensive work on the whole tribe, in which their natural history and structure are to be amply investigated. Perhaps this has even now appeared; but we have not seen it. In the notice of this publication, given in the *Annales du Muséum d'Histoire Naturelle*, tom. xiv. p. 218. et seq. they observe, "that the substance of the medusæ is resolved entirely, by a kind of instantaneous fusion, into a fluid analogous to sea-water; yet the most important functions of life are exercised in these bodies, which seem to be merely coagulated water. Their numbers are prodigious, yet we have no certain knowledge of their mode of generation: they are in some cases several feet in diameter; and weigh fifty or sixty pounds, yet their system of nutrition escapes us: they execute the most rapid and continued movements, yet we can discover no fibrous or muscular structure: their secretions are exceedingly abundant, yet we see nothing of the mechanism by which they are executed: they have respiration of a very active kind, but its seat is a mystery: they appear very feeble, yet fishes of some inches in length are their constant prey: their stomach seems incapable of any action on the latter animals, but they are digested immediately. Several of them contain air in their interior; we do not know how they can derive it either from the atmosphere or water, or develop it in their intestines. Several are phosphoric: they shine in the darkness of the night like so many globes of fire; yet the nature, the principle, and the agents of this striking property are so many problems. Some sting and numb the hand which touches them; the cause of this phenomenon is equally unknown." The latter property, being one of the most obvious, has influenced the name of these beings: they are called in all languages, sea-nettles.

In the same volume of the *Annales du Muséum*, the authors quoted above have given a view of the generic and specific characters of the medusæ, as they will be described in their great work. See p. 325, et seq.

The echino-dermata of Cuvier are the most complicated in their structure among the zoophytes: they have a coriaceous or calcareous covering, a distinct internal respiratory organ, and often numerous retractile feet. In many the skin is of a more or less crustaceous nature; or it may even be a true shell. The feet, passing through apertures of this covering, admit of being extended or withdrawn: they are often arranged with much regularity. There is a mouth, provided generally with five teeth arranged in a circle, and leading into an alimentary cavity in the interior of the body: there are also ovaries; and a very extensive ramified organ, which seems to establish a perpetual circulation of water through the bodies of these animals, and consequently a kind of respiration. Nothing is found like heart or brain. The holothuria (sea-cucumber), with its cylindrical body and thick leathery skin; the asferias, with its conical radiated processes and pliable calcareous integument; and the echinus (sea-hedgehog), with a complete calcareous shell, belong to this division.

The medusæ, star-fish, echini, &c. are formed by Lamarck into a distinct class, which he calls Radiaria, or radiated animals, because their bodies are distinguished, in

the arrangement both of their internal and external parts, by being formed into radii surrounding a centre; a formation of which the first sketch is seen in the polypes.

Their mode of generation is not exactly known, but they possess considerable powers of reproduction: they contain organs that seem like ovaries. The mouth is placed downwards, or on the inferior surface of the body: they have no head, eyes, nor articulated limbs, probably no nerves; and no circulating system.

This class comprehends two orders:

I. Radiaria mollusca (soft radiant animals). Gelatinous body, soft transparent skin, without any articulated spines; no anus. Genera: Stephanomia. Lucernaria. Physiphorus. Physalia. Velella. Porpita. Pyrosoma. Berce. Equorea. Rhizostoma. Medusa.

II. Radiaria echino-dermata. Opaque crustaceous or coriaceous skin, furnished with retractile tubercles, or spines articulated upon tubercles, and perforated by rows of holes.

1. Stelleria. Skin not irritable, but moveable; no anus. Genera: Ophiurus. Asterias.

2. Echinida. Skin not irritable, nor moveable; an anus. Genera: Clypeastrus. Cassidites. Spatangus. Ananchites. Galerites. Nucleolites. Echinus.

3. Fittulida. Body elongated; skin irritable and moveable; an anus. Genera: Holothuria. Sipunculus.

The vermes of Cuvier approach very much to the larvæ of insects. Perfect insects are distinguished, among all the white-blooded classes, by the perfection of their organs of motion, their members having distinct articulations, and the component parts being solid. The larvæ in some cases enjoy the same advantage: those of the orthoptera and hemiptera have as perfect legs as the perfect insects: in the larvæ of the lepidoptera and coleoptera, the members are generally very short, and not capable of prompt motion. The limbs disappear entirely in the larvæ of the diptera, and many of the hymenoptera, their place being supplied by hairs, bristles, or merely by the rings and transverse wrinkles of the trunk. The vermes resemble the last mentioned larvæ; but they undergo no change of form.

The largest have the body divided into distinct rings: a knotted nervous cord is found in their interior. Those which live in water, breathe by membranous or tufted branchiæ, like many aquatic larvæ. Others have along the sides of their body stigmata precisely similar to the openings of the tracheæ in insects. The organs of motion, in several instances, are stiff bristles or spines. Others crawl by successively wrinkling or contracting the different parts of the body. Some have even antennæ. In short, we cannot assign any general character, drawn either from external form or internal structure, which would be sufficient, in all cases, to distinguish worms from the larvæ of insects.

Most worms inhabit the interior of other animals, as the larvæ of some insects do: others live in the earth or water. Some of the latter construct solid habitations, either by agglutinating foreign substances, or by pouring out a calcareous matter, like that of the testaceous mollusca. But the shells of worms may always be distinguished from those of the mollusca, because they are always either straight or tortuous tubes, never regularly spiral, or an expanded cone, and more particularly because the animal is never attached, which it is almost invariably in the case of the mollusca.

This class of vermes has been divided by Lamarck into two; namely, worms, and annular animals (annelides). His class of worms contains the intestinal worms, and some others, whose organization is equally imperfect. The animals included in this class have a soft body more or less elongated,

VERMES.

gated, without head, eyes, or articulated limbs. They have no circulating vessels. No organ of fecundation has been hitherto discovered; so that sexual generation does not seem to exist in them. The parts supposed in some to be ovaries seem to be mere collections of reproductive molecules, which require no fecundation. Their intestinal canal is complete, or possesses two openings; and the mouth consists of one or more apparatuses for sucking.

The class is divided into three orders; *viz.* cylindrical, vesicular, and flattened worms, according to the form of the body.

The class of annelides or annulosa has a soft elongated body, covered by transverse rings, and no articulated limbs: seldom a head or eyes. They have a knotted spinal marrow; arteries and veins containing a fluid, which is generally red. They breathe by branchiæ, which are sometimes external and prominent, sometimes concealed.

The class consists of two orders:

I. Annulosa crypto-branchia (having concealed branchiæ). Genera: Planaria. Hirudo. Lernæa. Clavala. Naias. Lumbricus. Thalassæma.

II. Gymno-branchia (having external branchiæ). Genera: Arenicola. Amphinomia. Nereis. Terebella. Amphitrite. Sabellaria. Serpula. Spirorbis. Siliquaria. Dentalium.

The mollusca have a muscular heart, to which the nutritive fluid is brought by the veins, and from which it is carried out by the arteries; they have organs nearly resembling the gills of fish, in which the fluid is exposed to the influence of the surrounding element, and glands which pour different secretions into the alimentary canal. They have a brain, nerves, and some organs of sense; but in the latter there is more variety than in the other points. Their body, or at least their limbs have no bone in the interior; but several of them are inclosed in very firm, even strong cases, which are called shells (*testæ*), whence the animals themselves have been denominated testacea or shell-fish in common language. These are comprehended, together with the entirely naked ones, under the name mollusca.

They have white and very irritable muscles. They are extremely tenacious of life; moving after being cut into several pieces, and reproducing very considerable portions of their body when destroyed in any way. Their skin is always soft, and generally lubricated by a viscous secretion: it is very sensible, and possesses organs, called tentacula, capable of elongation, for the purpose of touching. None have organs of smelling, but there are eyes in several, and ears in some. The body is generally enveloped, or at least covered in great part by a membranous investment, called in French *manteau*, which we shall term the mantle. Several have moreover a hard covering named a shell, composed of one or more pieces, called valves, and produced by calcareous matter transuding from the mantle. To this the body is fixed by means of muscles. Most mollusca inhabit the sea; some dwell in fresh water, and others live in the earth.

Lamarck removes four genera from the mollusca, to constitute a distinct class, which he calls *cirripèdes*: these genera are tubicella, coronula, balanus, anatisa. Their principal distinguishing characters are articulated arms covered by a horny skin; two pairs of mandibles to the mouth; a knotted nervous cord.

It appears from the preceding review, if we join to it the consideration of the structure of insects, that the animals with white blood, as they have been called, have not so many common characters as the red-blooded. Their chief distinctions are of the negative kind, as the absence of a

vertebral column, and of an interior articulated skeleton, &c.

"Thus," says Lamarck, "when we consider successively the various organic systems of animals, from the most compound to the most simple, we shall observe a *degradation* of the organization commencing even in the class which comprehends the most perfect animals, proceeding from class to class, though with anomalies caused by various circumstances, and terminating at last in the infusoria. The latter are the most imperfect, and most simply organized; the degradation in them has reached its term, the organization being reduced to a simple, homogeneous, gelatinous body, almost without consistence, possessing no distinct organs, and simply formed of a very delicate tissue, which seems to be affected by the surrounding subtle fluids.

"We have seen each organ, even the most essential, gradually degenerate, become less distinct, and at last entirely disappear long before we had reached the extremity of the series: and we may observe, that it is principally in the invertebral animals that the special organs are observed to be annihilated.

"Before we quit the division of vertebral animals, great changes are perceived in the perfection of the organs, and even some of them, as the urinary bladder, the organ of the voice, the eye-lids, &c. disappear entirely. The lung, which is the most perfect apparatus for breathing, degenerates in reptiles, ceases to exist in fishes, and is not found in any invertebral animal. The skeleton itself, which furnishes the basis of the four limbs possessed by most vertebral animals, begins to decline, particularly in reptiles, and ends altogether in fish.

"But in the invertebral animals, we see the most important parts annihilated, one after the other: the heart, the brain, the branchiæ, conglomerate glands, circulating vessels, the organ of hearing and of sight, those of sexual generation, and even those of sensation and motion. We should seek in vain among the polypes for the slightest trace of nerves or muscles: irritability alone supplies the place of sensation and voluntary motion. All the motions of a polype are the result of external excitation. Put a fresh-water polype (*hydra*) in a glass of water, and place this glass in a chamber, which receives light from one quarter only. It will slowly move itself towards the part on which the light falls, and will remain there. Vegetables turn themselves towards the light in an analogous manner.

"Undoubtedly, wherever a particular organ no longer exists, the faculty which it exercised ceases also: the latter is also more obscure in proportion to the deterioration of the organization. Insects are the last, in the scale of animated nature, possessing eyes; we have reason to suppose that they see very obscurely, and make but little use of their eyes.

"This degeneration may be observed, even in the nature and consistence of the essential fluids, and of the flesh of animals. The blood and muscles of the mammalia and birds are the most compound and animalized of animal productions. After fish, these substances are progressively changed to such a degree, that in the soft radiant animals, in the polypi, and particularly in the infusoria, the nutritive fluid has merely the colour and consistence of water, and the flesh is a soft jelly, scarcely animalized." *Philosophie Zoologique*, tom. i. p. 212, et seq.

The following Table, extracted from the same work of Lamarck, p. 277, et seq. exhibits the invertebral animals, arranged according to their structure, with their principal characters, in a progressive series, from the most simple upwards.

VERMES.

Animals without Vertebrae.

Classes.

Degrees.

I. INFUSORIA.	{ Generation by splitting of the body, or by shoots; body gelatinous, transparent, homogeneous, contractile, and microscopic: no radiated tentacula nor rotatory appendices; no special organ, not even for digestion.	1st. No nerves; no vessels; no internal and special organ, but for digestion.
II. POLYPI.	{ Generate by shoots; body gelatinous, with great powers of regeneration; no internal organ, except an alimentary cavity with a single opening. Mouth at one end furrounded by radiated tentacula, or by ciliated and rotatory organs. They compose, for the most part, compound animals.	
III. RADIARIA.	{ Suboviparous: great powers of reproduction; no head, eyes, nor articulated limbs; the form of the body radiated; mouth placed below.	2d. No knotted medullary cord; no circulating vessels; some internal organs besides those of digestion.
IV. VERMES.	{ Suboviparous; body soft, and highly reproductive; undergo no metamorphosis; no eyes, nor articulated limbs, nor radiated disposition of internal organs.	
V. INSECTA.	{ Oviparous; undergo metamorphosis; possess, in their perfect state, eyes in their head; six articulated limbs; tracheæ extending over the whole body; a single fecundation in the course of life.	3d. Nerves ending in a longitudinal, knotted, medullary cord; respiration by tracheæ, which convey air; circulation imperfect, or none.
VI. ARACHNIDA.	{ Oviparous; undergo no metamorphosis, but possess always articulated limbs, and eyes in their head. Tracheæ confined to certain parts; an attempt at circulation; several fecundations in the course of life.	
VII. CRUSTACEA.	{ Oviparous; body and limbs articulated; skin crustaceous; eyes on the head; and generally four antennæ; respire by branchiæ; a longitudinal knotted medullary cord.	4th. Nerves ending in a brain, or a knotted medullary cord; respiration by branchiæ; arteries and veins for circulation.
VIII. ANNELIDA.	{ Oviparous; body elongated and annulated; no articulated limbs; seldom eyes; respire by branchiæ; knotted nervous cord.	
IX. CIRRIPEDEA.	{ Oviparous; possess a mantle and articulated arms, with horny skin; no eyes; respire by branchiæ; knotted nervous cord.	
X. MOLLUSCA.	{ Oviparous; body soft, with its parts not articulated; mantle variable; respire by branchiæ, varying in form and situation; no spinal marrow, nor knotted longitudinal cord, but nerves ending in a brain.	

Structure and Formation of the hard Parts, which supply the Place of the Skeleton in the lower Orders.—The want of an internal articulated skeleton is the most striking character of the second great division of the animal kingdom, or the invertebral animals. Insects and crustacea have a species of external skeleton; they possess hard parts, which are at once instruments of motion, and means of support and protection for the included softer organs. (See INSECTS, in *Anatomy*.) The shells of the mollusca are to be regarded rather as provisions for defence, as habitations of the soft animals which they inclose, than, like the skeleton of the vertebral animals, or the hard external covering of crustacea and insects, as instruments of motion.

Shells are composed, like bones, of a calcareous matter, intimately connected with a gelatinous substance, from which it may be separated by means of acids. It is not disposed in laminae, or in fibres, but is distributed uniformly throughout the whole body of the shell.

It is only in some species that we find strata easily separated, and as it were agglutinated to each other, like the leaves of paper in the formation of pasteboard. We know from observation that these strata do not all exist in young animals; they have only the external, which are at the same time the smallest. In proportion as the animal increases in age, it forms a new stratum on the internal surface of the shell, which extends beyond the edges of all the preceding strata; so that each operation of this kind adds to the size

of the shell in length, breadth, and thickness. These are certain facts: to prove them, it is only necessary to compare some shells of the same species that have belonged to individuals of different ages; the fewest strata will always be found in the shells of the young. Muscles, which may be observed when they are very young, and even before they quit the body of the mother, have at that period one stratum only; but the shell is not therefore soft and gelatinous; it possesses the same firmness as the adult shell, and its greater fragility is merely owing to its thinness.

It has been a question among physiologists, whether these shells grow by development or intussusception, or by simple juxtaposition? That is, whether the shell, like our bones, contains nutritive vessels capable of increasing, diminishing or variously modifying it; or whether the gelatinous and calcareous component elements of the shell are simply deposited from the surface of the animal's body, and attached to the pre-existing mass? We conceive that the latter mode of formation has been incontrovertibly established; that the substance of the shell is inorganic, and consequently possesses no power in itself of increase, diminution, or any vital change.

This point was first investigated by Reaumur, whose researches are so clear and satisfactory, that they have left very little to be added by his successors. They are detailed in the *Memoires de l'Academie des Sciences for 1709*, under the title "De la Formation et de l'Accroissement des Coquilles

quilles des Animaux tant terrestres qu'aquatiques, soit de Mer, soit de Terre." He followed up the subject, in answer to some objections, in the *Memoirs* for 1716, p. 303: under the title "Eclaircissement de quelques Difficultés sur la Formation et l'Accroissement des Coquilles."

"When (says the author) the animal, which filled its shell exactly, increases in size, and the shell is consequently insufficient to cover it entirely, a part of the surface must be exposed. This is the part nearest to the opening, for the animal's body can be augmented only in that direction. The inhabitants of a spiral shell, as snails, grow only in the direction of the head, or towards the opening of the shell; while those which occupy bivalve shells, as muscles, can increase in their whole circumference. In both cases it is the uncovered portion of the body that produces the shell." *Mém. de 1709*, p. 367.

"That the animal really grows before its shell, in the way just pointed out, may be easily seen in the garden-snails at their season of increase. We observe that the shell is too small. The animal fixes itself against a wall, or remains at rest, and a part of its body manifestly extends beyond the shell all round." *Ibid.* p. 370.

He illustrates the natural growth by the process employed for repairing injuries. "After breaking away a portion of the shell, which can be easily done without injuring the animal, as it adheres only at one point, we observe the creature soon attach itself to the sides of the vessel in which it is placed. A fine pellicle, which may be compared to the web made by the house spider in the angles of walls, covers the body in twenty-four hours, and forms the first stratum of the new shell. In a few days this is thickened by several strata produced under it; and, at the end of about ten or twelve days, the new portion of shell has nearly the thickness of the original part." P. 371.

"If," he observes, "the injury were repaired by means of materials furnished by the broken edge, as in the case of a fractured bone, we should observe a callus produced from that margin, and extending gradually into the centre of the aperture. But the edge, in fact, remains unaltered, and the matter deposited is on the surface of the body." P. 373.

That the body of the animal affords the materials by which the shell is formed, is rendered more evident by the following experiments. "I broke away a portion of the shell, and placed in the opening, between the animal's body and the shell, a portion of lamb-skin leather, such as is used to make what are called chicken gloves. I fastened this to the internal surface of the shell, so that it completely shut up the opening intervening between the shell and the animal's body. It is evident, that if the shell itself produced the materials of restoration, the new substance ought to be formed, in such circumstances, on the exterior surface of the leather. On the contrary, however, that side which was towards the animal's body became lined with shell, and none was deposited on the exterior surface.

"Again, I broke away a part of the shell at its opening, introduced a portion of the leather, and fastened it to the inner surface; then turned it down, and fastened it also to the outer surface, so that the circumference of the opening, with its broken edge, was completely covered. Now, if the shell grows by a principle of vegetation, either this covering should have prevented the growth, or the elongation of the shell should have pushed the leather forwards. On the contrary, the shell grew, and the leather remained where it was placed, being interposed between the old shell and the new piece, to the formation of which the former consequently could not have contributed." P. 374.

"It is a necessary consequence of the preceding facts, that

the shells of snails increase in size, only by an addition to the number of their spiral turns, and that the length of a turn, when once formed, continues always the same. The truth of this statement is easily shewn. If the shell of a full-grown snail be reduced to the same number of turns as that of a young one of the same species, the two shells are then of the same size. This holds true, even with respect to the shells of snails just produced. A turn more or less makes a great difference in the size of the shell; for the diameter of each is nearly double that of the preceding, and about one-half of the following: hence half, or even a fourth of a turn more increases considerably the size of the shell." P. 378.

The same point has been attentively examined by Mr. Carlisle, whose conclusions confirm in all respects those of Reaumur.

"The most apposite illustrations, and the most positive instances of union between vital and extra-vital parts, are to be found in the testaceous tribe of animals. After a long-continued and careful investigation, I am fully convinced, that the shells of all the vermes of Linnæus are extra-vascular from their commencement, and remain so during the whole of their connection with the living creature. The first production and the growth of those shells always depend upon a deposit of material thrown out from the surface of the body of the living animal. The figure and colours of the several parts of those shells, in every species, depend upon the shape and the colouring glands of the modelling organs. Fractures are repaired by spreading a crustaceous fluid over the inner edges, and never by any exudation from the fractured parts, since they retain always the squared broken surfaces after such repairs. Extraneous bodies are equally covered with shell, whether they are in contact with the parent shell or not. The first may be seen in the frequent envelopment of nereides in the common oyster; the latter has been often ascertained by the experiments made for the purpose of creating artificial pearls, and which might, if skilfully practised, yet prove very successful. The borings of parasitical vermes into shells are never filled up, or the bored surface altered, unless such borings penetrate into the cavity where the living animal dwells, and then the apertures are invariably plugged up or smeared over with pearly matter. The water-worn external surfaces of old shells, and other external abrasions, are never repaired, which is to be seen in old living oysters exposed to the moving friction of currents or strong tides, in the worn-off spines of the pholas dactylus, and in the convex points of the two valves of old mytili, especially the mytilus anatinus. I have fought in the most extensive collections of the metropolis for examples of fractures and other injuries which have occurred to the shells of living vermes, and I have collected many remarkable specimens. They all demonstrate the same results without any exception. I have made numerous experiments upon the garden-snail, (*helix nemoralis*), by fracturing and breaking away the shell in various parts, and have always found the repairs to be effected from within by first smearing over an epidermoid varnish, and then by plastering the inner surface of that film with successive calcareous laminae. I have in vain attempted to inject the shells of recent vermes from the vascular parts of their bodies; and am fully satisfied, that none of their albuminous or gelatinous testaceous membranes were ever at any time traversed by vessels; indeed, they do not possess any of the reticular texture or arborescent pores which are common to all vascular parts; but, microscopically examined, they resemble the exuvial or epidermoid membranes. To these may be added the notorious circumstance of the unchange-

ablens of the outer surfaces of testaceous shells during their growth, and the continued renewal of their other surfaces which admit of contact with the living inhabitant; next, the stains and coloured transudations which they often derive from metallic salts, and other colouring materials placed in their vicinity; and lastly, that such occurrences do not affect the living animal." See "Facts and Observations relative to the Connection between vascular and extra-vascular Parts, in the Structure of living organized Bodies." Lond. Med. Repository for August, 1814.

It is stated of some testaceous mollusca, that they quit their shell to form a new and larger one. Cuvier asserts this of the cypræas, and it is also supposed to be the case with the balani. (See *Annales du Muséum*, t. i. p. 470.) In these instances it is clear that the surface of the body must form the new shell.

The inhabitant of the paper nautilus (argonauta argo) does not adhere to its shell at any point; the additions to the shell cannot therefore possibly be made by the way of development. It grows, in all probability, by a secretion formed by its two palmed arms. Nautili are met with where extensive fractures have taken place, and have been consolidated by deposition from within. *Hist. des Mollusques*, par Denys Montfort, t. iii. p. 284.

The animal comes out of its egg with the shell ready formed; it possesses one turn, and sometimes rather more, but is very thin. Leeuwenhoeck first ascertained the fact respecting oysters. Lister made the same observation, and extended it to other testacea, both terrestrial and aquatic. Marigli, Rumphius, Swammerdam, Reaumur, and Adanson, confirmed the discovery. The latter naturalist shewed that the viviparous testacea agree with the oviparous, in the circumstance of their young being covered by shells at the time of birth, and even before. *Encycl. Method.* t. vi. p. 549.

"As the animal grows after birth, its body advances constantly towards the mouth of the shell; the posterior end quits the bottom of the first turn, to which it does not adhere, and when the size of the shell is complete, it occupies a situation very distant from its original one. In some species of an elongated figure, as the bulime consolidé and decollé, and several others, where the end of the spire remains very thin and unsupported, it is liable to break: the animal stops the breach by a new calcareous exudation from the posterior end of its body. In other testaceous mollusca the end of the spire becomes solid, and presents a mass of laminated calcareous matter, sometimes as hard as marble. The successive layers are distinctly visible when a section is made. I have now before me a splendid specimen of the trochus Niloticus, in which six turns of the spire are solid, and filled with a calcareous substance equal to the finest Carrara marble. I can demonstrate the same fact in other shells.

"In some cases different phenomena are exhibited. The murex tritonis not only has the apex of its long spire consolidated, but, as the animal grows older, and abandons more rapidly the extremity of the spire, instead of filling up the whole tube, it forms only thick septa, which are constricted successively in the situations where the animal's body rests for a while." *Hist. des Mollusques*, par Denys Montfort, t. iii. p. 246, et seq.

Some white-blooded animals have hard parts internally; but they are not articulated so as to form the bases of moveable members, and their texture differs considerably from that of ordinary bones. The common cuttle-fish (*sepia officinalis*) contains in the flesh of the back an oval substance, convex before and behind, white, solid, friable, and of a calcareous nature. This substance is not attached

to the flesh, but has the appearance of a foreign body introduced into it. There is no indication of any vessel or nerve entering it; nor is any tendon affixed to it. It is composed of thin parallel lamellæ, which are not in immediate contact with each other. The intervals are occupied by an infinite number of small hollow columns, standing perpendicularly between one lamella and another, and arranged in very regular quincunces. As the superficies of the lamellæ are plane, and those of the bone itself convex, they necessarily intersect each other: the points of intersection are marked on the surfaces of the bone by regular curvilinear striæ. These bones have a kind of wings, which are of a less opaque nature, less brittle, and have a greater resemblance to thin elastic horn, than the body of the bone.

To this last substance the part called the sword of the calmar (*sepia loligo*) bears an analogy. It is transparent, elastic, and very brittle; its shape is sometimes that of a leaf, sometimes of a sword-blade. It bears the same relation to the soft parts, and occupies the same situation as the bone of the cuttle-fish.

There is a gradation in structure from this sword of the calmar and bone of the cuttle-fish, which are completely internal, to the external shells of the testacea. The bulla aperta (Linn.), bullæa (Lamarck), has a shell contained in its cloak or outer integument, and not visible on the exterior of the body. It is extremely thin, and almost transparent; not attached to the body by any muscle, for it is so weak that the slightest muscular force would break it. It is striated, so as to indicate successive depositions; and so placed in the body as to cover the principal viscera. (Cuvier, *Annales du Muséum*, t. i. p. 159. pl. 12.) The dolabella, testacella, and parmacella, have analogous shells, called by Cuvier coquilles caquées. (*Ibid.* t. v.) There is a thin shell contained in the cloak of the pleuro-branchus. (*Ibid.* t. v. p. 270; pl. 18. B. fig. 3.) There is a small and thin calcareous plate in the back of the slug, analogous to the common shells. The fleshy covering of the branchiæ has a larger but thin, horny, transparent and flexible plate in the aplysia. *Ibid.* t. ii. p. 297.

The insulated bony or horny pieces just enumerated, particularly that of the cuttle-fish, strongly confirm the representation which has been already given respecting the growth of shells. They must increase by strata successively deposited; and they may thus be called internal shells.

The aliterias and echinus have a kind of skeleton, the nature of which very much resembles that of the mollusca. In the echinus it is a solid calcareous envelope, frequently very hard. It has a number of little holes, through which pass membranous feet, furnished with tubercles and points analogous to the substance of the shell, which play freely on these tubercles.

In the star-fish, the calcareous part forms a stalk, composed of a number of small articulated vertebrae, which extend under the middle of each of the branches of the body, and to which is attached a kind of osseous grating, which supports the remainder of the envelope of the branch to which it belongs, and which is rendered remarkable, even externally, by its projection, and by the tubercles of different forms that cover the whole of its surface.

Their osseous stalk cannot be regarded as completely external, since it is covered outwardly by an epidermis and other soft parts. This is, perhaps, the most striking exception to the general rule that white-blooded animals have no internal articulated skeleton. The mode of growth of the skeleton of the star-fish has not yet been sufficiently investigated: the skeleton of some holothurizæ is exactly similar.

Corals, other zoophytes, and lithophytes, have hard parts, which are sometimes horny, sometimes calcareous, and sometimes spongy; but which grow by simple juxtaposition, or at least like shells by the addition of successive strata. In some their growth takes place externally, and the sensible substance envelopes the old strata by new ones, with which it again covers itself. Such is the case with the lithophyta and ceratophyta. In others, the parts which have once attained their proper hardness, no longer increase in thickness; but new shoots or branches are formed at their extremities. Such are all the jointed zoophytes.

There are some minute observations on the texture, course of the fibres, &c. of shells, and similar substances, in a paper by Mr. Beudant, entitled "Memoire sur la Structure des Parties solides des Mollusques, Radiaires, et Zoophytes." See *Annales du Muséum*, t. xvi. p. 66.

Chemical Composition of Shells, &c.—For our knowledge of the chemical composition of these substances, we are indebted principally to the excellent papers of Mr. Hatchett in the *Philosophical Transactions* for 1799 and 1800.

Shells, like bones, consist of calcareous salts united to a soft animal matter; but in the former the lime is united chiefly to carbonic acid, whereas in the latter it is united to phosphoric acid. The predominating ingredient in shells is carbonate, in bones, phosphate of lime. This constitutes the characteristic difference in their composition.

Mr. Hatchett divides shells into two classes. The first are usually of a compact texture, resemble porcelain, and have an enamelled surface often finely variegated. The shells belonging to this class have been distinguished by the name of porcellaneous shells; they are exemplified in the *voluta*, *cypræa*, &c. Those of the second class are usually covered with a strong epidermis, below which lies the shell in layers, and composed of the substance known by the name of mother-of-pearl: these he calls mother-of-pearl shells. The fresh-water muscle, the halyotis iris, and the turbo olearius, are examples. In the first class there is a small, in the second a large proportion of animal matter.

Porcellaneous shells contain so little animal matter, that they emit no smoke nor smell, when exposed to a red heat, nor are they blackened; and they dissolve with effervescence in acids, without leaving any residue. They consist, therefore, of carbonate of lime, cemented together by a small portion of animal matter, which is soluble in acids, and therefore resembles gelatine.

Some patella from Madeira, examined by Mr. Hatchett, consisted also of carbonate of lime, but they emitted a smell like horn, when exposed to a red heat, and left a semi-liquid gelatinous matter behind, when dissolved in acids. They contain, therefore, less carbonate of lime, and more animal matter, which is also of a more viscid nature than that of porcellaneous shells.

The mother-of-pearl shells, when exposed to a red heat, crackle, blacken, and emit a strong fetid odour. When immersed in acids, they effervesce at first strongly; but gradually more and more feebly, till at last the emission of air-bubbles is scarcely perceptible. The acids take up only lime, and leave a number of thin membranous substances, which still retain the form of the shell. From Mr. Hatchett's experiments, we learn that these membranes have the properties of coagulated albumen. These shells, then, are composed of alternate layers of coagulated albumen and carbonate of lime, beginning with the epidermis, and ending with the last formed membrane. The animals which inhabit these shells, increase their habitation by the addition of a stratum of carbonate of lime, secured by a new membrane.

Different shells vary considerably in the proportion of their constituents, and in the consistency of the albuminous part. Some, as the common oyster-shell, approach nearly to the patella, the albuminous portion being small, and its consistency nearly gelatinous; while in others, as the halyotis iris, the turbo olearius, the real mother-of-pearl, and a species of fresh-water muscle, the membranes are distinct, thin, compact, and semi-transparent. One hundred parts of mother-of-pearl contain sixty-six of carbonate of lime, and thirty-four of membrane. Merat-Guillot in *Ann. de Chimie*, tom. xxxiv. p. 71.

Pearls, or the concretions formed in these shells, resemble them exactly in structure and composition. The substance consists of concentric and alternate coats of thin membrane and carbonate of lime. Hatchett, in *Phil. Transf.* 1799.

The bone of the cuttle-fish was found by Mr. Hatchett to be exactly similar, in its composition, to mother-of-pearl shells.

Mr. Hatchett compares the porcellaneous shells to enamel of teeth, (see CRANIUM), and mother-of-pearl shells to the bone of teeth, or other bone. (See BONE.) The only difference is, that in enamel and bone the earthy salt is phosphate of lime, whereas in shells it is pure carbonate of lime.

The shells of the echini, and the crusts of the alierias (star-fish), are made of carbonate, with a small quantity of phosphate of lime; and a greater or less proportion, according to their hardness or flexibility, of an animal, gelatinous, or albuminous matter.

Many of the substances which compose the basis, or hard part of zoophytes, have the hardness and appearance of shell or bone: others are soft, and belong rather to the class of membrane or horn. From Mr. Hatchett's admirable dissertation in the *Philosophical Transactions* for 1800, and the experiments of Merat-Guillot in the *Annales de Chimie*, tom. xxxiv., our knowledge of the chemical constitution of these substances is derived.

The hard zoophytes are composed chiefly of three ingredients; 1. An animal substance of the nature of coagulated albumen, varying in consistency, sometimes being gelatinous, and almost liquid, at others of the consistency of cartilage; 2. Carbonate of lime; 3. Phosphate of lime.

In some zoophytes the animal matter is very scanty, and phosphate of lime wanting altogether; in others, the animal matter is abundant, and the earthy salt pure carbonate of lime: in some, there is much animal matter, with a mixture of carbonate and phosphate of lime; and a fourth class is almost entirely destitute of earthy salts. Thus we have four classes; of which the first resembles porcellaneous shells, the second mother-of-pearl shells, the third the crusts of the crustacea and echino-dermata, and the fourth horn.

1. When the madrepora virginea is immersed in diluted nitric acid, it effervesces strongly, and is soon dissolved. A few gelatinous particles float in the solution, which is otherwise colourless and transparent. Ammonia precipitates nothing, but its carbonate throws down abundance of carbonate of lime. It is composed, therefore, of carbonate of lime and a little animal matter. The following zoophytes yield nearly the same results; viz. madrepora muricata and labyrinthica; millepora cærulea and alicornis; and tubipora musica.

2. The madrepora ramea effervesces in weak nitric acid; but when all the soluble part is taken up, there remains a membrane, completely retaining the original shape of the madrepora. The substance taken up is pure lime. Hence it is composed of carbonate of lime, and a membranaceous substance, which, as in mother-of-pearl shells, retains the figure of the madrepora.

VERMES.

The following zoophytes yield nearly the same results; *viz.* madrepora fascicularis; millepora cellulosa, fascialis, and truncata; and isis hippuris.

Merat-Guillot gives the following statement of the composition of three species, which must, according to this account, be referred to the present class.

	White Coral.	Red Coral.	Articulated Coralline.
Carbonate of lime	50	53.5	49
Animal matter	50	46.5	51
	100	100.0	100

3. Immersion in weak nitric acid does not affect the shape of the madrepora polymorpha: there remains a tough, opaque, membranaceous substance of a white colour, filled with a transparent jelly. The acid solution yields a slight precipitate of phosphate of lime, when heated with ammonia, and carbonate of ammonia throws down a copious precipitate of carbonate of lime. It consists, therefore, of animal matter, partly in the state of jelly, partly in that of membrane, hardened by carbonate, together with a little phosphate of lime.

The flustra foliacea, corallina opuntia, and isis ochracea, gave the same results; except that in the two latter, phosphate of lime could only be discovered in the solution of the burnt substance.

The colouring matter of the isis ochracea falls down in a fine red powder in weak nitric or muriatic acid; whereas that of the tubipora musica, and of the gorgonia nobilis, or red coral, is destroyed by these acids.

After the red coral has been immersed in acid, it is seen to consist of two parts, *viz.* an external tubulated membrane of a yellow colour, inclosing a transparent gelatinous substance. The acid solution yields only carbonate of lime; but when the red coral is heated to redness, and then dissolved, the solution yields a little phosphate of lime also. Red coral then consists of an internal stem, composed of gelatinous matter and carbonate of lime; and an external covering or cortex, consisting of membrane hardened by the calcareous salts; and both coloured by some unknown substance.

The gorgonia ceratophyta and flabellum have a similar composition. The cortex of the gorgonia suberosa contained a little phosphate and a large portion of carbonate of lime. The stem contained scarcely any earthy salt. The gorgonia fetosa and pectinata exhibited nearly the same phenomena.

4. Gorgonia antipathes has a horny stem, but is destitute of cortex. It gives out some gelatine to boiling water. When steeped in nitric acid, it becomes soft, and exhibits concentric coats of thin, opaque, brown membranes, of a ligneous aspect. With potash it forms an animal soap, and possesses nearly the properties of horn. The stems of the gorgonia umbraculum and verrucosa are similar; but they both possess a cortex, composed of membrane and carbonate of lime.

Mr. Hatchett analysed many species of sponges; but found them all similar in their composition. They consist of gelatine, which they gradually give out to water, and a thin brittle membranous substance, which possesses the properties of coagulable albumen.

The alcyoniums resemble very much in their composition that of the gorgonia suberosa. They yield a little gelatine to water. They are softened, and appear membranous in nitric acid, which takes up the carbonate of lime, and likewise a little phosphate, at least when the substance has been previously heated to redness.

In the Annales du Muséum d'Histoire Naturelle, we

have an account, by A. Laugier, of the earthy and saline matters contained in the liquor produced by the spontaneous decomposition of the medusæ. This was procured by the melting of a blue medusa taken in the Channel. When left to spontaneous evaporation, a crystalline pellicle formed, and was removed, and so on successively, until no more crystals were formed. "The salt thus obtained," says the author, "was formed of carbonate and phosphate of lime; these salts existing in exactly the same proportions as in all the calcareous concretions, produced by the hardening juices of the mollusca, the polyeps, and the crustacea, which I have examined, such as red coral, white coralline, oyster-shells, crab's-eyes, &c. *viz.* carbonate of lime 92, phosphate of lime 7, animal matter uniting the molecules 1, in 100 parts. See p. 346.

The remaining liquor, being evaporated to dryness, gave a saline residue, of which the component parts, similar to the salts of the sea, were, in 100, muriate of soda 79, muriate of lime 4, muriate of magnesia 3, muriate of iron 2, sulphate of lime 1; water and loss 11. P. 349.

So complete, says Péron, is the spontaneous fusion of the medusæ, that from an individual weighing several kilogrammes, hardly a few milligrammes of membranous residue remain in the filter. Ann. du Mus. t. xv. p. 43.

Organs of Motion.—In the cephalopodous mollusca.

The mollusca, which have the head furnished with long appendages for progressive motion, are called cephalopoda; and have two orders of muscles, one belonging to the body, the other to the feet or tentacula.

The sac which composes the body of these animals, stripped of the external skin, presents a muscular tissue of very compact fibres. Those of the outer layer appear to have a longitudinal direction; the middle layer is transverse; and the succeeding layers have different obliquities. They can flatten, elongate, twist, and bend the sac; but the action of each layer cannot be assigned in a positive manner, on account of their very complicated structure.

In the back of these animals, under the skin, there is found a body more or less solid. In the cuttle-fish it is a species of bone composed of different thin parallel plates one above another, and separated by little columns disposed in the form of quincunces. This bone is oval, thick towards the middle, and thin at the circumference. In other species, its form varies much, but its substance is generally elastic, and transparent like glass. Its surface is sometimes marked with longitudinal furrows.

The sepia octopus wants it entirely.

Two strong muscles arise from the inner surface of the sac, on each side of this bone. They run towards the head, and on their arrival there, divide each into two branches; one branch is inserted into the head, the other mixes its fibres with those of the sac, at the edge of which it ends. The cephalopoda have eight conical feet, of different lengths, arranged in a circle at the top of the head, round the mouth. The animal can turn and bend them in every direction, and fasten itself to bodies by help of the cups or suckers with which they are furnished. The muscles, which perform their motions, are very numerous: they may, however, be distinguished into those that are common to the whole foot, and those that are proper to the suckers.

Below the skin we find a very thin muscle, the fibres of which are united by a loose cellular substance. It accompanies the skin in all its different shapes, and may, perhaps, be regarded as a muscular cutaneous employed to corrugate the skin, and give greater force to the muscle situated within it, upon which it acts like a girdle. Between the feet, and under the skin, which unites them at their base,

two thin muscles are situated, one below the other, the fibres of which are transverse. One arises in the middle longitudinal line of the foot, on the side opposite to the suckers, and proceeds directly to its insertion in the same line of the adjacent foot on either side. The other arises below the suckers themselves, goes over the lateral parts of the foot, and at last forms a muscular membrane with transverse fibres, which passes under the preceding muscle, and proceeds to its insertion in the other foot, exactly in the same manner as it took its origin. This double muscular membrane bears some analogy to that which unites the toes of web-footed birds, such as ducks, geese, &c. It produces a circular plate, which occupies the intervals between each bale of the feet. These two muscles probably serve to bring the feet nearer to each other; the second may besides separate the two rows of suckers. It reaches the whole length of the foot, but becomes thinner towards the extremity.

Below these three layers of muscles (the two transverse and the cutaneous), we find another pretty large one, the conical figure of which determines the shape of the foot. At the surface it seems entirely formed of transverse fibres; but on cutting it in different directions we find that it has longitudinal fibres. These fibres are interwoven like those of the human lingual muscle towards its centre. In the centre of this muscle there is a vacant space, in which we find very large vessels and nerves. The suckers are fastened to the inferior surface of this muscle, and to a layer of fibres still more evidently longitudinal, by little fleshy bands, differing in direction according to the species.

The suckers are formed by a muscular cup of radiated fibres, which, by their contraction, diminish its capacity. But at its edge, and close to the plate under the cylindrical muscle, there is another layer of circular fibres, like a sphincter, which renders the cup more convex. Finally, each sucker is retained and moved upon the foot by little muscular fasciculi interlaced together, and uniting at last in the inferior transverse muscle of the foot. At least, this is the case in the sepia octopus.

In the calmar (sepia loligo), and the cuttle-fish (sepia officinalis), the suckers are attached by very small muscular peduncles.

When an animal of this kind approaches any body with its suckers, in order to apply them more intimately, it presents them in a flat or plane state; and when the suckers are thus fixed, by the adaptation of surfaces, the animal contracts the sphincter, and forms a cavity in the centre, which becomes a vacuum. By this contrivance, the sucker adheres to the surface with a force proportioned to its area, and the weight of the column of air and water of which it forms the base. This force, multiplied by the number of suckers, gives that by which all or a part of the feet adhere to any body. The power of adhesion is such, that it is easier to tear off the feet than to separate them from the substance to which the animal chooses to attach itself.

In the cuttle-fish and the calmar, the mouth of the sucker is surrounded by a cartilaginous indented zone; in the octopus it is only a fleshy disk, flat, and perforated in the middle.

Besides the eight feet just described, which are all that are possessed by the octopus, the cuttle-fish and calmar have two others much longer and smaller, and without suckers, except at the extremity, which is enlarged. Their structure in all other respects the same as that of the other feet.

The organs of locomotion in the gasteropodous mollusca, reside principally in that inferior part of the body on which

they drag themselves forwards, and which is called their foot. It is a fleshy mass, formed of fibres which cross each other in several directions, and are capable of giving it every possible shape. Most commonly it has that of an oval, pointed behind; but, by the various contractions of which these fibres are susceptible, they extend or contract it in the whole or in part, so as to produce that slow progressive motion, which every body has remarked in the common snail or slug. The transverse fibres are easily seen in the foot of the slug, if it be opened by the back. They proceed from the edges of the foot to two longitudinal middle tendinous lines. Below these we meet with others in a contrary direction; but so interwoven, that it is difficult to trace the layers.

In the scyllæ the foot is only a longitudinal furrow, impressed in the whole length of the belly of the animal. By the help of this furrow it embraces the stalks of fucus, upon which it crawls. In other respects, the organization of its foot is nearly the same as that of the slug.

In the limpet (patella), the inferior layer is composed of transverse fibres, which are interlaced at the edge with numerous circular ones. The superior layer consists of two rows of fibres, meeting at an acute angle on a middle line, which corresponds to the long diameter of the foot. There are also some circular fibres at its edge. The inferior layer, by its contractions, lengthens the ellipsis of the foot, while it lessens the breadth; and the inferior diminishes the length, but increases the breadth. This is the mechanism which produces the progression of these animals. Lastly, the circular fibres diminish the surface on all sides, and render it convex above, thereby producing a vacuum, which makes the animal adhere firmly to the surface that supports it. So powerful is this adhesion, that we cannot separate a limpet from the rock by means of the fingers.

Reaumur tied a string round the limpet, called by the French *cil du bouc* (patella Græca), and suspended a weight from it perpendicularly. Thirty pounds were necessary to separate the shell; and this weight was supported by the animal for a short time. Reaumur conceives that the adhesion is not produced on the principle of forming a vacuum, but by a viscous fluid; and states, that when the shell and animal were split vertically, the divided portions still adhered. (Mem. de l'Acad. des Sciences de Paris, 1711, p. 109, et seq.) In this representation we are satisfied that this able observer was mistaken.

The gasteropodous mollusca, which are furnished with shells, possess, besides the muscles just described, others that enable them to retreat into the shell, and protrude their body from it again. These shells, or moveable habitations, vary much in their form. They are generally made of one piece, of different shapes, simple, without twisting, in the limpet; in a flattened spire, as in the planorbis; in a globular and pyramidal spire, as in the shell of the snail, bulimus, dipper-snail, &c. The chiton is the only genus of gasteropoda which has a shell formed of several pieces.

In the limpet the foot is fastened to the circumference of the shell by a ring of fibres attached all round the shell, and which, after piercing the outward covering or cloak, are inserted in the edges of the foot, and interlaced with its circular fibres. They leave a space in front, for the passage of the head. This muscle, by its contractions, brings the foot and the shell closer together, and compresses the body; on relaxing, it allows the shell to be raised up by the elasticity of the body.

In the garden-snail there are two strong muscles, which draw

draw the foot and the whole body within the shell. They arise from the columella or axis of the shell, and, having penetrated the body below its spiral part, they run forward under the stomach, and spread their fibres in several slips, which interlace with those of the muscles proper to the foot, the substance of which they enter. From these attachments, their mode of action may be easily understood. When the animal wishes to protrude itself from the shell, its head and foot are forced out by circular fibres, which surround the body immediately above the foot.

The acephalous mollusca have the body enveloped by a membrane principally muscular, which is called the mantle or cloak. This integument is more or less complete in the different genera. It is generally covered by valves or shells of various forms and proportions. Few of the genera want this solid covering; among those, however, are the *ascidia* and *salpa*.

The valves of the shells are so disposed, that they can move one upon the other, by means of ossious projections, which reciprocally receive each other, thus forming a real hinge. They are, besides, connected by an elastic ligament of a horny substance, which continually tends to open them. "This elastic substance," says Mr. Carlisle, "is wedged in at the hinge: its spring is excited by compression; but it does not possess the property of expansion beyond its passive state. When dried, it cracks into cubes. As the valves increase, this elastic ligament is augmented along the inner surface only, and must have been always deposited during the expanded state of the valves, since the limits of its elastic condition are exactly adapted to that state. As the laminæ of the shells increase, there is a gap at the outside of the hinge, filled with soft crumbling and decomposing worn-out elastic ligament: this gap presents two inclined planes meeting at an acute angle, and that space is kept free from pebbles and hard extraneous bodies by the presence of the decomposing ligament; as such an accident would prove fatal, by preventing the opening of the valves." Monthly Repository for August, 1816.

The hinge of the shells presents so many varieties, that naturalists have drawn from it the characteristics of the genera. The oyster, *placuna*, scallop, *avicula*, &c. have no tooth in their joint. The piddocks and the *mya* or gapers have it in one of the valves only; but it is not received into a fossa. The razor-shells have the hinge strengthened by a tooth in each shell, which projects inward. These two projections meet and move upon each other. The *anomia*, *unio*, *chama*, *spondylus* or thorny oyster, and several others, have one or two teeth on one valve only, which are received into corresponding cavities, in the opposite valve. The *venus*, cockle, and *mastra*, have teeth on each shell, which are mutually received. Lastly, the *arca* has a multitude of little teeth, which are closely indented with each other. These different conformations either facilitate the motion of the hinges, or strengthen the joint; or they permit a greater or less opening of the valves.

The elastic ligament, which tends continually to open the valves, is not always situated at the same point of the shell. The *placuna*, for example, have it at one side of the valves. The *placunæ* have a little ossious appendage, which forms a projection in the inside of each valve; and from this arises the ligament that holds them together. The *perna* has in each valve several little cavities, opposite to each other in pairs, in which an equal number of small ligaments are lodged.

The shells of the *acephala* present several other pe-

culiarities. We find the valves immovable, and folded together at the angle, in the *pinna*. The *teredo* or pipe-worm has the body inclosed in a calcareous tube, and is armed with two little moveable valves, which are used in penetrating wood. The *terebratula* has on the inner part of one of the valves two ossious appendages, which support the body.

The contractile membrane which covers all the body of the *acephalous mollusca*, and is called the mantle, is a real muscle, presenting many varieties. Sometimes, and indeed most commonly, it is open before, in the direction of the valves, as in the oyster, the muscle, &c.; in the shells that have two ends always open, as in the razor-shells, the gapers, the piddock, &c. it is perforated at both extremities. Lastly, the cloak may envelope the whole body of the animal, and be open at one end only, as in the *ascidia*.

The cloak of the oyster is composed of two pieces of the same form as the shell; they are fixed to the body posteriorly, or on the side of the hinge, and extend to the edges of the valves. Their substance is soft, semi-transparent, and furnished with a number of muscular bands: they are perforated by the muscle, which closes the shell. One of the edges is in folds, like a founce, and festooned; the other is furnished with small conical and contractile tentacula. The cloak of other *acephala* differs from this description in its general form; in the tentacula on its edge; in the tubes, which are prolongations of it; and, lastly, in the muscles which perforate it.

The aperture which serves for the expulsion of the feces, and that which receives water and the different aliments, are sometimes prolonged into a kind of tube, which is a continuation of the cloak: this is called a *proboscis* (in French "*trompe*."). The oyster, the muscle, the *unio*, the *anodontites*, have only one of these apertures, which is the anus. The water merely enters by the large slit in the cloak. In the cockle, each aperture is a few lines elongated; that which serves for respiration is longer and larger than the other. They are still more elongated and unequal in the *venus*, *tellina*, *mastra*, and some other genera. The razor-shell has likewise two; but in the piddock, both tubes are inclosed in a very thick fleshy proboscis, through the whole length of which they pass without uniting.

In the *acephala* that have the cloak open before, the tentacula are placed at its edge, and in particular towards the anus; but in those which have tubes, they are situated at the orifice of the proboscis. In the edible muscle (*mytilus edulis*, Linn.), they are branched.

The valves of shells having a continual tendency to open, in consequence of the action of the elastic ligament situated at the side of the hinge, it was necessary that the contained animal should have the power of closing them at pleasure. For this purpose they are furnished with muscles, passing between the valves at right angles. In the oyster there is only one muscle of this kind, situated near the centre of the shell, behind the liver, and in the middle of the cloak. It is equally inserted into both valves, passing in a straight line between them; and bringing them together, by its contraction, with an astonishing force. In the moderate separation of the valves, we observe the operation of the elastic ligament, when the muscle is relaxed; if we touch the animal, the shell is instantly closed; and we can estimate the power with which this is accomplished, by the amount of the force required for the forcible disruption of the valves. The same mechanism is seen in the *perna*, *avicula*, and *spondylus*.

There are two muscles for closing the shell in the *mytilus*,
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 solen,

solen, venus, mastra, cardium, &c. They are always separate from each other towards the extremities of long shells, and generally approximate at the edge on which the hinge is situated, in order that a very small relaxation may produce a large opening on the opposite side.

The common oyster possesses its first pair of valves, consisting of single laminae, before it leaves the parental organs; the muscle passes between the centre of the concavity of each shell, adhering to each, and it acts on the valves nearly at right angles. The animal has no other continuity with the shell. As it grows, it augments the margin of its shells, and thickens them by adding new laminae on the inside; the muscular adhesion glides forward, still keeping to the centre of the valves.

Many of the testaceous mollusca have the power of removing themselves from one place to another, by means of a muscular appendix, which they can protrude or retract at pleasure, with which they fasten themselves to the sand and rocks, and thus drag themselves along. This appendix is called the foot of the animal.

The common oyster, the spondylus or thorny oyster, some species of the scallop, the anomia, and in general all the mollusca that have shells with unequal valves, have no foot, and are, therefore, deprived of the means of voluntary locomotion.

One of the most simple of these feet is that of the freshwater muscle (*mytilus anatinus*, Linn.; *anodontites*, Cuv.) It is situated before the body, towards the margin of the shells. Its form is a compressed oblong. We observe on each side externally a layer of fibres, proceeding from the bottom of the shell. There are also some internal fibres, which cross each other at right angles; and others unite the two external layers, to which they are attached in a circular manner. From this disposition it will easily be understood, that the animal may, when it pleases, change the three dimensions of the foot, or of one of its parts: by this means, it is enabled to place its shell flat on the ground, and to crawl along like the snail by the help of its foot.

The muscle may be observed to open its shell, to put forth the foot, and elongate it, to feel about with it. The animal fixes it to some object, and drags the shell after it. The animal called by the French *lavignon*, also a bivalve, puts forth a broad flat foot, by which it makes its way into the sand or mud. It has two long tubes, which keep up its communication with the surface, for the purpose of respiration. The holes corresponding to them shew where the animal is. See Reaumur, "Du Mouvement progressif, et de quelques autres Mouvements de diverses Espèces de Coquillages, Orties, & Etoiles de Mer," in the Acad. des Sciences, 1710, with several figures, and detailed explanation of the subject, both so far as concerns the animals just mentioned, and some others.

We find this simple foot in the piddock. Its form is almost spherical, and tunicated by a flat surface. The part which Linnaeus has observed in the razor-shells, and which he has compared to a gans in its prepucis, is the foot, by which the animal buries itself in the sand, or rises to the surface. In these two genera, the foot is protruded at the aperture of the shell, which is opposite to that through which the tubes pass. See Reaumur in the Acad. des Sciences, 1712, with figures.

The foot of the cardium or cockle is somewhat complex. It has a triangular appendix, which is capable of inflexion, of seizing with its point the glutinous matter, and drawing it out into threads. But the foot of the sea-muscle (*mytilus edulis*) is the most remarkable in its organization. It resembles a small tongue, marked with a longitudinal furrow,

susceptible of considerable elongation, and of being shortened into the form of a heart. This organ is moved by five muscles on each side. Two arise from the extremities of the shell, near those which close it; the other three come from the bottom of the shell, and the depression for the nates. They are all inserted into the foot, with the fibres of which they are interwoven, in the same manner as the external muscles of the human tongue join the lingual. The organ is completely enveloped in a sheath formed of transverse and circular fibres, of an obscure purple colour. This foot is employed both in spinning and crawling: the last office is performed as in all the other bivalves. It accomplishes the first by seizing with its point the gluten supplied by a gland situated under its base, and drawing it out into threads, in the above-mentioned furrow. The gland that secretes this humour, of which the thread is formed, will be described hereafter.

The organs of motion in worms are not so perfect as in the larvae of insects; having neither scaly nor membranous feet, several of them crawl or drag themselves along by the help of stiff hairs or bristles, with which they are wholly or partly covered: of this description are the genera *aprodita*, *terebella*, *nercis*, *lumbicus*, &c. Two kinds of muscles contribute to their motion.

The one extends the whole length of their body, and forms four principal fasciculi, two of which belong to the belly, and two to the back. These four muscles may be said to constitute the mass of the body. We find them immediately under the skin. Their fibres are parallel; but their length does not exceed that of the rings, being interrupted in the folds of each ring by a very compact cellular tissue. The structure of these muscles is, however, most distinctly observed in the inside. We there find that they are separated from each other by a longitudinal line, and enveloped in a kind of sac of a close cellular substance, which corresponds to each ring of the body. These four muscles produce the principal motions. Where those of the back contract wholly or partially, they raise the portion of the body to which they belong: the same effect, but in the opposite direction, is produced by the contraction of the ventral muscles.

The second order of muscles is appropriated to the motions of the spines or bristles. Their number is equal to that of the tufts of hairs. The description of one of them will be sufficient to give us a knowledge of the whole.

The hairs, bristles, spines, &c. which project from the bodies of these animals, are manifestly moveable. They are retracted, and pushed out at pleasure. The muscles which produce these motions are visible only when the animal is laid open, the intestinal canal taken out, and the skin stripped off. We then observe that each tuft of hair is received in the concavity of a fleshy cone, the base of which is attached to the longitudinal muscles, and the apex to the internal extremity of the hairs. All the fibres which form this cone are longitudinal, but enveloped by a compact cellular substance. They move the hairs outwardly, and in the direction which their contraction may determine. This first class of the muscles, which belong to each branch of hairs, may be called the protractors of the spines.

The spines are withdrawn within the body by another set of muscles, which may be called retractors. They have fewer fibres than the former; their action therefore is feeble. They are situated under the internal surface of the long muscles, at a short distance from the holes with which the latter are perforated for the passage of the hairs. They are inserted into the tufts of spines, nearly on a level with the point, which these reach, when completely retracted. It may

may be conceived that the protractors, when they act, push the retractor outwards; but the latter, when contracting in its turn, tends to recover the parallel situation of its fibres, and thus draws the spines inwards. It is by the help of these muscles, and of the spines on which they act, that the imperfect locomotion of these worms is effected.

There are other worms, destitute both of spines and bristles; and therefore possessing a different muscular organization. Their manner of crawling differs considerably from that of the former. Their progression is accomplished by means of the two extremities of their bodies, which they apply alternately to the surface on which they crawl. They are fitted for this kind of motion by a peculiar structure. We may divide them into two orders.

The first, as the leeches, and several intestinal worms, have the head and the tail terminated by a kind of contractile fleshy disk, somewhat resembling those of the arms of the cuttle-fish. The structure of these two disks, which perform the office of suckers, cannot be easily ascertained; for when the skin which covers them is removed, we observe merely some very small fibres interwoven in different directions.

Though the worms with suckers possess a great power of contraction, it is extremely difficult to trace the muscles that move their bodies. Their whole skin may indeed be regarded as one muscle, or kind of fleshy sac, furnished with circular and longitudinal fibres, and containing the vessels, viscera, and glands. This muscular skin is thick, and lined with a very solid and compact cellular substance.

When the worm wishes to change its place, the body is fixed at one of the extremities, by means of the sucker that terminates it; the circular muscles of the skin then act, which elongates the animal's body by diminishing its diameter: when the free extremity has in this manner reached the place to which the worm chooses it should be extended, it is applied and made fast to that spot by the sucker, and becomes the fixed point of a new motion: the animal having detached the sucker first made use of, draws it by the operation of the longitudinal fibres of the skin towards the second sucker, and proceeds in this manner to fix each extremity alternately. This is the mechanism by which progression is effected in worms that have terminating disks.

The second order of worms, which move by fixing their extremities, includes the greater part of the intestinal kind. These possess less contractile power than the leeches, and their motions are therefore less extensive. Their head, instead of being terminated by a disk, is sometimes provided with hooks, by means of which they fix themselves to the parts they suck. Such are the common *tænia*, the *tænia folium*, the *hydatigena*, the *heruca*, the *echinorhynchus*, the *uncinaria*, &c. &c. The disposition and number of the hooks, which vary considerably, have been described by naturalists.

The Organs of Motion in Zoophytes vary considerably in their nature, form, and action. It is necessary, therefore, in order to obtain a just notion of these organs, to take a particular and successive view of them in certain orders of those animals.

The *echino-dermata* are distinguished by numerous retractile feet, and a covering more or less solid. These feet are a kind of suckers, and have nearly the same organization in the three genera which compose this order. In their form, they resemble a globular phial or ampulla: they are filled with a fluid, and their parietes are formed of circular fibres. The elongated or tubular portion of the ampulla is the only part that appears externally, when the feet are extended. It is terminated by a kind of disk, which is concave in the middle. The spherical portion is situated within

the body. From this construction of the foot, the mechanism of its action will be easily understood. The liquor contained in the ampulla becomes, by a change of place, the cause of motion: when the foot is drawn into the body, the spherical portion of the ampulla is greatly enlarged: when the foot protrudes, the parietes of the ampulla contract, and impel the contained fluid into the tubular part, which consequently increases both in length and circumference. In the retractile motion of the foot, the tunic of the tube is contracted, and the liquor thereby forced back into the body of the ampulla. The number of these feet vary considerably in the different genera and species.

The *holothurizæ* are covered with a thick coriaceous skin, which the animal can lengthen or shorten at pleasure. These two motions are produced by longitudinal muscular bands, varying in length and breadth in different species, and smaller transverse bands extended over the whole internal surface of the body. The animals included in this genus have their feet disposed in different manners, and in some species they are even wanting. In others we find them either spread irregularly over the whole body, situated upon one side only, or placed in longitudinal rows.

In the *asterizæ*, or sea-stars, the covering of the body has a close fibrous texture, the interstices of which are filled with grains of calcareous matter of various forms and dimensions. This kind of crustaceous skin is however susceptible of a certain motion, which, though slow, is very remarkable. The body of the animal is commonly divided into five branches, to which the feet are attached. These last are ranged in several files throughout the whole length of the branches from the mouth. The branches are sometimes furnished with spines, their middle portion is frequently entirely calcareous, but articulated at its origin, and moveable upon the central part of the body.

Reaumur counted 1520 legs in a star-fish; yet their motion is extremely slow. These legs can be extended or withdrawn, or partly thrust out: when withdrawn, their extremity is visible. *Mem. de l'Acad. des Sciences*, 1710, p. 487.

The *echini*, or sea-eggs, are encruled by a complete calcareous shell, the surface of which is covered by tubercles disposed in a very regular manner. Moveable spines of various shapes and sizes are articulated to these tubercles. It is very difficult to discover the fibres by which the spines are moved at the will of the animal; for in their joints we observe only a solid ligamentous substance, which cannot be easily cut. The feet are protruded through holes which perforate the shell with much regularity, and form uniform parallel lines, called by naturalists *ambulacra*. They are very numerous, but produce, as in the *asterias*, only a very slow motion.

The medusæ swim, by displacing the water with alternate motions, rendering their bodies now flat, now convex. Reaumur has a figure of one; *Acad. des Sciences*, 1710, p. 478, pl. 11.

"Although," says Përon, "the medusæ are composed of a homogeneous jelly, without any appearance of fibres, they possess a truly surprising power of contraction. Constantly active on the surface of the waters, we see them alternately contracted and developed. When the animal comes from below towards the surface, he strikes from above downwards, and thus raises himself in consequence of the resistance of the water to this motion of his umbrella. In order to change the direction of his course, he is inclined, so that the umbrella forms a more or less acute angle with the horizon; in this case the direction of the stroke, and consequently the resistance being oblique, he is urged forwards in the

the same direction. When he has reached the surface, the vertical position can have no other effect than that of retaining him in the same posture and place: to change it, he must again incline his body. In this way, all the medusæ with gelatinous and orbicular bodies swim: the umbrella remains parallel to the horizon only in the state of rest, or at least of relative repose. Descending in the water is accomplished very simply: their substance being specifically heavier than that of sea-water, it is only necessary that they should contract themselves powerfully, so as to contract their dimensions in every direction, and they sink of themselves. Sometimes, in order to go down more quickly, they turn themselves over; so that the upper convex part of the umbrella is downwards." *Annales du Muséum*, tom. xv. p. 41.

The coriaceous skin which covers the ætiniæ, possesses so extraordinary a power of contraction, that these animals can assume at pleasure the most dissimilar forms. Sometimes they are flattened into a disk; sometimes elevated into a cone; sometimes lengthened into a cylinder, &c. &c.

"They can walk," says Reaumur, "in two ways; first, by means of their basis, of which they can change the figure, dilating or contracting it in different directions, so as to move forwards the body slowly." Reaumur describes this at great length; *Acad. des Sciences*, 1760, p. 470, et seq. "I have also," says he, "seen them walk upon their tentacula. They were the kind that live in holes of rocks, and possess long tentacula in proportion to their size. In this case the animal is inverted, the basis being upwards. The tentacula are very viscid, and even rough to the touch, so as to be well calculated for the purpose." P. 475. He has represented them in the different forms which they can assume, in fig. 21—26.

In fresh-water polypes (hydra), we observe moveable tentacula about the mouth, which seem principally destined to seize their prey. The animal has the power of locomotion. The smallness and transparency of parts in the other genera do not allow of our discovering the mechanism by which motion is produced.

The two following memoirs of Reaumur, in the *Academy of Sciences*, contain the best account of the motions of these animals, and they are illustrated by several figures. "Du Mouvement progressif, et de quelques autres Mouvements de diverses Espèces de Coquillages, Orties, et Etoiles de Mer," 1710, p. 439; "Observations sur le Mouvement progressif de quelques Coquillages de Mer, sur celui des Herissons de Mer, et sur celui d'une Espèce d'Etoile," 1712, p. 115.

Nervous System.—Animals without vertebrae are not formed on a common plan, either with respect to the nerves or muscles; they present disparities so great, and indeed are so deficient in common characters, that we are obliged, without making any general observations, to consider the nervous system in the different classes and the principal genera.

Brain and Nerves of the Cephalopodous Mollusca.—In the sepia octopus, the cuttle-fish, and the calmar, the nervous system appears to resemble in some respects that of red-blooded animals. The brain is inclosed in a particular cavity of the cartilage of the head, which is pierced by a number of holes to give passage to the nerves. The cartilage of the head has the form of a hollow and irregular ring; its posterior part is the thickest, and contains the brain; its anterior part contains the ears, and a semicircular canal which communicates on each side with the cavity of the brain, and includes the medullary collar. The æsophagus passes through the centre of this cartilaginous ring, and is consequently, as in all white-blooded animals, surrounded by the medullary cord. The lateral parts of the carti-

laginous ring have eminences which form a kind of orbit on each side.

The brain is divided into two distinct parts; one next the æsophagus, the surface of which is smooth, and the other towards the back, which is round, and marked by longitudinal striæ. The medullary collar arises from the lateral parts of both portions: in the octopus it is in the form of a lamina, the anterior part of which produces four large nerves, which, with the four corresponding nerves, proceed forward into the eight feet, which crown the head. These laminae are joined inferiorly, and thus surround the æsophagus. Two other principal pairs of nerves arise on each side, near the origin of the collar. The first or optic pair extends directly into the orbit, passes after a short course through the sclerotic coat, and is there dilated into a ganglion larger than the brain, shaped like a kidney, with the concave side turned towards the brain. The substance of this ganglion appears to be the same as that of the brain: its convexity produces a multitude of small nerves, as fine as hairs, which pass through the chorioides, by an equal number of small holes, to form the retina. The second pair belongs to the muscles of the fac; it originates a little above the preceding pair. These nerves descend obliquely, and after leaving the cerebral cavity, pass between the muscles, which sustain the head, to the lateral part of the fac, near its superior edge, between the body and the branchiæ. It then divides into two branches, one of which descends to the bottom of the fac, the other dilates into a roundish ganglion, which produces a multitude of nerves, disposed like radii. These are distributed to all the fleshy fibres of the fac and the fins.

The anterior and inferior part of the collar gives origin to two pairs of nerves. The first or auditory are very short, as they only traverse a cartilaginous lamina to penetrate the ear, where they are distributed. The second pair issues from the cartilage by two holes placed near each other, and beneath the ears: the two nerves which compose it descend within the peritoneum to the bottom of the fac. When they arrive near the heart, they form a complicated plexus, from which all the nerves of the different viscera proceed.

Each foot has a nerve, which passes from one extremity to another, like an axis, and occupies a canal, which we have described in speaking of the muscles. This nerve is enlarged, at different places, by numerous ganglia, which have the appearance of tubercles, and from each of which ten or twelve nervous filaments proceed: these diverge and penetrate the muscles of the interior of the foot, to which they distribute branchiæ; but the chief ramifications are spent on the suckers.

This description is taken from the octopus: the other cephalopoda differ only in having a brain less distinctly divided, and presenting less conspicuous furrows.

Nervous System of the Gasteropodous Mollusca.

In the Snail (Helix Pomatia).—The brain is situated upon the æsophagus, behind an oval mass of muscles, which envelop the mouth and the pharynx. Its shape is nearly semilunar, with the concavity backwards. The angles of the crescent are prolonged on each side into a branch, by which the æsophagus is encompassed in a collar. The salivary glands, and the muscle which retracts the mouth and brain, pass also through this collar. The two cords produced by the brain unite below the æsophagus and muscle in a large round ganglion; which is more than one-half the size of the brain. All the nerves proceed from one or other of these two masses. Those furnished by the brain proceed from the

lateral parts of its convex side. There are, first, two nerves for the fleshy part of the mouth; next, one on each side for the small horns; then two for each great horn, one of which proceeds to the base of that horn, and passes into its muscular substance; the other goes to the eye. The latter is folded considerably on itself, when the horn is drawn inward. There are besides some other filaments, which extend to the base of the parts of generation, and to the muscles which move the head. The large inferior ganglion produces at first three great nerves, one for the penis, another for the brain, and a third for the muscles, which draw the whole animal into its shell. The inferior surface of this ganglion afterwards produces two great fasciculi, which proceed backward, and which, after passing between the two muscles before mentioned, are distributed to all the fleshy parts of the foot.

Swammerdam's figure of the nerves of the snail appears to have been taken from the slug.

In the Slug (Limax Rufus).—The brain is also situated behind the œsophagus in this animal, but it has the form of a narrow ribbon lying crosswise. It enlarges a little at its lateral parts, each of which produces a filament to encircle the œsophagus. The ganglion, which is formed by the union of these two filaments, is larger than the brain.

Two principal trunks proceed, each on its respective side, in a straight line from this ganglion. They extend along the lower part of the body, throughout its whole length, preserving nearly a parallel direction. On the external side they each detach a number of filaments, which penetrate into the fleshy substance of the skin. A great number of other filaments also proceed immediately from the inferior ganglion to the skin. Further, the inferior ganglion sends off two nerves on each side, which go to the viscera, and follow the distribution of the arteries.

With respect to the brain, properly so called, it furnishes in the first place a nerve on each side for the fleshy parts of the mouth; then two for each of the great horns, one of which extends to the eye, and becomes the optic nerve. The nerves of the small horns arise more outwardly.

In the Aplysia.—This is a small marine animal, very like the slug, but respiring by means of branchiæ, which form a kind of tuft on the back, and are covered by a particular operculum. The brain is situated as in the snail; but the branches, which surround the œsophagus, produce two ganglia, one on each side, which are conjoined by a small filament.

The brain furnishes, at its anterior part, two slender filaments, which encircle the fleshy parts of the mouth, and unite under it in a small ganglion, whence the nerves of the lips are detached. The brain afterwards affords nerves to the horns and the eyes, which are in this animal situated between the horns, and to the parts of generation. The two lateral ganglia transmit a multitude of nerves to all the fleshy parts of the foot and skin; they also produce each a long cord, which unites to its corresponding cord on the aorta, near the part where it arises from the heart; there they form a ganglion, from which all the nerves of the viscera proceed.

In the Clit Borealis.—This small animal has no foot, and can only swim. It respire by two branchiæ, in the form of wings, situated on the neck; but in other respects it very much resembles the slug. Its nervous system is analogous to that of the aplysia.

Its brain is formed of two roundish lobes: it furnishes immediately nerves to the tentacula, and gives origin to a double collar. The anterior extends, as in the aplysia, under the mouth, to form a small ganglion. The posterior

has a ganglion on each side, which furnishes nerves to the muscular skin that surrounds the body; each of these produces one or two other ganglia, which send nerves to the viscera.

In the Doris.—This is also a small marine animal similar to the slug, but it respire by external branchiæ disposed like flaps round the anus. The brain is very large in proportion to the rest of the body, and particularly in comparison with that of other gasteropoda. It is elongated transversely, and of a square form. It is situated immediately above the origin of the œsophagus, behind the orbicular mass of muscles, which form the parietes of the mouth.

Six nerves proceed from the brain on each side; one pair is destined for the muscles of the mouth, another for the tentacula. The third is a cord, which passes below the œsophagus, and is lost in the muscles of the foot, where it may be very distinctly observed on the lateral parts of the internal surface. The fourth and the fifth are directed above the mass of intestines, and proceed to the skin of the back. Lastly, the sixth terminates in the parts of generation.

In the Scyllæa.—This is another marine animal similar to the slug, but respiring by branchiæ in the form of wings arranged by pairs on the back; it crawls on a furrow in its belly. The collar surrounding the œsophagus is a simple cord, and does not enlarge into a ganglion as it proceeds downward. The brain, which is above it, is of an oval form; it sends nerves to the mouth and to the horns, but there are no optic nerves, as this animal has no eyes. The nerves of the viscera arise from the inferior part of the collar, and those of the muscles from its sides.

In the Sea-Ear (Halyotis Tuberculata).—This animal has no ganglion above the œsophagus to supply the place of the brain. We find merely a nervous filament, situated transversely above the œsophagus, behind the mouth. Four small ramifications proceed from the middle and anterior part of this filament, two on each side, and are lost in the parietes of the mouth. At each extremity of the transverse nervous filament there is a very large flat ganglion, from the circumference of which a number of nerves are detached to the adjacent parts. Three filaments pass off on each side from the external surface of this ganglion: one is sent to the setiform tentaculum, situated above the mouth, the other two proceed to the flat tentaculum, like a buckler, placed more posteriorly and on the sides. The most posterior appears to be intended for the eye: it is the thickest, the other seems lost in the muscular parts.

A very remarkable filament is detached from the superior parts: it proceeds above the œsophagus, and joins the corresponding one on the other side. There is a small enlargement at the point of union, from which four nerves proceed, two on each side of the middle line. The most external is lost in the muscles of the tongue; the other pursues the middle line of the œsophagus, and is ramified over the intestines. Several small branches are detached inferiorly, and terminate in the fan-like muscles that sustain the tongue.

Lastly, the ganglion is prolonged posteriorly into a thick nervous cord, situated on the sides and below the œsophagus, which becomes flat, as it proceeds backward: it describes a semilunar curve, so that the two nerves of the opposite sides are approximated, and finally touch each other at the basis of the tongue, and below the anterior part of the large muscle which attaches the animal to its shell. The union of these two nerves produces a ganglion, from which two very remarkable trunks, intended for the intestines, proceed; they can be followed to above the stomach, and we can perceive that some of their ramifications enter the liver. After the

the formation of the ganglion, which furnishes nerves to the viscera, the two trunks penetrate by two different holes into the substance of the muscle of the foot. These two holes are the origin of two canals, which run throughout the whole length of the foot, on the sides of another middle canal, which appears destined to distribute the blood of the animal. The two nerves, lodged in the lateral canal, are distributed by a great number of lateral holes into the substance of the fleshy muscles of the foot, and of the shell, where they may be followed with facility.

In the *Helix Stagnalis* and *Helix Cornica* (*Planorbis Cornica*), the brain consists of two lateral masses, separated by a contraction. In the living animal they are of a lively red colour. The distribution of the nerves differs very little from what we observe in the common snail.

Nervous System of the Acephalous Mollusca.—It is formed on a plan far more uniform than that of the gasteropoda. In all the testaceous accephala, from the oyster to the pholas, and the terebro, there appears no essential difference: it consists always of two ganglia, one on the mouth representing the brain, and another towards the opposite part. These two ganglia are united by two long nervous cords, which take the place of the usual collar, but which occupy a much greater space at the foot where it exists, and the stomach and liver always pass in the interval between them. All the nerves arise from the two ganglia.

In the *Anodontites*, or *Fresh-water Muscles*, in *Cockles*, in the *Venus*, *Madra*, and *Mya*.—In these, and generally in all the bivalves which have two cylindrical muscles, one at each extremity of their valves, for the purpose of bringing them together; the mouth is placed near one of those muscles, and the anus near the other. The foot appears about the middle of the shell; and the tubes for the excrements and respiration, when they exist, go out at the end of the shell opposite to that in which the mouth is situated. The brain is placed at the anterior edge of the mouth; it is oblong transversely; it sends off two cords anteriorly, which go to the adjacent muscles, and turning towards each side, penetrate the lobes of the cloak, passing through the whole extent of their edge. The brain furnishes also, on each side, some filaments to the membranous tentacula, which surround the mouth, and detaches, from its posterior edge, the two cords analogous to the medullary collar in other invertebral animals. These cords proceed, each on its side, under the muscular stratum which envelopes the liver and the other viscera, and which becomes thicker as it is continued to form the foot, which is frequently constructed for spinning. When arrived at the posterior muscle which closes the valves, these cords approach each other, and enlarge as they unite to form the second ganglion. This ganglion has the form of two lobes. It is at least as large as the brain ganglion, and always much more easily distinguished. It detaches two principal nerves on each side, and the four together represent a kind of cross. The two anterior nerves, as they ascend, proceed a little towards the side of the mouth, and after having described an arc, penetrate into the branchiæ. The other two pass on the posterior muscle, precisely in the same manner as those of the brain on the anterior. After detaching some filaments they proceed into the cloak, the edge of which they follow until they join those of the brain; they thus form a continued circle. We do not yet know the origin of the visceral nerves in these animals.

The testaceous accephala, in which the foot is protruded by an extremity of the shell, that always remains open, and the tubes by the opposite extremities, that is to say, in razor-fish and piddocks, the mouth, and consequently the

brain, is always near one extremity. The nerves which proceed from the brain, take therefore a longer course before they diverge to join the cloak. The cords of the collar, however, have a much shorter distance to pass before they unite. There is a considerable space, particularly in the razor-fish, between the mass of the viscera situated in the base of the foot, and the posterior muscle. The second ganglion is situated in the middle of this space, between the branchiæ of each side: it is round, and much more distinct than in the other species; the nerves it produces are however exactly similar.

In the oyster, which has no mouth at the anterior part, the brain and mouth are situated under the kind of hood which the cloak forms towards the hinge. The nerves go directly into the cloak itself. The ganglion is situated on the anterior surface of the single muscle, immediately behind the mass of viscera. The nerves it produces are the same as in the preceding genera.

In the Ascidia.—These small marine animals are enveloped in an immovable coriaceous or gelatinous case, which has two apertures; one for the expulsion of the excrement, the other for the admission of water to the branchiæ. The branchiæ are in the form of a large sac, and are inclosed, as well as the other viscera, in another membranous bag, of the same form as the external case, but smaller, and completely adhering to that case at the two apertures only. The inferior ganglion is situated on this membranous sac; its position is between the two apertures, but nearest that which corresponds to the anus; it produces four principal nerves: two ascend towards the superior or respiring aperture, the other two descend towards that of the excrements. There are smaller nerves dispersed through all the membranous sac. We have not yet discovered those produced by the brain, nor the brain itself, which is doubtless situated as usual on the mouth. The mouth is in the bottom of the branchial sac.

In the Tritons of Linneus, which inhabit the anatiferos and balanite Shells. (*Lepas*, Linn.)—These animals approach perhaps nearer to the crustacea, and particularly to the monoculi, than to the mollusca. Their nervous system is a sort of middle kind between that of the mollusca, and that of the crustacea and insects.

The brain is placed across the mouth, which is itself situated in the part of the body corresponding to the ligament, and at the bottom of the shell. It produces four nerves to the muscles situated in that place, and to the stomach, and two others which embrace the œsophagus, and proceed into that elongated portion of the body which bears the numerous articulated and ciliated horny tentacula which the animal protrudes from its shell. These two filaments approach, and form a ganglion, and then proceed close to each other among these tentacula, furnishing a corresponding pair of nerves for each pair of tentacula; but there are no apparent ganglia at the origin of these nerves.

The general result from the preceding statements is, that the nervous system of the mollusca consists in a brain placed on the œsophagus, and in a variable number of ganglia, sometimes approximated to the brain, and sometimes dispersed in the different cavities, or placed under the muscular envelopes of the body: that the ganglia are always connected to the brain and to each other by nervous cords, which establish a general communication between these different medullary masses: that the nerves all arise either from the brain or the ganglia: and lastly, that there is no part which can be compared to the medulla oblongata and medulla spinalis.

Nervous System of Worms.—Some genera present a very distinct

distinct nervous system, organized nearly like that of the crustacea and insects. In others, however, that system becomes so obscure, that we can scarcely recognize its existence. Thus the class of worms, which in several of its genera ranks above insects, with respect to the organs of circulation, is reduced almost to a level with the zoophytes, when considered with regard to the organs of sensation.

The *Apodite aculeata* has a very distinct nervous system. Immediately behind the tentacula, situated above the mouth, we observe a large nervous ganglion, which is the brain; it has the form of a heart, the broadest and bilobed part of which is directed backwards. The pointed anterior portion produces two small filaments for the tentacula, and the lateral parts some other filaments, which are still more slender, for the parietes of the mouth. This ganglion is situated immediately above the origin of the œsophagus. The two cords which arise from the brain, and from the collar, are very long and delicate; they gradually increase in thickness as they approach the point of their union. Each then produces a large filament, which we shall call the recurrent nerve; these nerves are very distinct: they are directed forward towards the part where the œsophagus, which is very short, joins the stomach. They may be easily followed by the naked eye to the lateral parts of that viscous, which is very long and mucular; before they reach the intestines that follow the stomach, they swell into a ganglion, which produces a great number of nervous fibrils.

The two curves of the collar produce a very large ganglion at their union; it is bifurcated anteriorly, and situated immediately behind the mouth, and above the œsophagus; it is the anterior extremity of the chief nervous cord. We do not observe any filaments proceeding from it. To this first ganglion another succeeds, which is distinguished from it only by a small contraction; the latter produces two nervous filaments, which go forwards into the muscles of the abdomen. A series of ganglia, the spaces between which are considerably greater, afterwards succeed; each of these sends off six nerves, three on a side, which are lost in the muscles. These ganglia are twelve in number. The nervous cord, which succeeds, and which occupies the posterior third of the body, no longer exhibits any apparent enlargement; but pairs of nerves are still detached at certain spaces. Finally, this cord may be followed to the extremity of the body.

In the *Leech*, the nervous system is a longitudinal cord, composed of twenty-three ganglia. The first is situated above the œsophagus; it is small and rounded; anteriorly it produces two slender filaments, which proceed above the disk of the mouth. The lateral parts furnish a thick pair of nerves, that form a collar round the œsophagus, as they proceed downward, and unite at the second ganglion. This ganglion is of a triangular figure, and appears to be formed by the union of two tubercles. Two of these angles are anterior and lateral; they receive the nerves that proceed from the first ganglion. The other is posterior; it is prolonged into a nerve rather more than half a line long, which produces the third ganglion: the anterior part of the triangular ganglion which we describe, detaches two small nerves that are lost on the œsophagus, around the mouth. The nine succeeding ganglia are precisely of the same form, and produce each two pair of nerves; they differ only in the greater or less distance at which they are placed from each other. The third, as we have observed, is very near the second. The three following are at the distance of nearly a line and a half: but those which succeed, from the seventh to the twentieth, are at the distance of three or four lines: finally, the three last are very close together.

All these ganglia are situated longitudinally below the intestinal canal, to which they furnish, from their superior surface, a number of nervous filaments; they produce on each side two nerves, which pass into the longitudinal and transverse muscles, in the substance of which they are lost. These nerves run in opposite directions, so that they represent the figure of an X. The coat of these nerves is black, and very solid, so that before the parts have been immersed in alcohol, they appear like a system of vessels.

The nervous cord of the *Earth-worm* derives its origin from a ganglion situated above the œsophagus: this ganglion is formed of two clove, but very distinct tubercles. It produces a pair of small nerves proceeding to the parietes of the mouth, and two large cords, which embrace the œsophagus in the form of a collar: these unite to form the nervous cord, the origin of which therefore appears bifurcated. Three pair of small nerves are detached at this place: one from the cord itself, and the others from its lateral parts. They all proceed into the muscles of the mouth. The nervous trunk is continued to the anus, along the inferior part of the intestine; its size is not sensibly diminished, and the contractions are not very remarkable: there are, therefore, no real ganglia. A pair of nerves arises between each of the rings of the body; these nerves pass under the longitudinal muscles, and disappear between them and the skin. When the nervous cord reaches the anus, it terminates by forming a plexus, which is lost on the parietes of that aperture.

In the *Gordius argillaceus*, there is only a single nervous cord, similar to that of the earth-worm, but its contractions are still less apparent.

The *Nereis* and *Terebella* have, within the skin of the belly, a longitudinal cord, which may be regarded as nervous: it has as many contractions as there are rings in the body. No nervous filament has been observed proceeding from this cord.

In the *Sea-worm* (*Lumbricus Marinus*, Linn.), which in its external characters approaches nearer to the nereis than to the lumbricus, the nervous system is the same as in the nereis, but the cord gradually increases in thickness towards the middle of the body, where it is much more distinct.

In the *Ascaris Lumbricoides* of Man and the Horse. — This animal appears to have two nervous cords; they are observable throughout the whole length of the body, on the lateral parts of the abdomen. They unite above the œsophagus, exactly at its origin on the mouth; they are very slender, and produce no remarkable ganglion: they are smaller at their origin than towards their extremity, that is to say, towards the anus; but they are equal, and precisely similar to each other with respect to their different parts. We observe at first some small granular points, which enlarge in proportion as the nerve descends. When it has reached the middle of the body longitudinally, it forms square ganglia, at a short distance from each other. Lastly, towards the termination, for the length of nearly six lines, the nerve becomes more and more slender, and ends in a very small filament, which unites with that of the other side.

Thus we find an evident analogy in the organization of the nervous system of crustacea, insects, and worms, no less striking than that which prevails in the external forms, in the disposition of the muscles, and the singular division, into a series of rings or segments, which we observe in these animals. This analogy prevents us from establishing between these three classes limits equally distinct with those which subsist between them and the mollusca. The uniform distribution

distribution of nearly equal ganglia upon a cord, extending throughout the whole length of the body, seems designed to furnish each segment with a brain peculiar to itself. Thus we are gradually conducted to that general diffusion of the medullary substance, which seems to take place in zoophytes.

Animals in which no distinct Nervous System has been yet discovered.—We do not, says Cuvier, include in this division the animals of the class of worms, or the mollusca, in which the minuteness or softness of the parts have not yet permitted us to trace the nervous system. Analogy will not allow us to doubt its existence, when the parts which accompany it uniformly exist.

Thus the flukes (*fasciola*) having vessels, or liver, &c. must be supposed to have nerves also, though we have hitherto been unable to demonstrate them. We even doubt not the existence of a nervous system in several intestinal worms, particularly those which have a cylindrical form, which we suppose to have a medulla nearly similar to that described in the large ascariæ. It is found in the gordius; why should it not exist in the echinorhynchus, strongylus, &c. &c.?

But there are animals, in which analogy affords us no assistance, to whom we cannot ascribe a nervous system, unless we distinctly observe it: there are some intestinal worms, very different in form from those we have mentioned, and the greater part of zoophytes.

The alerias has parts very similar to nerves; but Galvanic experiments ought to be made on living individuals, to prove completely their nature. Round the œsophagus we observe a girth of a soft whitish substance, which produces ten filaments, two to each of the branches, which form the body of the star. The two filaments belonging to each branch having arrived at the base of the offshoot and articulated stalk, which serves for the principal support of the animal, unite to form a short cord, which extends directly from one to the other: they afterwards both continue along the stalk to the extremity of the branch, diminishing always in thickness. At the place where they are united, each produces a fasciculus of filaments, which are distributed to the stomach, which, in these animals, is situated in the midst of the body, between the five branches. The appearance of all these filaments is rather tendinous than nervous, and that circumstance chiefly has hitherto prevented us from forming a decided opinion of their nature.

In the *Holothuria*, properly so called, among which we do not include either the thalia, or the holothuria physifer of Linnaeus, we find something similar to what we have described in the alerias; but the appearance of the cord is much more nervous, and this is a strong confirmation of our conjectures.

The parts we allude to are seen most distinctly in the species of holothuria which have five longitudinal pairs of muscles, as the priapus and pentacta. Between the two muscles, which compose each pair, there is extended a white cord, slightly serpentine, and marked by transverse rings, like common nerves. The five cords enlarge as they proceed towards the œsophagus, where they seem to unite and surround the canal.

The *Sipunculus* is more similar to the holothuria than to any other animal, though naturalists have hitherto placed them next the lumbricus. They have only a single whitish cord, but it completely resembles those of the holothuria, and it proceeds, in the same manner, to embrace the œsophagus by its anterior extremity.

If the parts now mentioned are real nerves, it will be

necessary to separate the echino-dermata from the other zoophytes, and establish them as a distinct class.

In the *Sea Urchins* (*Echini*), nothing similar to nerves has been observed: the same remark may be extended to the actiniae and medusæ.

With respect to the polypes, both the fresh-water kind and those which belong to the corals, &c. we have already observed that their bodies exhibit only a gelatinous and homogeneous pulp, in which no particular arrangement of organs can be discerned. All these animals have however distinct sensations: their sense of touch is very delicate; they not only perceive the motions which agitate the water in which they live, but they completely feel the degrees of heat and light. The expansion of the actiniae corresponds precisely to the serenity of the atmosphere. The hydra perceives very distinctly the presence of light; prefers it, and constantly turns towards it. The microscopic animals appear to approach in some measure the nature of polypi, by their uniform and gelatinous structure. There are some, however, in which we observe a more complicated organization, and several kinds of internal viscera; but it will be obvious, that we have no means of ascertaining whether they possess a nervous system.

Organs of Sense.—The eye.

The cephalopodous mollusca have two eyes situated at the sides of the head, under the tentaculated arms. Most of the gasteropoda have also two eyes, but very small, and placed either on a level with the head, or on some of the fleshy and moveable tentacula. In some they are situated at the base of these tentacula; in others at the middle, or the point. In all this order, only the clio, scyllæ, and lerneæ, want eyes.

No eyes are found in the acephalous mollusca.

Among the articulated worms there are sometimes found small tubercles, which have been regarded as simple eyes, in consequence of their resemblance to those of insects. Some leeches have two, four, six, or eight: in some of the nereids we find two or four: in some naiades only two, &c. No parts that can be compared to eyes have hitherto been observed in any zoophyte.

The cephalopodous mollusca, particularly the calmar, have very large eyes; on the contrary, in such of the gasteropoda as possess eyes, they are scarcely visible.

The eye of the cuttle-fish has no cornea, nor aqueous humour: the anterior aperture of the sclerotic is not filled up, and the crystalline projects across it. Under the conjunctiva, however, a particular membrane is observed, dry, fine, and transparent, enveloping the sclerotic itself, and supplying, by its anterior part, the place of the cornea. This conjunctiva is easily separable from the eye, as in serpents. The crystalline is spherical, as in animals which see in water; and hard in consistence. The structure of the sclerotic is singular, being much removed posteriorly from the globe of the eye. The large ganglion of the optic nerve, and several other glandular parts, are situated between them. The sclerotic, therefore, forms posteriorly a truncated cone, the pointed part of which is directed to the bottom of the orbit: to this portion the muscles are attached. The anterior part nearly shuts the globe of the eye. It is very soft and viscous; easily separated, and presents a coarse felt-like texture, which becomes firmer in spirits of wine. In some species it has a metallic brilliancy. As there is no cornea, the sclerotic is wanting opposite to the crystalline; but the hole is not sufficiently large to admit a view of the iris without dissection.

The internal surface of the choroid is of a purple-red colour. The use of the ciliary processes, in retaining the crystalline,

crystalline, is no where so distinctly seen as in the eye of the cuttle-fish. They form a large zone or diaphragm, in the aperture of which the crystalline is truly encased. A deep circular furrow passes completely round the crystalline, and divides it into two unequal hemispheres. The ciliary processes penetrate into this furrow, where they are so firmly fixed, that they cannot be removed without being torn. The process is not formed of projecting laminae, but of a continued membrane, the two surfaces of which are marked by a circle, consisting of a vast number of fine radiated striæ, which present a very agreeable spectacle.

The sepia have glandular bodies between the sclerotica and the choroid; but none between the latter and the tunica Ruyfchiana. The separation of these two membranes is even sometimes difficult; the choroides is more thick, soft, and vascular, the Ruyfchiana thin and dry. There is no tapetum, all the eye being lined internally by a deep purple pigment. The pupil is shaped like a kidney.

After the numerous optic filaments have perforated the choroid, they are confounded in a single membrane, the retina.

The crystalline divides easily into two hemispheres, the limits of which are marked externally by a deep furrow: each hemisphere consists of a number of concentric cups, composed of radiated fibres.

As the conical sclerotic of the sepia is attached to the bottom of the orbit, the glandular bodies, which serve to support the globe, are situated, not between it and the orbit, but between it and the choroid. The part fixed to the edge of the optic hole is pointed; it preserves therefore some degree of mobility. There are only two small muscles, one superior and an anterior, the head being suppled upwards.

The sepia and other mollusca, which have not the eyes at the extremity of their tentacula, have no eye-lid; the skin covers the eye, as in serpents and eels. But the slugs, snails, &c. have an organization, which is far more complicated, and much better calculated for the protection of their eye. This organ is situated at the extremity of a fleshy tube, called a horn or tentaculum, which may be drawn completely within the head, and protruded by a motion similar to the evolution of the finger of a glove. We have already described the muscles that draw the snail into its shell. The particular muscle of the eye is attached at the external edge of each of these muscles: this muscle penetrates to the inside of the horn, to the extremity of which it is fixed. When it contracts, therefore, but still more when assisted by the contraction of the great muscle of the body, it draws the extremity of the horn inwardly, in a manner which resembles the turning in of a stocking. The annular fibres, which encircle the horn throughout the whole of its length, unfold the internal part by successive contractions, and thus bring back the eye to its external position. In the slug, the retractors of the eyes are simply attached to the fleshy mass which forms the foot. In the inferior horns or tentacula, which have no eyes, the mechanism is also the same.

The gasteropodous mollusca are the only order, among the animals we are now considering, that possess an organ of hearing. No animals placed below these in the scale of being are known to possess such an organ, although there are proofs of the faculty in many. The ear of the sepia is very simple; it is entirely concealed in the body of the annular cartilage, which serves as the base of the great tentacula, or feet of these animals. Towards the back of the head there is an eminence of the cartilaginous ring, unperforated, and covered by the thick integument of the animal. The membrane of the labyrinth contained in this part is a simple purple of an oval or roundish form, containing a clear fluid.

In the common cuttle-fish (*sepia officinalis*), it has internally several conical eminences, disposed in an irregular manner: these eminences are wanting in the other species. In the pulp which fills the membrane there is a small body suspended, which is osseous in the cuttle-fish properly so called, and like starch in the octopus. In the *sepia officinalis* it resembles a small shell. See Scarpa de Auditu et Olfactu.

Organ of Touch.—We do not easily distinguish all the parts which compose the integuments of vertebral animals, in those that have no vertebrae: some of the frata are more distinct, others less so: there are also some species in which we do not find the whole of them. Of the animals we are now considering, different orders dwell in different situations, and are exposed to very different external circumstances: there are corresponding variations in their outward coverings. Some live in the intestines of other animals, the mucous fluids of which sufficiently protect them; others are enclosed in calcareous or stony habitations, necessary to ensure them from the agitations of the waves, and from the surrounding hard bodies. Others have a hard integument, covered sometimes with spines.

There is an epidermis in invertebral animals: those which live in water have it commonly mucous; it is of a very different thickness in the several species. It is nearly the same in the cephalopoda as in fishes. In the naked gasteropoda it very much resembles that of salamanders and frogs.

There is an epidermis on the shells of most testacea. In the land kind, as the snails, it is a dry pellicle, very easily detached, when the shell is, after the death of the animal, exposed to the action of the atmosphere, or plunged into boiling water. In the muscles, both of fresh and salt water, and in other bivalves, we observe a similar epidermis, which envelopes the shell externally. This epidermis is always wanting on the surface of the projecting parts, on which the animal draws its shell along the sand, because it is there worn off. In some species of shells, the epidermis is thick and viscous, and on this account it has been named sea-cloth. This is very remarkable in several species of the genus *arca* of Linnæus; and to express this peculiarity, he has called one of them pilosa.

In all the testacea, the epidermis which envelopes the shell is continued to produce the pellicle, which covers the animal, and it produces the same change as that which is prolonged within the body of vertebral animals. It is thin and mucous on all the parts which are not exposed to the action of the ambient fluid. In the species of gasteropoda, however, whose shell is concealed under the skin, and does not serve for defence, the epidermis does not change its nature. We have examples of this in some species of *aplysia* and *scyella*, as well as in the animal which produces the shell, called by Linnæus *helix halyotoidea* (figaret of Lamarck).

Worms have a distinct cuticle, which is easily separated from the skin in the earth-worm, when it has been immerged for a few hours in spirits of wine, or macerated some days in water: it is a pretty solid pellicle, which may be removed in a single piece. In the *spunculus facatus* this epidermis is even entirely separated from the body, which is unconnected and floating within it, as if it were inclosed in a sac. Leeches and some other worms have the cuticle mucous, like that of the gasteropodous mollusca.

It is very difficult to ascertain the nature of the epidermis in zoophytes, or even to discover whether it exists in some of them. The sea-stars (*asterias*), the urchins (*echinus*), and the actiniae, appear to possess it. The medusæ are covered with a pellicle, but so thin and transparent that it cannot be supposed to consist of strata. The other zoophytes,

VERMES.

phytes, as the polypes, &c. have a mucous surface, the softness of which prevents us from distinguishing any membrane.

Most mollusca have a rete mucosum below the epidermis. In the cephalopoda it is most commonly of a blue or red colour; but it forms a very thin layer. That of the gastropoda varies considerably, as we may observe particularly in the slug. It is thick and viscous; but dissolves completely in water. In situation, the shell is analogous to rete mucosum. It is found immediately under the epidermis, and, when some of the calcareous part is removed, it is a kind of crust without any apparent organization, and not a membrane. It is produced by successive strata. Finally, it is coloured, and its shades are infinitely various.

The rete mucosum is to be found in a small number only of zoophytes: and it cannot even be separated from the skin, as in the actinæ and actiniae.

It appears to be confounded with the calcareous shell, which forms the habitation of several other genera. This may be observed in some species of echini and corallines; and in the ceratophytes, and a number of lithophytes.

Nothing at all approaching to the appearance of nervous papillæ can be seen in white-blooded animals. In the cephalopodous mollusca some nervous filaments may be seen in the small globules, which seem glandular, and which cover the skin. In other mollusca, some nervous filaments may be traced into the substance of the skin; but they cannot be seen to form papillæ.

No real cutis is to be observed in the invertebral animals, excepting the cuttle-fish and the other cephalopoda. It is applied almost immediately to the muscles, by means of a very dense cellular substance: it is of a very coriaceous nature, and not easily lacerated. Its fibres are very slender.

In the other invertebral animals, there is no part which can be compared to the cutis. There is, indeed, a pellicle under the shell of the crustacea, but it is fine, transparent, and has very little consistence. The skin cast off by the larvæ of insects in moulting, is of the same nature and thickness as that below it, and which is destined to succeed it. Even the envelop of certain chrysalides, as those of the lepidoptera and diptera, cannot be regarded as cutis: it is rather a kind of horny epidermis. In the perfect state, there is no part of the teguments of insects that can be compared to the cutis. The same observation applies to the worms and zoophytes.

In the invertebral animals, that have soft bodies, almost all the muscles may be considered as cutaneous; for the greater number are attached to the skin. But as they are also employed in progression, they are described among the organs of motion.

Besides the skin in general, which is an universal organ of touch in man, and the red-blooded classes, there are particular organs possessing a much more acute power of discerning the tangible properties of bodies, and at the same time so constructed as to admit of easier application to their surface. The fingers exemplify this. It may be doubted whether the invertebral classes have any parts calculated to perform such an office; and we rather think that they have not. Some, however, regard the tentacula as organs of touch, and consider them analogous to the antennæ of insects, or to the fingers of man and the quadrumanæ.

We have already described the tentacula of the cephalopodous mollusca, under the head of *Organs of Motion*. They obviously serve for seizing their prey; but whether they enjoy any sense of touch is extremely doubtful.

The horns of the snail have been described in the account of the eye. Those of the other genera among the gastropoda

do not differ, except that they are incapable of that motion by which the former are retracted and protruded like the finger of a glove. They have muscular fibres, which may be contracted or relaxed.

Tentacula are found in many invertebral animals; but they are not so universal as the antennæ among insects. They are situated on the head; often at the opening of the mouth, as in the doris; above it, as in the slug; or round it, as in the terebella. Several species have similar appendices round the cloak. Such are the limpets, the genus *haliotis*, &c. Among the acephala, the greater part are provided with these appendices, and some have them in great numbers. In the species which have the cloak completely open they are placed around it, and particularly towards the anus: this may be observed in oysters, muscles, &c. In those in which the cloak opens by a tube only, the appendices are attached to the circumference of its orifice. Such are the genera *venus*, *cardium*, &c. The tube itself furnishes these animals with an excellent instrument of touch. The fleshy and ciliated arms of the genera *lingula* and *terebratula* are equally proper for this employment; but those of the *anatifæ* are very inferior, in consequence of their horny substance.

Cirri are found in several species of worms; and they sometimes appear to be formed of different articulations, like the antennæ of insects. Nerves proceed into those of the aphrodita and nereis. There are none in the lumbricus and leech; but their place is supplied in the latter by the two disks which terminate their bodies. Their number varies: generally there are two, the slug has four, the cuttle-fish eight, the pennatula forty to sixty or more. Many varieties of form are also observed, and described by writers in natural history. The tentacula of the polypes are said to be hollow, and to communicate with the stomach. Fine hairs are observed in them, by means of the microscope; they also possess numerous knots, which probably are of service in fixing them on animals which they seize for prey.

Throughout the invertebral classes, we find these instruments chiefly used for seizing the creatures on which the animal lives. The tubularia, hydra, brachyurus, vorticella, &c. throw the water into motion by means of their arms. When any thing on which they can prey comes near, they instantly seize and convey it to the mouth. Trembley observed, that the tubularia fultana (polypes à bouquet) gave a rotatory motion to the water, and thus conducted the prey to their arms. Olivi observed, that the actinæ and polypes (hydra) perceived their prey at a distance, put the water in motion, and thus brought it within the sphere of their arms.

Speaking of these organs, Cuvier says, "the anus, the tufts and the flowers of several zoophytes (polypi, Lamarck); the innumerable tentacula of the sea-stars, urchins and actinæ, and the complicated branches of the medusæ, are excellent organs of touch."

Of the insensible parts, covering the skin, very little remains to be said; we have already described the formation of the shell, and have made some further remarks on it in speaking of the skin.

Many of the vermes clafs have the body furnished with bunches of hairs, which are sometimes stiff and retractile, and serve for feet, as we have pointed out in the genera nereis, terebella, lumbricus, &c. In the aphrodita, there are, besides these bristles employed in progression, an infinite number of other hairs, which are long, flexible, and of a changeable sea-green colour; there is also a tomentous felt-like substance, covering the branchiæ, through which the water is strained.

Organ of Smelling.—The faculty of smell is connected in

all animals, in which it has been hitherto discovered, with the respiratory apparatus; the air which enters the latter loaded with odorous effluvia acting on the olfactory nerves in its passage. This analogy would lead us to look for the nose in similar situations in invertebral animals. No such organ, however, has yet been discovered in this great division of the animal kingdom; although in some instances there are strong proofs that such a sense exists. (See *INSECTS*, in *Anatomy*.) In mollusca and worms we have still fewer direct arguments for the existence of the sense, than in insects. We should not perhaps expect it in invertebral worms, as it could answer no purpose; nor in such testaceous animals and corals, &c. as have no power of locomotion.

Organ of Taste.—The peizæ, snails, and most gasteropodous mollusca, have a cartilaginous tongue, the singular structure of which will be spoken of in describing the organs of mastication, &c. It has no motions except such as are connected with deglutition. Its anterior part is fixed below the mouth; and it is incapable of embracing sapid bodies. The acephalous mollusca do not appear to have any tongue; perhaps they exercise the sense of taste by those tentacula, so similar to papillæ, with which their cloaks are furnished at the parts, where the water, which is the vehicle of their aliments, enters.

There is no tongue, properly speaking, in worms; though some have given that name to the proboscis of the thalassæma, echinorhynchus, &c. The zoophytes have also no tongue; but the tentacula, which surround their mouth, are frequently so fine, and of so delicate a substance, as to be very well calculated for the feat of taste.

Organs of Digestion.

Organs of Mastication in the Mollusca.—As this class hardly possesses in any instance an osseous or at all solid head, their jaws, when they have any, cannot be articulated with, or rest upon the head. Although the cephalopoda possess a kind of cranium, they do not constitute an exception to this rule; the parts composing their mouth are suspended in the ring formed by this cranium.

The jaws of the mollusca consist of horny, or sometimes stony substance, fixed in an oval fleshy mass, enveloping the mouth, and composed of the muscles of the jaws, and of those concerned in deglutition. The muscular fibres belonging to this mass are not very distinct, although we perceive in them different directions, by which they are calculated to approximate or separate the jaws. The latter differ considerably in form. All the cephalopoda possess two, which resemble exactly the horny mandibles of a bird. They are convex, hooked, and very sharp-pointed. They consist of a double plate of a thick hard horn, of a deep-brown colour, of which the edges, opposed to each other at the triturating part, become very thin, while they are hidden at their basis in the fleshy mass already mentioned. This instrument is employed to break the crabs and other testaceous animals which are used for food.

The form and number of the jaws are not so constant in the gasteropoda. The common slugs and snails have only one, which corresponds to the upper; it is crescent-shaped, and the concave edge is denticulated.

In the tritonia, the jaws may be best compared to the shears employed in shearing sheep. Instead, however, of playing on a common spring, the two plates move by a joint; and they are slightly curved, instead of being plane. These jaws are lateral, and move from right to left; the cutting-edge of one slides over that of the other, and they are very sharp.

We see nothing in the aplysia but a thin horny plate, of no great strength, covering the interior of each side of the mouth. Even this slight induration is not observed in the onchidium.

The gasteropodous mollusca, possessing a long or short proboscis, have no jaws at all; this is the case with the buccinum, murex, voluta, bullæa, &c.; and among the naked gasteropoda, with the doris, scyllæa, &c. We merely find in some cases, that the sides of the bottom of the proboscis are covered with cartilaginous plates; there are such in the doris. The oscabrio has no masticating organ: neither have the pteropoda, as the hyalæa, clio, pneumodermion, &c.

None of the acephalous mollusca have jaws, nor any thing subservient to mastication properly so called. The tereidos employ, for piercing wood, the valves of their shells, which some naturalists have called their teeth; but about the true nature of which it is impossible to doubt, when the tereido is compared to the pholas, the genus most analogous to it. The valves of the former seem merely a miniature representation of those belonging to the latter; as Adanson observed long ago.

The naked acephala, as the salpa (biphore), ascidia, &c. have no apparatus for dividing their food. The cirripoda, as the balanus and lepas, have vestiges of jaws, disposed in pairs. The lepas, for example, has two denticulated pairs, and a thin one simply rounded.

Organs of Mastication in the Vermes.—Some of this class have lateral jaws as strong as those of any insect or crustaceous animal, and even very similar to them in form. In a large species of nereis, for example, the opening of the œsophagus is furnished with eight calcareous pieces, which seem to supply the place of mandibles, jaws, and lower lip. The two upper are flattened, arched, and pointed hooks, disposed like the branches of a pair of forceps, united behind, and articulated upon a horny, elastic, semilunar plate situated above the œsophagus. The two following are broader, but not so long; they have six denticuli directed backwards; they are articulated towards the posterior third and below the hooks, which rest upon them in their whole length. The third jaw on each side is placed below and exteriorly; it is shorter and embraces the first jaws, as in the bowl of a spoon. It is found, on attentive examination, to be composed of three small pieces placed near together; the internal has its edge denticulated with twelve small triangular points, like the teeth of a saw: the middle is placed forwards, and forms the posterior edge of a prominent rounded eminence, situated at the opening of the mouth; the last is external, and terminated by a single point. The two lower pieces, which seem to serve for a lower lip, are the longest, flattened horizontally, softer at their edge, which consists of a horny and rather flexible substance. All the parts just specified are surrounded by a stratum of muscular fibres destined to move them.

In other small species of nereis, the opening of the œsophagus is very muscular, covered with wrinkles and points of a horny firm texture, arranged in a circular manner, and on several lines, which are capable of rubbing on each other. Two principal rugæ, situated towards the upper part, support two larger horny pieces of a round form. At the lower and back part are two arched hooks, which come together like the branches of forceps. In other species we also observe two hooks; but the horny points are not arranged in the same manner. They are collected in six groups in muscular eminences, of which three are anterior and three posterior. It appears that the animal has the power of inverting this part of the œsophagus,

VERMES.

gus, so as to bring out the two hooks, which seize the food like a pair of forceps. When it is seized, they drag it in, and the muscular part of the œsophagus, acting on it by its contractions, and by means of the horny papillæ, divides and triturates it, and thus prepares it for the action of the intestinal canal.

The other marine vermes, arranged near the nereids, such as the arenicolæ, the amphinomie, amphitrite, terebellæ, and ferpula, have neither jaws nor teeth. At least we can hardly give that name to the pectinated processes of the amphitrite. They are scaly pointed pieces, of a brilliant golden colour, arranged in two rows, which represent two combs, but situated out of the mouth, on the surface of the head, and enabling the animal to fix itself, or to hook in various substances, but not to masticate or divide the food.

The aphrodite have four small teeth at the bottom of a proboscis, which they can extend or withdraw at will.

Leeches have three small semi-circular prominences in the interior of the mouth: the edge is cutting, and finely denticulated, like a saw. With this instrument they pierce the skin. The lumbricus has no jaws.

Organs of Mastication in the Echino-dermata.—Amongst the invertebral animals, the echini are those which have the most surprising apparatus of this kind. Their external covering, which is bony and consists of a single piece, presents a large round hole, in which the maws of the mouth is suspended, attached indeed by ligaments and muscles, but moveable to a certain point. The bony part of this maws has some resemblance to a lantern with six divisions: the comparison was made as long ago as the time of Aristotle. The object of the apparatus is to support and move five teeth, which encircle the small round aperture, by which the food enters. These teeth are worn away by mastication, and are constructed on the same principle as the incisors of the rodentia; viz. very long, soft behind, and hardening towards the front, in which direction they advance in proportion to the effect of the attrition. They rest in an apparatus consisting of fixed and moveable pieces. The fixed pieces adhere within the shell, all round the hole: they consist of five bony arches, whose convexities are turned towards the cavity of the shell, or downwards; while their concavities are towards the edge of the circular opening, or upwards. The principal moveable pieces are five triangular pyramids, forming the principal body of the maws of the mouth, and dividing the great pyramid or pentagonal lantern of the mouth. Two faces of each pyramid correspond to those of the neighbouring pyramids: they are marked by five transverse striae. Their inner edges do not touch each other, but are separated by a small interval. The dorsal or external face of each pyramid is convex, thick, and perforated towards its base by a triangular or circular opening, differing in size according to the species. Its inner edge has a groove, in which the body of the teeth passes and can move longitudinally, but in no other direction. Its extremity passes out at the point of the pyramid; and the five points being approximated about the opening of the mouth, the five teeth end there also.

The pyramids are hollow, and their faces do not exactly touch those of the neighbouring pyramids; but they are united by a fleshy maw, which can approximate them. Its effect is that of bringing the five teeth together, and thus contracting the opening of the mouth.

The canal of the œsophagus passes between the five pyramids: the sides of their bases, by which they touch each other, are united, two by two, by five bony pieces disposed like radii, and approximating towards the œsophagus as

their centre. Each of these pieces unites the adjacent sides of the bases of two pyramids, being articulated to them in a loose manner. The third side of the basis of each pyramid, that which constitutes the basis of its dorsal or external surface, forms one of the planes of the general pyramid or pentagon. In the natural position these sides correspond to the intervals of the fixed bony arches, which consequently answer to the angles of the pentagonal pyramid.

Twenty muscles act from the fixed bony arches on this pentagonal pyramid, and can either move it entirely, or move on each other the five triangular pyramids which compose it. Ten of these muscles pass from the intervals of the arches to the external bases of the five pyramids. When they act all together, while at the same time the muscles joining the pyramids together contract, the whole maw of the mouth is carried forwards, or towards the outside of the body. If they act separately, they incline the maws and render its axis oblique, making the internal extremity of the axis converge towards the side of the muscles which act. If one acts alone, while the particular muscles joining its pyramid to the two neighbouring ones are relaxed, it carries the tooth of that pyramid further inwards than the others.

The ten other muscles go from the convexities of the arches like radii, to terminate at the points of the pyramids; so that each point receives the muscles of the two neighbouring arches. As the arches project inwardly, these muscles are inclined towards the outer surface of the shell; consequently their effect, when they act together, is that of making the maws of the mouth pass a little inwards. When they act separately, while the muscles uniting the pyramids are contracted, they incline the maws of the mouth, by making the external extremity of its axis converge towards the side of the muscle which acts. When the muscles joining the pyramid to its neighbours are relaxed, the effect of the muscles we are now describing is to draw back the tooth corresponding to that pyramid, and move it away from the aperture of the mouth. Thus, in these three relations, the muscles coming from the arches are antagonists of those which come from their intervals.

If both sets act together, they become common antagonists of those which join the pyramids, and their operation will then be to separate the latter from each other, and to enlarge, not only the entrance of the mouth, but the whole of the passage left for the œsophagus through the axis of the great pentagonal pyramid.

Besides the twenty-five muscles, which act immediately on the pentagonal pyramid and its parts, there are ten others, which act on it through the intervention of five officula, which we must now describe. They are slender, and rather semi-circular or arched; and are placed each on the same level with one of the five bony radii which have been described.

One extremity of each arc is articulated to the internal extremity of the corresponding radiated piece: the other passes above and on the outside of its external extremity, and is bifurcated like the letter Y. A pentagonal membrane unites and strengthens their extremities towards the centre. Each of the two branches of the Y receives a muscle coming from the middle of the nearest interval of the fixed bony arches; so that each of the five intervals gives a muscle to the two nearest Ys.

The effect of the muscles, acting by such levers, in inclining the maws of the mouth in every direction can be easily conceived.

Each tooth may be considered as a long triangular prism; of which the two posterior faces make re-entrant angles. The part which comes out of the point of the pyramid is

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VERMES.

very hard; but it becomes gradually softer behind, and forms a long flexible tail. This soft part has a silky, or even metallic lustre, and is torn by the slightest effort.

The form of teeth just described, is that which we find in the echinus esculentus. In other species, as the echinus cidaris, instead of being prismatic, they are like half tubes, and their extremity, which is worn away obliquely, forms the bowl of the spoon.

All the echini, properly so called, and apparently all the subgenera, which have the body spherical and the mouth central, have a mouth constructed in the manner just described. Such as have the mouth central, and the body flattened (clypeaster, Lamarck; echinus rosaceus), have an oval mafs composed of five osseous pieces, each supporting a tooth: but this mafs is quite flattened, like a circular cake divided into five sectors. The faces, by which the sectors touch each other, are not striated. Although there are fibres to unite them, they are merely perforated by fine and regular pores. The surface opposite to the opening is elevated at the sides into fine and prominent laminae; the other surface is sometimes like this. Their teeth do not slide in grooves, but are fixed, and have the shape of a compressed cylinder, worn obliquely at the end which is in action. The opposite end is soft, as in the preceding instance, but not prolonged into a flexible tail. The external muscles which act on this apparatus are very trifling.

Such echini as have the mouth oblique, and furnished with a plate of the shell advancing under it, as the spatangus and cassidula of Lamarck, have neither teeth nor osseous mafs to support them. There is merely round the opening of the mouth a skin furnished with small scaly pieces, similar to those of the shell, but not so closely set as to render this part inflexible; it can, on the contrary, be extended and retracted to a certain point, at the will of the animal, like a proboscis.

The asteria have no teeth: their mouth is a round membranous aperture, leading to the stomach by a very short œsophagus, which is sometimes capable of being everted, particularly when the animal is hungry. Those spines of the external surface, which are nearest to the mouth, may serve, when inclined towards that opening, to retain the prey: but they cannot be regarded as teeth in the proper sense of the word.

The opening of the mouth in the holothuræ is surrounded by a ring composed of ten semi-osseous pieces; but they serve merely as points of support for the longitudinal muscles of the body and the tentacula. They are covered by the internal integument of the mouth, support no teeth, and are not concerned in the business of mastication.

The sipunculi have no hard parts in the mouth, nor elsewhere: neither have any of the zoophytes, which come next in the scale.

Salivary Organs.

In the Mollusca.—They are very large in the cephalopoda and gasteropoda; more considerable indeed than in any other animals. In the former there are two pairs. The first and smallest is situated on the fleshy mafs of the mouth: each gland has a short excretory duct, penetrating the mafs laterally, a little in front of the origin of the œsophagus. The other pair is much larger, situated under the neck, behind the liver, and opposite the cross. The excretory ducts of the two glands unite into one tube, which ascends behind the œsophagus, and penetrates the mafs of the mouth towards the posterior point of the small cartilage, which supplies the place of a tongue. These glands are whitish, flattened, and but little granulated. They are lo-

bulated, and have an angular outline; and they receive large branches from the principal artery.

In general, the gasteropoda have only a single pair of these glands. In the common snail (helix pomatia), they are oblong, placed close to the origin of the œsophagus, and produce two long canals, which increase in size as they are inserted in the mafs of the mouth above. In the red slug they are less, and merely form a collar round the origin of the stomach.

In the aplysia, the salivary glands are two long, narrow, ribbon-like bodies, floating at the sides of the œsophagus. They are inserted in the mouth, near the origin of the stomach, without having any part of their excretory duct uncovered. Their posterior extremity is fixed to the second stomach by means of branches received from the stomachic artery.

The doris has salivary glands shaped like a long narrow ribbon, attached behind to the stomach. They are so slender in some species, that they might be taken for nerves, when they have passed through the nervous collar of the brain.

Animals of the genus bullæa, though very similar to the aplysia, have merely two short slender glands; but in the elio borealis they are nearly the same as in the aplysia.

In the pneumodermion they are elongated, and contracted where they pass under the brain: for in all these animals, without exception, either the gland, or at least its excretory canal, passes with the œsophagus through the cerebral ring.

In the tritonia they are very large and lobulated, situated at the sides of the œsophagus, and tolerably wide in their middle. The structure is similar in the onchidium. They are generally considerable in the aquatic univalves, as in the genera bulimus, murex, and buccinum, which is remarkable, inasmuch as in aquatic vertebral animals they are either small or entirely deficient. They are small in the halyotis.

In the Echino-dermata.—The holothuræ have all round their mouth oblong blind pouches, which terminate in that cavity, and must be supposed to pour into it some liquor analogous to saliva. There are twenty of different lengths in the holothuria tremula. The pentactes has only two, much larger. Nothing of the kind has been discovered in the echini and asterie.

The medusæ and other radiaria, and the zoophytes properly so called, exhibit no salivary apparatus.

Organs of Deglutition.

In the Mollusca.—We must distinguish the external organs or lips from the internal or tongue. The former are again divided into two kinds; viz. short or proper lips, and tubular lips elongated into a proboscis.

1. Proper lips. In the cephalopoda, the opening of the mouth is surrounded by a fleshy and denticulated circle, which covers and entirely conceals, when the animal chooses, the two mandibles of the bill.

In the gasteropoda, which have no proboscis, the mouth is generally a longitudinal slit, whose fleshy margins hold the place of lips. Sometimes, as in the tritonia and onchidium, these lips have the form of thin plates, often divided into shreds, as in the tritonia arborefcens; the inferior tentacula of the aplysia may also be considered as folds of its lips.

All the common bivalves have round their mouth four membranous folds, usually triangular, and more or less elongated, serving apparently by their motion to convey the food towards the mouth. One of their surfaces is, moreover, so vascular, that it probably has some connection with the business of respiration. Sometimes these folds are united, two by two, in part of their length, as in the pinna. In

other instances, the proper opening of the mouth is surrounded by a circle of fleshy fimbriæ, more or less divided, as in the *Iponidylus*.

The naked *acephala*, as the *biphoræ*, *thalizæ*, *afcidizæ*, &c. have neither folds nor fringes. The mouth of the *biphoræ* has merely a circular and fleshy edge.

In the *brachiopoda* (*terebratulæ* and *lingulæ*) lips do not exist; but their place is advantageously supplied by two long ciliated arms.

2. *Proboscis*. Several naked *mollusca*, as the *doris*, and probably most of the *testacea*, as the *buccinum*, *murex*, *voluta*, &c. have a fleshy cylindrical or conical proboscis, which they employ for seizing their food at a distance. The motions of this instrument are not confined to flexion and a limited elongation, as in the trunk of the elephant; but it is capable of being withdrawn into the body by folding inwards within itself, and of being extended again, like the finger of a glove, the horns of a snail, or many other parts of *mollusca*.

It may be represented as a cylinder folded inwards within itself, or as two cylinders, of which one includes the other, and the two superior edges are continuous, so that in drawing outwards the inner cylinder, it is elongated at the expense of the other, and in pushing it back again it is shortened, while the exterior is elongated. The latter effect takes place at the inside, because this outer cylinder has its inferior edge fixed to the parietes of the head.

There are several longitudinal muscles divided into many shreds at their two extremities. They are fixed on one side to the parietes of the body; and on the other to the internal parietes of the inner cylinder in its whole length, and to its very end. It is obvious that they will have the effect of drawing inwards this cylinder, and the whole proboscis. When it is thus retracted, a large part of the inner surface of the internal cylinder comes to form part of the outer surface of the external cylinder: and the contrary takes place when the proboscis is elongated or extended. The insertions of the muscles undergo corresponding variations.

The elongation of the internal cylinder, by the unfolding of the external, is effected by the proper annular muscles of the proboscis. They surround its whole length; and by their successive contractions thrust it outwards. There is one stronger than the others where the external cylinder is attached to the parietes of the head. When the proboscis is elongated, its retractor muscles, by acting partially, can bend it to one side or the other; and the various portions in this way antagonise each other.

This description may serve also for the *murex tritonis*; but the proboscis is much shorter than in the *buccinum*.

In those *mollusca* which have a proboscis, the *œsophagus* is very long, and loosely folded, that it may follow all the motions of that instrument: it forms in a manner a third cylinder concentric to the two others.

None of the *cephalopodous*, *pteropodous*, or *acephalous* classes have a proboscis: the part which has been so named in the *cirrhopoda* (the *auratifæ* and *balani*) is the *rectum*. The supposed proboscis which some authors speak of in several bivalves, is the canal for the conveyance of water into the shell: it is placed opposite to the true mouth, and is an organ of respiration, not of deglutition.

The Tongue.—It is very singular in the *cephalopoda* and *gasteropoda*; and has nothing parallel in the animal kingdom. It is a membrane covered with prominent spines or ridges directed backwards, and capable of exercising a kind of peristaltic motion, in which the spines are alternately raised and depressed, so as gradually to propel the alimentary substances into the *œsophagus*.

The tongue of the *cephalopoda* is placed between the two mandibles: it is behind the jaws in such *gasteropoda* as have those organs. This is particularly observable in the *triton*, when the tongue immediately receives whatever passes the cutting edge of the jaws. Others have it near the opening of the mouth; and those which have a proboscis, have their tongue at the anterior extremity of that organ. In that case it serves, in some degree, as an organ of mastication; as it can cut the food more or less by means of its hooks.

The tongue varies much in length; and there are species in which we are at a loss to assign an explanation for its considerable extent. In the *halyotis*, for example, it is half as long as the body; in the *patella* and *turbo pica* it is nearly quite as long, and folded like the intestines; and, what is remarkable, these genera have no proboscis. In those which have one the tongue is short. The arrangement of the organ makes it impossible for the animal to employ more than the anterior part: but probably it may resemble some kinds of teeth, the posterior part coming forwards, and succeeding to the other in proportion as it is worn away in front. This conjecture receives confirmation from the soft and nearly gelatinous state of the posterior part: we may suppose that it becomes firm when it comes into use, as the teeth of quadrupeds which are to succeed. All this posterior part is rolled up longitudinally, like a horn.

In the *cephalopoda* the tongue is oblong, and prolonged posteriorly into a long horn. In the *aplysia* it is very broad, heart-shaped, and placed on two rounded eminences separated by a groove. In the *bullæa* it forms a small tubercle at the bottom of the mouth.

The hard covering of this tongue is disposed in a regular and constant manner in each species. It consists, in the *cephalopoda*, of hooked spines of equal length, arranged in two lateral rows, and of a middle series of scales with five points.

In the *oscabrio*, there is on each side a series of hooked scales, with three points, and of long, sharp, and hooked, but simple spines. In the middle there are small tubercles.

The *turbo pica* has transverse, cutting, and denticulated laminae.

The tongue of the *aplysia* is covered all over with small hooked spines, disposed in the quincunx order. In the *onchidium* there are very fine transverse grooves, themselves marked with still finer striæ of an opposite direction. The arrangement is nearly the same in the *doris*. A similar structure occurs in the snail and slug, but it is so minute that a strong glass is necessary to perceive it.

The *acephala* have no proper tongue; but there is a circular valve at the entrance of their *œsophagus*, directed towards the stomach, and capable of contributing powerfully to deglutition. It is very plain in the oyster. Generally these are mere transverse folds, which direct the food by their peristaltic motion.

The Alimentary Canal and its Appendages.—The alimentary canal of invertebral animals is composed of the same essential parts as in those which have vertebræ. There is an internal mucous surface, which in some instances assumes a callous nature, and sometimes becomes villous, or has a papillary texture; a cellular stratum external to this, analogous to what some have called the nervous coat of the mammalia; and a muscular covering of variable thickness. A leading difference is, that often the serous or mesenteric coat, and the mesentery itself, are wanting. There seems to be none in several *mollusca*, and in the class of insects, and we only meet with it again in the *echino-dermata*. Another difference is, that the cellular stratum is not always vascular: it is so

only in the mollusca, worms, and some echino-dermata. In no case have insects any thing more than tracheæ ramified in the parietes of their intestines, and most zoophytes have nothing at all. A third, but less general difference is, that the membranes of the stomach are often armed with hard parts, either simply in the form of plates, as in the bullæ; or of teeth, as in the crustacea; or of scales, as in the grylli; or hooks, as in the aplysia. This is a new analogy between the intestinal membranes and the skin; for we know, that in these animals, the shells and scales which cover them, are often produced by the induration of their rete mucosum.

In its relative length, in the size of its different parts, in the number and form of its dilations, and particularly of the stomachs and cæca, and in its internal folds, the alimentary canal of invertebral animals exhibits varieties altogether analogous to those observed in the vertebral classes. Thus, for example, such as are carnivorous, have a simple and short canal, &c.

There is more variety in the position of the anus. The zoophytes, some echino-dermata excepted, have none at all, but void their excrement by the mouth. Insects, worms, and crustacea, always have an anus at the extremity of the body opposite to the mouth, and below. In the mollusca its position seems subject to no rule. In the doris we find it backwards and upwards; backwards and downwards in the onchidium. It is on the right side in the slug, snail, aplysia, and bullæ; in the head, in the patella; in front of the neck, in the cuttle-fish; on the side of the neck, in the clio: in the acephala it is usually found opposite to the mouth.

Alimentary Canal of the Mollusca.—Locomotion is performed in all the *cephalopoda* with the head downwards: as the mouth is in the centre of the feet, the food must ascend into the abdomen: the rectum descends and opens into a cartilaginous cloaca, or funnel, placed in front of the neck, and serving as a common receptacle for the semen, the eggs, and the inky fluid. The œsophagus passes behind the liver, or towards the back; and the rectum in front, or towards the abdomen: the rest of the canal is in the bottom of the sac or abdomen. In the middle of the œsophagus of the sepia octopus, there is a considerable dilatation, of which the parietes, though thin, are manifestly glandular: this is a true crop, analogous to that of birds; but they have nothing similar to the bulbus glandulosus of birds. The stomach is a gizzard in its general arrangement: the parietes are covered by two muscles nearly as strong as those of the gizzard of the gallinaceous birds: its internal membrane is equally thick, cartilaginous, and easily separated. The pylorus is near the cardia, and leads into a species of cæcum, or, if that name should be preferred, a third stomach which is a little bent on itself in a spiral form. Here the hepatic canals terminate. The second, or true pylorus, is near the other, and also near the cardia. A smooth canal lies along the concavity of the third stomach: the rest of its internal surface is plated transversely, and exhibits the orifices of an infinite number of small mucous follicles. The intestine itself has thin sides: it is large, and nearly of uniform diameter throughout. In the octopus it makes two nearly transverse convolutions, and a large longitudinal turn before it proceeds straight to the infundibulum. In the calmar it goes straight, without any convolution.

The alimentary canal presents numerous varieties in the *gasteropoda*. It is most simple in the snail and slug. The œsophagus, after being a little dilated to form a kind of crop, ends at the stomach, which is itself merely an oblong

membranous bag, with a large hepatic canal opening in it. The pylorus is near the same part: the intestine is cylindrical, and of uniform size; it makes two turns, and then goes forwards and to the right, to open close to the orifice of the lung, after having passed along the parietes of that cavity, and furnished numerous branches to the venous vessels which are distributed over those parietes. The same relation is observed in the other *gasteropoda* between the intestine and the pulmonary organ: hence the anus is always near the branchiæ, when the latter are of limited extent.

The parmacella differs only in having the anus, as well as the pulmonary opening further back; and the testacella, in having them quite at the posterior extremity.

There is a simple membranous stomach in the doris; it is an oval sac, into the bottom of which the bile is poured from numerous orifices. The pylorus is placed forwards, near the cardia; and the intestinal canal, which is large and short, goes directly backwards, almost without any turn, to open in the centre of the branchial circle, placed at the posterior part of the back.

In the tritonia and phyllidia, the stomach is as in the doris; but the intestine goes forwards to the right, where the anus ends under the edge of the cloak. The pylorus is nearer to the cardia, and the anus more anterior, and nearer to the generative orifice, in the phyllidia: it is separate, and placed further back, in the tritonia.

The halyotis has merely a membranous sac at the back of the body. The canal is uniform throughout, and runs twice and a half the length of the body, nearly in three straight lines. It opens by a fleshy tube in the cavity of the branchiæ, on the left of the body.

In the buccinum the œsophagus is long and slender, has a small lateral crop, and soon after ends in a rounded stomach. The intestine is very short. When it has reached the right side of the branchial cavity, it is dilated into a large tube with thick sides, of which the internal surface is plated longitudinally: it contracts suddenly before opening at the anus.

The stomach of the murex is a slight membranous dilatation. The rectum is not dilated, but situated as in the buccinum. The intestine is short.

The stomach of the patellæ is a scarcely sensible dilatation; the bile enters by numerous pores. In the oscabrio it is a rounded sac. The intestinal canal in both these genera is slender and long; and makes many convolutions.

In the helix itagnalis the stomach begins to be more complicated. It is furnished with two muscles united by common tendons, and radiated exactly as in the gizzard of birds. Immediately before entering it, the œsophagus is dilated into a kind of crop.

The onchidium also has a thick gizzard, preceded by a crop. Two hepatic canals open into the latter, and a third into the former. The gizzard is followed by two membranous but thick stomachs; one is pyramidal, with the broad part turned towards the gizzard, and parietes deeply plated into longitudinal ridges: the other is narrower, cylindrical, and more delicately plated.

There is some analogy between the stomach of the pleurobranchus and that of the onchidium; but the organ is weaker in the former. There is at first a membranous crop, which is a mere dilatation of the œsophagus, receiving, close to the opening of the second stomach, the biliary fluid: then comes a small gizzard, with muscular but weak parietes: this is followed by a third stomach, which resembles, by the thin longitudinal lamina of its inner surface, the third stomach (manyplus, feuille, Fr.) of the ruminantia. Lastly, there is a fourth stomach, simply membranous like the first,

but

but smaller. We observe in the gizzard a narrow groove, leading directly from the first stomach into the third, and probably subservient to something like rumination. The intestine is short and uniform. The aliment is moulded, in the third stomach, into long whitish cords.

The aplysia has a still more curious stomach: it is also four-fold. The œsophagus, at first narrow, dilates suddenly to form the first stomach or crop, which is a large thin membranous bag, making a nearly spiral turn, and having no glandular appearance. Then follows a short cylindrical gizzard, with muscular and very strong parietes: they are covered internally with a very extraordinary kind of armour, to which there is nothing exactly similar, although the osseous pieces belonging to the stomach of the bullæa bear some analogy to it. Let us conceive pyramids with rhomboidal bases, whose irregular faces are united into an apex divided into two or three obtuse points. Their substance is semi-cartilaginous, and composed of strata parallel to the basis. There are about twelve large ones, arranged in quincunces on three rows, and some smaller, placed at the upper edge of the gizzard. These pyramids adhere so slightly to the mucous surface, that the slightest contact displaces them, no trace of membrane, or any other union, being perceptible. The places to which they adhered are, however, marked by smooth prominent surfaces, while the intervals are slightly hollowed and striated. The apices of these pyramids come together in the middle of the gizzard, and they must consequently comminute the food which passes along the space between them. The third stomach is broad, but not so long as the former, and has an equally singular covering, consisting of small pointed hooks attached to one side of the cavity, almost as slightly as the pyramids are to the preceding stomach. Their points are turned towards the gizzard, and no other use can be assigned to them but that of stopping the passage of the aliment when insufficiently triturated: here, indeed, the form of the alimentary substances is no longer recognizable. Near the pylorus are two small prominent membranous cristæ, between which the orifice of the fourth stomach is seen, and that of the hepatic vessels. The former, as in the cuttle-fish, might be called a cæcum. This cæcum is as long as the third stomach: its diameter is small, its sides simple, without any internal projections, and it is absolutely hid in the liver. The intestinal canal is of uniform diameter, with thin transparent sides, more so than those of the third stomach, and distinguished from it by this circumstance: it makes two great convolutions enveloped in the lobes of the liver, and terminates at the anus, in the middle of the right side of the body, by a rectum which passes transversely. Its internal surface exhibits neither papillæ nor valves: it has no sensible constriction nor dilations.

The most strongly armed of all known stomachs is that of the bulla lignaria and aperta; there are three flat stony pieces; two of similar form, triangular, broader and lateral, one narrower, rhomboidal and middle, united by muscular fibres, which have the power of approximating them. These hard substances are larger in the bulla lignaria, and rather differently made. Draparnaud found that this apparatus had been considered as a shell, and had given rise to the establishment of the genus triclæ or gioënia.

In the *Pteropoda*.—Two of the small genera which compose this order, viz. the elio and pneumodermion, have stomachs of the same kind: they are simple membranous bags, surrounded by the liver, and receiving bile from numerous orifices. The third genus, hyalæa, has a dilatation of the œsophagus, followed by a short cylindrical gizzard: both have internal longitudinal plates. The two first genera

have a short straight intestine: the hyalæa has three convolutions included in the liver.

In the *Acephala*.—We generally find in this family a membranous stomach, following a very short œsophagus, surrounded on all sides by the liver, which adheres to it intimately, and in which it appears to be excavated. Its parietes are very irregular, forming several small cul-de-sacs, at the bottom of which the bile is received: for in all the order that fluid enters the stomach immediately. The biliary apertures have somewhat valvular edges, to prevent the food from entering the ducts. The intestine makes several convolutions, chiefly out of the liver, and most frequently in the substance of the muscles of the foot, in which it is in a manner incased. Towards its origin, in some species, the intestinal canal has dilations, which might be taken for second stomachs. In others there is a true second stomach, which is a kind of cæcum near the pylorus. The greatest singularity, which is also absolutely peculiar to some acephala, is a part long ago described by Willis, Swammerdam, and others, but more particularly by Poli, under the name of the crystalline filette. It is probably transparent and cartilaginous; elongated, pointed at one end, and obtuse at the other. It is composed of laminae, included one in the other, and contained in a sheath closely applied to the commencement of the intestine, but open towards the stomach, so as to allow the point of the filette to penetrate that cavity. On this point is articulated a body of similar texture, divided into some conical eminences, and occupying the entrance of the stomach: it is difficult to assign the use of such an organ.

The solen has a second stomach, long and slender, and occupying half the length of the foot, into which it penetrates: the intestine begins at the side of the origin of the latter, and proceeds parallel to it. The oyster has also a second stomach, situated between the branchiæ and the muscle that closes the shell: the intestine rises from it near its commencement, and proceeds in an opposite direction.

According to Poli, the intestinal canal is shorter in the genera fixed to one spot, as the oyster and spondylus, than in those which are capable of locomotion, as the cardium and venus. Yet the fresh-water muscle has it short; it makes a single fold in the foot, and returns backwards to descend to the anus. The same arrangement is found in the mya pictorum. On leaving the second stomach, in the oyster, the intestine ascends, surrounds the liver, and then goes backwards. It is nearly the same in the spondylus. In the eatable muscle (*mytilus edentulus*), it descends along the back, ascends again, goes round the liver, and then descends to the anus. It is very short, making only two slight curves, in the venus decussata; but in the cardium edule (common cockle) it makes seven or eight spiral turns in the foot, and is more than five times the length of the body. It is equally long, but rather differently arranged, in the mastra piperata, where its commencement is very large, and might easily pass for a second stomach. It is the same in some of the genus venus, and in the orbicular tellinæ: the common tellinæ have moreover a kind of cæcum at the end of this dilatation.

In most of the acephala the rectum passes through the middle of the heart, but the oyster is an exception.

There are some remarkable varieties respecting the anus. In those which have no tubes to the cloak, and which walk or spin like the fresh-water and sea muscles, it opens by a fleshy disk or sphincter, between the two edges of the cloak. In those which have these tubes, the anus itself makes another, situated more internally, projecting into the cavity

of the cloak, behind one of the muscles which close the shell. Such is the case in the solen, pholas, &c.

The naked acéphala have a simple stomach and short intestine. In the afidia, the latter makes only two convolutions; in the biphori (falpa), it turns twice round the liver, near which the anus is found. There is only one species (thalia) in which the canal is prolonged further, even to the opposite extremity of the body. The heart in this family is never traversed by the rectum.

The brachiopoda (terebatulæ and lingulæ) have a simple uniform canal. In the lingula it comes from the mouth, which is between the two arms, and makes two turns before reaching the anus, which is at the side. It is nearly twice as long as the body.

Alimentary Canal of Worms.—It is in general straight, without any considerable inequalities, extending from one end of the body to the other, and occupying nearly its whole capacity.

In the common sea-mouse (aphrodite aculeata), there is a fleshy part in front, holding the place of a proboscis, and capable of being extended out of the body: a mistake has been committed in considering this as a stomach. A cylindrical intestine follows, of small diameter, but giving origin on each side to twenty long blind processes, becoming larger towards their blind end, which is attached between the muscles of the feet and the lateral vessels. This organization is the more remarkable, as nothing like it is met with in the neighbouring genera.

The amphinomia capillata and tetræda (terebella flava and rostrata) have first a fleshy mass of the mouth or a proboscis, rounder and shorter than that of the aphrodite, then a small œsophagus, and an enormously dilated stomach, with cellular parietes, like those of a colon, the folds of which are fixed by a tendinous line placed on the ventral side. It occupies two-thirds of the length of the body, and ends in a large short intestine.

The arenicola, or worm used as a bait by fishermen (lumbricus marinus, Linn.) has no fleshy proboscis; the œsophagus occupies one-eighth of its length; the stomach, which is more dilated, occupies a third. It is of a fine yellow, with the surface divided into lozenge-shaped faculi, the separations of which are marked by vessels of a beautiful red. The rest of the canal is small, smooth, and straight.

In the leech of fresh water (hirudo sanguifuga), an œsophagus equal to one-eighth of the animal is followed by a stomach occupying one-half of its length: this organ is capacious, with thin sides, and divided by numerous membranous diaphragms, which contract it considerably, leaving only an opening in the middle. The intestine is narrower, and its internal membrane, which is opaque, exhibits an infinite number of small plaits; it enlarges towards the anus, which is very small, so that its existence has been erroneously denied by some anatomists. Two cæca arise from the pylorus, proceed parallel to the principal canal, and are nearly as long. In the sea-leech (hirudo tuberculata), the alimentary canal may be said to enlarge from the mouth to the opposite end; the existence of a stomach is marked merely by its septa, which are wanting in the intestine.

The common earth-worm has only a long canal, divided by numerous transverse septa, which are even strengthened by membranes attaching them to the exterior covering of the body. Some dilatations in front may represent a kind of stomach.

The canal of the nereis is equally simple, straight, and contracted at intervals: nothing more can be observed in the amphitrite, terebellæ, and serpulæ. The tail which

terminates the body of the genus amphitrite, contains the rectum. Cuvier has, however, observed in one species of amphitrite, which lives commonly on the oysters, a very thick and hard globular gizzard.

In the lumbricus, thalassæma, and echinus, the canal is five or six times longer than the body, of equal diameter throughout, with thin and corrugated sides. The posterior part is filled with excrement, moulded into small short cylinders.

Among the intestinal worms, the ascaris has a very simple canal with thin sides, of nearly uniform diameter, and scarcely longer than the body.

Alimentary Canal and Sac of Zoophytes.—In this class we meet with alimentary canals possessing both mouth and anus, and others like a simple sac, more or less complicated. The first are even supported by a true mesentery, which is not found in insects, mollusca, or worms. Such a structure is seen in the echinus and holothuria.

The canal of the holothuria tubulosa is four times the length of the body, in which it makes a double convolution, resembling the figure 8. It commences at the mouth by a slight contraction, then retains nearly the same diameter throughout. Its parietes are slender: the anus opens into the great cloaca situated at the back of the body, and separated from the cavity of the abdomen only by a valve: this circumstance will be further considered in speaking of the respiratory organs. A membranous mesentery attaches this whole canal to the external coverings of the body. A similar arrangement is observed in the holothuria pentactes.

The sipunculæ has a small uniform canal, going first straight from one extremity of the body to the other; then returning in a spiral manner round this straight part, to terminate at a lateral anus very near the mouth. It is six or eight times as long as the body.

An alimentary cavity, constituting a complicated bag, is observed in the aliterias. It is a membranous sac, much folded when empty, placed in the common centre of the rays, and having no other opening but the mouth, so that the excrement is rejected by the passage which admits the food. This bag has ten blind appendices or intestines, minutely subdivided into branches and ramifications, which form a very beautiful object. These are lodged in the rays or branches of the body, two in each: when there are more than five branches, there are also more than ten of the ramified cæca. These trees, or kind of bunches of grapes, are fixed rays in their place by membranous mesenteries.

The aliteria, whose rays have no feet, but resemble the tails of serpents (ophiuri, Lamarck), have no such cæca. Their stomach is a simple bag, occupying merely the central disk of the animal: its membrane, however, exhibits in all parts an infinite number of small faculi. Probably the same structure exists in the kind called caput medusæ.

The alimentary canal of the medusæ is as complicated as that of the aliteria; but, instead of being suspended in the great cavity of the body, it seems to be excavated in its substance. The stomach, which is very large, fills the basis of what is called the pedicle or disk of the animal: tubes proceed from it in a radiated manner towards the edges of the superior broad part of the body, which has the shape of a segment of a sphere. These vessels communicate together by lateral branches, and both furnish an infinite number of small ramifications, which form a very complicated net-work over the whole body, conveying the nutritive fluid to all parts, as blood-vessels do in other animals. This plexus is particularly discernible towards the edge of the umbella, where it resembles a species of lace.

The medusæ differ most widely in the manner by which the aliment enters the stomach. Some have a single mouth, a large round opening; others, instead of a mouth, have numerous branched tentacula, each perforated by a small opening. Each opening gives origin to a small canal, which joins the neighbouring one, and so on: in this way four large trunks are formed, which end in the stomach, and convey to it the matters absorbed by the small apertures of the tentacula. The number of the latter sometimes exceeds eight hundred.

It is from this structure, which is hitherto unique in the animal kingdom, that Cuvier has established the genus *rhizostoma*, from two Greek words (*ρίζα* and *στόμα*) signifying root and mouth. The *rhizostoma*, in fact, may be said to derive its nourishment from a kind of roots; and in it, as well as in all the medusæ, the stomach supplies the place of a heart.

The alimentary apparatus of the actiniae consists of a simple bag, with a circular opening, serving both for mouth and anus. The aperture is placed in the centre of the superior surface of the animal, and is surrounded by the tentacula, which can seize the prey, and convey it immediately to the mouth. The animal has the power of contracting or dilating this orifice. The alimentary sac is suspended in the general cavity of the animal by a kind of membranous attachment. No intestine nor any vessel is known to proceed from this stomach. See *Memoire pour servir à l'Hist. de l'Actinie rouge*, &c. par Dr. Spix, *Annales du Muséum*, tom. xiii. pl. 33.

"It is surprising (says Reaumur), that a soft animal like this, not provided with claws, or any thing equivalent, should be able to devour others apparently well defended by their shells, such as muscles and other bivalves, and various species of univalves. It is however certain, that the actiniae live on the flesh of these animals, though, as they swallow them whole, and then contract the entrance of the stomach over them, it is not easy to find out how they extract the animal from its shelly coverings. We can only see that after a certain time they expel the empty shells by the same orifice through which they had swallowed the whole animal. I have seen in this way the largest muscle-shells thrown out empty by moderate-sized actiniae: while in some cases they are rejected without the animal having been extracted. In the same way I have seen them throw up entire buccina. I once saw a large muscle expelled entire through the basis of the actinia, where there is no natural opening. In getting rid of the shells, particularly when they are large, the animal not only dilates its mouth to the greatest extent, but absolutely inverts the whole cavity, as you would a stocking." See fig. 25. Reaumur, *Acad. des Sciences*, 1710. p. 475.

In the common polypes (*hydra*), the whole body appears to be a stomach; and the nutritive matter is imbibed apparently directly from the surface of the cavity into the substance of the animal. The most curious fact in relation to this stomach is, that if the animal be inverted, the external surface performs the office of stomach just as well as the original stomach did.

The *pyrosoma*, a large species of marine polypus, without arms, brought to France by Péron, seems, like our freshwater polypes, to be a mere stomach.

The polypes, which form by their aggregation compound animals, such as those which produce the various lithophytes, have a nutritive system nearly related to those of the common polype and medusa. Cuvier has examined this in the *verticillæ* (*pennatula cynomorium*), whose large and soft body, and transparent polypes, are more favourable to such researches than most other animals of this class. In the body of each polype, a small stomach with brownish parietes is

observed, from which proceed five tubes similar to those of the medusæ, that is, executing the functions both of intestines and vessels. These intestines are at first yellowish and undulated; having traversed two-thirds of the length of the polype, they become straight and smaller, and thus penetrate the general body or stem which supports all the polypes. They then separate to join corresponding vessels from the neighbouring polypi, and form with them a network occupying the whole mass of the stem. By means of this communication, the food taken by one polype is enjoyed by the whole animal, which may be considered as a single one with several mouths and stomachs.

The alcyonium exos exhibits an analogous structure. See Dr. Spix, in the *Annales du Muséum*, tom. xiii. p. 451, et seq. pl. 33; and it is probable that a similar organization prevails through the whole class.

Appendages to the Alimentary Canal.

Liver.—All the mollusca have a liver, which is generally very large, but never possesses a gall-bladder. It does not receive, as in the vertebral animals, the blood which has circulated through the intestines, and thus acquired a venous nature; but it derives from the aorta the necessary supply for its own nutrition, and the secretion of its peculiar liquor; and it returns this blood to the vena cava, which is the same with the pulmonary artery in these animals. In this arrangement we may perhaps find a reason for their having no spleen.

The liver of the cephalopoda is a large oval mass of a yellowish-brown, situated towards the back near the head, partly filling the interval behind the funnel, and partly descending into the abdomen. It may be divided into two lobes, between which the trunk of the aorta passes, giving to each a considerable branch. The bag, which produces the inky fluid peculiar to these animals, is inclosed between these two lobes; and in the calmar (*sepia loligo*), it is attached in front of them. Monro considered it to be a gall-bladder; he thought the ink was merely bile, consequently that that fluid was excrementitious in these animals. This is a gross error. In the common cuttle-fish the ink-bag is found in the bottom of the abdomen, far from the liver; and in those species, where the two organs are nearest together, they are not organically united. The bag contains its secreting apparatus in its own cavity, and the liver pours the bile into the alimentary canal. There are two excretory tubes, one for each lobe, penetrating together the third stomach, near its middle. Air impelled into the hepatic vein passes easily into these two canals; and they speedily inflate the third stomach. The bile which they pour out is of an orange-yellow: it remains for a considerable time mixed with the chyme, in the lateral and tortuous reservoir of the third stomach, where it can slowly exert its action.

All the gasteropoda have a large liver, divided into numerous lobes and lobules, and sometimes into several masses, each of which has a particular excretory canal. These lobes are interwoven with the intestinal convolutions, enveloping them, or being enveloped by them, and united by a cellular texture. The distribution of the artery and vein is easily seen, and even that of the proper vessels, which are distributed into the smallest lobules, the liver resembling a bunch of grapes more than a homogeneous parenchymatous mass, and extending usually through nearly the whole length of the body. In the aplysia, it pours out its secretion by several openings near the orifice of the caecum, or fourth stomach; that is, nearly as in the cephalopoda. In the pleurobranchus and onchidium, which have several stomachs, there are differences. The bile is poured into the first stomach of the pleurobranchus. The onchidium has its

its liver divided into three distinct masses, of which the excretory ducts are not even united. The two first terminate in the first stomach by distinct orifices; the third opens into the bottom of the gizzard or second stomach.

In the testaceata the liver is divided into two independent masses; their ducts are inserted opposite each other, in the beginning of the intestine, not in the stomach.

The doris and phyllidia, which have a simple membranous stomach, receive the bile in it by several openings. The liver of the former is remarkable, inasmuch as it gives rise to a second excretory vessel, terminating on the outside of the body, near the anus. The object of this structure is not known.

The snail and slug have enormous livers, divided into many lobes and lobules, all which pour their liquor by a common canal into the bottom of the cul-de-sac formed by the stomach behind the pylorus. The appearance of the liver is remarkable, particularly in the slug, from the contrast of its black surface with the fine opaque white of the blood-vessels. The testaceous gasteropoda have an equally voluminous liver, filling, together with the generative organs, the greatest part of the convolutions of the shell.

The liver of the acephala generally envelopes the stomach, like an incrustation on its surface: it pours the bile into that cavity by numerous orifices. The patella among the gasteropoda, and the clio and pneumoderm among the pteropoda, have the same structure; but the hyala, which belongs also to the latter order, has its liver placed as in the common gasteropoda, that is, interwoven with the intestine.

Even in the acephala, the intestine, after leaving the stomach, often returns to penetrate again the substance of the liver.

This form and disposition of the liver are found in the naked acephala (ascidæ and biphori), as well as in the others. In the brachiopoda (lingulæ and terebratulæ), the liver is distinct, connected with the convolutions of the intestine, and even with the muscles.

In all the mollusca, as in the red-blooded animals, the bile is of a greenish-yellow, more or less strongly marked.

Nothing analogous to a liver is found in the worms, unless we consider the yellow substance in the parietes of the stomach of the arenicola as such. The echino-dermata and zoophytes have nothing which can be compared to this gland. The liver then seems to end with the mollusca, and some crustacea: insects have a kind of substitute for it, and zoophytes have nothing like it. In proportion as the function of respiration is less confined, and extends to more parts in the body, the liver ceases more completely.

Coverings and Supports of the intestinal Canal.

In the *Mollusca*.—We may assert in general, that the alimentary canal of the mollusca is not enveloped nor supported by a mesentery. The different convolutions are joined together, and to the lobes of the liver, by cellular tissue, blood-vessels, and nerves, but not fixed to a membrane. Yet all the viscera are contained in a true peritoneum, which even forms a distinct cavity for the heart, and also envelopes the lung, when the latter is not entirely exterior; but this peritoneum is not folded inwards to cover the intestine.

The peritoneum of the gasteropoda nearly lines the whole external integument of the body: the latter is thick and muscular, and, therefore, protects it effectually. In those which have a shell, the part of the body constantly covered by it is not surrounded by muscles; it is covered only by peritoneum and a thin layer of skin, and might almost be regarded as a natural hernia, formed by parts which have protruded from the muscular portion of the animal.

In the cephalopoda the peritoneum is a bag contained in another bag, namely, that which properly constitutes the body. But the latter does not entirely inclose the former; its opening leaves the peritoneum uncovered in front, where it is protected only by a thin continuation of the skin. The peritoneum of the cephalopoda is further remarkable from the circumstance of its being perforated by two openings, which communicate externally. There is no other example of such a structure, except in the rays. As the cephalopoda have a head, separated from the body by a neck, and a true cartilaginous cranium, their peritoneum, which does not reach beyond the neck, does not cover the brain, nor the mass of the mouth, as in the other mollusca.

In consequence of the form of the body, the peritoneum of the acephala occupies a smaller space than that of the other mollusca. It is surrounded by the muscles, which go to the foot; and when there is no foot, it is simply covered by the skin. Nothing like an omentum has been seen in any animal of this class.

Some worms, as the arenicola, have their alimentary canal supported merely by blood-vessels; others, as the earth-worm, have small transverse membranes connecting the canal to the exterior covering of the body; but a mesentery, properly so called, exists in none. A thin membrane, forming an internal lining to the exterior integuments, may be regarded as a peritoneum.

In the echino-dermata we again meet with a perfect mesentery, and even sometimes with a kind of omentum. The mesentery of the echini is fixed to the shell, and makes turns exactly corresponding to those of the intestine, which it covers. In the star-fish there are as many mesenteries as ramified cæca in the branches of the body. They adhere also to the internal surface of the general covering, parallel to the axis of the branch. In the holothuria tremula, the mesentery is attached to the intestine from the mouth; it accompanies the tube to the other extremity of the body, following one of the longitudinal muscles; it then crosses, and returns to the mouth, following a second; crosses again, and re-descends to the anus along a third. Let it, however, be remarked, that the numerous vessels of this animal are not found in the mesentery, but on the opposite surface of the canal. The interweaving of these vessels with each other, and with the respiratory organs, forms a singular species of omentum, concerned in the business of respiration.

The alimentary sac of the actinix is supported by several vertical membranes, which surround it like radii, and are fixed on the opposite side to the covering of the body.

The medusæ have no occasion for mesentery, their alimentary cavity being merely excavated in the gelatinous mass of their body: the fresh-water and other polypes still less so, inasmuch as their intestine and body are one and the same thing, that is, simply a bag formed of a gelatinous membrane.

Organs of Absorption.—No absorbing vessels can be discovered in the lower classes of animals now under our consideration. Cuvier thinks that the veins absorb in them; and he supports his sentiments by the following statement.

We are first, says he, led to this notion by observing that the blood of these animals does not differ from what is called lymph in the red-blooded classes: and also by the fact, that no anatomical method has hitherto enabled us to demonstrate the existence in these animals of any but blood-vessels. We have already observed that the parts, called by Poli lymphatic vessels, belong to the nervous system. There are, besides, some positive reasons; of which the principal is the natural communications of the great cavities

of the body, in which there is always much fluid to be absorbed, with the trunks of the great veins.

These communications are particularly obvious in the cephalopoda, where the principal branches of the vena cava are furnished with a multitude of bodies resembling ramified glands, and floating loosely in the abdomen. They have tubes manifestly ending in the trunk of the vein. Fluids injected into the vein penetrate like a dew the extremities of these ramifications, and pass into the abdominal cavity. Sometimes air will pass in the same way. There must equally be a passage in the opposite direction.

Among the gasteropoda, the aplysia exhibits a communication no less free between its veins and the great cavities of the body. If we impel air from the lung into the vena cava, which are continuous in these animals with the pulmonary artery, the abdomen will be distended. The orifices, through which the air escapes, are visible to the naked eye: they must admit liquids from the abdomen, as they allow air to pass from the vessels into that cavity.

The passage of the rectum through the heart in the cephalopoda is another point deserving attention. We cannot see what end this arrangement can serve, if the nutritive fluid does not find its way through the intestine into the heart, where it will be mingled with the blood, and set in motion.

This manner of viewing the subject coincides extremely well with the gradation of the organic systems, in the different classes of animals. Insects most probably have no vessel at all (see *INSECTS*, in *Anatomy*): it is, therefore, natural to find before them, in the scale, animals which have vessels of one kind only, and which, therefore, may be arranged between the vertebral division possessing the two kinds, *viz.* lymphatic and sanguineous, and the insects which have none; unless at least we regard the secretory tubes as a third order, the most essential, because common to all. The mollusca, vermes, and crustacea, seem destined to hold this intermediate rank. The echino-dermata, and particularly the holothurizæ, are of a doubtful kind: their place cannot be yet assigned.

In the zoophytes, properly so called, the substance of their body forming the sides of the alimentary cavity is immediately impregnated with the nutritive fluid. The medusæ do not differ in this respect from the simplest polypes, except that their cavity has numerous tubular prolongations. If these intestinal tubes are to be considered as vessels, the stomach will perform, with respect to them, the functions of a heart.

Organs of Circulation and Respiration.—As both these kinds of organs exist together in all the vertebral classes, there can be no variety in their combinations; but one or the other may be wanting in invertebral animals, so that we may establish between them in this respect relations, which are very constant in the classes, in which these organs are perfectly understood. Thus, in the mollusca, the worms with red blood, and the crustacea, which have a complete circulation, we find circumscribed branchiæ. Insects have the body nourished by a fluid, which stagnates instead of circulating; and in them respiration is effected by means of tracheæ, which are distributed over the whole body. True zoophytes, medusæ, and polypes, in which the body itself forms the sides of the intestinal canal, and directly absorbs its nourishment, have no particular organ for respiration. Probably the whole body respires.

The mollusca have a double circulation; that is, all their blood, after circulating through the body, passes through the lungs before it is fit to be circulated again.

The cephalopoda have three hearts, two composed of a ventricle and an auricle, and one of a ventricle only: the

gasteropoda have one, consisting of a ventricle and an auricle; the acephala one, of a ventricle with two auricles; and the brachiopoda two, of a ventricle without an auricle. This class alone, in fact, exhibits nearly as many modifications of the circulating organs, as all the four classes of vertebral animals: these modifications, however, have reference to the number and position of the auricles and ventricles, not to the course of the circulation, which is always double.

The cephalopodous mollusca have the most complicated system of circulating organs of all animals, possessing three distinct hearts, two pulmonary and one aortic.

The defending vena cava, formed by the union of branches which return the blood from the head and arms, passes from the neck, along the front of the liver, towards the bottom of the abdominal sac: it receives the hepatic vein in its course, and immediately afterwards, that is about the middle of the abdomen, it is bifurcated, each branch going transversely to one of the lateral hearts; but before they arrive, they receive various branches from other parts. Thus, directly after their origin from the common trunk, each receives a vein from the intestines and back of the body; and at the very point of entering the hearts, each receives another from the lower parts. All these veins are extremely thin and transparent: they are much more capacious and extensible than the arteries; no valve can be seen in them, except at the entrance of the hepatic vein.

The two great transverse branches, which end in the lateral hearts, and all the veins immediately ending in them, are perforated by openings leading into very singular appendices of a ramified or glandular appearance, such as are found in the nervous system of no other animal.

They are numerous, large, and of an opaque yellowish-white: only two offices can be ascribed to them; either that of secreting some fluid from the arterial blood, or of absorbing the liquids of the abdomen and conveying them into the veins. The small number of their arterial ramifications favours the latter idea: it is sufficient for their nutrition, but not for a secretion proportioned to their volume.

The two lateral hearts are placed at the root of the branchiæ; they are more or less rounded, with thick, muscular, though rather soft parietes, and large fleshy columns, intercepting numerous spaces of different size. In the sepia octopus they are of a very deep brown red, as in a red-blooded animal, while all the other viscera, the muscles, and the aortic heart, are whitish.

The entrance of the vein into each lateral heart is furnished with two membranous rectangular valves, fixed at their bases and extremities, and loose only at the inner edge: they allow the blood to pass in, but prevent its return. The pulmonary artery goes out at the extremity of the heart opposite to the entrance of the vein. There is no valve at its origin in the octopus, but in the cuttle-fish and calmar there are four, shaped like small fleshy tubercles, surrounding the orifice of the artery, and preventing the return of the blood. They are a little beyond the origin, and in the very trunk of the artery. The latter runs along the external and posterior edge of the gill, producing as many lateral branches, perpendicular to its trunk, as there are plates of the gill. Their ramifications and distribution will be described in the article on respiration. A branchial vein is found on the opposite or internal and anterior edge of the gill, from which it collects the blood. Reaching the lower end of the gill, the vein quits it, and runs transversely towards the middle of the body, a little below and behind the part where the vena cava bifurcates. Here it ends in the third, aortic, or intermediate heart. This heart receives then two pulmonary veins, one from each gill, which end each on its own side,

side, reaching the heart directly, and without any previous division. Their cardiac orifices are furnished with two membranous rectangular valves, analogous to those of the venæ cavae in the pulmonary hearts.

The aortic heart is white, and of a firmer tissue than the two pulmonary hearts. Its form is oval in the longitudinal direction in the calmar; transversely in the octopus; and like the trefoil leaf in the officinalis. Its internal parietes exhibit numerous muscular columns, decussating in all directions. In the octopus it produces two principal arteries and some smaller ones, all arising immediately from the cavity, and not from a common trunk. The superior ascends nearly parallel to the venæ cava, giving branches to it, as well as to the surrounding parts. The inferior is the largest artery, and indeed analogous to the aorta: having given branches to the lower part of the sac, it turns upwards behind the viscera to the head, and sends ramifications to the intestines, liver, œsophagus, then terminates, near the fleshy mass of the mouth, by a circle which surrounds the œsophagus, and supplies the crop, the salivary glands, the mouth and feet.

Gasteropodus Mollusca.—In all these, without exception, the pulmonary system is exactly inverse of that of fishes: that is, the heart is composed of an auricle and a ventricle, and it receives the blood from the lung to distribute it over the body; while the heart of fishes sends the blood from the body to the lung. In other words, the gasteropoda possess always a simple aortic heart. All the veins of the body end in one or two venæ cavae, which, as soon as they reach the respiratory organ, are changed into pulmonary arteries, without this change being marked by a ventricle, nor even by valves. It is exactly the same as the change of the trunk of the intestinal veins into that of the venæ portarum. The position and direction of these veins are determined by that of the pulmonary organ, which latter is usually found in the neighbourhood of the rectum, that they may receive more readily the veins of the intestines, which probably bring the chyle with them. Large trunks also come from the liver.

Thus, in the doris, where the branchiæ form a circle round the anus, the venæ cava having collected the blood from the whole body, and traversed the liver, arrives above the rectum, and divides into branches, which separate like radii to enter the bases of the branchial tufts. These branchiæ return the blood, which has undergone their action, by vessels corresponding to those which brought it. The auricle, which is shaped like a pyramid with a very broad basis, has this basis disposed in a circular manner, and receives the blood from the pulmonary veins. It conveys this blood immediately into the heart, which is round, flat, and placed on the back of the liver. The heart has valves at its entrance and exit: the latter is the origin of a large artery divided immediately into four branches. One is turned back, and soon lost in the liver; two others also enter this gland; the fourth, which is the continuation of the trunk, goes directly forwards, giving branches to the intestine, stomach, salivary glands, organs of generation and mouth, and is lost ultimately in the fleshy mass of the foot.

The tritonia and phyllidia have the lungs at the two sides of the body, and the heart consequently in the middle, towards the back. The auricle, placed at the back of the heart, extends transversely from one side to the other. It receives the blood from two or rather four pulmonary veins, which extend on the two sides of the body, from one end to the other, in the substance of the fleshy covering, and receive the blood from all the branchial tufts. The latter had received it from two arteries reaching in the same way

along the side of the body, and placed parallel to the veins. These pulmonary arteries collect the blood from the body by six large veins, three on each side, coming principally from the liver and intestines. The veins of the muscular covering end in these trunks without quitting its substance. Having thus received from the lung the blood, which has circulated through that organ, the heart distributes it over the body by three large arteries, one of which goes backwards into the ovary, another downwards to the liver and intestines, and the third forwards to the male organs of generation, the mouth, and the fleshy mass of the foot.

The onchidium has some resemblance to the tritonia. Two vessels are formed in the same manner in the fleshy covering on the two sides, and they convey the blood of the body into the lung; but by their extremity only, since the lung itself is excavated in the back of the body. These vessels receive the blood from the viscera by many small veins entering separately, and that of the fleshy covering by others excavated in its thickness. The heart is near the lung behind on the right side. Its auricle is very large, and furnished with fleshy columns. The heart produces one great trunk, which first gives a branch to the liver and viscera, then a long retrograde one to the rectum and organs of generation, which are situated behind and on the right. It afterwards passes in the collar of the œsophagus, and gives two large branches to the general covering. The right sends an artery to the salivary gland of its side; the left does the same, and moreover one to the male organ of generation: the trunk is then lost in the mass of the mouth.

The aplusia possesses one of the most curious circulating systems. There is excavated on each side, in the fleshy covering, a large vessel surrounded by muscular bands decussating in every direction: these vessels receive the blood by ordinary veins from certain parts. Two come from the gland which surrounds the shell, and produces the purple liquor: but it is very clear that they communicate immediately with the abdominal cavity by several large holes. Are the latter shut during life by muscular contraction, or by any fine membrane? We do not hitherto know. However this may be, the two large vessels unite behind, and thus produce a third, which is the pulmonary artery. This is also very large, and runs forwards along one side of the membranous triangle which supports the branchiæ on its two surfaces. It distributes the blood to all the branchial plates by a corresponding number of branches: this blood returns by corresponding vessels into the pulmonary vein, situated also in the branchial triangle, and terminating in the auricle. The heart is situated crosswise, along the middle of the body, a little towards the left, inclosed in a pericardium. The auricle is large, thin, transparent, and strengthened by muscular fasciculi, which intercept lozenge-shaped spaces. The ventricle is oval and thick, and has strong muscular columns: it has valves only at its entrance, they are rectangular. The artery is divided at its exit into three principal trunks. The first goes to the left; for the liver and intestines: the second forwards to the stomach; the third and longest remains longer in the pericardium, inclining towards the right. It possesses in this situation a very extraordinary apparatus of unknown use; namely, a double criella filled internally with ramifications, arising from the artery itself, and filled by injecting the artery. They appear to have blind terminations; and the liquid they contain appears to pass back simply into the vessel, without entering any veins. After quitting the pericardium, this artery gives a branch for the corresponding part of the muscular covering, then goes directly forwards under the œsophagus. Arriving at the crop, it sends a retrograde branch

to the general covering; under the nervous collar of the œsophagus it produces a second, which goes backwards to the left in this covering; then immediately afterwards a third, which goes to the right for the penis. The trunk is then bifurcated, and lost in and about the mouth.

The lung lies on the front of the body in the flug, and the heart is placed immediately under it. The innumerable ramifications spread over the internal surface of the lung all end in the auricle, and the latter in the ventricle placed under it, and producing behind two large arteries. One suddenly turns forwards to the mouth, the generative organs and the general covering; the other goes directly backwards, and is distributed to all the viscera.

The circulation of the pleurobranchus much resembles that of the aplysia. But, as the heart is placed more forwards, the posterior artery is the largest of the three, since it has more parts to nourish.

In the testaceous gasteropoda, the heart and its auricle are situated in the bottom of the great pulmonary cavity, which occupies the upper part of the front of the body, towards the edge of the shell. The lung, whatever may be its form, receives the blood of the body, and a particularly large portion from the last part of the intestine, which runs close on the surface of the pulmonary cavity, opening sometimes within it, sometimes at its edge. Having passed through the lung, the blood enters the auricle, goes thence into the ventricle, from which it is sent over the whole body by arteries, which vary according to the general form of the animal.

The branchiæ form a series all round the body, under the cloak, in the patella. The pulmonary vein is also disposed in a circular manner, collects the blood from all the branchial plates by many small veins, and carries it to the heart, which is situated above the head, and distributes it over the whole body.

Acephalous Mollusca.—In such of these as have the heart in the back, and traversed by the rectum, it is perfectly symmetrical, oval, broader behind, and accompanied by an auricle on each side. Their branchiæ form four parallel plates: each auricle receives the blood from the two branchiæ of its own side, and transmits it to the heart. These auricles are triangular, broad towards the branchiæ, and pointed towards the heart: sometimes they have a kind of cristæ, susceptible of dilatation. Their sides are transparent, and possess few projecting threads. Their openings into the ventricle are furnished with valves, which allow the blood to pass only from the auricle to the ventricle. The latter is much stronger than the auricle: its sides are opaque, and furnished with numerous fleshy columns. The blood goes from it by two arteries situated at its two extremities; these follow the rectum, one ascending towards the head, the other descending to the anus. Such is the heart of the anodontites, or fresh-water muscle, of the venus, mastra, cardium, solen, pholas, mya, and apparently of all the equivale bivalves.

But the bivalves with unequal shells, at least the oysters and the pectens, have the heart differently placed; it occupies a cavity between the mass of the liver and the muscle that closes the shell; and is directed from behind forwards, or from the back to the branchiæ, and not, as in other bivalves, from above downwards, or from the anus to the head. In this case the auricles, or rather the single bilobed auricle is situated before the heart, and not at the side. This is remarkable in the oyster on account of its thickness, and deep red colour. It receives the blood from the branchiæ, and the heart distributes it to the body by two vessels which pass out at the extremity opposite to the auricle, and go,

one upwards to the liver, the other downwards to the muscle.

Each branchia has an infinite number of small, straight, parallel vessels, terminating perpendicularly in a larger one at the back of the branchia: these dorsal trunks convey the blood to the auricle. But each branchia has at the same time another series of small vessels, similar and parallel to the first, and pouring the venous blood into their extremities. This blood is brought by another vessel at the back of each branchia, which vessel receives the veins of the body.

The circulation is carried on in the *pteropoda*, as in the *gasteropoda*, by a simple heart, with one auricle, which receives the blood from the lung, and transmits it to the body. These things may be seen in the *hyalæa* and *pneumodermon*.

Cuvier states, that he has dissected only one genus of *brachiopoda*, and found two distinct hearts, both aortic, that is to say, receiving blood from the lung, and sending it to the body.

Thus we find that the whole class of mollusca possesses a circulation as complete as any vertebral animal; and that this circulation is double. When there is only one ventricle, it is aortic, and not pulmonary; when more than one, they are separate, and form so many distinct hearts. The passage from the arteries to the veins, in the little as well as in the great circulation, is as evident as in animals of the higher classes.

Blood and Circulation of Worms.—The blood is transparent, or at most a little bluish, in mollusca and crustacea. The supposed red blood of some of the first class is merely a secretion. But the entire class of articulated worms, both marine and terrestrial, has the blood more or less red, and often of as deep a tint as in any vertebral animal. It may be seen in the genera *lumbricus*, *hirudo*, *naia*, *nereis*, *aphrodite*, *amphionomia*, *amphitrite*, *terebella*, and *serpula*. But the *lumbricus marinus* (*arenicola*) exhibits most plainly, not merely the colour of the nutritive fluid, but also its course and direction: the yellow colour of the intestine and the grey colour of the parietes of the body allowing all the vessels to be perfectly distinguished.

A large vessel, diminishing in size at the two ends, lies along the back, between the branchiæ. It sends forward the blood by its anterior origin, and receives fifteen lateral vessels on each side, one from each branchia. They bring the blood from those organs, and are to be regarded as pulmonary veins: when the branchiæ contract, the large vessel is distended. The blood is carried back to the branchiæ by vessels similar in number to the preceding, but not all arising from a single trunk. The nine first proceed from a large vessel situated upon the intestinal canal immediately under the one first described. The others come from the back part of a vessel parallel to the two first, but situated under the intestinal canal. These two great longitudinal trunks send all their blood to the branchiæ: they represent both venæ cavæ and pulmonary arteries; for those branches which do not go to the lungs are veins returning the blood from the various organs. These branches of the *vena cava* in the *lumbricus marinus* are spread over the yellow surface of the intestinal canal with an admirable regularity; and the beauty of the arrangement is heightened by the splendour of their purple colour.

All these branches arise, in the first instance, from two vessels, which proceed along the sides of the intestinal canal, and perform the office of an aorta. They ascend as far as the lower part of the œsophagus, and then are bent to communicate with the great pulmonary vein, with which the description began. At this communication there is a swelling, which exhibits to the naked eye more marked contrac-

tions and dilatations than any other part of the system: although their parietes are no thicker than those of the other vessels, their enlargements may be called hearts; but as they are not found in all worms, it would be more exact to say that the circulation is carried on in these animals by the vessels only, without a heart. If, however, the existence of a heart be admitted, at least in the *lumbricus marinus*, it must be considered as double, and, like that of the two preceding classes, aortic.

The aphrodite, amphinomie, and nereids, differ from the *lumbricus marinus*, only in having a greater number of pulmonary vessels corresponding to the greater number of branchiæ. But in the species which have their branchiæ on the neck, as the amphitrite, the pulmonary vessels form four trunks, two arterial and two venous, coming from the trunks, which extend the whole length of the body, upon the intestine, and similar to those which have been described in the *lumbricus marinus*.

The colour of the blood is more difficultly perceived in the leech, because it is paler and less contrasted with the ground of the body; yet the vessels may be easily distinguished, and injected with mercury. There is a large longitudinal vessel on each side, communicating together, both towards the belly and back, by transverse branches, the ramifications of which, distributed in the skin, probably serve for respiration, as no other organ can be found out. Along the back we observe a middle and slender vessel, not so immediately connected to the two others, as they are to each other, and producing branchiæ on each side. This probably belongs to the arterial, and the two others to the venous system; but their connection has not been hitherto discovered.

Longitudinal vessels, producing ramifications filled with a fine red blood, may be seen in the earth-worm.

Movements of systole and diastole are very manifest, and quickly performed in all these red-blooded worms.

Echino-dermata.—I have not, says Cuvier, been able hitherto to arrive at any clear notions concerning the arrangement of the vascular system in this order; but the following is the result of my researches.

The intestinal canal of the *holothuria tubulosa* is twice folded, and consequently forms three portions. The middle of these has a vessel at its side, diminishing towards the two ends. It receives numerous short vessels from another tube, which will be described last; and it produces from the opposite surface others, which are much subdivided, and whose branches are at last united into an equal number of small vessels to end in a second trunk, which will be described. The net-work produced by this subdivision of the branches of the first vessel, before they end in the second, is intimately interwoven with the small branches of a hollow ramified organ ending in the cloaca, and probably concerned in respiration. This organ can be distended with water, or emptied at the will of the animal, and thus probably admits of the blood being acted on by the air. The first vessel, then, would be a pulmonary artery, and receive the blood from the body to transmit it to the lung. We have seen the branches, by which it receives blood from the intestine: that of the rest of the body comes from a vessel, which will be described third in order, having been brought by veins which are perceived over the whole mesentery.

The second great trunk is divided into four great branches, united by a transverse one: two receive the blood from the lung, and run parallel to the first trunk, but at a distance suited to the subdivisions of branches which go from one to the other. These two branches are a kind of pulmonary veins: they convey the blood, which has undergone the

action of the lung, into the two other branches by the transverse canal, and by their extremities; for there is a visible communication between them. These other branches, which consequently perform the office of aorta, run along the first portion of intestine, sending blood to it by an infinity of small, but rather long arteries, which seem to terminate immediately in the body of the intestine. The superior branch, arriving at a certain height, is bifurcated, and its two ramifications are joined so as to form a circle round the oesophagus, from which five arteries go off to the mass of the mouth and the general covering of the body. The blood returns from this covering by veins, which fill the mesenteries; but there is also a general trunk, which seems to form a kind of vena cava. It is made up of four principal branches, united by a transverse one. Two of these branches, which run along the first portion of intestine, receive the blood from it; and the two others transmit it to the pulmonary vessel by the small branches already mentioned at the beginning of the description.

According to this representation, the arrangement would very closely resemble that of worms.

In the *alteria* and *echini* the same approximation is observed between the vascular and digestive systems. The principal vein and artery equally run along the intestinal canal in the latter; and they are multiplied in the former to follow the *cæca*.

Nothing like blood-vessels can be seen in the medusæ. "The substance of these zoophytes," says Péron, "presents at first view the appearance of a kind of jelly, more or less diaphanous, consistent, and agreeably coloured according to the species. Excepting the lines, lamellæ, and vessels of the lower surface of the umbella, their substance appears homogeneous, even when examined with the most powerful magnifiers. However it may be torn or cut, the appearance is the same, and no trace of internal vessels can be discovered. Such indeed are the density and homogeneity of this matter, that we can hardly conceive it to be penetrated and nourished by vessels." *Annales du Muséum*, t. xv. p. 42.

Organs of Respiration.—Cuvier observes that these exhibit, in invertebral animals, the same relations to the organs of motion, and particularly to the force which animates those organs, as in the vertebral classes, and thus confirm the theory which assigns the degree of motive power as a measure of the quantity of respiration. Thus, the only class in this division of the animal kingdom, in which most of the individuals have the power of flying, is that in which respiration takes place at all points of the body, in which the tracheæ convey air to all parts; in short, insects. In some of those which have no wings, and therefore do not fly, the power of the muscles is evinced by the rapidity of their other motions. Let any one observe the centipede running, or the flea jumping, and he will acknowledge that they belong to a class possessing great muscular power, as he would judge of the ostrich and callowary, although they are birds without wings.

The mollusca, superior to insects in their circulating organs, and particularly in the central parts of their nervous system, have a circumscribed respiration; they breathe only by the lungs, and no portion of air is admitted into the rest of the body. It is therefore only necessary to compare the slowness of their motions, with their rapidity in insects, to estimate the effects of those differences in organization.

Invertebral animals possess either lungs more or less analogous to those of reptiles; branchiæ, sometimes similar to those of fishes, sometimes to those of tadpoles; or lastly, tracheæ, a kind of organ not known in the vertebral division. The latter is peculiar to insects; the former to a small number

ber of mollusca; the second is the most common, and is found in most mollusca, in worms, and crustacea. The mode of respiration is not well known in the echino-dermata, so that their organs cannot be classed with certainty.

The effect of respiration cannot be estimated by the colour of the blood, except in red-blooded worms, where it is very obvious: it may be seen without ligature or incision in the branchiæ of the *lumbricus marinus*. But the effect of this function on the respired air may be easily judged: the researchers of Vauquelin and other naturalists have shewn that invertebral animals consume oxygen like others, and infect the residue with carbonic acid. See RESPIRATION.

Respiratory Organs of the Mollusca.—We meet in this class with lungs, with uncovered branchiæ, and with branchiæ contained in a cavity. In the cephalopoda and acephala they are always of the latter kind; the gasteropoda have all three sorts. A lung is found in the terrestrial gasteropoda, and in those aquatic kinds which are obliged to come to the surface of the water in order to take in air. The principal genera that have it are the snail (*helix*), slug (*limax*), the testacella and parmacella, among the terrestrial; in the onchidium, bulimus of pools (*helix stagnalis*), and planorbis, among the aquatic. This lung is a larger or smaller cavity, communicating externally by a narrow aperture, which can be opened or closed voluntarily, while the cavity, contracting or dilating at the same time, expels or admits air. As the parietes are muscular, and there is no bony structure, there is no other mechanism than muscular contraction. The parietes of the cavity are furnished with an almost infinite network of blood-vessels, ramified in a rather spongy substance. The cavity itself is placed on the neck, and opens at the right side of the chest, in the snail, slug, bulimus, and planorbis; on the back, and opens on the right side of the body, in the parmacella; on the back, and opens backwards, in the testacella; on the posterior part of the body, and opens behind, under the edge of the cloak, in the onchidium.

The branchiæ projecting externally, sometimes represent tufts or trees, as in the tritonia, where they form a kind of hedge all round the body, and in the doris, where they have a circular arrangement round the anus, at the posterior part of the back; sometimes in small laminae or scales, as in the colides, where they are disposed like tiles on the back, in the phyllidiæ, the oscabrio, the patellæ, where they form a cordon all round the body, under the edge of the cloak. In the scyllæ they are pencils of filaments, dispersed over fleshy plates, or a kind of wings placed on the back. In the glaucus they resemble fins, radiated like a fan: in the pleurobranchus they are small plates, arranged in transverse rows on the two surfaces of a prominent plate at the right side of the body.

Testaceous gasteropoda have prominent branchiæ, but situated in a cavity concealed under the edge of the shell. The opening is generally very free, and occupies all the upper part of the animal's neck. Often also a part of the fleshy edge of the cloak is prolonged into a small canal, lodged in a corresponding canal of the shell, and calculated to conduct the surrounding element into the branchial cavity, even while the animal is entirely inclosed in its calcareous habitation. These canals are found in all the genera made out of those united together by Linnaeus under the names buccinum, murex, and strombus. In most of the genera the branchiæ form one or two long series of transverse plates, occupying the whole length of the cavity, but a part only of its breadth, and representing, sometimes a prism, sometimes a kind of pen fixed by the whole length of its stem. There is a single series in the murex tritonis; a large

and a small one in the buccinum undatum; two large ones in the halyotis.

Some genera however deviate from this general rule: the patella Hungarica, which seems so much like the other patella, has its branchiæ arranged in small long plates, placed within a cavity above the neck, but forming a transverse series round the edge of the cavity.

The course of the blood, however, is the same, whatever form the branchiæ may possess in the gasteropoda: each division and subdivision receives a pulmonary arterial branch from the vena cava, and sends a venous branch into the pulmonary vein, which terminates in the heart. The position of the branchiæ regulates that of the heart, as well as the course of the large vessels.

The branchiæ of the acephala are formed into plates, each composed of a double leaf: they have a double series of vessels, very regularly and closely arranged, like the teeth of a fine comb, the striæ being at right angles to the length of the plate. An artery and a vein run along the basis of the plate. The testaceous acephala have four of these plates, inclosed between the two lobes of the cloak, and allowing the foot to pass between them when there is one. The internal surface of the four triangular plates furrounding the mouth, and occupying the place of lips or tentacula, is also striated with vessels similar to those of the branchiæ, and may probably assist in respiration.

Poli speaks of small air-vessels, commencing in the small tentacula, usually situated at the posterior edge of the cloak, or round the orifice of the branchial tube: he supposes that they penetrate to a certain reservoir, whence the air passes into the interior of the branchiæ. Cuvier has not found this structure, and thinks that respiration is carried on in the acephala, as in other mollusca and fishes, by the simple afflux of water over the external surface of the branchiæ.

Some genera bring this water to the branchiæ by simply opening the shell and the anterior edges of the cloak. It is expelled by again shutting the shell. In the muscle, which has the widest opening of the shell behind, the water passes in and out at this part. When the animal is placed in water, a slight motion of the fluid is perceived in this situation, produced by the process of respiration. In the genera which have the cloak prolonged behind into one or two tubes, the water enters, and is discharged by the tube farthest from the back, or by the analogous canal, when there is only one tube: for it is then divided into two canals. The cardium, venus, mætra, tellina, &c. &c. have two tubes; the pholas, solen, teredo, mya, &c. have only one. They can partly withdraw the tubes into the shell by means of two flat, fan-shaped, retractile muscles, attached to the lobes of the cloak: but they do not extend them simply by muscular action; for they may be seen to increase in length and breadth both at the same time in the pholades.

In the afcidæ, which are naked acephala, the branchiæ do not form four plates, but a single large sac, with an extremely fine vascular network. This bag is filled with water as often as the animal dilates it: the mouth is at its bottom. In the biphori, or salpæ, and the thalia, they form only a narrow ribbon, obliquely traversing the interior of the body: the water, in passing through this from before backwards, necessarily goes over this ribbon.

The cephalopoda also have their branchiæ inclosed in a cavity, that is, in the bag forming their body. They are separated from the other viscera by the peritoneum, and their cavity communicates externally by the funnel under the neck. The water is admitted and expelled by the dilatation and

and contraction of the muscular parietes of the bag : thus it is renewed in the branchiæ. The latter are two large pyramids, placed at the side of the peritoneum, with their base towards the bottom of the sac, and the apex towards the infundibulum. Each is attached by a membranous ligament to a muscular column which adheres to the sac, and sends a process to each of the plates of which the pyramid is composed. The pulmonary artery, arising from the lateral heart of its own side, ascends along the external edge of the branchia, giving two arteries to each plate. The pulmonary vein, which terminates in the intermediate heart, descends along the internal side of the branchia, receiving two veins from each plate. The plates themselves are arranged one over the other, parallel to the basis of the pyramid : their figure is triangular, and the two surfaces exhibit rows of pencils, filaments, or minute ramifications, which are the ultimate divisions of the pulmonary vessels. Each branchial pyramid of the calmar has as many as sixty of these plates, while we find only nine in the octopus ; but in the latter the rows of filaments are more minutely ramified, and form much thicker strata.

Respiration must be effected by the admission of water to the branchia, and by its penetration among all the fine processes of their surfaces ; in the same way, in short, as in other infauntes.

Instead of branchiæ, the brachiopoda have a circle of small triangular plates attached to each lobe of the cloak.

Among the pteropoda, the hyalæa has them concealed in the two folds of the cloak ; they represent vascular ramifications on the wings of the clo ; and in the pneumodermion they are small plates, forming various lines on the surface of the abdomen.

In the singular animals called anatifæ and balani, there are found, on each side, at the basis of the arms or tentacula, conical plates, equal in number to that of the arms, but having a contrary direction, namely, towards the back, and lying against the body under the cloak. Their relation to the vascular system has not yet been determined.

Thus we find, in all the mollusca, as complete an apparatus for respiration as for circulation. An extraordinary additional or secondary office of the branchiæ is that, which they perform in some acephala, of affording a receptacle, for a certain time, for the ova, and even for the young when hatched.

Organs of Respiration in Worms.—Leeches and earth-worms, as well as the thalassæma, have no other apparatus for breathing but the skin and its vascular network : but in other genera there are ridges or tufts, in which the vessels are ramified. Those which swim freely in the water have the organs equally arranged on the two sides, along a more or less considerable portion of the back. Such as live in tubes have them usually placed on the head, that they may be more easily exposed to the water.

In the aphrodite aculeata they are small fleshy cristæ, slightly resembling that of the cock, situated above each of the tubercles, which support bristles. There are forty pairs. In the scaly aphrodite they are small bundles of filaments.

In the nereids there are small fleshy cones, amounting to two or three on each side of a ring : the blood-vessels are ramified in them with wonderful delicacy. Sometimes, instead of these small cones, there are true filaments grouped into pencils, of three, or seven, or even in the form of tufts. Sometimes there are small thin plates.

In the terebella flava the branchiæ represent bipinnated leaves, and have a beautiful rose-colour. There are thirty pairs. In the tetraedra and carunculata there are merely

large fasciculi of filaments. Their number in all these genera is the same as that of the rings of the body.

The arenicola (*lumbricus marinus*) has only fourteen pairs occupying the middle of the back, and resembling small clove bushes, of the finest carmine when distended with blood, and becoming pale again when empty.

The terebella have branchiæ in the form of small clove trees ; there are only three pairs, situated in the back, near the head.

In the amphitrite there are two pairs in the same situation, but shaped like feathers, very thick.

They form, in the ferpula, at the sides of the mouth, two beautiful fan-like processes, with feathery branches, having long stems and short barbs, and exhibiting the finest colours. The number of feathery processes, as well as the general curvature of the fan, varies according to the species.

The fabellæ (*amphitrite ventralabrum*, Linn., &c.) have fan-like branchiæ, as well as the ferpula. Sometimes the fan has a spiral turn.

In these animals each branchia has a vascular, arterial and venous system, as in the higher classes. But we come to an end here of respiration by expansion of the vascular system.

Respiration of the Echino-dermata.—Monro regarded the feet, or those cylindrical and extensile tentacula, by means of which the echini, asteriæ, and holothuriæ walk, as organs for absorption of the surrounding fluid, at least in the first of these genera. Cuvier assigns this function, in the two first named genera, to organs much smaller and more numerous, which may be seen in a living asterias observed in water. Besides the great tentacula of the lower surface, the whole integument bristles with small fleshy tubes, which are withdrawn into small openings as soon as the animal is taken out of water. They form a beautiful spectacle in the large species, coming out at all points : the very spines produce them by small apertures along their stems ; and while the minute tubes are extended, they resemble small leaves of trees connected to their branches. There are species in which they form tufts, &c. round these spines. Those tubes which are situated on the sides of the feet, are generally longer than the others. It can hardly be doubted, that they have the office of conveying water into the interior of the body.

The holothuriæ, at least the tubulosa, have no tubes projecting externally, but they have an internal organ, which must be subservient, according to all appearance, to respiration. It is one or more membranous and hollow trees, of which the trunk opens into the same receptacle (cloaca) as the anus. It enters the body, dividing and subdividing, until it ends at last in small conical productions. The branches swell at intervals into vesicles, which are generally found more or less distended with water.

The holothuria tubulosa has a single trunk, divided from its origin into two principal branches, of which one proceeds along the general covering, adhering to it by a kind of mesentery ; the other runs among the intestines, interweaving its branches with the vessels already noticed. This connection is so intimate, that it cannot be detached without laceration : probably there is a communication at this point between the nutritive fluid and the surrounding element.

The holothuria pentactes has two distinct trunks, deeply divided into large branches ; other species have only one, which is not divided.

All animals situated below these in the scale, are destitute apparently of respiratory apparatus.

The genera medusa and rhizothoma, whose numerous vessels are expanded in the thin edge of their disk, may probably

bably respire by this part: but the zoophytes, properly so called, beginning with the armed polypes (hydra), breathe, if at all, by their whole surface.

If, as some have conjectured, the vibrating organs of the vorticellæ and rotifers are an apparatus for breathing, these animals ought to occupy a higher rank in the scale of being than they do now. Their extreme minuteness must oppose great obstacles to our acquiring any exact knowledge about them.

Physiology of Respiration.—The changes produced in the air by the respiration of the mollusca, &c. have been already spoken of in the article RESPIRATION, towards the end, under the head of *Respiration of Animals*. We have only to notice here the facts that have been ascertained respecting their temperature.

"Spallanzani observes," says Mr. Ellis, "that when a snail or slug is insulated in a jar of atmospheric air, a thermometer placed in the jar will continue stationary; but when several are confined together, the mercury rises one-tenth, one-seventh, and even one-fifth of a degree, and in oxygen gas, one-third of a degree; from which he concludes, that snails and slugs, in decomposing oxygen gas, give out caloric enough to be sensible to the thermometer. (Memoirs on Respiration, p. 255. 258.) This experiment we repeated, by confining several snails in a pint jar of air, from the top of which a small thermometer was suspended, and at the bottom a glass of lime-water was placed. A film of carbonate of lime soon overspread the lime-water, the inside of the jar was dimmed by moisture, and the mercury in the thermometer rose at the same time nearly one degree. Dr. Martine says, that from the result of several trials which he made, snails were about two degrees warmer than the air. (On Thermometers, p. 141.) Mr. Hunter found the lungs of snails 38°, when the atmosphere was 34°; and, in other instances, snails were six and seven degrees above the atmosphere, when it was so low as 30°. Earth-worms he found 58.5°, when the atmosphere was 56°; and, in other trials, the worms exceeded by four, leeches by three, and slugs by four degrees the temperature of the ambient air. (Treatise on the Blood, p. 298, et seq.) The temperature of a snail, which was 44°, sank, on exposure to a cold mixture, down to 31°, and then froze; and several leeches froze likewise when reduced to 31°. (Observations on the Animal Economy, p. 105.) In all these experiments, the animals, when thawed, were found to be dead; but Mr. Carlisle says, that the garden-snail may be frozen, during its state of dormancy, without destroying its muscular irritability. Philos. Trans. 1805, p. 18." Inquiry into the Changes, &c. p. 215.

Generative Organs.

Generative Organs of the Mollusca.—Four combinations are met with in this class: viz. 1. Separate sexes with copulation; in several gasteropoda, as the buccinum. 2. Separate sexes without copulation; in the cephalopoda. 3. The sexes united with reciprocal copulation; in the snail, and most gasteropoda. 4. The sexes united, and fecundating each other in the same individual, or perfect hermaphroditism; in the acephala.

The Cephalopoda; Male Organs.—The testicle is a large, whitish, and rather soft gland, found in the bottom of the abdominal sac; its structure is remarkable, and easily developed. It is inclosed in a membranous capsule, united to it only by vessels passing between them, and that at one point only: it has a thin proper cellular tunic. Its surface exhibits an infinite number of small areolæ, which are the commencement of white, opaque, soft filaments, lying close to-

gether and composing the whole substance of the gland. In the cuttle-fish these filaments are small and numerous, so that the areolæ are mere points. In the octopus the filaments are larger, and like ribbons. They unite successively to form trunks, which terminate in the cuttle-fish, in vast numbers, in three or four large excretory canals passing through the gland in various directions, and ending ultimately in a large common circular opening, furnished with a valve which prevents the return of the fluid. In the octopus, which has fewer filaments, the large common canals do not exist, but the filaments end immediately at the common opening. These filaments are themselves small excretory vessels, surrounded by glandular parenchyma, and connected by blood-vessels, nerves, and cellular substance. The fluid they secrete is poured out through the opening into the membranous capsule, from which it is conveyed by a canal representing the epididymis, and tortuous, like that tube in the human subject. It ends in a larger canal, of which the interior has at first several projecting and ramified columns and ridges, and afterwards a single one extending through its whole length, and dividing it into two half canals. This canal, much shorter and less tortuous than that of the epididymis, contracts towards its end, and penetrates a tolerably large cylindrical glandular body, possessing a large excretory duct, which receives the termination of the canal just mentioned.

This body is large and solid in the octopus, much less and nearly membranous in the cuttle-fish. It is regarded as a kind of prostate. Its canal joins one of the two belonging to the cavity which contains the springing tubes, which will be spoken of presently.

This cavity or bursa, which is large and much folded, is capable of considerable extension, and contains the celebrated tubes, first imperfectly described in the cuttle-fish by Swammerdam, then more in detail by Needham in the calmar, and rendered famous by Buffon, who derived from them the principal support of his system, on the nature of the spermatric animalcules. The octopus has them larger than the two other species. The bursa, which contains them mixed up with a viscid liquor, is composed of two compartments communicating together, but each possessing a distinct orifice. One of these orifices is the commencement of a slender canal, which ends on the exterior of the penis at the side: the other also produces a canal, which, after having become still smaller, opens externally near the base of the penis.

The penis is a hollow, cylindrical, fleshy body, perforated at its point, and having a cul-de-sac behind the place where the canal just mentioned opens. Its cavity possesses fleshy columns internally.

The excretory canal of the prostate, which is to transmit also the seminal fluid of the testicle, communicates more particularly with that compartment of the bursa, whose duct opens externally on the penis. The communication indeed is very near its orifice. It is the other compartment of the bursa, whose duct opens in the penis. The name of penis is given to this part, because it projects externally, and has a cylindrical form: it does not seem, however, to be an organ of copulation, although it certainly is one of ejaculation.

All the canals now described, from the testicle to the penis, are situated on the left side of the abdomen, and the penis projects within the left branchia; but as the funnel placed under the neck closes the fleshy bag, it seems impossible for the penis to approach the part which gives issue to the oviduct of the female, so as to produce copulation. The seminal fluid thrown out by the penis must traverse the funnel, as the ova, the ink, and the excrements do.

Swammerdam and Needham took the burfa of the fpringing tubes for the tefticle, from which it is confiderably diftant. They have been followed in this error even by modern authors.

The tubes themfelves are membranous bodies like worms, terminated by a filament thinner than their body, fix lines or more in length. While they remain in their vifcous liquid; or if placed in fpirits or oil, they continue at reft; but if they are put in water, they become agitated, twift about, and throw out at one extremity an opaque matter. By means of a glafs we can fee in their interior an opaque whitifh body, fpiral like a cork-fcrew, terminating behind in a fpongy mafs, and before in a fimilar fmaller one. It feems that this body is elastic, and retained by the external membrane of the tube; that water, by foftening and difolving the extremity of the tube, allows the fpiral or fpongy body to exert its natural elasticity; and that the twifting of the tube arifes from the effort which the fpiral body thus makes to efcape. However the matters may be explained, the motion certainly is not a vital one, and may be feen in the tubes of a cuttle-fifh, which has been preferred for years in fpirits of wine, as foon as they are put in water.

But what purpofe is ferved by thefe tubes? Are they, like the pollen of plants, capfules containing a feminal aura, and not giving way to allow its efcape, until they are in a proper fituation? They feem to be developed only in the burfa, which contains them, and they are not found at all feafons. Are the ordinary fpermatic animalcules to be confidered analogous to thefe tubes, according to the notions of Buffon?

Female Organs.—They are more fimple. The ovary occupies a fituation analogous to that of the tefticle, and is in the fame manner enveloped by a membranous capfule, to which it is connected at one point only by veffels. The capfule is fimple in the octopus, divided into two by a feptum in the cuttle-fifh.

The ovary has thoufands of ramifications, and refembles the moft complicated and beautiful tree. The ova enlarge unequally: at the end of a certain time we find them large, preffed together, and angular. Two tubes go from the capfule in the octopus, and the calmar fagittatum of Lamarck. In the former, when empty, they are fmall, and plaited internally. They end at the fides of the anus. At one-third of their length is a knot, which is a gland traversed by the ova, and furnifhing them with their external covering. It is divided, like an orange, by longitudinal fepta.

In the calmar fagittatum there are fimilar glands, much larger in proportion, oval, fituated at the very end of the oviducts, and divided by very numerous, thin, tranfverfe fepta. The oviduct enters at the fide, and contracts confiderably before going out.

The cuttle-fifh and common calmar have a fingle oviduct terminated by a gland of the fame kind. The duct of the latter is larger, and makes two convolutions.

The ducts of the calmar fagittatum end at the inner fide of the branchiae: the fingle tube of the cuttle-fifh and common calmar terminates near the left branchia, in the fame fituation as the penis of the male.

Thefe three fpecies have alfo three enormous oval glands, divided, like that of the oviduct, by tranfverfe fepta, and opening at the fides of the anus. Their ufe is unknown.

The eggs of the octopus and calmar are united by a gelatinous fubftance into fmall mafes, while thofe of the cuttle-fifh are united by a ductile matter into bunches, like thofe of grapes. The uniting medium is probably furnifhed by the glands which terminate the oviduct: perhaps the three

glands juft mentioned may alfo be concerned in furnifhing it.

Hermaphrodite Gafteropoda.—They muft be arranged in two fections; thofe in which the organs of the two fexes have a common ifTue, as the fnail; and thofe in which their ifTues are feparate, or even diftant, as the aplyfia. Under the firft are included the fnail, slug, teftacella, parmacella, doris, tritonia, and many univalves.

The slug may be defcribed firft, as being the moft fimply organized: it has only the organs common to the whole clafs; viz. an ovary, oviduct, tefticle, vas deferens, penis, and bladder with a long neck.

The ovary is fituated towards the back part of the body, between the lobes of the liver and the inteftines. It forms a very complicated congeries, like a bunch of fmall grapes, of which each grain is an ovum, while the pedicles are tubes uniting together, and ending at laft in the oviduct. The latter forms many zigzags, and adheres fo clofely to the tefticle, that it may eafily be fuppofed to penetrate its fubftance, and receive the fecreted fluid; but this is not the cafe. Having followed the whole length of the tefticle, become obviously larger, and even during the feafon of copulation fwellen and plaited, the oviduct terminates in the bottom of the common cavity of generation.

The tefticle is a white oblong gland, very large, particularly at the feafon of propagation. It may be divided into two parts: the posterior, behind the junction of the oviduct is oval, and fwellen moft at the time juft mentioned. The anterior is oblong. Its ftructure does not fo much confift of filaments, like that of the cuttle-fifh, as of grains. It produces an excretory canal, which opens at the bottom of the penis.

The latter is a cylindrical flefhy bag, poffeffing internally a prominent ridge in its whole length, and opening into the common cavity of the generative organs. It can be everted like the finger of a glove, and be extended by means of its own fibres, and withdrawn to its original pofition by a retractor mufcle arifing from the back of the animal, and inferted in the point of the bag, near the vas deferens. When this bag is unfolded, and is protruded externally, it forms a projecting penis, the internal ridge being unfolded fo as to make the internal furface fufficiently broad to become external. The orifice of the vas deferens is now found on the very point of the penis, having been before at the bottom of the bag.

The bladder with the long neck, making the third principal organ, was called by Swammerdam the refervoir of the purple, believing that the murex formed in an analogous part the celebrated colouring matter of the ancients. This is not the cafe; though the real ufe of the part in queftion is not known. It fometimes contains, both in the slug and fnail, a concrete reddifh-grey fubftance: at other times merely a liquid. It is found in all gafteropoda, and may poffibly be concerned in producing a fluid to cover the eggs.

The common cavity of generation is a flefhy fac, in which the three preceding organs terminate, and which has an external opening under the right fuperior horn.

When fnails copulate, they evert this fac, which then prefents three openings; viz. of the oviduct, bladder, and penis. The latter quickly comes out of its opening, and enters the oviduct of the other individual. In this way copulation is effected: the laying takes place fome days after.

The intimate connection between part of the oviduct and part of the teftis and vas deferens, deceived Swammerdam concerning the nature of thefe organs. He firft conceived

the testicle to be the ovary: having afterwards found the true ovary, he called the testis the bag of glue. The large part of the oviduct adhering to the testis he called the uterus; and not seeing that the vas deferens belongs exclusively to the testis, and has only an external attachment to the oviduct, he admitted a communication between the uterus and penis.

The size of the penis varies in the different species of snails: some have it longer than the body, when extended.

These organs in the testacella do not differ remarkably from those of the snail.

The ovary of the tritonia is more voluminous, the oviduct larger in proportion, and the testicle irregularly lobed and shaped like a ball.

In the doris, the oviduct, after joining the testis, appears to unite with the canal of the bladder, and to form with it a common canal. In the doris foles, from the Indian seas, it seems even to enter the bladder itself; which would confirm the notion of this part being designed to furnish a covering for the ova. The testicle is rounded, and touches the common cavity. A small accessory bladder is connected to the canal of the bladder.

In the bulimus flagnalis (helix, Linn.) the connection between the oviduct and testicle is not so close. The vas deferens can be distinguished throughout, at first large and expanded into a reservoir much plaited, and capable of containing a large quantity of fluid. At passing out, the canal is small, enters the flesh near the end of the oviduct, then comes out again to end in the bottom of the sac of the penis, which is organized as in the slug.

The ovary and testicle of the snail are arranged as in the slug. The neck of the bladder is much longer, and connected to the broad portion of the oviduct, as far as the point of its union with the testicle. The lower part of its neck is broad, and receives the orifice of the oviduct. It moreover receives the apertures of two parts, which do not exist in the slug; viz. two ramified organs, each of which terminates in fifteen or twenty small cæca, containing a white milky liquor. This might be considered as femoral fluid, and the organs as vesiculæ feminales, but they have no immediate connection with the vas deferens. The latter terminates in the side of the penis, near its entry into the common cavity. The penis therefore is not perforated at its bottom, as in the slug: it is also much longer; but probably it cannot be unfolded in its whole length, perhaps only as far as the point at which the vas deferens enters: this would then become its external extremity.

The snail has another remarkable part, not found in the slug; viz. the sac of the dart. It is oblong, with thick muscular parietes: at the bottom there is a papilla, from which proceeds a pointed dagger-shaped dart, with four cutting edges. The substance of this singular part is calcareous: it is renewed when lost. Snails prick each other with it, at any part of the skin indifferently, when they are about to copulate. They seem too to dread it; for as soon as one perceives the other's dart, he withdraws immediately into the shell. The object of such a proceeding cannot be conjectured. Copulation does not take place, until after both individuals have brought out their darts: it resembles that of the slug.

The length of the penis protruded in copulation, and the number of cæca, vary in the different species of snails.

The parmacella has the same organs as the snails. Its vesiculæ are oval and undivided, and terminate directly in the common cavity. The sac of the dart is nearer to the

prepuce of the penis; and the vas deferens opens in the bottom of the latter.

The second section of hermaphrodite gasteropoda includes those, in whom the penis passes out at some point of the body distant from the oviduct. The vas deferens is still united to the oviduct, and communicates with the penis only by the intervention of a groove excavated in the external surface of the body. This groove is on the right side of the neck in the aplysia; under the right edge of the cloak in the onchidium, &c.

The ovary of the aplysia is an oval mass, occupying all the posterior part of the abdomen, and in its ordinary state of a whitish colour. The oviduct arises from it by several vessels, coming from the different parts of the mass, like the excretory tubes of a gland, and uniting into one canal. The latter, having run along the right side of the testicle, suddenly becomes smaller, turns round the apex of that gland, and forms a canal which, having been closely joined for some time to the vas deferens, terminates by opening in it, after receiving a small blind intestine, apparently analogous to the ramified organs of the snail.

The testicle is of a beautiful yellow, and resembles an elliptic spheroid surrounded by a spiral band. Its middle is tolerably compact, and seems nearly homogeneous. The spiral band is itself divided into a principal finely striated band, of which the testis are probably so many vessels, and two smooth borders, which are excretory tubes. The superior is the vas deferens common to the whole testicle, serving to convey the femoral fluid.

The common cord going to the exterior of the body is at first divided into two canals. That which comes from the testis is formed of a thin membrane much plaited: the other, from the oviduct, has thicker parietes. From the first third of their length they communicate freely by means of a slit: yet the distinction between them is marked by a projecting membranous septum. The oval bladder opens, towards the second thread, by a small particular duct. Beyond this orifice, the double canal forms a prominence, visible externally, on the right side of the body: its opening is continuous with a deep groove formed in the right side of the neck, and continued into the body of the penis. Does this groove conduct the femoral fluid of one aplysia into the body of another? The solution of the mode of fecundation in these animals depends on the answer to that question.

The onchidium resembles the aplysia in the separation of the organs. The oviduct, after being joined to the testicle, is united to the canal of the bladder, near its neck; and the common canal goes out at the same point as the vas deferens. From their orifice a groove extends, on the right side, along the under part of the cloak, to that of the penis situated at the right side of the head. The latter communicates first with a cavity having two cul-de-sacs. In the bottom of one of them a cylindrical tube enters, which traverses an elliptical muscular enlargement, and extends beyond it to a length more than five times that of the body. Near its entrance into the cavity, this tube conceals a sharp horny point. The other cul-de-sac receives the end of a tube shorter and much slenderer than the preceding, without any enlargement. This has also a small horny point in the corresponding situation. The use of these organs is not known.

The oviduct is distinct throughout from the testicle and the canal of the bladder in the bullæa, although the three organs have their issue at the same point. There is also an accessory vesicula, coming out with them, and a smaller one

ending in the oviduct. The penis forms a tube nearly as long as that of the onchidium, but without any enlargement or accessory tube.

The openings of the sexual organs are remote from each other in the *hyalæa* and *pneumodermon*, although united in the same individual; but the animals are too small for a detailed description.

Gasteropoda with separate Sexes.—This separation certainly exists in the *buccinum undatum*. The male is recognized, even externally, by a fleshy penis as large as a finger, compressed, broader at the end, and terminated by a small tubercle, which is perforated by the orifice of the vas deferens. It adheres to the right side of the neck, and folds back into the pulmonary cavity, but the animal often extends it, without any intention of copulating. The vas deferens traverses its whole length, making several folds and zigzags; it enters the right side of that part of the body which fills the shell, makes a large packet of tortuous turns, becomes gradually smaller, and ends at the testicle, a yellowish, soft, glandular mass, occupying with the liver the highest turns of the shell.

Nothing similar to this penis is found in the female; the neck is smooth, but on the right side of the pulmonary cavity, between the body and the rectum, a large canal is seen, the extremity of the oviduct. The orifice is small: on opening it we find a large tube with thick glandular parietes, calculated no doubt to furnish an exterior covering for the ova. It opens a little within the edge of the pulmonary cavity by a small aperture.

In the *murex tritonis*, there is a similar separation of sexes, and a penis equally fleshy and prominent. Instead, however, of having a complete vas deferens in its interior, there is a simple groove on the surface, continued on the body, as far as the portion which fills the shell. The penis is proportionally shorter and thinner than in the *buccinum*. The female has an oviduct similar to that of the female *buccinum*.

The *strombus* has a mere tubercle projecting slightly at the right side of its very small foot. The feminal fluid is conveyed to it also by a groove.

The penis of the *voluta* is fleshy, conical, always projecting, but not perforated: the semen arrives by a groove, which however ends at its basis, without going to the point.

In those genera with separate sexes, the oviduct is wanting when there is a penis with its groove; this groove occupying the place of the oviduct.

There is an hermaphrodite species; but it seems formed rather on the model of those just described, than on that of the species in the former division. It is the *helix vivipara* of fresh water. It has an oviduct and a groove, placed side by side, and ending respectively at the ovary and testicle. The latter is closely joined to the oviduct: its groove terminates externally at the very edge of the foot, under the right horn; and there is no penis but the prominence which this edge may form when extended. The oviduct is of great size and length when filled with small living individuals.

This animal is ovo-viviparous. In the upper part of its oviduct we find eggs not hatched, resembling small globules of a whitish glairy matter, in which with a glass the animal can be seen covered by its shell. In these ova the small pedicle may be still seen, by which they were attached to the ovary.

The *acephala* are all hermaphrodites, and impregnate themselves without any copulation. We discover no other generative organs but an ovary, extending over the two sides of the body, immediately under the skin, penetrating be-

tween the tendons of the muscles, and sometimes between the two membranes of the cloak. The size and colour vary according as the animal is more or less advanced in gelation. At a certain period a milky liquor is seen in it, which is probably a feminal fluid designed to fecundate the ova. When the latter are advanced, they pass into the spaces between the two vascular laminae, composing each of the four plates of the branchiae, and sometimes distend them in an extraordinary manner, for the number is truly prodigious in some species. The eggs of the ovo-viviparous species, as the fresh-water muscle, are hatched in the branchiae. When we observe the little muscles with a glass, we see them open and shut their valves with great activity.

No orifice has yet been discovered, by which they could pass out; probably they escape by lacerating the tissue at the edges of the branchiae between their pulmonary vessels.

The organs of generation in the naked *acephala*, as the *biphoti* and *acidæ*, and in the *branchiopoda*, as the *terebratulæ* and *lingulæ*, have not been carefully investigated.

The *cirropoda*, or *balani* and *anatifæ*, differ very much from the *acephala*, and approach in their male organs, as in several others, to the crustacea. On each side of their intestinal canal there is a white serpentine tube, supposed to be the testicle, and ending towards the basis of the rectum. Yet these animals are hermaphrodites, and their ovaries are two masses placed between the trunk and the cloak, and connected in their situation only by vessels and cellular tissue.

Generative Organs of Worms.—This class exhibits the three combinations, which are found in the mollusca; some have the sexes separate; others united, so that they fecundate themselves in an insulated manner; in a third division they are united, but there is a reciprocal copulation.

The leech exemplifies the latter modification; it has a very considerable penis, composed of a thick and long muscular tube, hollow internally, which can be protruded like the penis of the snail, while it is prolonged backwards into a slender and merely membranous tube. There are two testicles, each composed of numerous convolutions of a single, soft, whitish canal, with glandular sides, and of a short, straight, and muscular vas deferens. These two tubes appear to terminate at the basis of the muscular part of the penis, and the feminal fluid probably flows along the grooves of its surface, when it is unrolled. Near it is a cavity opening externally, and serving apparently to receive the penis of the other individual. The orifices of these parts are near each other, and near the anterior extremity of the body.

The earth-worm exhibits two orifices on its under surface, near the anterior extremity, and not, as some have described, at the swelling in the middle of the body. They correspond internally to two or three soft, oval, glandular cavities. There are several smaller ones around them. These seem to be the organs of generation; but we cannot point out their functions. Willis mentions that the large cavities are sometimes filled with eggs; but we see true ovaries, in the form of small intestines, arranged in three or four pairs, and swelled by ova, so as to resemble rows of beads. No external or internal organ of copulation can be found; yet it is popularly known that earth-worms remain closely embraced for the purpose of fecundation.

In the anterior part of the body of the *lumbricus marinus* there are five greyish sacculi on each side, suspended by vessels and cellular substance, and appearing analogous to those of the earth-worm. The ova must escape from the sacculi

sacculi in these animals, for we sometimes find the whole body filled with them.

The same thing is seen in the aphrodite, where the sexes are separate; in small individuals the body is filled with a whitish milt, while the large ones have it full of small ova in all the intervals of the vilcera. If, as it seems probable, there are particular organs for the preparation of these substances, they have not yet been discovered or described. The same observation may be extended to the genera nereis, ferpula, and other red-blooded worms.

It is doubtful, whether or no there are distinct sexes in the intestinal worms. In the acaulis lumbricoides, the orifice of generation is found in the anterior third of the body: a small short vessel soon ends in two larger ones, which gradually diminishing extend to four or five times the length of the body, and are collected in irregular bundles, which may be easily developed. These tubes, which must be regarded as ovaries, contain a milky fluid, and an infinite number of small ova.

All the echino-dermata seem to be hermaphrodites, and to possess the power of fecundating themselves: their ovaries fill a large part of the body, when they are swollen in the season of laying. They are sometimes seen bathed as it were in a milky liquor, which seems to hold the place of seminal fluid: this may be observed in the common star-fish, where the ovaries form five large branches, one for each division of the body: the eggs are round and reddish.

The echini, properly so called, have from five to ten considerable ovaries, reddish, lying near the surface of the shell, and ending at the circumference of the anus. They form the eatable portion of the echini.

In the holothurizæ, a collection of numerous ramified small tubes is seen near the mouth, amazingly developed at particular seasons, when they are filled with a reddish powdery matter, sometimes collected in globules. These parts seem to be the ovaries; but we see also, near the anus, numerous whitish filaments, resembling worms, and each formed of a slender elastic thread, turned spirally, and capable of being unfolded.

The mode of generation in the actiniaz has been described by Reaumur: he states that "in producing its young, the actinia inverts its body as it does in rejecting the shells of animals, which it has swallowed for food. I have observed that these animals are viviparous, and have seen them come out, perfectly formed, from the body of the mother, as they are represented in fig. 25. It is necessary that the cavity should be turned inside out, as we have already described in speaking of the digestive process: the young ones then come out of a large transverse fissure. Although the parent may contain sometimes more than twelve (and this opening is large enough to allow several to pass at once), they come out one by one, and indifferently at all parts of the fissure. These little actiniaz, before their birth, are placed in the basis of the parent; and lodged in folds of the membrane." Reaumur, Acad. des Sciences, 1710, p. 477.

The process and the organs concerned in it have been described more in detail by Dr. Spix, in the *Annales du Muséum d'Hist. Naturelle*, tom. xiii. "The space left between the alimentary cavity and the external envelop of the animal is divided," he says, "into longitudinal cavities by folds of a membrane which lines it, and is analogous to peritonæum. Each longitudinal cavity contains an ovary, and communicates with two or three tentacula. Each ovary is composed of three or four cylindrical and united tubes, joining together at their basis into a common canal, and becoming slenderer towards the apex in proportion as the eggs become smaller, of which each ovary contains about

sixty. The common tubes of two neighbouring ovaries join into one, and this latter again joins the common tube of the two next ovaries. The oviduct thus formed belongs therefore to four ovaries, and terminates in the bottom of the stomach. This is the only point at which the young can come forth: hence all observers have found them in the stomach, without knowing how they came there. The eggs are round, yellow, and similar to grains of sand. The actiniaz are viviparous, according to the observations of Reaumur, Ellis, and Dictionnaire, with which my own agree. I have often seen the young come out of the mouth, of a form perfectly similar to that of the mother. An actinia, which I have in spirits of wine, contains a great number of eggs marked with an opaque point, and apparently containing the embryo animal. I have even an individual about the size of a hempeed, which seems to quit its covering with difficulty, and whose mouth and tentacula are not yet distinct." P. 448. pl. 33.

The multiplication of polypes and zoophytes by buds or shoots is well known: this seems to preclude the existence of a particular organ of generation. Yet the author just quoted, has described and figured parts which he considers as generative organs in a species of alcyonium. See his *Memoir and plate* as above.

Peculiar Secretions.—The *inky fluid* of the sepizæ is produced in a membranous bag, expressly destined to that office. The secreting organ is a villous surface, with fine and long processes, adhering to one of the sides of the bag. The secretion is a very thick black substance; but its particles are so minute, that it admits almost of infinite dilution, and a small quantity will tinge a vast volume of water. This matter, when removed and dried, forms the colour named sepia by the painters; that of the common cuttle-fish is a black-brown. The octopus has it blacker; and the Indian ink which comes from China is certainly nothing more than the produce of some sepia of that country, so that it is useless to attempt imitating it by artificial mixtures. Chemical analysis has discovered in it a very minutely divided carbonaceous matter, mixed with animal gluten.

The ink-bag of the octopus is enveloped by the lobes of the liver, which has given rise to the erroneous idea of some moderns, that this part is analogous to the gall-bladder, and that the fluid is a biliary secretion.

It is in front of the liver in the calmar, but free, and not inclosed in its substance. In the cuttle-fish it is much more deeply placed, before the intestines and the intermediate heart.

In all cases, its excretory duct terminates near the anus, pouring its liquor into the funnel, which is the general receptacle for all the excretions.

The *purple matter*, so celebrated among the ancients, is produced by several different gasteropoda: possibly, however, some species may furnish it of a more beautiful or durable kind. It transudes in some of the genus *murex* from the edges of the cloak; so that it is no doubt produced in them as in the aplysia, of which the organ will be described. Swammerdam suspected that the sac, adhering to the organs of generation, and described by the indefinite term of bladder, was the reservoir of the purple; but this suspicion does not seem well founded.

In the aplysia the operculum of the branchizæ is analogous to the cloak of other univalves, and differs from it only because the shell does not entirely fill it. The edge is occupied, in all parts to which the shell does not extend, by a spongy substance, of which all the pores are distended by the purple matter. This is so thick, that when it is ex-

pressed without being diluted, its colour is a black violet; but it gives water the tint of claret wine. A single aplysia is capable of colouring in this way several buckets of water.

In spirits of wine this liquor becomes of a deep green. Some naturalists represent that the colouring liquor of certain animals of the genus *murex* comes out of the body green, and changes to purple by the action of light. But it may be squeezed out of the *murex brandaris* of a perfect violet colour.

Spinning Organs (Filieres) of acephalous Mollusca.—The muscles of salt-water (*mytilus*), the limæ (*ostrea lima*, Linn.), *perna* (*ostrea*, Linn.), *aviculæ*, and *pectines*, are fixed to rocks by means of threads, which they make themselves. Those of the pinna are the most celebrated, for they have been actually employed in manufactures.

The matter, of which the threads are formed, is produced by a conglomerate gland, concealed in the body under the base of the foot. The latter, which has more or less resemblance to a tongue, with a groove along its under surface, seizes the viscous matter at the orifice of the excretory tube, draws it out, and models it in the groove. It fixes the end, still soft, to a rock, and returns to the orifice, to find the materials of another. Reaumur has minutely described the process, in the Memoirs of the Royal Academy of Sciences for 1710, from which we have taken the following particulars.

“From the root of this kind of tongue, or the part where it is attached to the body of the animal, several threads are observed to proceed to some neighbouring fixed object, and thus attach the animal in its situation. They are about equal in size to a pig’s bristle; vary in length from one to two inches, and pass out of the shell at the part where it naturally opens. Stones, fragments of shells, and very frequently the shells of other muscles, are the objects to which they are fixed: hence we often find large assemblages of these animals adhering together. I have sometimes reckoned more than 150 threads employed in fastening a single muscle: as they take different directions, we may regard them as so many cables keeping the animal firmly anchored.

“Having detached several, I inclosed them in boxes, and put them in the sea: in a few days, they were attached to the sides of the vessel, and to each other. I placed others in vessels of sea-water, and observed their proceedings. In a short time they opened their shell, and thrust out the part already described, which I have compared to a tongue. They elongated and then shortened it, and thus stretched it out farther: they would at last extend it to two inches in length, and then feel about with its extremity, as if to reconnoitre the ground. After these preludes, they fixed it for a time in one spot, and then withdrew it quickly, carrying it back completely into the shell. I now discovered that they were fixed to the spot by a thread. The repetition of this manœuvre multiplied the threads, until they were sufficiently numerous to fasten the animal. The new threads thus formed were whiter and more transparent than those which had existed for some time.” P. 114, et seq.

When a thread has been formed, the animal seems to try its strength, and sometimes it gives way. They will fix themselves to the surface of glass. They do not form more than four or five threads in a day. P. 122.

M. Reaumur could not discover whether they have the power of detaching themselves, after being once fixed. The youngest muscles spin these threads, such even as are smaller than millet seeds. The threads give way in time, either from the repeated shocks to which they are exposed, or from an alteration in their texture by time. P. 123.

The pinnae are very large animals, the valves of their shells measuring one or two feet, attached to rocks, &c. in a manner similar to that of the muscles, except that the threads are longer and more numerous. They almost equal, in fineness and beauty, the silk spun by the silkworm: hence the French name of *coquille porte-foie*, and the ancient name of *barba byssina* applied to this production, which has been generally called the beard of the animal. It has actually been manufactured in Sicily, and other parts of the Mediterranean, into gloves and other articles, which exactly resembled silk. As the individual threads are so fine, their number is immense. Ibid.

In the Memoirs for 1717, Reaumur speaks at greater length of the pinna or jambonneau, and the silk threads which attach the animal to surrounding objects. These animals are fished in the Mediterranean, in from fifteen to thirty feet of water. The tuft of silk is attached, as in the muscle, immediately to the animal’s body, and passes between the two valves, at four or five inches from the small end of the shell, in large pinnae. As they are torn up with an iron hook, you cannot be sure of seeing the whole length of the fastening; but Reaumur has found it seven or eight inches long, and weighing three ounces. The spinning organ is about two inches long in the dead animal, and must admit of extension to six or seven inches in the living, to form threads of the length we meet with. The end of the silk passes into a conical bag, which contains four membranous plates, and an equal number between them of thin silk plates, made of fine silk intricately interwoven. The silk fastening of the animal is secured to the latter. Observations sur le Coquillage appelé Pinne marine, ou Nacre de Perle, &c.

On the subject of the remarkable power, possessed by many animals of the lower orders, particularly in the genus medusa, of producing light, see the article LIGHT.

The source of that singular property, which many medusæ possess, of imparting a burning sensation to the skin, like that produced by the common nettle, (whence their names of *urtica marina*, sea-nettles, &c.) is not known. It may be in some fluid secreted by the animal.

We may observe, in general, of all the secretions in the lower orders, including the purple matter and silk, the biliary fluids, the luminous and stinging particles, the calcareous matter of shells, &c. that they are produced in structures much less complicated, and in animals much less perfectly organized, than the analogous products of the vertebral division.

We cannot pretend to give a complete enumeration of the works, from which information may be derived on the subject of the preceding article; but we shall mention a few of the most important.

On the anatomy of the lower orders, science is most deeply indebted to the learned, acute, and indefatigable Cuvier, who has contributed more than all others together to our accurate knowledge of these classes. His “*Lçons d’Anatomie comparée*” contain the results of most of his labours; and the greater part of our descriptions is derived from that work. He has also published numerous excellent papers, accompanied with very beautiful and valuable engravings, on the anatomy of several genera of mollusca, in the *Memoires du Muséum National d’Histoire Naturelle*. They are as follow:

Memoire sur l’Animal de la Lingule (*Lingula anatina*, Lamarck); tom. i. p. 69.

Memoire sur la *Bulla aperta* (Lamarck), *Bulla aperta* (Linn.); tom. i. p. 156.

Memoire sur le *Clio borealis*; tom. i. p. 242.

Memoire

Memoire sur le Genre Tritonie, avec la Description et l'Anatomie d'une nouvelle Espèce, *Tritonia Hombergii*; tom. i. p. 480.

Memoire sur le Genre *Aplysia*, vulgairement nommé Lievre marin, sur son Anatomie, et sur quelques unes de ses Espèces; tom. ii. p. 287.

Memoire concernant l'Animal de l'Hyle, un nouveau Genre de Mollusques, intermediaire entre l'Hyle et le Clio, et l'Etablissement d'un nouvel Ordre dans la Classe des Mollusques; tom. iv. p. 223.

Memoire sur les Thalides (*Thalia*, Brown), et sur les Biphores (*Salpa*, Forskahl); tom. iv. p. 360.

Memoire sur le Genre Doris; tom. iv. p. 447.

Memoire sur le Limace (*Limax*, Linn.), et le Colimaçon (*Helix*, ejusd.); tom. vii. p. 140.

Memoire sur le Limnée (*Helix stagnalis*, Linn.), et le Planorbe (*Helix cornea*, Linn.); tom. vii. p. 185.

Memoire sur l'Onchidie, Genre de Mollusques nus Voisins des Linnées, et sur une Espèce nouvelle, *Onchidium Peronii*; tom. v. p. 37.

Memoire sur la Phyllidie et sur le Pleurobranche, deux nouveaux Genres de Mollusques de la Famille des Gastéropodes, et Voisins des Patelles et des Osfabrions, dont l'un est nu, et dont l'autre porte une Coquille cachée; tom. v. p. 266.

Memoire sur la Dolabelle, sur la Testacelle, et sur un nouveau Genre de Mollusques à Coquille cachée, nommé Parmacelle; tom. v. p. 435.

Memoire sur la Scyllée, l'Eolide et la Glaucis, avec des Additions au Memoire sur la Tritonie; tom. vi. p. 416.

Memoire sur l'Ianthine et la Phasianelle de M. Lamarck; tom. xi. p. 121.

Memoire sur la Vivipare d'Eau douce (*Cyclostoma viviparum*, Draparnaud; *Helix vivipara*, Linn.), sur quelques Espèces voisines, et Idée générale sur la Tribu des Gastéropodes pécinés à Coquille entière; tom. xi. p. 170.

Memoire sur le grand Buccin de nos Côtes (*Buccinum undatum*, Linn.), ainsi que sur les Buccins, les Murex, les Strombes, et en général sur les Gastéropodes pécinés à Syphon; tom. xi. p. 447.

Memoire sur le Genre Tethys, et son Anatomie; tom. xii. p. 257.

Memoire sur les Acères, ou Gastéropodes sans Tentacules apparens; tom. xvi. p. 1.

Sur les Ascidies, et sur leur Anatomie, Memoires du Muséum d'Histoire Naturelle; tom. ii. p. 10.

Sur les Animaux des Anatifes et des Balanes, Lamarck (*Lepas*, Linn.), et sur leur Anatomie; *ibid.* p. 85.

We may refer also to Péron, sur le nouveau Genre *Pyrofoma*, Ann. du Mus. tom. iv. p. 437.

Péron et Le Sueur sur les Meduses du Genre Equorée, tom. xv. p. 41; et Histoire de la Famille des Mollusques Pteropodes, p. 57.

Six Memoire pour servir à l'Histoire de l'Atterie rouge (*Asterias rubens*, Linn.), de l'Atterie coriacée (*Actinia coriacea*, Cuv.), et de l'Alcyon exos; Ann. du Mus. tom. xiii. p. 438.

Méry, Remarques sur la Moule des Etangs; Mem. de l'Acad. des Sciences, 1710.

Reaumur, De la Formation et de l'Accroissement des Coquilles des Animaux tant terrestres qu'aquatiques, soit de Mer, soit de Rivière; *ibid.* 1709.

Reaumur, Du Mouvement progressif, et de quelques autres Mouvements de diverses Espèces de Coquillages, Orties, et Etoiles de Mer; *ibid.* 1710.

Reaumur, Des différentes Manières dont plusieurs Espèces

d'Animaux de Mer s'attachent au Sable, aux Pierres, et les uns aux autres, 1711.

Reaumur, Observations sur le Mouvement progressif de quelques Coquillages de Mer, sur celui des Herissons de Mer, et sur celui d'une Espèce d'Etoile; *ibid.* 1712.

Reaumur, Eclaircissement de quelques Difficultés sur la Formation et l'Accroissement des Coquilles; *ibid.* 1716.

Lamarck, Système des Animaux sans Vertèbres.

Bosc, Histoire Naturelle des Vers.

Bohadsch, De quibusdam Animalibus marinis, 1761, 4to.

Pet. Forskahl, Icones Rerum naturalium, quas in Itineri orientali depingi curavit. Edidit C. Niebuhr, Havniæ, 1776, fol.

J. C. Poli, Testacea utriusque Siciliae, eorumque Historia et Anatomie. Parmæ, 1791, 2 vols. fol.

Goeze, Versuch einer Naturgeschichte der Eingeweidewürmer thierischer Körper, 1782, 4to.

Werner, Vermium Intestinalium præsertim Taniæ humanae brevis Expositio, 1782, 8vo.; with three continuations, 1782, et seq.

Rudolphi Entozoorum Historia, 2 vols. 8vo.

Müller, Zoologia Danica, fol.

Müller, Von würmern süßen und salzigen Wassern, 4to.

Pallas, Miscellanea Zoologica et spicilegia Zoologica.

Swammerdam, Biblia Naturæ.

Lister, Exercitationes Anatomicæ.

Since this article was finished, new and valuable sources of information on the subjects comprehended in it have been opened to the public. Under this head we may enumerate Cuvier Histoire et Anatomie des Mollusques, 4to. 1817, containing all the memoirs specified above, and some new ones, particularly one on the cephalopoda.

Cuvier, Règne Animal, 4 tom. 8vo.

Savigny, Sur les Animaux sans Vertèbres, part 2.

Lamarck, Sur les Animaux sans Vertèbres, 2d edition, greatly enlarged.

Blainville, various memoirs on the Mollusca, published in the Bulletin des Sciences, 1814—1817.

Tiedemann, Anat. der Holothuria, des Seesterns, et des See-igels; fol. Landhuth.

VERMICELLI, or VERMICELLI, a kind of mixture, prepared of flour, cheese, yolks of eggs, sugar, and saffron; and reduced into little long pieces, or threads, like worms, by forcing it with a piston through a number of little holes in the end of a pipe made for the purpose.

The word, in the original Italian, signifies little worms: they also call it *tagliarini*, and *millefanti*.

It was first brought to us from Italy, where it is in great vogue. In effect, it is the great regale of the Italians. Other nations are not easily brought to relish the taste of it. It is chiefly used in soups and pottages, to warm, provoke venery, &c.

VERMICULAR, an epithet given to any thing that bears a relation or resemblance to worms, *vermiculi*.

Anatomists particularly apply it to the motion of the intestines and certain muscles of the body.

The *vermicular*, or *peristaltic*, motion of the intestines is performed by the contraction of the fibres thereof from above downward; as the unnatural, or antiperistaltic motion, is by their contraction from below upwards.

The contraction happening in the peristaltic, which others call the *vermicular* motion, as resembling the motion of worms, does not affect all the parts of the intestines at once; but one part after another.

VERMICULAR, or *Vermiculated Work*, *Opus vermiculatum*, in Sculpture, a sort of ornament, consisting of frets, or knots,

knots, in Mosaic pavements, winding, and representing, in some sort, the tracks made by worms:

“ Quam lepide lexeis compositæ, ut tessellatæ omnes
Arte pavimento, atque emblemate vermiculato.”
Cic. de Orat. lib. iii.

VERMICULARIA, in *Botany*, from *vermiculus*, a little worm, so named by Tode, on account of the arrangement of the seeds.—Tode Fung. Mecklenb. v. 1. 31. Perf. Syn. Fung. 110.—Class and order, *Cryptogamia Fungi*. Nat. Ord. *Fungi*.

Eff. Ch. Capsule globose, sessile, filled with vermicular bodies, covered with seeds.

This genus appears to have been seen only by the lynx-eyed author of the *Fungi Mecklenbergenfes*. Perfoon has adopted it from him. Three species are all that we find described.

1. *V. pseudosphæria*. Black Granulated Vermicularia. Tode n. 1. t. 6. f. 46. Perf. n. 1.—Globose, aggregate. Capsule granulated, black. Seed-bearing filaments loose, naked, white.—On rotten oak-bark in March, found but once. The capsule is not larger than a grain of sand, slightly compressed, tender, not brittle as in *Sphæria*; full of short, flexible, crowded fibres, covered all over with extremely minute white seeds. Afterwards the fibres turn orange-coloured.

2. *V. pubescens*. Downy Vermicularia. Tode n. 2. t. 6. f. 47. Perf. n. 2.—Globose, scattered. Capsule downy, two-coloured. Seed-bearing filaments loose, naked, hoary.—Found in rainy weather, in July, on dry stalks, or dead branches. The size of cabbage-seed, of a deep orange-colour, covered with white cottony down. Fibres very slender, crowded together.

3. *V. hispida*. Hairy Vermicularia. Tode n. 3. t. 6. f. 48. Perf. n. 3.—Cushion-like, scattered. Capsule black, beset with bristles, which disappear from its summit. Seed-bearing filaments whitish, loosely immersed in mealy pulp.—Found but once, on rotten elder-wood, in April. This is no larger than the first species. The capsule is orbicular, depressed; when young bristly all over; but at length the centre shows itself quite bare, very smooth, never bursting, slightly wrinkled as it advances in age. The fibres, though unconnected with any other part, are imbedded in rather soft pulp, which is peculiar to the present species.

VERMICULARIS. See **ASCARIS**.

VERMICULARIS Crusta, a term used by some anatomical writers to express the internal hairy and corrugated coat of the intestines.

VERMICULI SPERMATICI. See **GENERATION**.

VERMICULUM, a word used by some chemists to express a tincture or elixir.

VERMICULUS MARINUS, the *Sea-worm*, in *Natural History*, the name of a genus of shell-fish.

These shells are called vermiculi, sea-worms, from the fish contained in them, which is always a sort of worm. They usually are found in great clusters together, interwoven oddly with one another.

Bonani calls them sea-serpents, inclosed in shells, from the various twisted forms in which they adhere to ships and rocks. The author establishes them among the multivalves, because they are never found single, but always in these clusters. In this sense he looks upon the whole cluster as the shell-fish under consideration, not any one of the single tubes; though he acknowledges that each of these tubes is a perfect shell, independent of the rest, and has its proper

inhabitant. Strictness in natural history, therefore, would not bear him out, in arranging them among multivalves; for they are certainly an univalve shell, though many of them happen always to be found together.

Care must be had not to confound these with the dentalia and entalia; for these last are always found single; and the vermiculi, of the kind here treated of, are always found together in great numbers, forming clusters of ten inches, and often much more in diameter.

Of the vermiculi, which are straight, we have eight species; of the crooked kind, we have four species; and of those which are disposed in a sort of circles, we have nine species. Hist. Nat. Eclair. p. 354.

According to Da Costa's arrangement, the vermiculi or worm-shells constitute the third family of univalve shells: and he defines them to be tubular cylindric shells, single, in masses together, or adherent to other shells or bodies; variously sinuous, by winding or twisting to and fro in a very irregular manner. Of these vermiculi he reckons two genera, viz. those which have no fixed or regular form, as the common vermiculi, of which, though they are found in great abundance, there are not many different species; and the penicilli or worm-shells, which, in the whole, or any particular part, have a determinate regular shape or structure. There are few species of this genus; the watering-pot from the East Indies is the chief kind, and, when perfect, is much valued. There are also vermiculi which have canaliculations, or are divided into chambers by a few or many transverse plates; but they are seldom regular, or set at equidistant intervals, and not pierced by a pipe or siphunculus, communicating from chamber to chamber, so as to permit the fish to penetrate more than one chamber or inclosure at a time; in which respect they differ from the canaliculated shells, as the nautili, &c. The vermiculi are frequently found in the fossil state; but there is no species, that is not known recent, or from the sea. Da Costa's Conchol. p. 148. See **CONCHOLOGY**.

VERMIFORMIS Appendix Cæci, in *Anatomy*, a small blind process connected with the cæcum. See **INTESTINE**.

VERMIFORMIS Processus, of the cerebellum. See **BRAIN**.

VERMIFUGE SUBSTANCES, in the diseases of animals, are all such as are found capable of destroying or expelling insects or worms from their bodies. They are of many different sorts, as those of safin chopped fine, antimony, calomel, and many others. See **WORMS**.

VERMIFUGUS, the same with *anthelmintic*. See **WORM-Seed**, and **WORM-POWDERS**.

VERMILION, a bright, beautiful red colour; in great esteem among the ancients, under the denomination of *minium*.

There are two kinds of vermilion; the one *natural*, the other *fartitious*.

The *natural* is found in some silver mines in form of a ruddy sand; which they prepare and purify by several lotions and coctions. When this is used as a colour, no other preparation is necessary than a careful levigation with water on a stone.

The *fartitious* or *common* is made of artificial cinnabar, ground up, as some say, with white wine, and afterwards with the white of eggs: in this state it is made into cakes, and left to dry. And to fit it for use, they grind it up a second time with water, and whites of eggs. To purify and heighten its colour, some grind it up with urine, or spirits of wine, to which a little saffron is added.

Some also pretend to make vermilion of lead, burnt and washed; or of ceruss, rubified by fire. But these are

not properly denominated vermilion, but *red lead*. See MINIMUM.

It is this last, however, that seems to be the artificial minium, or vermilion of the ancients; and, accordingly, apothecaries and painters still give it that name.

The ancient Greek and Latin authors have given divers fabulous accounts of their minium; and several of the moderns have adopted their dreams; the most rational accounts are, that Theophrastus attributes the first invention of making it to Callias the Athenian; who hit upon it in endeavouring to draw gold, by fire, out of a red sand, found in the silver mines, in the year of Rome 249. But Vitruvius says, it was discovered in the Cilbian fields; where it was drawn from a red stone, called by the Greeks *anthrax*.

We have two kinds of vermilion from Holland; the one of a deep red, the other pale; but both are in reality the same matter, the difference of colour only proceeding from the cinnabar's being more or less ground: when fine ground, the vermilion is pale; and this is preferred to the coarser and redder.

It is of considerable use among the painters in oil, and in miniature; and likewise among the ladies, as a fucus, or paint, to heighten the complexion of such as are too pale.

VERMILION is sometimes also, though improperly, used for what we otherwise call *kermes*, or *scarlet grain*.

VERMILLION LAKE, in *Geography*, a lake of North America, which extends 6 or 7 miles N.N.W., and by a narrow strait communicates with lake Namayan, that takes its name from a particular place at the foot of a fall, where the natives spear sturgeon. N. lat. 48° 40'. W. long. 93° 26'.

VERMILLION Point, or *Cape Townsend*, a peninsula in lake Michigan, which separates Green bay from the other part of the lake; 23 leagues long, and from 1 to 3 broad.

VERMILLION River, one of the principal rivers of Louisiana, in that part of the state which is called Attacapas, and which is bounded S. by the gulf of Mexico, N.W. by Opelousas, N.E. by the Atchafalaya, and on the E. by the Atchafalaya and the lakes belonging to that river. This district forms a scalene triangle, whose area amounts to 5100 square miles: the actual population, ascertained by the census of 1810, amounts to less than two persons to the square mile. The Vermillion river, like the *Teche* (which see), has its source in Opelousas, and enters Attacapas or Attakapas at the mouth of Carrion Crow; it then runs south about 16 miles, then winds to the west, and receives from the south the bayou (creek) Tortua, continues west eight miles, passes the ridge of hills, (a ramification of which winds along each bank to some distance,) and assumes a south-west course, which it maintains 25 miles. When it enters the hills, its magnitude justifies the title of river, though it has that appellation below the Carrion Crow. The tide in autumn is perceivable thus high, the current of the river being at all times rather gentle. When it has completed its south-west course, it winds south-east by south 20 miles: the whole length of its comparative course in Attacapas being 69 or 70 miles; but the distance, pursuing the windings of the stream, must exceed 100 miles. The two large prairies, known by the names of Opelousas and Attacapas, extend on each side of the Vermillion, from its entrance into Attacapas to its egress into the gulf of Mexico. Wood abounds more on the Vermillion than on the *Teche*; and though the soil may be less fertile, it is nevertheless excellent, and the quantity greater on an equal length of river. There are 80 miles on the banks of the

Vermillion, which have an extension backwards of two miles, that afford 320 superficial miles, or 204,800 acres. Some of the most beautiful settlements yet made in the Attacapas are upon this river. From the diversity of soil, and elevation, none can err in giving the preference, with regard to beauty of appearance, to the banks of the Vermillion, before any other river in Louisiana, south of bayou Beuf. The lower part of the Vermillion will, without doubt, suit the culture of the sugar-cane; whilst the whole extent of its banks is well adapted to cotton and corn. The Vermillion, by its union with the gulf, forms the natural communication of its inhabitants with the sea. At present the depth of water through the inlet into the Vermillion will not admit vessels of very considerable burthen. Darby's Geog. Description of the State of Louisiana, Philad. 1816.

VERMILLION River, a river of America, which runs into the Wabash, N. lat. 40° 5'. W. long. 87° 40'.—Also, a river of America, which runs into the Theakiki, N. lat. 41° 10'. W. long. 88° 40'.—Also, a river of America, which runs into lake Erie, N. lat. 41° 45'. W. long. 82° 12'.

VERMILLION Sea. See CALIFORNIA.

VERMIN, in *Agriculture*, a collective term which includes all the various sorts of small animals, that are injurious to the corn, fruit, and other produce of the farmer. The vermin, rats and mice, stand foremost among those which are the most prejudicial. It has been stated, that one of the former eats and destroys more than a quart of corn, on the average, in the course of the week; which amounts to the vast quantity of upwards of twenty quarters in the year, for the support of an hundred of them; and this is probably fewer than the number to be met with, in most cases of large corn-farms; so that the real damage is perhaps considerably more. The injury sustained from the latter is, in all probability, nearly equal to that from the former. The losses, on a moderate calculation, cannot be less than forty pounds in the year to every large farmer, and half that amount to those of the smaller class.

In the field, the barn, and the dairy, these small vermin are equally disagreeable, troublesome, and destructive, and are supposed to be more mischievous than moles. Much care is bestowed, it is said, on the destruction of moles; and it might be worth while to endeavour to lessen the number of field vermin of this sort, which are in their nature, it is contended, more injurious to the farmer than moles are. In the rick-yard, the barn, the dwelling-house, and some other places too, their mischievousness is too obvious not to be noticed. In the dairy they not unfrequently commit great injuries, by spoiling and destroying the different products; and in the harness-rooms, and places where such articles are kept, they are not less destructive, by eating into and gnawing the different articles.

The barn and the stack-yard are, it is said, usually put under the care of the cat; but to set a trap for this vermin, in a barn full of corn, has perhaps been considered as a thing so unlikely to be effective, that it has seldom been tried. The success of traps, where they have been used, has been sufficient to recommend them; for although a total extirpation of the vermin, in cases where they have been tried, did not take place, an annual saving of some quarters of corn has been the consequence.

It is remarked, that while the number of these vermin is great, almost any kind of trap may be used, provided it be properly baited; but that for taking a remaining artful few, a common shaped round steel trap, suited to the size of the vermin, has been found to be the most effectual.

In order to the complete extirpation of these and other vermin,

VERMIN.

vermin, the author of a late Calendar of Husbandry has, however, advised that every farm should be well provided with a competent number of ferrets, and of true vermin-bred dogs, such as are usually kept for the purpose; and that an hour or two should be spared weekly, and reserved for executing the business in all accessible places. The holes and haunts of the vermin, in and about the premises, are to be diligently sought out and discovered; trifling rewards being given for the purpose, as an encouragement, by the master. Nothing of a respite is to be allowed to the delinquents, but a war of extermination is to be constantly kept up and carried on throughout the whole year. In aid of these means, others too may be adopted, when necessary; as those of the trap kind, which should be of the cage sort, and not such as to endanger the cats, a most useful sort of domestics, which are fully entitled to care and kindness; the qualifications of which in this situation are, that they do not touch young poultry, and hunt for mere sport, rather than from the impulse of hunger; as eating their prey injures them, and lessens their exertions. The ferrets in this view are, it is thought, best kept in huts, in the same manner as the rabbits: their food is well known to be any sort of offal of the flesh kind, with occasionally a little milk and bread boiled.

The same means of extirpation and removal apply equally, it is supposed, to the field vermin, polecats, weasels, and their different varieties; which, unless they be checked, commit such frequent considerable nightly depredations in and about farm-yards, as to become highly injurious, taking away various kinds of poultry in different fates, and sometimes even young pigs. But it is believed that neither these nor the fox would be heard of near such premises, if they were well furnished and guarded by vermin dogs.

A good method of trapping field vermin has been proposed by the author of the Rural Economy of the County of Kent, which is this: a wooden box, resembling a dog-kennel, divided in the middle by an open wire partition, running from end to end, and reaching from the ridge of the roof of it to the floor; one side of which partition is again divided into two parts or cages, one of them for a rabbit, and the other for a live fowl to be put into, to allure the vermin; the other half formed into a falling box-trap to take them in. But it is surely a most unnecessary piece of cruelty to expose a poor wretched fowl or rabbit to the fight and claws of their dreaded enemy. Kill the baits, and all is right; as the scent of the fresh blood is the greatest possible enticement to such vermin.

In regard to vipers, efts, lizards, toads, and different others of any sort of poisonous vermin of the reptile kind, which are troublesome and prejudicial to the farmer, it is suggested, that if country-people, who are engaged in this way, would be unanimous and steady in their endeavours, all these sorts of creeping little animals might in time be extinguished. Would a single parish but make the effort, it is said, of rooting out all such useless and dangerous vermin, they would soon find their account in it, and would undoubtedly be followed by their adjoining districts. The only mode is, it is thought, by the allowing of handsome premiums to those who shall produce the vermin, or who may discover their retreats, hiding-places, or their ova or eggs.

In respect to the destructive vermin birds of prey, and those of other kinds, it may be noticed, that the former, such as carrion-crows, ravens, magpies, kites, hawks, and some others, chiefly endanger the poultry, sometimes even attack lambs, and are often injurious to diseased sheep, by picking them in different parts; while the latter, as jays,

pigeons, rooks, and different sorts of small birds, are principally destructive of field produce. The first, as well as pies, bull-finches, and some others, are greatly destructive of fruit, and the jay often commits much injury on bean-crops near harvest-time. Pigeons are particularly injurious at feed-time and harvest, by destroying large quantities of grain, tares, and feeds, and doing much hurt to the crops. Rooks are a sort of vermin which do great injury to various kinds of field-crops as they rise, and at other times; but they are thought by some to be useful in devouring the grub-worm and other insects. Small birds do much mischief by the destruction of grain which they cause at the time of sowing, and when the corn becomes nearly ripe; besides that which they, in some cases, do to such buildings as are covered with thatch. In some places they quit the towns, villages, and single houses, and attack the corn-fields in flocks of thousands together, and would soon clear whole fields if not kept off by proper means. Some sorts of these birds feed upon animal as well as vegetable food, and do good by lessening the number of grubs, caterpillars, and butterflies, and much harm by destroying blossoms, fruit, and corn in the fields. Great numbers of caterpillars are said to have been found in the stomachs of some sorts of these small birds. The best and most effectual protection against their injuries and depredations, in all these cases, is probably the gun, though other means, such as rattles, and different contrivances, may be had recourse to against such vermin.

Vermin of the worm, grub, slug, and other similar kinds, are often very injurious to the farmer's crops. The earth-worm, the wire-worm, the grub of the cock-chaffer, the slug, the turnip-fly, the black canker caterpillar, the black insect, which destroys beans, and the yellow maggot, which feeds on the ears of wheat, are of numerous families, and not less mischievous than any of the above vermin. They not unfrequently cut off turnip, clover, tare, and other such crops, and do great damage to those of the corn-kind. There is a whitish sort of slug that often prevails much in bean and pea-bubbles, in strong land when sown with wheat, and in wheat after clover and beans. It is very destructive too to rye-crops in some districts and places. The destruction of these sorts of vermin may be attempted in different ways, as by having them devoured, in some cases, by the introduction of suitable birds for the purpose, and those of ducks and gulls in other cases. It has been stated that worms and slugs which feed on the new roots of corn, and other such matters, may mostly, perhaps, be destroyed by a clean fallow, continued so long as to occasion their death by want of food. It is probably a mistaken notion, it is said, that lime spread in such a quantity as to be beneficial to the soil, will destroy these reptile vermin. In Kent, near the chalk-hills, and even on a calcareous soil, they lime, it is said, frequently, and very liberally, without being at all relieved from the ravages of worms. The earth-worm feeds on herbs, and as its size is much larger, so it is probably more destructive than the wire-worm. See *BLACK CANKER*, *GRUB*, *SLUG*, *TURNIP-FLY*, and *WIRE-WORM*.

Vermin of the fly kind, such as hornets, wasps, and others, are often prejudicial to feeding and pasturing stock, and render team animals, in some instances, quite ungovernable; they and their nests should of course be as much destroyed as possible, in order to prevent such inconveniences and accidents. See *WASP*.

Game may be considered as a sort of vermin on farms, which feed upon the farmer's crops, and induce and encourage sportsmen to commit much injury and destruction

on

on his property in the pursuit of such field-sport. This should be avoided and done away with whenever it can, as the damage is very considerable in many cases. See **GAME**.

The able writer of the Corrected Report of the Agriculture of the County of Middlesex has estimated, that the expences of guarding against, and the damage produced by vermin and game, on a farm of two hundred acres, half arable and half grafs, without sheep-walks, amount to fifty pounds in the year; which is nearly five shillings an acre on the whole quantity of land, which fun will perhaps, it is supposed, average the cultivated corn and grafs land farms of Britain; and that, as there are nearly forty millions of acres in this state, these depredations amount to ten millions the year. This is an amount which would hardly have been suspected by many, and which it is important in different points of view to prevent as much as possible.

VERMIN, in *Gardening*, is a term applied to various small animals that are injurious to garden-crops in different cases, and as destructive as in the farm-yard.

Rats and mice are of this kind, and do much mischief in sheds and other places, where they frequently devour beans, peas, and other feeds; they should therefore be extirpated as much as possible in all such cases.

And there are different modes of destroying them in these instances: as by traps, poison, &c. But Mr. Forsyth advises never to use arsenic, or corrosive sublimate for that purpose, except under particular circumstances, as they are deadly poison: nux vomica will, he thinks, generally answer the end as well, without the danger. He has suggested it as a very good plan to prevent accidents, to enclose the traps in cases, having holes in the ends of them large enough to admit rats, but small enough to exclude dogs, cats, &c.

And the following is recommended as a bait for rat-traps in these cases: Take a pound of good flour, three ounces of treacle, and six drops of the oil of carraways: put them all in a dish, and rub them well together till they are properly mixed; then add a pound of crumb of bread. The traps baited with this mixture should be set as near their haunts as possible; but, for two or three days, so as not to fall or strike on the rats going in, but letting them have free liberty to go in and out at pleasure, as this makes them fearless. Some of the bait should also be laid at the rat-holes, and a little of it scattered quite up to the traps, and so on to the bridge of each trap, where a handful may be placed. It may also, it is suggested, be proper to scent the traps with the following mixture, for the purpose of enticing the rats into them.

Take twenty drops of oil of rhodium, six or seven grains of musk, and half an ounce of oil of aniseed; put them in a small phial, and shake it well before using; then dip a piece of twisted paper or rag in the mixture, and rub each end of the trap with it, if a box-trap, and put two or three drops on the bridge, leaving the paper or rag in the trap. Of whatever kind the trap is, it should be scented; but once in a twelvemonth will be sufficient. Then throw some chaff mixed with a little wheat about the bottom of the trap, in order to deceive the rats; for they are very fagacious, and will not enter a suspicious place. This will be necessary to be done only at the first time of setting the traps; for after some rats have been caught, and have watered and dugged in them, rats will enter boldly when they find others have been there before them: do not, therefore, wash or clean out the trap, as some people do before they set it again, but let the dung and urine remain in it. Keep the places where the traps are set as private as possible; and when they are set

for catching, mix no bread with the bait, as the rats will in that case be apt to carry it away.

It is advised, that when the holes are found quiet, and that no rats use them, to stop them up with the following composition: Take a pint of common tar, half an ounce of pearl-ashes, an ounce of oil of vitriol, and a good handful of common salt, mix them all well together, in an old pan or pot. Take some pieces of paper, and lay some of the above mixture very thick on them; then stop the holes well up with them, and build up the mouth of the holes with brick or stone, and mortar; if this be properly done, rats will, he asserts, no more approach these, while either smell or taste remains in the composition.

In order to destroy the rats in places where traps cannot be set, he recommends us to take a quart of the above bait, then rasp into it three nuts of nux vomica, and a quarter of a pound of crumb of bread, if there was none before: mix them all well together, and lay it into the mouth of their holes, and in different places where they frequent; but first give them of the bait without the nux vomica, for three or four succeeding nights; and when they find it agrees with them, they will eat that mixed with the nut with greediness.

It is further observed, that rats are frequently very troublesome in sewers and drains. In such cases, arsenic may be used with success, as follows: Take some dead rats, and having put some white arsenic, finely powdered, into an old pepper-box, shake a quantity of it on the fore parts of the dead rats, and put them down the holes or avenues, by the sides of the sewers at which they come in; this puts a stop to the live ones coming any further; for when they perceive arsenic, they will, it is asserted, retire immediately: whereas, if they were put down without the arsenic, the live ones would eat them.

We have, however, found that these animals take arsenic best when it is prepared, by being finely levigated and mixed up with very strong old cheese and oatmeal. In order to destroy mice, Mr. Forsyth advises persons to take a quart of the bait for rats before there is any bread mixed with it; then to take four nuts of nux vomica, and rasp them very fine, otherwise the mice will pick out the food from it, on account of its bitter taste; rub them well together; lay some of it upon a piece of paper, or, if without doors, on a piece of tile, removing all other food from the place, and it will kill all that eat of it. What is not eaten, should be taken away in the morning, and replaced at night. If this be in a garden, shelter it with boards or tiles, that it may not get wet.

Open traps should likewise be set, as mice are shy in entering close ones. And care should be taken not to convey these animals into gardens by the straw litter, or other similar materials.

Slugs are a sort of vermin that are frequently found harbouring about the foundations of walls, and about the roots of peas, lettuce, &c. They may, Mr. Forsyth thinks, be picked off, and killed, by putting them into a pot in which is a little fine unslaked lime: or the ground where they are should be well watered with soap-suds and urine, mixed with tobacco-water. When they are numerous on the surface of the ground, which frequently happens after rain, or in a dewy morning, fine unslaked lime thrown over the borders, &c. will, he contends, destroy them. But he prefers the above mixture, which, if the ground be well watered with it, will bring them up out of their holes, when they very soon die; it will also destroy their eggs, which they always deposit in the earth.

Snails, also, during the winter, the same writer assures us, gather themselves together in clusters; and in that season are frequently found in great numbers behind wall-trees, and in holes of the walls. They should be carefully picked off and crushed, which is the only effectual way of getting rid of them. If any should escape, they should be destroyed as they make their appearance in the spring. As they also deposit their eggs in the ground, the borders should be well watered in the above manner.

Wasps and flies are highly destructive of all sorts of fruit; therefore, as soon as the wasp and large flesh-fly make their appearance, it is proper to get ready several bottles or phials; then mix up grounds of wine or beer, with sweepings of fugar, honey, or grounds of treacle, and with this mixture fill the bottles half or three-quarters full; then place some of them at the bottom of the wall, and hang a sufficient number up by a piece of yellow willow, or pack-thread, on the nails against the walls in different places, observing to empty them frequently as they fill with flies and wasps; first pour the liquor into an empty bottle, and then shake out the dead insects, crushing them with your foot, that none of them may revive; then pour back the liquor into the bottles and phials as at first. In this manner a great many may be destroyed, it is supposed, before the fruit becomes ripe. If you begin to hang up the bottles as soon as you see the fly, which comes much earlier than the wasp, you will be able to destroy great numbers of them, and will have the bottles ready for the wasps when they make their appearance. The fly will be found as destructive as the wasp to grapes. And when the weather is hot, and the wasps are numerous, if they do not enter the bottles fast enough (which will happen when the fruit is very ripe), a little oil may be put in a cup, and with a feather dipped in it touch their backs, and they will instantly drop down; when you will find them turned black and green by the effects of the oil. See WASP.

Birds attack fruit much when it begins to ripen. The best preventive in this case is, Mr. Forsyth supposes, to cover the trees with nets, or bunting, a sort of cloth of which ships' colours are made. See VITIS.

There are many other vermin of the insect tribe that are likewise highly destructive to fruits and garden-crops, but which are noticed under the articles which they are found to injure in most cases. In some they may be best destroyed, however, by gathering them by the hand as soon as they begin to appear in a small number, by plentiful steaming or watering; in others, by smoking and powdering with tobacco; and in others by different compositions, as those of soap-suds and sulphur, or lime-water, and other such matters. Some are best taken by artifice, as ear-wigs and others of the same kind, as in the cases of wasps and flies. See CATERPILLAR, APHIS, COCCUS, THRIPS, &c.

VERMIN, in *Sheep*, the different small animals which are troublesome and hurtful to them. The maggots produced from the ova or eggs of the flesh or sheep-fly, are a sort of vermin which are to be particularly guarded against in the later summer months; as they are then soon hatched in any wound, filth, or dirt, that may be in or hang about the skins of them, often producing great pain, uneasiness, and eating into the flesh and destroying the sheep, when not speedily removed. Consequently, when they are seen to be uneasy and disturbed, to frequent rubbing places, neglect their food, lie down frequently, and bite themselves with their teeth, they should be carefully examined; when, in some cases, large blisters may be discovered, under which the vermin are concealed; or the part is found of a dark colour,

and quite wet; and even sometimes large holes are eaten into the bodies of the sheep.

In all such cases the wool is to be carefully clipped off, the blisters, when present, opened, and the vermin picked out from the injured parts, which should then be gently washed, either with soap and water, with spirits and vinegar, with lime-water, with stale urine and black soap, or with infusion of tobacco, being afterwards anointed with tar, or the same substance mixed with butter and sulphur or red precipitate. In this way the vermin are soon removed and destroyed, and the sheep restored. In order to prevent the vermin, whenever sheep are wounded by the sheers in clipping, by the bite of dogs, or in any other way, a little tar ointment is to be applied to the parts.

Dirty layers or pastures are said to be liable to produce this kind of vermin, which most commonly attack lambs, and often appear about the hips of such as are affected with loofens.

There are other sorts of vermin which are very injurious to sheep. See TICK.

The fox too is an artful and formidable enemy of sheep and poultry, as well as the wild cat, which is extremely fierce and strong, and very destructive of lambs and fowls. The fountart is also very mischievous among weak lambs. Eagles are likewise frequent in the more northern districts, the strength and depredations of which are well known to sheep-farmers; but ravens are probably more destructive, being ready to attack sheep in all cases of distress, and exceedingly quick-sighted in discovering such instances. All these sorts of vermin should, consequently, be exterminated as much as possible, by offering premiums for their claws, skins, &c. and other proper means of different kinds.

VERMINA. See VERMINE, and VERMINATION.

VERMINATION, VERMINATIO, the act of breeding worms, and other vermin; particularly bots in cattle, &c.

VERMINATION is sometimes also used among physicians, for a sort of tormina ventris, or wringing of the guts; in which the patient is affected, as if worms were gnawing his intestines.

VERMINE, VERMINA, a collective name, including all kinds of little animals, or insects, which are hurtful or troublesome to men, beasts, fruits, &c. as worms, lice, fleas, bugs, caterpillars, ants, flies, &c.

VERMIS, WORM, in *Natural History*. See VERMES and WORMS.

VERMIS Aureus. See APHRONITA.

VERMIS Cereuleus. See CÆRULÆUS.

VERMIS Cerebri, the worm in the brain, a name given by some writers to an epidemical fever in Hungary, attended with terrible delirium.

VERMIVOROUS ANIMALS, are such as feed upon worms.

VERMONETA, in *Botany*, Juss. Gen. 343, a manuscript name of Commerlon's, for a supposed genus of his, referred by Jussieu to their own *Blackwellia*, which we are much disposed to unite with *HOMALUM*; see the latter.

VERMONT, in *Geography*, one of the United States of America, situated between 40° 42' and 45° N. lat. and 3° 35' and 5° 27' E. long. from Washington; and bounded on the N. by Lower Canada, S. by Massachusetts, E. by Connecticut river, which divides it from New Hampshire, and W. by New York. Its extent from N. to S. is 152 miles, and its breadth from E. to W. 60 miles: its area is 8700 square miles, or 5,568,000 acres. It is divided into thirteen counties, containing the number of townships and inhabitants,

VERMONT.

inhabitants, together with the chief towns, exhibited in the following

Topographical Table.

Countries.	Townships.	Population.	Chief Towns.
Addison	24	19,993	Middlebury 715
Bennington	16	15,893	Bennington 611
Caledonia	23	18,730	Danville 771
Chittenden	24	18,120	Burlington 804
Essex	14	3,087	Guildhall 685
Franklin	19	16,427	St. Albans 729
Grand Isle	5	3,445	North Hero 82
Jefferson*			Montpelier.
Orange	20	25,247	Chelsea 745
Orleans	23	5,830	Craftsbury 832
Rutland	27	29,486	Rutland 658
Windham	24	26,760	Brattleborough 786
Windfor	23	34,879	Windfor 898
	242	217,895	

* Laid out since the census was taken.

The number of inhabitants returned in the schedule of Mr. J. Willard, marshal, January 26th, A. D. 1811, is 217,913.

In each township is a reserve of two portions of land, each of 350 acres, one for the support of public schools, and the other to be given in fee to the first minister who settled in the township. An extensive chain of high mountains runs through the middle of this state, nearly S. and N., between Connecticut river and lake Champlain. The natural produce of this chain of mountains is hemlock, pine, spruce, and other evergreens; and on this account, as it has always a green appearance, it is denominated "Ver Mons," or "Green Mountain." On some high parts of it the snow lies till May or June. The country, on the E. side of the mountain, is watered by Paupanhoosak, Quechey, Welds, White, Black, and West rivers; and on the W. side by the La Moille and Onion rivers, and Otter creek, which discharge themselves by one mouth into lake Champlain, 20 or 30 miles S. of St. John's. The adjacent lands are excellent in quality, and annually enriched by the inundation of the water, occasioned by the melting of the snow on the Green mountains. The general aspect of the country is hilly, but it has many rich valleys, which furnish very good pasture for cattle, and which, contrasted with the hills, afford beautiful scenery. Timber-trees of various kinds are abundant; wheat, rye, barley, oats, Indian corn, are cultivated by the inhabitants: though the corn on high grounds is sometimes liable to be damaged by the frosts. Flax and hemp are raised in considerable quantities: and potatoes, pumpkins, together with garden-roots and vegetables, are plentiful. The sugar-maple affords a large supply of excellent sugar. The metals and minerals of this country are iron, lead, coppers, flint, marble, pipe-clay, and vitriol. The trade of Vermont is principally carried on with Boston, Portland, Hartford, and New York; whither the inhabitants export horses, beef, pork, butter, cheese, wheat, flour, iron, nails, pot and pearl ashes. The climate resembles that of New Hampshire, and is upon the whole very healthy: the winters, however, are long and severe, and the summers hot. The inhabitants are for the most part emigrants from Connecticut and Massachusetts, and their descendants. The only foreigners are Scots, who have formed a settlement. As to the character, manners, customs, laws, policy, and

religion of the people in Vermont, we need only say that they are New-Englandmen.

Before the late war, this tract of country was claimed both by New York and New Hampshire; but upon the commencement of hostilities between Great Britain and her colonies, the inhabitants considered themselves as free from any legal jurisdiction, and associating together, formed for themselves a constitutional government; and before it was acknowledged by congress on the 4th of March, 1791, as the fourteenth state; they commenced their political independent existence as a separate government in the year 1777. On the 15th of December in this year, their representatives, in convention at Windsor, declared that the territory called Vermont, was and of right ought to be a free and independent state; and for the purpose of maintaining regular government in the same, they made a solemn declaration of their rights, and ratified a constitution, of which the following is an abstrait.

Their declaration, which makes a part of their constitution, asserts that all men are born equally free—with equal rights, and ought to enjoy liberty of conscience—freedom of the press—trial by jury—power to form new states in vacant countries, and to regulate their own internal police: that all elections ought to be free: that all power is originally in the people: that government ought to be instituted for the common benefit of the community, and that the community have a right to reform or abolish government: that every member of society hath a right to protection of life, liberty, and property; and in return is bound to contribute his proportion of the expence of that protection, and yield his personal service when necessary: that he shall not be obliged to give evidence against himself: that the people have a right to bear arms, but no standing armies shall be maintained in time of peace: that the people have a right to hold themselves, their houses, papers, and possessions free from search or seizure; and therefore warrants without oaths first made, affording sufficient foundation for them, are contrary to that right, and ought not to be granted: that no person shall be liable to be transported out of this state for trial for any offence committed within this state, &c.

By the frame of government, the supreme legislative power is vested in a house of representatives of the freemen of the state of Vermont, to be chosen annually by the freemen on the first Tuesday in September, and to meet the second Thursday of the succeeding October: this body is vested with all the powers necessary for the legislature of a free state: two-thirds of the whole number of representatives elected, make a quorum.

Each inhabited town throughout the state has a right to send one representative to the assembly.

The supreme executive power is vested in a governor, lieutenant-governor, and twelve counsellors, to be chosen annually in the same manner, and vested with the same powers as in Connecticut.

Every person of the age of twenty-one years, who has resided in the state one whole year next before the election of representatives, and is of a quiet, peaceable behaviour, and will bind himself by his oath, to do what he shall in conscience judge to be most conducive to the best good of the state, shall be entitled to all the privileges of a freeman of this state.

Each member of the house of representatives, before he takes his seat, must declare his belief in one God, in future rewards and punishments, and in the divinity of the scriptures of the Old and New Testament, and must profess the Protestant religion.

Courts of justice are to be established in every county throughout the state.

The supreme court, and the several courts of common pleas of this state, besides the powers usually exercised by such courts, have the powers of a court of chancery, so far as relates to perpetuating testimony, obtaining evidence from places not within the state, and the care of the persons and estates of those who are *non compos mentis*, &c. All prosecutions are to be commenced in the name, and by the authority of the freemen of the state of Vermont. The legislature is to regulate entails so as to prevent perpetuities.

All field and staff-officers, and commissioned officers of the army, and all general officers of the militia, shall be chosen by the general assembly, and be commissioned by the governor.

Common schools and academies are liberally encouraged in Vermont; and in 1800 a college was incorporated in Middleburg, which is now in a flourishing state. See COLLEGE. Morfe. Melish.

VERN, a town of France, in the department of the Dordogne; 10 miles S. of Perigueux.—Also, a town of France, in the department of the Mayne and Loire; 6 miles S. of Segré.

VERN, or *Vernde*, or *Werna*, a town of Westphalia, in the bishopric of Paderborn; 2 miles W.N.W. of Salzkotten.

VERNACIA, *VENACIA*, *Venitiaz*, *Vernatia*, or *Veniana*, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Spain, upon the route from Bracara to Asturia, between Complutia and Petavonium. Anton. Itin.

VERNACULAR is applied to any thing that is peculiar to some one country.

Whence, diseases which reign most in any particular nation, province, or district, are sometimes called *vernacular* diseases; though more frequently *endemic* diseases.

Such are the *plica Polonica*, *scorbutus*, *tarantism*, &c.

VERNAL, something belonging to the spring season. (See SPRING.) Hence, *vernal leaves* are those leaves of plants which come up in the spring, &c.

VERNAL Signs and Equinox. See SIGN and EQUINOX.

VERNAL Grass, in *Botany*. See ANTIOXANTHUM, and SWEET-scented Vernal Grass.

VERNAL, in *Geography*, a small island in the Pacific ocean, near the coast of Mexico. N. lat. 16° 35'. W. long. 95° 50'.

VERNAMO, a town of Sweden, in the province of Smaland; 35 miles N.W. of Wexio.

VERNANTOIS, a town of France, in the department of the Jura; 3 miles S. of Lons le Saulnier.

VERNASSA, a town of Genoa; 5 miles S.W. of Spezza.

VERNE, a town of France, in the department of the Doubs; 3 miles N. of Beaume les Dames.

VERNET, JOSEPH, in *Biography*, the best landscape painter of the French school, was born at Avignon in 1712. He was educated in his native country, and afterwards sent to Rome, where he studied under Adrian Manglard, a painter of sea-pieces and landscapes of some note. He soon surpassed his instructor, and the style which he adopted was as close an imitation of nature as he knew how to make; and his views of Rome and Naples, &c. will always please, from the freshness and spirit with which they are painted. His colouring, however, is not exactly true; the hues are too positive and crude, and lack the softness and delicacy of Claude or Wilson; but his compositions are excellently arranged, and he gave great truth of action to water; he

also adorned his pictures with groups of figures, arranged with taste and freely executed.

He remained many years in Italy, till at length the reputation he had acquired induced Louis XIV. to invite him to return to France, where he was engaged to paint a set of views of the sea-ports of that kingdom. However correct these views may be, it is evident that Vernet did not labour *con amore* at them, as they by no means rival the pictures he painted of other subjects, where he was more free to follow his own taste. He was very much employed and honoured, and enjoyed the exercise of his talents till he arrived at the age of 77, when he died, in 1786.

VERNET, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the East Pyrenées; 4 miles S. of Prades.

VERNET le Bar, a town of France, in the department of the Allier; 13 miles N. of Digne.

VERNEUIL, a town of France, and principal place of a district, in the department of the Eure; 18 miles W. of Dreux. N. lat. 48° 43'. E. long. 1'—Also, a town of France, in the department of the Allier; 15 miles E. of Montmarault.

VERNEY, GUICHARD-JOSEPH DU, in *Biography*, an eminent anatomist, was the son of a physician at Feurs in Forez, and born in 1648. From Avignon, where he studied medicine for five years, he removed to Paris in 1667, and there acquired high reputation, not only as an anatomical demonstrator, but as an eloquent lecturer. His manner was ardent and interesting, and this, together with his youth and agreeable person, rendered the study of anatomy fashionable. After his admission into the Academy of Sciences in 1676, he employed himself in an assiduous prosecution of the natural history of animals, and the result of his researches may be found in the Memoirs of the Academy. About this time he was engaged in communicating anatomical instruction to the dauphin and his learned attendants; and in 1679 he was nominated professor of anatomy at the Royal Gardens, where his auditors were very numerous, many of whom were foreigners. In this and the following year he was occupied in Lower Brittany and on the coast of Bayonne in the dissection of fishes. His work entitled “*Traité de l'Organe de l'Ouie, contenant la Structure, les Usages, et les Maladies de toutes les Parties de l'Oreille*,” was published in 1683, and translated into various languages. In his anatomical researches he was indefatigable, and he made many discoveries, the honour of which has been claimed by others. Having absented himself for a long time from the meetings of the Academy, he returned to it again, in his 80th year, on the republication of his History of Animals, and entered into its business with his former vivacity. In advanced age he undertook a work on insects and reptiles; and though he was afflicted with a pulmonary complaint, he exposed himself to the injurious effects of the damp and night air, in order to observe the actions of snails, with a view to the perfection of the work in which he was engaged. Although his health could not but be impaired by this practice, his life was prolonged to his 82d year, as he died in September 1730. He bequeathed his valuable anatomical preparations to the Academy, leaving a character held in high estimation by contemporary anatomists and physiologists, and by all who had enjoyed the benefit of his instruction in their youth. After his death, Senac published from his MSS. “*Traité des Maladies des Os*,” in 2 vols. 12mo.; and all his memoirs and posthumous papers were collected in his “*Œuvres Anatomiques*,” 2 vols. 4to. Paris, 1761, published by Bertin, to whom his MS. remains were entrusted by Senac. Haller. Gen. Biog.

VERNI,

VERNI, in *Geography*, a town of the republic of Lucca; 12 miles N. of Lucca.

VERNIA, in *Ancient Geography*, a name which Eustathius gives to one of the British isles, supposed by Ortelius to have been Hibernia.

VERNICIA, in *Botany*, so called by Loureiro, from *vernix*, varnish, because the nuts of this tree afford by preference a kind of oily varnish, either used by itself to protect wood from the weather, or employed to adulterate the true Chinese or Japan varnish.—Loureir. Cochinch. 586.—Clafs and order, *Monocotyledon*. Nat. Ord. *Tricocca*, Linn. *Euphorbia*, Juss.

Gen. Ch. Male, *Cal.* Perianth tubular, in two rounded, erect segments. *Cor.* bell-shaped, of five oblong spreading petals, longer than the calyx. *Stam.* Filaments ten, combined at the base, the inner ones longest; anthers as many, arrow-shaped.

Female flowers few, on the same branch, *Cal.* and *Cor.* unobscured. *Pist.* Germen superior, roundish, three-lobed; style none; stigma obtuse, three-cleft. *Peric.* Drupa roundish, warty. *Seed.* Nut bony, bluntly triangular, rugged, of three cells, with an ovate-oblong kernel in each.

Eff. Ch. Male, Calyx two-lobed. Petals five. Stamens ten.—Female, Calyx . . . Corolla . . . Stigma obtuse, three-cleft. Drupa warty, with a triangular three celled nut.

v. *montana*. Cây dêu son, of the Cochinchinefe. Tong xú, of the Chinese.—Native of mountainous woods in Cochinchina, as well as in China. A large tree, with ascending branches. Leaves scattered, stalked, slightly heart-shaped, pointed, entire, undulated, smooth, perforated with two glands at the insertion of the footstalk. Flower-stalks terminal, many-flowered, short. Flowers white.

The wood is of little use for building. The nuts afford a copious expressed oil, which is yellow, viscid, transparent, moderately liquid, used as a sort of varnish for arrows, and any wood exposed to the weather. It also serves to increase the bulk of the far more valuable Chinese varnish, obtained from the *Augia* of Loureiro; as well as to render that substance more fluid and manageable. For lamps it is useless, because it burns too fiercely and consumes too speedily.—We have not been able to reduce this plant to any known genus. All our knowledge respecting it is derived from Loureiro.

VERNIER, is a graduated index which subdivides the smallest divisions on any straight or circular scale, in the reading of which greater accuracy is required, than can be obtained by simple estimation of a fractional part, as indicated by a pointer, or fiducial edge. The vernier was first invented by Pierre Vernier of Franche Comté, and made known to the world at Bruxelles (or Brussels) in the year 1631, through the medium of a pamphlet entitled "La Construction, l'Usage, et les Propriétés du Quadrant nouveau de Mathématique," &c. It soon gained the preference over the scale of Nonius, which was a circular diagonal scale, and which by some writers is yet confounded with a Vernier's index, though there is no greater resemblance between the two, than exists between the dial of a clock and the hand that points to it. The vernier is applicable to any straight or circular line, provided the divisions be equal; but the contrivance of Nonius was in the graduated line or scale itself, and required the aid of a fiducial edge as an index. We have given the representation of a vernier in several of our astronomical plates, when we were describing CIRCLE, EQUATORIAL, QUADRANT, TRANSIT-Instrument, and THEODOLITE, therefore it will not be necessary to introduce any other figure for the purpose of illustration; particularly as the principle of its application can be made clearly intelligible by either arithmetical or algebraical notation. Let us suppose two lines, either straight or portions of circles, to

be exactly alike in dimensions, one called A, and the other B, and let one of them be divided into more equal parts than the other by unity; then will the difference of any two of the equal parts of the two lines, or arcs respectively, be a fraction, the numerator of which is the common length of the equal lines, or arcs, and the denominator the product of the numbers of parts into which each is divided. For if we put A for the common length of the equal lines, or arcs, with n and $n + 1$ for the equal parts into which each is divided respectively, the length of the divisions of each will

$$\text{be } \frac{A}{n} \text{ and } \frac{A}{n+1}, \text{ and their difference } \frac{A}{n} - \frac{A}{n+1} = \frac{A}{n \times n + 1}.$$

To exemplify this principle in an arc of small radius, let each degree be divided by an engine into three parts, of each 20', and let it be required that the vernier shall read to the accuracy of one minute; in this case the short scale of the vernier must be divided into 20 parts, and the equal arc on the limb of the instrument either into 21 or 19 parts, so that the difference of the two equal arcs, in divisions, may be = 1; if 21, the former number, is adopted, the reading will be in a backward direction; but if the latter (*viz.* 19), it will be forward; let the arc on the limb be 6° 20', and let each degree be divided into three parts, of 20' each; also let 19 be the number of such parts or divisions; and let the equal arc on the vernier be divided into 20 equal parts; then $n = 19$, and $n + 1 = 20$ will make a difference between a single division of the limb, and one of the vernier

$$= \frac{6^\circ 20'}{19 \times 20} = \frac{380'}{380} = 1', \text{ as was required. This difference}$$

becomes the index for subdividing the smallest divided space of the limb, and it is ascertained how often it must be taken, by inspecting the place on the divided vernier, where a stroke on it exactly coincides with a dividing stroke on the divided limb of the instrument; for instance, if the zero, or stroke marked 0, be the coincident one, the reading may be had from the divisions of the limb only, without any addition from the vernier; but if the coincidence happens at any other place, say at stroke 5, stroke 8, or stroke 10, as numbered on the vernier, then 5', or 8', or 10', as the case may be, must be added, as the measure of a fractional part of a division, to the measure read from the divisions only, that are contained between zero on the limb and zero on the vernier: the difference, which we have said is = 1' when taken once, is 5' when taken five times, and 8' when taken eight times; and as the point of coincidence can never be mistaken, wherever it may fall, it will always determine how many minutes must be added for the fractional portion of a division, that zero of the vernier has advanced into an entire division; and as the eye will form a rough judgment at once, whether zero of the vernier is near $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{3}{4}$, or $\frac{1}{2}$ of a space on the limb, this notice will at once guide the observer to that part of the vernier's scale, where the coincidence will be immediately found; for as zero of the vernier advances in any division of the limb, by the flow motion of the tangent-screw of any instrument, the point of coincidence of the strokes of the two arcs advances with it, till the stroke at zero becomes itself coincident with a new dividing stroke of the arc on the limb, which coincidence denotes the addition of another 20', in our example, without reference to the vernier: but should there be any doubt about the exactitude of the coincidence, 20', 30', or 40', may be taken instead of the last minute, accordingly as the eye can best judge of the

the small quantity short of perfect coincidence; and examining the places of the preceding and following strokes will greatly assist in forming this judgment.

If we were to substitute 21 for 19 spaces on the limb, the result would be the same, with the inconvenience of reading backwards, and of subtracting instead of adding;

$$\text{for } \frac{7^{\circ}}{21 \times 20} = \frac{420'}{420} = 1', \text{ as before; but instruments of}$$

modern construction are exempt from this inconvenience, by having always one more division on the scale of the vernier, than on the equal arc of the limb.

In Troughton's snuff-box sextant, which is a very convenient instrument for the pocket, the radius of the divided arc is only about $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch, and the degree is divided, therefore, into two spaces only, so that $30'$ are necessarily indicated by the vernier; and as 29 spaces on the limb are taken equal to 30 on the vernier, the smallest quantity indicated

$$\text{is } \frac{14^{\circ} 30'}{29 \times 30} = \frac{870'}{870} = 1', \text{ as before; and the reading of the}$$

coincidences that indicate the last $30'$ is progressive, like the reading on the limb of the instrument.

In the common ebony sextant, the degree is sometimes divided into four parts, by reason of the increased length of the radius; consequently, when the reading is in a forward direction, fifteen divisions on the vernier occupy the same arc as fourteen on the limb; and the smallest quantity indicated thereby is

$$\frac{3^{\circ} 30'}{14 \times 15} = \frac{210'}{210} = 1'; \text{ but the brass sextants made and}$$

divided by the best makers, have the minute subdivided into twenty, fifteen, ten, or even five seconds, according to the length of the radius, by means of a vernier with divisions and subdivisions, acting with divisions and subdivisions on the limb, which is a refinement of the original invention, introduced by Troughton, in consequence of the superior excellence of modern dividing. We have now before us one of Ramsden's best brass sextants of $9\frac{1}{4}$ inches radius, on the limb of which the degree is divided into three parts, and 40 divisions on the arc of the vernier measure 39 divisions

$$\text{on the limb; therefore } \frac{13^{\circ}}{39 \times 40} = \frac{780'}{1560} = \frac{46800''}{1560} = 30''$$

is the smallest quantity that the vernier will indicate, and every alternate stroke thereon counts one minute as the coincidence advances. This mode of reading the vernier doubles its former accuracy. But on the limb of this same instrument, the late Mr. W. Walker prevailed on Mr. Troughton to divide a second arc, within the former, which by our measurement is only of nine inches radius: in this inner arc, which reads with the inner arc of the vernier, the degree is first divided into halves, and then each half is subdivided into five smaller divisions, by shorter strokes very delicately cut, so that the degree is divided into ten small spaces, of $6'$ each, which are to be read before the vernier's subdivision of one of these spaces is examined. On the scale of the inner vernier are 72 small divisions, co-extensive with 71 on the limb; and as each of these is $6'$, we have $71 \times 6' = 426'$, or $25560''$ for the whole arc of measurement: consequently

$$\frac{25560''}{71 \times 72} = \frac{25560''}{5112} = 5'' \text{ is the smallest quantity that can}$$

be indicated by such a vernier, and accordingly we observe on the scale of the Vernier twelve small or subdividing spaces between each minute stroke; i. e. every twelfth stroke is a long one, and they are numbered 1, 2, 3, &c. up to 6, which is the value of one of the smallest divisions on the limb, and

consequently the value of each subdivision on the scale is $\frac{1}{12}$ of $1'$, or $5''$: and yet, by the help of a high magnifier, placed in the centre of an illuminating reflector of plaster of Paris, this small quantity may be clearly discriminated. When Ramsden first saw this wonderful application of the powers of the dividing engine, he called his workmen together, to witness what he at first considered the folly of attempting greater accuracy than was practicable; but a close examination of the divisions convinced him, that his preconceived opinion had stood in the way even of his own improvements.

Sometimes a divided head or nut has been fixed on the end of the tangent-screw of flow motion, particularly by the older makers of pillar and mural astronomical quadrants, in order to subdivide the divisions of the vernier, as may be seen at Greenwich, Richmond, and other observatories; but when this apparatus has been in use some time, the parts become loose and inaccurate, even allowing that the measuring screw itself can be considered as perfect in all respects. On an examination of some of Graham's, the Sissons' and Bird's quadrants, we find that though the accuracy of $1'$ is professed by the construction, yet very little dependence can be placed on such profession after the parts have been for years in use. Of this conclusion Ramsden was no doubt sensible, when he introduced into his larger instruments the microscopic readings, with a good screw at the focus of the eye-piece of a compound microscope, where there is not so much stress on the screw as at the periphery of the arc, where the screw forms also a part of the clamping apparatus. To this adoption of the use of a compound microscope, in conjunction with the subsequent improvements in the art of dividing, much of the claim to superior excellence in our English astronomical instruments is to be attributed, which claim is still further supported by the invention of the achromatic object-glass and improved eye-pieces of the telescopic portion.

Hitherto we have considered the principle and application of a single vernier only, which is in itself an useful and beautiful contrivance; and, as we have said, may be applied with advantage to subdivide a straight line; as, for instance, the scale of a barometer into hundredth parts of an inch, or the scale of Dollond's divided object-glass micrometer into the five-hundredth parts, or more; but with an entire circle that is graduated all round, the accuracy of an observation is greatly augmented, nay ensured, by the use of different verniers reading at different parts of the limb at the same time. At first two diametrically opposite verniers were introduced, as has been asserted, by one of the Sissons, though, we understand, not with a view to reading at opposite sides of the circle, by way of correcting the observation by an average; seeing that the remote end of the vernier bar had only a single stroke answering to zero of the other; but subsequently, in transit and other instruments used with a spirit-level, the double vernier became a valuable appendage, particularly when the construction of the instrument admitted of inversion of the position of the axis, so as to procure a double observation; and thence the true zero of the graduation of the measuring limb. This useful property was extended, we believe, by Troughton, first by introducing four, and then, with equal advantage, three equidistant verniers of similar powers. We have shewn the great use of additional verniers, at considerable length, under our article CIRCLE, particularly with respect to the property that three possess of correcting for the excentricity as well as inequality of the divisions of a circular instrument; and that as great accuracy may be expected from one *crossed* observation with Troughton's reflecting circle, or from a pair of reversed observations with a theodolite, with either circle, that has three verniers, as can be obtained by a repe-

a repetition of observations on the repeating circle; for, by the mode in which Troughton's circular instruments are used, the readings will be had at six different points of the circle, though very little time is expended in making the observations. It is hardly necessary to add here, that when an instrument is of the reflecting kind, its divisions are doubly numerous for the same radius, when compared with an instrument that measures only by direct vision; and that therefore the divisions on the vernier must be calculated to have their dimensions accordingly. In Troughton's reflecting circle of five inches radius, the degree is divided into three parts, and fifty-nine of these are commensurate with sixty on the scale of each of the three verniers; therefore the excess of a space on the limb over one on the vernier is

$\frac{19^{\circ} 40'}{59 \times 60} = \frac{70800''}{3540} = 20''$, which is the smallest quantity that a single vernier will indicate; but as there are six readings in the crossed observation, which observation annihilates the errors of zero, and of the darkening glasses when used, it is to be inferred that the result will be accurate to $\frac{20''}{6}$, or little more than three seconds, if we disregard the

probable errors of reading, and of taking contacts in the observation, common to all instruments. The figures of the vernier scales in this circle count both ways, from each end, because the figures read both to the right and left of zero on the limb, but there can be no mistake if the figures of the vernier are counted the same way that the limb of the circle reads. Formerly the zero of the vernier was placed at the middle of its scale; and when it read out at one end, it commenced at the other, and finished again in the middle; but this method, being liable to misapprehension, is now discontinued.

In an eighteen-inch astronomical circle, by Troughton, at present under our examination, which has four verniers at equal distances, and turns in azimuth, the degree is divided by Engine into twelve divisions, of which 59 fill the same arc as 60 on the verniers respectively; hence we have $59 \times 5' = 295'$, or $17700''$ for the numerator, and $59 \times 60 =$

3540 for the denominator, and $\frac{17700''}{3540} = 5''$, the smallest quantity that one vernier will indicate; and accordingly the space between zero and 1' on the vernier is subdivided in 12 smaller spaces, so that each successive coincidence will mark out 5'' on each separate vernier; but as there are four verniers, and as the circle will reverse in position by means of the azimuthal motion, there will be virtually eight readings from which to take an average of 5'', so that the probable accuracy resulting from such average comes within the second, and would have done so if there had been only three verniers. Hence the advantage gained over the average of the verniers by microscopic readings, is probably not so great as is generally supposed.

VERNO, in *Geography*, a town of Etruria; 11 miles N.W. of Pistoia.

VERNIS MARTIN. See *Copal* VARNISH.

VERNISH. See VARNISH.

VERNISSON, in *Geography*, a river of France, which runs into the Loing, near Montargis.

VERNODUBRUM, in *Ancient Geography*, a river of Gallia Narbonensis. Pliny.

VERNOIL, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Mayne and Loire; 14 miles S.E. of Baugé.

VERNON, in *Biography*, an English singer, brought up

at St. Paul's under Savage, was selected from among the choristers of that cathedral, in 1750, to perform the part of Puck the fairy in *Queen Mab*. When his voice broke into a tolerable tenor, he was engaged at Drury-lane theatre to supply the place of Lowe, who was degraded into a singer at Sadler's Wells and Cuper's Gardens. Vernon, with a voice much inferior to that of Lowe at his best, was a much better musician and actor, and had not only all Lowe's parts assigned to him at Drury-lane, but succeeded him at Vaux-hall, where, and at the theatre, he continued to perform till the time of his death.

Vernon was not only the professional successor to Lowe, but heir to his imprudence and debauchery.

VERNON, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Eure, on the south side of the Seine; 15 miles E.N.E. of Evreux.

VERNON, formerly *Hinsdale*, a town of America, in Windham county and state of Vermont, on the W. bank of Connecticut river; containing 1159 inhabitants.—Also, a town of Suffolk county, in the state of New Jersey, 21 miles N.E. of Newtown; containing 1708 inhabitants.—Also, a town of Trumbull county, in the district of Ohio; containing 606 inhabitants.

VERNON, *Mount*. See MOUNT Vernon.

VERNONBURG, a town of the state of Georgia; 11 miles S. of Savanna.

VERNONIA, in *Botany*, was so named by Schreber, in memory of Mr. William Vernon, fellow of St. Peter's college, Cambridge, who towards the end of the seventeenth century made a voyage to Maryland, in company with Dr. David Kreig, a German physician, of which botany was the principal object. Their herbarium, consisting, it is said, of several hundred new plants, came into the possession of Sir Hans Sloane, and contributed to enrich the supplement, or third volume, of Ray's *Historia Plantarum*. A North American genus therefore is peculiarly proper to commemorate Mr. Vernon; whose merits as an accurate and industrious English botanist are, moreover, recorded by Ray in the preface to his *Synopsis*, ed. 2d, and his name often occurs in the cryptogamic part of that work. We find no further mention of this gentleman, nor does he appear any where as an author.—Schreb. Gen. 541. Willd. Sp. Pl. v. 3. 1632. Mart. Mill. Dict. v. 4. Ait. Hort. Kew. v. 4. 502. Michaux. Boreal.-Amer. v. 2. 94. Pursh 511.—Class and order, *Syngenesia Polygamia-aqualis*. Nat. Ord. *Compositae capitatae*, Linn. *Cinaracephala*, Juss.

Gen. Ch. *Common Calyx* ovate, imbricated, with numerous, ovato-lanceolate, pointed, coloured scales. *Cor.* compound, uniform, all the florets, tubular, equal and perfect, of one petal, funnel-shaped; the tube inflexed; limb with five recurved segments. *Siam.* Filaments five, capillary, very short; anthers united into a cylindrical tube. *Pist.* Germen oblong; style thread-shaped, the length of the stamens; stigmas two, reflexed. *Peric.* none, the calyx remaining unchanged. *Seeds* solitary, ovate. Down capillary, coloured, sessile, longer than the calyx, surrounded at its base with a very short crown, of many chaffy bristles. *Recept.* naked, flat.

Eff. Ch. *Receptacle* naked. *Calyx* ovate, imbricated. Florets tubular, five-cleft. Seed-down double; the outer chaffy, short; inner capillary.

The species of this genus, as far as they were known to Linnæus or Jusliæ, were referred by both to *SERRATULA*; see that article, and *LIATRIS*. These genera differ very clearly from *Vernonia* in their feathery seed-down, destitute of surrounding scales or bristles, and the first of them has, moreover, either a scaly or a villous receptacle. Seven species

cies of *Vernonia* have been determined, all of them, except one, natives of North America, and all herbaceous and perennial, except that one, which is annual and of East Indian origin.

1. *V. noveboracensis*. Long-leaved *Vernonia*. Willd. n. 1. Ait. n. 1. Pursh n. 5. Bigelow Bolt. 187. (*Serratula noveboracensis*; Linn. Sp. Pl. 1146. *S. noveboracensis maxima*, foliis longis ferratis; Dill. Elth. 355. t. 263. Pluk. Phyt. t. 109. f. 3; see Dill.)—Leaves lanceolate, rough, finely ferrated. Corymb level-topped. Calyx-scales with slender points.—By road-sides, and in old pastures, from Canada to Carolina; flowering from August to October. *Pursh*. Stem four or five feet high, erect, furrowed, purplish, clothed with abundance of scattered, nearly sessile, long and narrow leaves; paler underneath. Flowers numerous, dark purple, turning nearly black in decay. Scales of the calyx ending each in a fine slender awn. *Bigelow*.

2. *V. præalta*. Tall *Vernonia*. Willd. n. 2. Ait. n. 2. Pursh n. 4. (*Serratula præalta*; Linn. Sp. Pl. 1146. Mill. Ic. t. 234. *S. virginica*, pericæ folio, fimbriato incano; Dill. Elth. 356. t. 264. *Eupatoria virginiana*, ferratula noveboracensis latioribus foliis; Pluk. Almag. 141. Phyt. t. 280. f. 6.)—Leaves lanceolate, ferrated; downy beneath. Corymb level-topped. Calyx-scales ovate, pointed.—By road-sides and the borders of woods, from New England to Carolina, flowering from August to October.—A tall rough-looking plant. *Pursh*. Flowers purple. Calyx-scales with shorter points than the last; and leaves more downy beneath. Linnæus did not well distinguish these two species, nor have we been able to compare authentic specimens.

3. *V. glauca*. Glaucous-leaved *Vernonia*. Willd. n. 3. Ait. n. 3. (*Serratula glauca*; Linn. Sp. Pl. 1146. *S. marilandica*, foliis glaucis, cirsii instar denticulatis; Dill. Elth. 354. t. 262.)—Leaves lanceolate, ferrated; glaucous beneath. Corymb repeatedly compound, level-topped. Calyx-scales ovate, acute.—Native of North America. This is omitted by Pursh, nor have we seen any certain specimen. Dillenius represents it with broader leaves than either of the former. A garden specimen communicated by Sir Joseph Banks under this name, has smooth leaves, glaucous beneath; but the points of its calyx-scales are as long as in the first. Perhaps Willdenow's specific characters, almost entirely founded on the calyx, may be fallacious. The points of the scales appear variable in length, in all the specimens that have fallen in our way, all of which we should esteem one species, answering best, on the whole, to the characters of *V. noveboracensis*. The roughness of the leaves in any of them is but slight.

4. *V. fasciculata*. Tufted *Vernonia*. Michaux Boreal-Amer. v. 2. 94. Pursh n. 3.—“Leaves linear, elongated, sparingly ferrated. Flowers corymbose, erect, crowded. Calyx ovate, smooth, with pointless scales.”—Native of meadows in the Illinois country. *Michaux*. In Virginia, flowering from August to October, the flowers small. *Pursh*. This, at least, should seem to be a distinct species.

5. *V. angustifolia*. Narrow-leaved *Vernonia*. Michaux ibid. Pursh n. 2. (*Chrysocoma graminifolia*; Walt. Carol. 196.)—Leaves crowded, linear, elongated, nearly entire. Corymb somewhat umbellate. Calyx-scales with little rigid points.—In barren sandy woods from Virginia to Georgia, flowering in August and September. Flowers the size and figure of *V. præalta*. *Pursh*. Considering how much some plants, nearly related to this, though of different genera, are liable to vary in the breadth of their foliage, we cannot but suspect this as a doubtful species, like some of the foregoing.

6. *V. oligophylla*. Few-leaved *Vernonia*. Michaux ibid.

Pursh n. 1. (*Chrysocoma acaulis*; Walt. Carol. 196.)—“Stem simple, nearly naked. Leaves ferrated; radical ones oblong-ovate; the rest lanceolate. Corymb panicled.”—Native of South Carolina. Flowers purple, as in all the preceding. *Pursh*. Michaux distinguishes two varieties; one denominated *verna*, in which both flowers (of two that we presume stand together) are stalked; the other *autumnalis*, in which one of these flowers is nearly sessile.

7. *V. anthelmintica*. Worm-feed *Vernonia*. Willd. n. 4. Ait. n. 4. (*Conyza anthelmintica*; Linn. Sp. Pl. 1207. *Scabiosa conyzoides*, foliis latis, dentatis, femine amaro lumbicis enecante; Burm. Zeyl. 210. t. 95. *Cattu-schiragam*; Rheede Hort. Malab. v. 2. 39. t. 24.)—Leaves elliptical, ferrated, roughish, tapering at each end; moist downy beneath. Flowers terminal, about three together.—Native of various parts of the East Indies. The seeds were sent to Kew, in 1770, by M. Richard, and have been received since from time to time. This species, well removed hither by Willdenow from *Conyza*, is annual, or, in our climes, biennial, flowering in summer. The stem is branched, several feet high, bushy, downy. Leaves stalked, coarsely ferrated, two or three inches long, veiny, more or less downy on both sides. Flowers pale purple, larger than any of the American species. Calyx-scales each tipped with a linear leafy point, very various in length. Seed-down exactly answering to the generic character, and well described by Burmann. The seeds powdered, and drank with warm water, are used in India to kill intestinal worms in children.

VERNOSOLA, in *Ancient Geography*, a place in Gallia Aquitana; 15 miles from Aquæ Siccæ. Anton. Itin.

VERNOUX, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Ardèche; 14 miles S. of Tournon.

VERODUNUM, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Belgic Gaul, on the route from Durocorvum to Divodurum, between Ad-Fines and Axuenna. Anton. Itin.

VEROFABULA, a town of Asia, in Phœnicia.

VEROLAMUM, or VERULAMUM, a town of Great Britain, mentioned in several routes of Antonine, situated between Durocobiæ or Dunstable, and Sullioniæ or Brockley Hills. Antiquaries have no dispute about the situation of this town, which was undoubtedly at Verulam, near St. Albans. It was a very flourishing and populous city in the Roman times, and honoured with the title and privileges of a municipium or free city. Dion Cassius says that it was the capital of the Catuellani, whom Ptolemy calls Catyuechani.

VEROLI, in *Geography*, a town of the Popedom, in the Campagna di Roma, the see of a bishop, under the pope; it contains eight churches and three convents; 3 miles S. of Alatri. N. lat. 41° 42'. E. long. 13° 20'.

VEROMANDUI, in *Ancient Geography*, a people of Belgic Gaul, according to Cæsar and Pliny. Their habitation was S. of the Nervii, N. of the Suefones, E. of the Ambiani, and W. of the forest of the Ardennes. They were able to furnish no more than 1000 men in a common war against the Romans.

VEROMETUM, a town of Great Britain, in the fifth Iter of Antonine, between Rate or Leicester, and Mardunum, near East Bridgeford; placed near Willoughby.

VERON, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Yonne; 5 miles S.S.E. of Sens.

VERONA, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Italy, in Venetia, towards the W., upon the Athesis. It was founded by the Eugeniens, from whom it passed to the Cenomans, who driven from Brixia, settled here. Martial says, that Verona was no less indebted to the birth of Catullus than Mantua to that of Virgil. Under the reign of Vitellius, the partisans

partisans of Vespasian made it a place of arms. Towards the year 249 A.D., the emperor Philip was put to death in this city, or its environs, by order of Decius. Under the empire of Carus, in 284, Sabinus Julianus revolted and took possession of Verona, but he was defeated by the emperor near the walls of the city. It shut its gates against Constantine, when he took possession of the empire against Maxentius; but opened them after the defeat of the latter to the conqueror, who treated the inhabitants with moderation after his victory. In 568, Verona was transferred to the Lombards. See the next article.

VERONA, in *Geography*, a city of Italy, and capital of the Veronese, the see of a bishop, situated on the Adige. It is fortified in the ancient manner, and defended by three castles; two of which, namely, St. Felix and St. Pietro, stand on a hill; and the third, called Il Castello Vecchio, and a kind of citadel, lies in a plain along the river Adige, which runs through the city, and over which are four stone bridges, of which the principal, near the last-mentioned castle, is 348 feet long. The city makes a better appearance by its delightful outlets than within, most of the streets being narrow, crooked, and dirty, and the houses but mean. The number of its inhabitants is now computed to amount to nearly 50,000, but formerly was much greater. The best street is that called the Corso, which is pretty long. The cathedral is an old building. One of the finest churches is that of St. Giorgio, belonging to the Benedictines. The palace in which the society, or academy, of Philharmonics assemble, as also the society of the Philati, in order to the revival and improvement of martial exercises, is remarkable, particularly on account of the great collection of all the ancient inscriptions and monuments in the Etrurian, Punic, Egyptian, Greek, and Latin languages, found or brought here for a great many years past. The largest square in the city is the Piazza d'Armi, in which is a marble statue, representing the city of Venice. In the Palazzo della Regione, or the Guildhall, are the statues of five illustrious natives of Verona, viz. Catullus, Marcus Æmilius, Cornelius Nepos, the elder Pliny, and Vitruvius; but the most valuable piece of antiquity here is the celebrated Roman amphitheatre, (see AMPHITHEATRE,) which so far exceeds all others, the steps, or seats, on which the people sat, being still entire; though, in reality, but little of it appears ancient, having been carefully repaired, from time to time, at the city's expence. The learned count Maffei computed that it held 22,184 spectators: the outward wall and the upper story are wanting. Near this city is a delightful place, called Campus Martius, at present used for the annual fair; it is constructed in a quadrangular form, with four gates, and in the centre, along the stands and booths, which are placed in a direct line, one may see all the four gates. The trade of this city is not improved as it might be, by supplying other countries with the medicinal plants growing on Monte Balbo, olives, oil, wine, and very good linen, sewing silk, and woollen stuffs. The Scaligeri were lords of this city for 170 years; and one of them, for his greater security, and to keep the city in awe, built the Castello Vecchio, and the large stone bridge. In 1387, Galeazzo Maria, first duke of Milan, drove out the Scaligeri, and usurped the sovereignty of this city; but in the year 1409, the Venetians became masters of it. In 1796, Verona was taken by the French; 60 miles W. of Venice. N. lat. 45° 37'. E. long. 8° 9'.

VERONESE, ALESSANDRO, called *L'Orbetto*, in *Biography*, was born at Verona in 1582. He acquired the name of Orbetto, from having been, whilst a boy, the conductor of a blind beggar; from this condition he was rescued by Domenico Riccio, and instructed in the art of painting, for

which he had exhibited considerable ability. After passing some years with Riccio, of whom he became the rival rather than the scholar, he went to Venice, and there studied under Carlo Cagliari, and acquired an excellent idea of colouring. He then went to Rome, and drew attentively, and in the end composed a style of his own, in which he attempted to combine the excellencies of the two schools in which he had studied, and in a great degree succeeded.

He had a ready imagination, so that frequently he proceeded to paint his smaller works without any preparatory sketch. We seldom see in this country any other than small productions of this celebrated master, and those generally painted upon marble, but it is not upon them that his fame is founded. Lanzi, speaking of a picture of his in the church of S. Stefano in Verona, called the Forty Martyrs, says, "it is a work which, in the impart of colour, and the keeping, has the quality of the Lombard school; it partakes of the Roman in design and expression, and of the Venetian in colouring. It is the most studied, the most finished, the gayest, that he ever made, with a degree of beauty in the heads, almost rivaling those of Guido; and with so much art in the composition, that all is understood, even the multiplied circumstances which are introduced in the background of the picture."

There is also another fine picture by him at Verona, a Pietà, in the church of the Misericordia, which is esteemed one of the very finest in that city. He maintained himself fully in competition with Andrea Sacchi and Pietro da Cortona, in the church of La Concezione; and he painted several other pictures for public buildings in Rome. He died at Rome 1648.

VERONESE, PAOLO. See CAGLIARI.

VERONESE, in *Geography*, a province of Italy, so called from its capital, Verona, bounded on the north by the Trentin, on the east by the Vicentin, on the south and south-west by the Mantuan, and on the west by the lake of Garda; about 50 miles in length, and 25 in breadth. The soil is fertile, and produces plenty of silk, corn, wine, oil, and the most delicious fruits. The Veronese was anciently a Roman colony; afterwards it made a part of Lombardy. After divers revolutions, it became the property of the house of Este, from whence it fell to the dukes of Milan; and in 1409, to the Venetians.

VERONICA, a term abbreviated from *veronica*, of *vera-icon*, q. d. *true image*, and applied to portraits, or representations of the face of our Saviour on handkerchiefs. Veronics are imitations of that celebrated original one, preserved with great veneration at St. Peter's in Rome; and imagined by some to be the handkerchief laid over our Saviour's face in the sepulchre.

The first mention we find of this famous relic is in a ceremonial compiled in 1143, dedicated to pope Celestine, by Benedict, a canon of St. Peter's: but there is no mention made of the time when it was brought to Rome. A feast is kept in honour thereof in most churches, on the Tuesday in Quinquagesima week.

It is to be observed, that the name veronica is only given to such handkerchiefs as represent no more of our Saviour than his face; for such as represent his whole body, as that of Besançon, which shews his fore-part at length; and that of Turin, which represents both his fore and hind-part, as having covered him all over, were never called by this name.

The painters sometimes represent the veronica as held up by an angel, but most commonly by a woman, which woman the common people imagine to be a faint, called St. Veronica; a person of that name having been supposed,

posed, about the ninth century, to have presented her handkerchief to our Saviour as he went to Calvary, to wipe his face, when the picture was miraculously impressed upon it. This woman, it was added, was the person troubled with the flux of blood mentioned in the Gospel; and accordingly, she was soon joined with St. Fiacrius, and invoked together with him against the hemorrhoids. And hence the establishment of feasts in honour of St. Veronica, in the churches dedicated to St. Fiacrius.

The milliners have taken St. Veronica, or, as they call her, *St. Venisse*, or *St. Venecia*, or *Venisa*, for their tutelary saint.

VERONICA, in *Botany*, an old, but not classical, Latin name, whose derivation has occupied and perplexed etymologists as much as any upon record. Linnæus thought it a corruption of *Vetonica*, which, as professor Martyn observes, confounds it with *Betonica*. The same learned writer gives us a Greek etymology, from Hoffmann, *εἰρωνία*, composed of *εἶρος*, to bear, and *νίκη*, victory, or *distinction*, as if we should say in English, *bearing the bell*, on account of its beauty. But we doubt whether this be more than a pun. Its common etymology is of a mule kind, between Greek and Latin, from *verus*, or rather *vera*, true, and *ωνία*, a figure; and this, illiterate and barbarous as it is, has the sanction of the superstitious legend of St. Veronica, whose handkerchief is recorded to have received the impression of our Saviour's face, as he used it, in bearing his cross to the place of his crucifixion. But we find nothing analogous in any of the herbs which has borne this name, nor any character, true or false, stamped upon them, except that of their own peculiar beauty. Ambrosinus says the word is German, and originated in the druggists' shops of that country, though he favours the idea of its being corrupted from *Vetonica*, our *Betonica*, or *Betony*. The chief object of this controversy is to learn the true pronunciation of the name in question. If there be any truth in its Greek origin, the *i* must be long; but if otherwise, the analogy of *Betonica* may justify the usual practice, of throwing the accent on the *o*.—Linn. Gen. 12. Schreb. 15. Willd. Sp. Pl. v. 1. 54. Vahl Enum. v. 1. 55. Mart. Mill. Dict. v. 4. Sm. Fl. Brit. 15. Prodr. Fl. Græc. Sibth. v. 1. 5. Ait. Hort. Kew. v. 1. 26. Brown Prodr. Nov. Holl. v. 1. 434. Pursh 10. Tourn. t. 60. Juss. 99. Lamarck Dict. by Poiret, v. 8. 505. Illustr. t. 13. Gært. t. 54. (Hebe; Juss. 105.)—Class and order, *Diandria Monogynia*. Nat. Ord. *Personate*, Linn. *Pedicularæ*, Juss. *Scrophularinæ*, Brown.

Gen. Ch. *Cal.* Perianth inferior, of one leaf, in four, rarely five, deep, lanceolate, acute, sometimes obovate, permanent segments. *Cor.* of one petal, wheel-shaped; tube almost as long as the calyx; limb flat, in four deep, ovate, unequal segments, the lowermost narrowest, the opposite one broadest. *Stam.* Filaments two, inserted into the tube of the corolla, spreading, ascending, tapering downwards; anthers roundish-oblong. *Pist.* Germen superior, compressed; style thread-shaped, the length of the stamens, declining; stigma simple, obtuse. *Peric.* Capsule inversely heart-shaped, or somewhat elliptical, compressed in the upper part, of two cells, and two, more or less cloven, valves. *Seeds* numerous, roundish.

Effl. Ch. Corolla four-cleft; wheel-shaped; its lower segment narrowest. Capsule superior, of two cells.

Obf. Linnæus remarks, that the tube of the corolla, though in most instances very short, in some spiked species is of considerable length. Mr. Brown particularly indicates *V. virginica* and *fibrica*, as having a tube longer than their five-cleft calyx, and hence belonging to *PÆDEROTA*,

if that genus, which moreover scarcely differs from *WULFENIA*, ought to be retained; see those articles. The *calyx* is five-cleft in some other species, as *multifida*, and several neighbouring ones, though others of the same tribe have a four-cleft calyx. Such a difference therefore furnishes merely, in this case, a specific, not a generic, distinction.

Veronica is a very natural genus. The *stem*, usually herbaceous, is in some few instances shrubby. *Leaves* opposite, simple, mostly undivided, sometimes many-cleft; in a few cases whorled; those which accompany the flowers, whether true *bractæes*, or the proper foliage of the plant, the flowers being axillary, are nearly all alternate. *Partial flower-stalks* alternate, single-flowered. *Calyx* more or less unequal. *Corolla* blue, rarely white or pale red, marked with simple, radiating lines, not reticulated. The species are very numerous, natives of the cold or temperate regions of Europe, America, New Holland, and New Zealand. Seventeen are wild in Britain; about twenty-five exotic ones are cultivated in the gardens, being mostly perennial and hardy. We have several to add to those of Linnaeus and Willdenow, and even to the more copious catalogue of Vahl, amounting to sixty-eight species. The fourteenth edition of Linn. Syst. Veg. contains but forty. They are commodiously and naturally arranged by their inflorescence.

SECT. 1. *Clusters terminal. Leaves more or less whorled.*
1. *V. fibrica*. Siberian Speedwell. Linn. Sp. Pl. 12. Willd. n. 1. Vahl n. 1. Ait. n. 1. (*V. spicata* altissima, foliis verticillatis; Am. Ruth. 20. t. 4.)—Cluster dense, with nearly sessile flowers. Tube of the corolla twice as long as the five-cleft calyx. Leaves from five to nine in a whorl, lanceolate, sessile.—Native of Siberia; sent to Kew by professor Thunberg, in 1779. A hardy perennial, not rare in curious gardens, flowering in July and August, and rising to the height of five feet. The numerous whorled, finely serrated, smooth leaves, and the long, dense, upright spikes, rather than *clusters*, of innumerable pale blue, often white, tubular flowers, with long, projecting, capillary stamens and style, well mark this fine species.

2. *V. virginica*. Virginian Speedwell. Linn. Sp. Pl. 13. Willd. n. 2. Vahl n. 2. Ait. n. 2. Pursh n. 1. "Hoffm. in Comm. Goett. v. 15. 112. t. 1." (*V. virginiana* procerior, foliis ternis, quaternis, &c.; Pluk. Phyt. t. 70. f. 2.)—Clusters obscurely whorled, with nearly sessile flowers. Tube of the corolla twice as long as the five-cleft calyx. Leaves four or five in a whorl, elliptic-lanceolate, stalked.—On calcareous hills of North America, in sunny exposures, flowering from July to September. Perennial. Spikes long; white or bluish-coloured. On the mountains of Virginia, I observed a very tall-growing variety, with purple flowers, extremely beautiful. Pursh. This is usually of more humble stature than the preceding, and more frequent in gardens. The leaves are fewer in a whorl, broader, and, in our specimens, downy beneath. *Clusters*, or *spikes*, several at the top of the stem.

3. *V. foliosa*. Leafy Hungarian Speedwell. Vahl n. 3. "Waldst. et Kitaib. Hung. v. 2. 106. t. 102."—Leaves three in a whorl, ovate, doubly serrated. Calyx four-cleft. Native of Hungary. Stem about two feet high, erect, simple, hairy below. Leaves on short stalks, acute, veiny beneath; the lower ones downy, especially the rib and margin; uppermost rather lanceolate and smooth. Lower clusters: three together; upper ones opposite or alternate. *Bractæes* linear. *Corolla* of a violet-blue. Capsule inversely heart-shaped. Vahl.

4. *V. mariitima*. Sea-side Speedwell. Linn. Sp. Pl. 13. Fl. Lapp. ed. 2. 5. Vahl n. 4. Willd. n. 4. Fl. Dan. t. 374? (*V. mas succreata* elatior; Barrel. Ic. t. 891. *V. spuria*;

spuria; Poit. et Turp. Parif. 19. t. 18. *Lysimachia cæruleo flore*; Clus. Hist. v. 2. 52. *L. cærulea hortensis*; Lob. Ic. 344. Ger. Em. 477. f. 9.)—Clusters terminal, with nearly sessile flowers. Leaves stalked, three in a whorl, unequally and sharply serrated.—Native of barren dry ground, near the sea-coast, in the north of Europe. Linnæus observed it frequently on the confines of the Lapland Alps, near the North sea, though no where more abundantly than on the sea-coast near Tornea. We must take his plant as a fixed point, by which to determine this much-confused species; which, though often seen in gardens, flowering in the early part of summer, does not find a place in the *Hort. Kew.* The old wooden cut, which is the very fame in all the old authors above cited, represents the Linnæan plant most perfectly, even better than the plate of *Fl. Dan.*, whose leaves are too broad, and too finely serrated. The root of *V. maritima* is perennial, and somewhat creeping. Stems two feet high, erect, simple, leafy, round below, quadrangular above, finely downy, though occasionally smooth in a garden, the angles being the first part that becomes so. Leaves three or four in a whorl, on elongated rather slender stalks, spreading and rather dependent, linear-lanceolate, pointed, two and a half or three inches long, copiously, deeply, unequally, and very sharply serrated, either finely downy, or quite smooth, on both sides; accompanied by axillary tufts of a few linear, or awlshaped, small, serrated leaves. Flowers blue, in one large, central, dense spike, accompanied by several surrounding smaller ones, from the bosoms of the uppermost leaves, sometimes terminating small branches. Calyx unequally four-cleft, narrow, longer than the tube of the corolla.—A singular variety, as it is supposed, of this is described in Linn. Amoen. Acad. v. 3. 35. t. 2, by the name of *V. spuria*, and preserved in the Linnæan herbarium. The leaves are deeply and variously pinnatifid and jagged; flowers smaller than usual in *V. maritima*, and always barren. Linnæus conceived it to be a mule, from the pollen of *Verbena officinalis*, which grew near the *Veronica maritima* in his garden. We can neither confirm nor disprove this opinion. The plant must not be confounded with *V. spuria*, hereafter described.

Three dried specimens from Ehrhart's *Herbæ* are before us, *V. glabra*, n. 11; *nitida*, n. 21; and *clatior*, n. 31. The first is considered by Willdenow as the identical *V. maritima*, and indeed agrees well with *V. recta cærulea*, Bess. Eyf. vern. ord. 5. t. 10. f. 2. cited by C. Bauhin as the same with our *maritima*; but the leaves are shorter and more ovate, with far less taper serratures than the Linnæan specimen, or the authentic old wooden cuts; being more of the shape of *Fl. Dan.* t. 374, though with much broader serratures. The stem and leaves are very smooth; partial flower-stalks elongated and slender, nearly smooth; tube of the corolla about twice as long as the calyx, which last seems an important distinction, should it prove constant.—*V. nitida*, Ehrh. n. 21, is the top of a large luxuriant plant, whose very smooth leaves are opposite, or aggregate, not distinctly whorled, though its lower ones perhaps might; their form broad-ovate, strongly and sharply serrated, their length one and a half or two inches. Clusters numerous and long; the partial flower-stalks a little downy, longer than the calyx, which is full as long as the tube of the corolla. If these characters may be depended on, as in other plants, the two specimens in question must be distinct from each other and from *maritima*. *V. clatior*, n. 31, most unaccountably referred by Willdenow to *longifolia*, is more near *maritima* than either of the others, having merely broader, and less deeply serrated, leaves, and agreeing as nearly with *Fl. Dan.* t. 374, as a cultivated specimen usually does with a wild one.

Its inflorescence and flowers precisely resemble those of the Linnæan specimen of *maritima*. This is surely *V. spicata* of Rivin. Monop. Irr. t. 97.

5. *V. crenulata*. Notch-flowered Speedwell. "Hoffm. Phytogr. Blätt. fasc. 1. 95." Vahl n. 5.—"Leaves three in a whorl, or opposite, oblong-lanceolate, serrated, downy like the stem. Corolla finely crenate."—A garden plant, perennial, two feet high, with scattered branches in the upper part of the stem. Lower leaves stalked, opposite, rarely three together; upper nearly sessile, alternate, pretty equally and acutely serrated. Clusters hardly six inches long. Bractæes lanceolate. Calyx four-cleft, hairy at the edge. Corolla deep blue, hairy in the throat; its segments waved, minutely crenate. Capsule roundish-ovate, smooth, of four valves. Hoffmann, Vahl. We know nothing of this species, having seen no specimen answering to its name or character.

6. *V. spuria*. Spurious Speedwell. Linn. Sp. Pl. 13. Willd. n. 3. Vahl n. 6. Gmel. It. v. 1. 169. t. 39. (*V. spicata angustifolia*; Bauh. Pin. 246. Herb. Sberard. *V. recta vulgaris major*; Clus. Hist. v. 1. 347. *V. recta herbariorum*; Lob. Ic. 473. *V. affurgens five spicata*; Ger. Em. 628, according to C. Bauhin; but the same cut is in Clusius, v. 1. 346, who probably has the same species twice.)—Leaves three in a whorl, or opposite, on short stalks, lanceolate, equally serrated, somewhat downy; contracted at each end. Clusters lax.—Native of Siberia and the south of Europe. About the stature of the last, but the stem is round to the top; leaves shorter, equally, though strongly serrated, on much shorter stalks; never more than three in a whorl, often opposite only. Calyx the length of the tube. Vahl records an opinion of our learned friend Dr. A. Afzelius, that this may be a three-leaved variety of *V. longifolia*. Some botanists of the south of Europe, from whom we have specimens, have conceived the same idea. But the real *longifolia* is totally distinct, as we shall hereafter shew.

7. *V. paniculata*. Panicked Speedwell. Linn. Sp. Pl. 18. Willd. n. 45. Vahl n. 7. Ait. n. 31. ("V. dentata; Schmidt Bohem. v. 1. 31." *V. angustifolia, floribus paniculatis*; Amm. Ruth. 24.)—Leaves stalked, three in a whorl, lanceolate, equally serrated, smooth. Stem ascending, panicked with numerous simple clusters.—Native of Siberia, Tartary, and Bohemia. A hardy perennial in this country, introduced by Mr. Hunnemann, in 1797, yet it has never been figured. The herbage is smooth. Stem round, not quite erect. Leaves an inch or more in length, narrow, acute, rather distantly serrated, on shortish stalks. Clusters lax, many-flowered, smooth, on long, axillary, partly leafy, stalks, making a handsome terminal panicle. Flowers blue. Vahl is certainly right in removing this species to the present section, near its most natural allies. It is, however, very distinct from the last.

8. *V. complicata*. Folded-leaved Speedwell. "Hoffm. Phytogr. Blätt. fasc. 1. 98." Vahl n. 8.—"Leaves whorled, or opposite, linear-lanceolate, folded, toothed; teeth thickened."—Native of Europe. Perennial. Stem two feet high, erect, slightly zigzag, round, downy in the upper part; the flowering branches nearly opposite. Leaves mostly opposite, rarely three in a whorl, spreading, reflexed; the radical ones elliptical, somewhat hoary, unequally toothed. Bractæes linear-lanceolate. Calyx four-cleft, downy. Corolla blue, hairy in the throat. Capsule inversely heart-shaped, smooth, with four valves. Hoffm. Vahl.

9. *V. brevifolia*. Short-leaved Speedwell. "Waldst. et Kitaib. Hung. t.—" Marich. à Bieberst. Taur.-Caucas.

v. 1. 6.—“Leaves three in a whorl, broadly lanceolate, downy, sharply and finely serrated. Calyx and bractæas very short.”—Native of stony hills of Caucasus, flowering in May and June. Perennial. Whole herb clothed with fine, rather glaucous, pubescence. Akin to *V. spuria* in flowers and inflorescence, but the leaves are much shorter and broader, with sharper more copious serratures. *Marfch.*

Seet. 2. *Clusters or spikes terminal. Leaves opposite.*

10. *V. longifolia*. Long-leaved Speedwell. Linn. Sp. Pl. 13. Fl. Suec. ed. 2. 4. Willd. n. 5, excluding Ehrhart's synonymy. Vahl n. 9. Ait. n. 6? “Schr. Veron. 26. t. 2. f. 1?” (*V. spicata latifolia*; Bauh. Pin. 246. Ger. Em. 628. *V. prima erectior latifolia*; Clus. Hist. v. 1. 346. *V. major latifolia, foliis splendentibus et non splendentibus*; Bauh. Hist. v. 3. 283.)—Leaves opposite, ovate, pointed, doubly and sharply serrated, smooth, on very short stalks. Clusters aggregate, erect. Calyx ovate, shorter than the tube of the corolla.—Native of Sweden, Tartary and Austria. Perennial. Stems erect, two feet high, leafy, round, either smooth, or finely downy, with minute recurved hairs. Leaves two and a half inches long, and nearly one broad, with extremely numerous and sharp, unequal, and often double, serratures. Footstalks broad and very short; to the upper leaves scarcely any. Clusters rather dense, all erect and crowded, forming a sort of pyramidal panicle. Partial flower-stalks slightly downy, for the most part longer than the calyx, whole four segments are broad, ovate, and nearly equal. Tube of the corolla about twice as long as the calyx, and equal to the limb.—Such is the real *V. longifolia*, the Swedish plant of Linnæus, for which, if we do not greatly err, authors have mistaken the *maritima* of Fl. Dan. t. 374. This latter is actually quoted for *longifolia*, by Mr. Dryander in Hort. Kew. on the authority, we presume, of Schrader, whose work is not within our reach, and therefore we refer to his plate with hesitation. That the above-mentioned plant of Fl. Dan. may be a distinct species from *maritima*, we are readily disposed to allow. But that both of them are perfectly different from our true *longifolia*, and essentially distinguished from it by the much narrower, and more unequal, segments of their calyx, to say nothing of the leaves and footstalks, is certain. A good figure of the *longifolia* is wanting, John Bauhin's being the best that we can find; as the others are very defective in their foliage. Vahl's description answers better to the so often mentioned *maritima* of Fl. Dan. than to the real *longifolia*. His variety β , *V. spicata urtica folio*, Amm. Ruth. 26, though cited likewise as a variety by Linnæus, appears to be the true plant, the description agreeing precisely, except the “folitary spike.”

11. *V. incana*. Hoary Speedwell. Linn. Sp. Pl. 14. Willd. n. 6. Vahl n. 10. Ait. n. 3. “Hoffm. in Comm. Goett. v. 15. 123. t. 6.” *Marfch. Taur.-Caucas. v. 1. 7.* (*V. spicata lanuginosa et incana, floribus cæruleis*; Amm. Ruth. 21.)

β . *V. neglecta*; Vahl n. 11.

Hoary and densely downy. Spike terminal, mostly solitary. Leaves opposite; lower ones stalked, crenate or serrated; uppermost entire, sessile, tapering at the base.—Native of the rocky summits of mountains in Siberia and Tauria, flowering in June. An elegant plant, a foot high, its white pubescence being strikingly contrasted with the dense spike, rather than cluster, of dark blue flowers. Calyx cottony, with four oblong unequal segments. The leaves certainly vary in acuteness, as well as in the strength of their serratures, and we gladly profit of the hint given by the learned author of the *Flora Taurico-Caucasica*, to consider Vahl's *V. neglecta*, which is frequent in gardens, as a mere

variety. Still we do not concur with the same great authority in thinking the pubescence alone distinguishes this species from *V. spicata*; even though specimens of luxuriant *spicata*, as they appear to us, are pinned by Linnæus in his herbarium to the genuine wild *incana*.

12. *V. spicata*. Spiked Speedwell. Linn. Sp. Pl. 14. Willd. n. 7. Vahl n. 12. Fl. Brit. n. 1. Engl. Bot. t. 2. Poit. et Turp. Parif. 19. t. 19. Fl. Dan. t. 52. (*V. spicata minor*; Bauh. Pin. 247. Vaill. Parif. t. 33. f. 4. *V. recta minima*; Clus. Hist. v. 1. 347. Ger. Em. 627. *V. spicata recta minor*; Bauh. Hist. v. 3. 282.) β . *V. altera erecta angustifolia*; Clus. Hist. v. 1. 346. (*V. spicata recta major*; Bauh. Hist. v. 3. 282. *V. affurgens*, five spicata; Ger. Em. 628.)

Spike terminal, mostly solitary. Leaves opposite, stalked, blunthly, with shallow serratures, somewhat downy; the extremity entire. Stem ascending, unbranched.—Native of open, chalky, mountainous, or alpine pastures, throughout most parts of Europe, from Sweden to Greece, flowering from July to September. The root is creeping, perennial, a little woody. Stems from three to ten or fourteen inches high, each bearing usually a single dense spike of dark-blue flowers; but the luxuriant variety β has several spikes. The lower flowers are not sessile. The segments of the calyx are oblong and downy. The whole herb is more or less downy, or finely hairy, but by no means cottony, or hoary, in the manner of the last. The leaves vary in breadth, and are sometimes almost entire.

13. *V. hybrida*. Welsh Speedwell. Linn. Sp. Pl. 14. Willd. n. 8. Vahl n. 13. Fl. Brit. n. 2. Engl. Bot. t. 673. (*V. spicata cambrobritannica, bugulæ subhirsutifolia*; Raii Syn. ed. 3. 278. t. 11.)—Spikes terminal. Leaves opposite, elliptical, obtuse, roughish, unequally and bluntly serrated. Stem nearly erect.—Native of several parts of Europe, but rare. It is found in the Welsh county of Montgomery, as well as in Lancashire. Linnæus suspected this might be a mule between *V. officinalis* and *spicata*, though surely without authority. It is most akin to the last, but twice as large in every part, with rougher leaves and stem, nor does it alter by culture. The spikes, or rather clusters, are very long and dense, seldom solitary, and consist of innumerable blue flowers.

14. *V. incisæ*. Cut-leaved Speedwell. Ait. ed. 1. v. 1. 19. ed. 2. n. 9. Willd. n. 11. Vahl n. 14. “Schr. Veron. 33.”—Clusters terminal. Bractæas as long as the calyx and flower-stalk. Segments of the calyx linear-lanceolate, longer than the tube of the corolla. Leaves lanceolate, deeply pinnatifid, smooth.—Native of Siberia. The whole habit of this species is very slender. Stem branched, about two feet high, leafy, round, slightly downy. Leaves linear-lanceolate, or variously pinnatifid and cut, very narrow, with axillary tufts of still narrower and much smaller ones. Clusters solitary at the ends of the branches, lax, many-flowered. Partial stalks capillary, a little downy, shorter than the calyx, which is four-cleft, unequal, smooth. Bractæas linear, channelled, smooth, various in length, but, in the lower part of the cluster at least, extending beyond the points of the calyx. Corolla blue, with acute segments.

15. *V. laciniata*. Jagged-leaved Speedwell. Ait. ed. 1. v. 1. 19. ed. 2. n. 8. Willd. n. 10. Vahl n. 15. “Schr. Veron. 32.” (“*V. spuria*; Junghans Il. Car. cent. 1. fig. 2, excluding the synonyms.” *Willd.*)—Clusters terminal. Bractæas as long as the flower-stalk. Segments of the calyx ovato-lanceolate, as long as the tube of the corolla. Leaves linear, pinnatifid.—Native of Siberia. Akin to the last, but the shorter more ovate segments of the calyx afford a clear distinction. The clusters are very long, and their

their lower *bractææ*, much longer than the upper, partake of the nature of leaves.

16. *V. pinnata*. Wing-leaved Speedwell. Linn. Mant. 24. Willd. n. 9. Vahl n. 6. Ait. n. 7. "Schrad. Veron. 32. Laxmann in Act. Petrop. ann. 1770. 553. t. 29. f. 1. Hoffm. in Comm. Goett. v. 15. 130. t. 10."—Clusters terminal. Segments of the calyx lanceolate. Leaves pinnatifid, with linear, acute, divaricate, entire or toothed, segments.—Found by Laxmann in Siberia, and by Dr. Sibthorp on mount Athos.—Like the two last, this is a hardy perennial in the gardens, flowering in June and July; but though they have been introduced about forty years, they are not become common. The *foliage* of the prefest species abounds with copious, narrow, often capillary, segments. *Clusters* numerous, from a span to a foot long, consisting of a profusion of handiome sky-blue *flowers*, whose *calyx* is smooth, almost equally four-cleft. *Bractææ* linear, various in length. *Capfulæ* inversely heart-shaped, a little longer than the permanent calyx, tumid, with four valves.

17. *V. bellidoides*. Daisy-leaved Speedwell. Linn. Sp. Pl. 15. Mant. 316. Willd. n. 21. Vahl n. 17. Ait. n. 12. (V. n. 543. t. 15. f. 1; Hall. Hist. v. 1. 235. V. alpina, bellidis folio, hirsuta; Bauh. Prodr. 116.)—Cluster corymbose, terminal, hairy, of few flowers. Leaves obovate, crenate. Stem simple, ascending. *Capfulæ* elliptical, abrupt, emarginate.—Native of the Alps and Pyrenées, flowering in June and July. This is one of those numerous alpine plants, which were first introduced to the knowledge of British cultivators by Dr. Pitcairn and Dr. Fothergill, who in 1775 sent a skilful gardener abroad for that purpose. *V. bellidoides* is perennial, with a creeping *stem*, throwing up perfectly simple flowering-branches, a finger's length, bearing two or three pair of opposite spatulate *leaves*, smaller than the more numerous radical ones. The whole of the herbage is more or less hairy. *Flowers* pale greyish-blue, from five to eight in a terminal viscid *corymb*, afterwards elongated and racemose.

18. *V. gentianoides*. Gentian-leaved Speedwell. Vahl n. 18. Symb. v. 1. 1. Willd. n. 22. Ait. n. 13. Sm. Tr. of Linn. Soc. v. 1. 194. Fl. Græc. Sibth. v. 1. 5. t. 5. Curt. Mag. t. 1002. Venten. Malmaif. t. 86. (V. orientalis erecta, gentianellæ foliis; Tourn. Cor. 7. V. erecta, blattariæ facie; Buxb. Cent. 1. 23. t. 35.)—Cluster corymbose, terminal, hairy. Radical leaves lanceolate, somewhat crenate, smooth.—Native of Cappadocia, and the mountains of Taurida and Caucasus, as well as of the Bithynian Olympus. Hardy, perennial, and not uncommon in gardens, flowering in May and June. But this little alpine plant, originally four or five inches high, by culture rises to the height of two feet, with a lax habit, and long cluster of numerous *flowers*. It may always be known by its thick, smooth, acute *leaves*, with a pale cartilaginous edge, resembling the foliage of *Gentiana acaulis*. The *corolla* is large, beautifully streaked; purplish-blue in a wild state; bluish-white in gardens.

19. *V. thymifolia*. Thyme-leaved Speedwell. Sm. Fl. Græc. Sibth. v. 1. 5. t. 6. Prodr. n. 19.—Cluster terminal, corymbose. Leaves revolute, hoary. Stems somewhat shrubby, diffuse. Lobes of the *capfulæ* divaricate.—Discovered by Dr. Sibthorp on the summits of mountains in Crete, flowering on the first melting of the snow. A shrubby little plant, whose *stems* are only three or four inches high, slightly branched, clothed with thyme-like, opposite, hoary, elliptical, entire, revolute *leaves*, tapering down into short *footstalks*. *Flowers* blue, very pretty, in *clusters* not an inch long. *Capfulæ* hairy, inversely heart-shaped, with distant lobes.

20. *V. fruticulosa*. Flesh-coloured Shrubby Speedwell. Linn. Sp. Pl. 15. Mant. 316. Willd. n. 24. Vahl n. 19. Fl. Brit. n. 5. Engl. Bot. t. 1028. Wulf. in Jacq. Coll. v. 4. 229. t. 5. (V. n. 545; Hall. Hist. v. 1. 235. t. 16. f. 1.)—Cluster terminal, elongated, many-flowered. Leaves elliptic-lanceolate. Stems erect, somewhat shrubby. *Capfulæ* ovate, of four valves. Native of the mountains of Austria, Scotland, Switzerland, and the Pyrenées, flowering in July. The *stems*, at least their flowering *branches*, are quite erect, from four to six inches high. *Leaves* above an inch long, a little downy at their edges and veins, sometimes quite entire, sometimes crenate or serrated. *Flowers* numerous, in a spiked rather than corymbose *cluster*, pink or flesh-coloured, never blue. *Capfulæ* abrupt or rather acute, soon splitting into four valves.

21. *V. saxatilis*. Blue Rock Speedwell. Linn. Suppl. 83. Willd. n. 25. Vahl n. 20. Fl. Brit. n. 4. Engl. Bot. t. 1027. Bauh. Hist. v. 3. 284. Dickl. Crypt. fasc. 2. 29. (V. fruticulosa; Sm. Tr. of Linn. Soc. v. 1. 191. Fl. Dan. t. 342. V. n. 545 β; Hall. Hist. v. 236. V. tercia fruticans; Clus. Hist. v. 1. 347. V. fruticans ferpyllifolia; Ger. Em. 628.)—Cluster terminal, corymbose, of few flowers. Leaves elliptical. Stems spreading, somewhat shrubby. *Capfulæ* ovate, of four valves.—Native of the mountains of Norway, Scotland, Austria, Switzerland, and the Pyrenées, more frequent than the preceding, flowering in July. This is akin to the last, with which many botanists, even the greatest, have confounded it. The *stems* however are diffuse; *leaves* shorter and rounder; *flowers* of a rich ultramarine blue, and much fewer in each short corymbose cluster. The *bractææ* too are rounder and shorter in proportion to the *partial stalks*. The flowering branches of both these species are herbaceous and annual, though the main stem of both is shrubby and perennial, forming woody entangled tufts.—*V. nummularia*, Gouan. Illust. 1. t. 1. f. 2, appears by original specimens from the author to be, as Willdenow and Vahl make it, a dwarf variety of the *saxatilis*, with small, rounded, crowded *leaves*. *V. pygmaea*, Schranck Salisb. n. 11. t. 1. f. 1, seems scarcely different from the *nummularia*.

22. *V. alpina*. Alpine Speedwell. Linn. Sp. Pl. 15. Fl. Lapp. ed. 2. 7. t. 9. f. 4. Willd. n. 26. Vahl n. 21. Fl. Brit. n. 6. Engl. Bot. t. 484. Fl. Dan. t. 16. (V. pumila; Allion. Pedem. v. 1. 75. t. 22. f. 5. Spec. 19. t. 3. f. 3. V. integrifolia; Willd. n. 27. V. n. 544; Hall. Hist. v. 1. 235. t. 15. f. 2.)—Cluster terminal, dense, corymbose. Leaves ovate, smoothish, somewhat serrated. Calyx fringed. Stem ascending, simple.—Native of the alps of Europe, from Lapland to Savoy, flowering in July and August. Vahl thinks this *Teucrium sextum* of Clus. Hist. v. 1. 350, with the description of which it well agrees, but there being no figure, we cannot absolutely decide. In general, though not infrequent in boggy alpine spots, among trickling rills, in Switzerland and Savoy, it seems to have almost totally escaped the notice of the earlier writers. The *root* is perennial, rather creeping. *Stems* procumbent at the base, then ascending obliquely, a little zig-zag, round, leafy, from two to five inches long. *Leaves* about an inch long, more or less broadly elliptical, rarely hairy. *Flowers* small, of a bright light blue, with a white tube, shorter than the four ovate, nearly equal, hairy segments of the *calyx*. *Capfulæ* oval-heartshaped, of two compressed valves.—We reduce to this species, on the authority of Vahl, the *V. integrifolia* of Schranck and Willdenow, of which no specimen has fallen in our way; but we find among those of indubitable *V. alpina* many that answer to their descriptions.

VERONICA.

23. *V. serpyllifolia*. Smooth Speedwell, or Paul's Betony. Linn. Sp. Pl. 15. Willd. n. 28. Vahl n. 22. Fl. Brit. n. 7. Engl. Bot. t. 1075. Curt. Lond. fasc. 1. t. 3. Pursh n. 4. Fl. Dan. t. 492. (V. humifusa; Dickf. Tr. of Linn. Soc. v. 2. 288. V. minima repens; Rivin. Monop. Irr. t. 99. f. 1. V. minor; Ger. Em. 627. V. minor serpyllifolia; Lob. Ic. 472.)—Cluster terminal, somewhat spiked. Leaves ovate, slightly crenate, three-ribbed, smooth. Capsule inversely heart-shaped, shorter than the style.—Native of Europe and North America, in pastures, and by road-sides, very frequent, flowering in May and June. The herbage in moist situations is smooth, shining, and rather juicy; in dry open or hilly ground it becomes downy or hairy. The roots are perennial. Stems from two to twelve inches long, erect or prostrate. Clusters elongated, lax, with ovate bracteas. Corolla small, elegantly variegated with bright blue and white, streaked with dark blue.

24. *V. tenella*. Little Round-leaved Speedwell. Allion. Pedem. v. 1. 75. t. 22. f. 1. Willd. n. 29. Vahl n. 23. Synb. v. 3. 5.—“Leaves roundish, somewhat rugged and crenate, all stalked. Stem creeping, villous as well as the calyx.”—Native of the Pyrenean mountains, and the alps of Savoy. This is said to differ but little from the last. Indeed Plukenet's t. 233. f. 4, cited for the present, can hardly be any thing else than the *serpyllifolia*. Allioni describes the leaves as less firm and even than that species, but the creeping stem and less dense cluster, are characters of no moment. We have not examined the plant.

25. *V. telephifolia*. Orpine-leaved Speedwell. Vahl n. 24. (V. orientalis, telephii folio; Tourn. Cor. 7.)—“Leaves obovate, nearly entire. Stem creeping.”—Gathered in Armenia by Tournefort, and described by Vahl from his herbarium. Stems thread-shaped, smooth. Leaves stalked, hardly half the length of the nail, very obtuse, smooth, with one or two obscure notches about the extremity; acute at the base. Flowers (and we presume inflorescence) wanting in the specimen. Vahl.

26. *V. ruderalis*. Round-leaved Peruvian Speedwell. Vahl n. 25. (“V. serpyllifolia; Fl. Peruv. v. 1. 6.”)—“Leaves roundish, crenate, obscurely five-ribbed; the upper ones slightly fringed and entire. Stem creeping.”—Native of waste ground, borders of fields, and cool watery situations, in Peru. Perennial. Stems many, diffuse, thread-shaped, purplish; downy in the upper part. Lower leaves on short stalks, spreading; upper sessile. Partial flower-stalks thread-shaped, the length of the bracteas. Corolla violet; its smallest segment white. Vahl. This is evidently very near *V. serpyllifolia*.

Seet. 3. Clusters lateral.

27. *V. parviflora*. Small-flowered Shrubby Speedwell. Vahl n. 26. Symb. v. 3. 4. Willd. n. 16.—Clusters axillary, about the ends of the branches. Segments of the calyx ovate, fringed. Leaves linear-lanceolate, entire, pointed. Stem shrubby.—Gathered by Sir Joseph Banks and Dr. Solander in New Zealand. They gave a specimen to the younger Linnæus, by the name of *V. floribunda*. The stem is perhaps several feet in height, with forked, twisted, round, scarred, woody branches, leafy only while young. Leaves crowded, sessile, crossing each other in pairs, from one to two inches long, very smooth and even, single-ribbed, deciduous. Clusters axillary, and somewhat terminal, stalked, dense, many-flowered, nearly smooth, longer than the leaves. Flowers small, we believe them to be white. Bracteas minute, fringed. Calyx the length of the tube of the corolla, and only one-third as long as the ovate, smooth, finally four-valved and quadrangular capsule. The style is remarkably long and capillary, deciduous.

This is one among many shrubby or arborescent white-flowered species, referrible to Juskieu's and Commerfon's genus of *Hebe*, which are indeed so unlike most *Veronica* in habit, that one could with their fructification afforded any generic distinction. They serve to approximate the present genus, by some points of resemblance, to the *Jasminææ*.

28. *V. macrocarpa*. Large-fruited Shrubby Speedwell. Vahl n. 27. Symb. v. 3. 4.—Clusters axillary, about the ends of the branches, erect. Segments of the calyx lanceolate. Leaves lanceolate, entire, flat. Stem shrubby.—Native of New Zealand. The leaves are four inches long, smooth and even, without lateral ribs, or veins. Tube of the corolla twice, and capsule thrice, the length of the calyx. Vahl.

29. *V. salicifolia*. Willow-leaved Shrubby Speedwell. Forst. Prodr. 3. Vahl n. 28. Symb. v. 3. 4. Willd. n. 15.—Clusters axillary, about the ends of the branches, drooping; partial stalks aggregate. Segments of the calyx lanceolate. Leaves lanceolate, entire; tapering at each end. Stem shrubby.—Gathered in New Zealand by Sir Joseph Banks and Dr. Solander. This appears to be nearly related to the last, but the leaves are narrower at the base. In our specimen they are little more than two inches long, scarcely perceptibly undulated at the very edge. Clusters longer than the leaves, their capillary partial stalks very numerous, several from the same point, each accompanied by its own little short lanceolate bractea. Tube of the corolla twice the length of the calyx; segments of its limb elliptic-lanceolate, acute; not, as in the two preceding, obtuse. Capsule, according to Vahl, oblong and acute, twice as long as the calyx.

30. *V. elliptica*. Elliptic-leaved Shrubby Speedwell. Forst. Prodr. 3. Vahl n. 29. Willd. n. 13.—Clusters axillary, about the ends of the branches, simple, of few flowers. Segments of the calyx ovate, acute. Leaves elliptic-lanceolate, pointed, entire, slightly revolute. Stem shrubby.—Native of New Zealand, from whence Mr. Menzies has favoured us with a specimen in seed. No writer has yet given any detailed description of this species. Its woody branches are rough with very protuberant scars, where the leaves have been, and when young are quadrangular. Leaves crowded, crossing each other in pairs, about an inch long, acute at each end, single-ribbed, smooth, very slightly revolute, or reflexed at the margin. Clusters of not more than six or eight flowers, at first probably short and dense; when in fruit hardly longer than the leaves; their stalks all angular and smooth. Bracteas minute, acute, permanent. The corolla we have not seen. The permanent calyx is smooth, acute, half the length of the ovate, acute, tumid, four-valved capsule.

31. *V. decussata*. Cross-leaved Shrubby Speedwell. Ait. n. 20. Vahl n. 31. Willd. n. 19. Curt. Mag. t. 242.—Clusters axillary, about the ends of the branches, simple, of few flowers. Segments of the calyx ovate. Leaves elliptical, obtuse, entire, slightly revolute. Stem shrubby.—Native of Falkland islands, and the straits of Magellan; yet it requires the shelter of a greenhouse in this country. Dr. Fothergill is said to have first cultivated this shrub in 1776. It flowers, but not freely, in July and August, and the foliage is evergreen. This species is so nearly related to the last, that they must necessarily be placed next to each other, nor are we well assured of a specific distinction between them. The leaves of the present are indeed much shorter, rounder, and less pointed, but their figure is not invariable. The inflorescence is precisely similar. The flowers are white, large and elegant, observed by Mr. Curtis to have a most delicious fragrance, similar to that of *Olea fragrans*; another

another point of resemblance to the *Jasminæ*, see n. 27. The same writer justly observes, that the segments of the corolla are more equal than is usual in *Veronica*, and sometimes vary to five. The capsule is oval, scarcely emarginate.

32. *V. formosa*. Elegant Shrubby Speedwell. Brown n. 1.—Clusters corymbose, axillary, of few flowers. Leaves lanceolate, entire; acute at the base. Stem shrubby. Branches with two opposite hairy lines.—Gathered by Mr. Brown in Van Diemen's island. The leaves are evergreen, in pairs crossing each other, very smooth. Brown.

33. *V. cataractæ*. Water-fall Shrubby Speedwell. Forst. Prodr. 3. Vahl n. 30. Ait. n. 12.—Clusters axillary, elongated, lax. Leaves stalked, lanceolate, distantly ferrated. Stem somewhat shrubby.—Gathered by Forster in New Zealand, we presume near some remarkable cascade. The leaves are an inch long, acute at each end, smooth; paler beneath. Clusters from the bosoms of the upper leaves, four inches long, with smooth flower-stalks in distant pairs. Calyx with four awl-shaped segments, shorter than the oblong capsule. Vahl.

34. *V. labiata*. Labiated Speedwell. Brown n. 2. Ait. Epit. 376. Curt. Mag. t. 1660. (V. Derwentia; Littlejohn in Andr. Repof. t. 531.)—Clusters axillary, elongated. Leaves sessile, ovato-lanceolate, taper-pointed, unequally ferrated.—Native of Van Diemen's island, and the south coast of New Holland, flowering with us most part of the summer. It is perennial and herbaceous, increased by parting the roots, but hitherto treated as a greenhouse plant; though, not being shrubby, it will probably bear our climate. The stems are simple, erect, about two feet or more in height, round, leafy, very smooth. Leaves opposite, clasping the stem by a sort of dilatation, scarcely to be termed a footstalk, veiny, quite smooth, three or four inches long, acutely and copiously ferrated. Clusters numerous, opposite, about the top of the stem, ascending, stalked, many-flowered, rather dense, a little downy; their partial stalks sometimes aggregate. Bractæes awl-shaped. Segments of the calyx four, lanceolate; those of the pale blue corolla elliptic-lanceolate, unequal, acute. Capsule of four valves.

35. *V. aphylla*. Naked-stalked Speedwell. Linn. Sp. Pl. 14. Willd. n. 20. Vahl n. 32. Ait. n. 11. (V. n. 541; Hall. Hist. v. 1. 234. V. alpina pumila, caule aphylo; Bocc. Mus. 17. t. 1, and t. 9. V. faxatilis parva, caulibus nudis; Pluk. Phyt. t. 114. f. 3. Segu. Veron. v. 1. 241. t. 3. f. 2. Teucrium minimum; Clus. Hist. v. 1. 350.)

β. *V. Kamtschatica*; Linn. Suppl. 83. ("V. grandiflora; Gertn. Nov. Comm. Petrop. v. 14. p. 1. 531. t. 18. f. 1." Vahl.)

Leaves obovate, crenate, hairy. Flower-stalks erect, naked, thrice as long as the branches, about three-flowered.—Native of alpine situations in the south of Europe, and north of Asia; not uncommon on the mountains of Switzerland and the north of Italy, flowering in July; but it has never been found in Britain or Ireland. The perennial trailing stems throw up several short leafy branches, about an inch in length. Leaves crowded, opposite, stalked, usually an inch long, sometimes much less, bluntnish, with numerous shallow notches; their pubescence finely jointed. Flower-stalks solitary, near the top of each branch, two or three inches long, each bearing two or three light-blue flowers, on slender downy partial stalks, accompanied by oblong obtuse bractæes. Calyx hairy, in four obovate segments. Capsule twice the length of the calyx, obovate, emarginate, thin, compressed, hairy. The variety β differs merely in the somewhat larger size of every part; the pubescence being not more articulated in this than the common *V.*

aphylla, as we have long ago remarked; Tr. of Linn. Soc. v. 1. 190.

36. *V. Beccabunga*. Brooklime Speedwell. Linn. Sp. Pl. 16. Willd. n. 30. Vahl n. 33. Fl. Brit. n. 8. Engl. Bot. t. 655. Curt. Lond. fasc. 2. t. 3. Woodv. Med. Bot. t. 7. Pursh n. 5. Fl. Dan. t. 511. (Beccabunga; Rivin. Monop. Irr. t. 100. Anagallis seu Becabunga; Ger. Em. 620. Sium; Fuchf. Hist. 725.)—Clusters lateral. Leaves elliptical, flat. Stem creeping.—Native of clear ditches, and limpid streams, throughout Europe, from Sweden to Greece, as well as in North America, flowering in June and July. Perennial. Stems procumbent or floating in their lower part, sending out long fibrous radicles from the joints; round, succulent, smooth and shining, like every other part of the herb, and extending two or three feet. Leaves slightly ferrated, of a bright rich green, from one to two inches long, on short broad stalks. Clusters axillary, opposite, stalked, longer than the leaves, of several, not very brilliant, blue flowers. Segments of the calyx ovate, as long as the roundish, emarginate capsule. De Théis says, the old name *Beccabunga* is corrupted from *Bach-pungen*, the German appellation of this plant; *bach* meaning a rivulet; from whence comes the word *beck*, used for a brook in Yorkshire and Norfolk. However this may be, Dr. Sibthorp found *Becabunga* the Turkish name of this *Veronica*; adopted perhaps from some European doctor.

37. *V. Anagallis*. Water Speedwell, or Long-leaved Brooklime. Linn. Sp. Pl. 16. Willd. n. 31. Vahl n. 34. Fl. Brit. n. 9. Engl. Bot. t. 781. Curt. Lond. fasc. 5. t. 2. Pursh n. 6. Fl. Dan. t. 903. (Anagallis aquatica major; Ger. Em. 620.)—Clusters lateral, opposite. Leaves lanceolate, ferrated. Stem erect.—Native of ditches, the borders of rivers, and other watery situations, throughout Europe; more general in North America than the foregoing; and found also in Japan. Perennial, and agreeing in habit with *V. Beccabunga*, but taller, more erect, and readily known by its long, acute, lanceolate leaves. The clusters also are longer and more pointed, and the flowers smaller, occasionally flesh-coloured.

38. *V. scutellata*. Narrow-leaved Marsh Speedwell. Linn. Sp. Pl. 16. Willd. n. 32. Vahl n. 35. Fl. Brit. n. 10. Engl. Bot. t. 782. Curt. Lond. fasc. 5. t. 3. Pursh n. 7. Fl. Dan. t. 209. Poit. et Turp. Parif. 15. t. 13. (V. palustris angustifolia; Rivin. Monop. Irr. t. 96. f. 1. Anagallis aquatica quarta; Lob. Ic. 467. Ger. Em. 621.)—Clusters lateral, alternate; partial flower-stalks divaricated. Leaves linear, slightly indented.—Native of watery places, especially on spongy bogs, or a sandy soil, in various parts of Europe and North America; much less common in England than the two last; flowering in July and August. A slender, weak, often purplish, perennial herb, with long narrow leaves, occasionally downy. Flowers pale flesh-coloured, with purple veins; their stalks bent quite back as the capsule ripens. The clusters are axillary, rarely opposite. *V. parvularia*, Poit. et Turp. Parif. 16. t. 14. is only the hairy variety of this species, mentioned in Fl. Brit., which is rather of a smaller size, and hairy or downy in every part of the herbage; but even the authors cited esteem it only a variety.

39. *V. gracilis*. Slender New-Holland Speedwell. Br. n. 4.—Corymbs lateral, of few flowers. Leaves linear-lanceolate, nearly entire, very smooth as well as the nearly simple stem.—Native of Port Jackson, New South Wales. Partition of the capsule contrary to the valves. Brown.

40. *V. perfoliata*. Perfoliate Speedwell. Br. n. 3. Curt. Mag. t. 1936.—Clusters lateral, stalked, many-flowered. Leaves entire, very smooth, ovate, pointed; combined at the

VERONICA.

the base. Capsule of four valves.—Native of Port Jackson, New South Wales. *Flowers* dark blue.

41. *V. Billardieri*. Sharp-leaved Syrian Speedwell. Vahl n. 36.—Clusters axillary, many times longer than the lanceolate-oblong, entire, hoary leaves. Stems prostrate, hoary.—Gathered in Syria by M. Labillardiere. The stems are several, thread-shaped, somewhat branched, hoary and villous, like the foliage and flower-stalks. Leaves nearly sessile, hardly the length of the nail, sharpish, without ribs or veins, and accompanied by axillary rudiments of linear leaves. Clusters after flowering two or three inches long. Bractæas linear, the length of the partial stalks. Calyx in four linear, equal segments, the length of the fame. Capsule inversely heart-shaped, compressed, as long as the calyx, becoming smoother as it ripens. Vahl.

42. *V. macrostachya*. Blunt-leaved Syrian Speedwell. Vahl n. 37.—Clusters axillary, many times longer than the linear-oblong, obtuse, deeply ferrated, hoary leaves. Stems prostrate, hoary.—Native of Syria. Labillardiere. Every part of the herb is villous and hoary. Stems several, a span long, thread-shaped, somewhat branched. Leaves sessile, the length of the nail; a little dilated, and deeply ferrated, towards the extremity. Clusters long. Bractæas linear. Calyx in four linear segments. Capsule as in the last. In a garden the stem becomes eighteen inches, and each cluster two feet, in length; with very soft downy leaves. Vahl.

43. *V. pedinata*. Pectinated Speedwell. Linn. Mant. 24. Willd. n. 36. Vahl n. 38. Sm. Prodr. Fl. Græc. Sibth. n. 25. (*V. constantinopolitana incana, chamædryos folio*; Tourn. Cor. 7. Buxb. Cent. i. 25. t. 39. f. 1.)—Clusters lateral, on leafy stalks. Leaves oblong, with deep parallel serratures. Stems prostrate.—Gathered by Buxbaum, and since by Sibthorp, on craggy shelvy mountains, bordering both shores of the Bosphorus, flowering in spring. Mr. Hawkins met with this plant on the highest summits of the Sphaciote mountains of Crete. It has a woody perennial root, and several woody stems, a finger's length, chiefly hairy on two opposite sides. Leaves rather sessile, not an inch long, with parallel, blunth, rather deep incisions. Flowers blue, in long, loose, downy clusters, whose stalks bear several, alternate, partly entire, leaves. Segments of the calyx linear, obtuse, hairy, two of them much longer than the other two.

44. *V. orientalis*. Various-leaved Speedwell. Mill. Dict. ed. 8. n. 10. Ait. n. 27. Willd. n. 39. Vahl n. 39. Marich. Taur.-Cauc. v. 1. 12. (*V. austriaca* β; Linn. Sp. Pl. 17; the specimen marked *V. cappadocica, foliis lacinatis*; Tourn. Cor. though no such name occurs there. *V. heterophylla*; Salisb. Ic. 7. t. 4. *V. montana, folio vario*; Buxb. Cent. i. 24. t. 38.)—Clusters lateral, lax, on partly leafy stalks. Leaves pinnatifid, smooth, acute; tapering at the base; the uppermost linear-lanceolate, nearly entire. Partial stalks capillary, longer than the bractæas.—Native of grassy pastures in Armenia, Georgia, and Tauria, flowering in June and July. Miller cultivated it in 1748, and it is still preserved in the gardens; but there was no reason for retaining his unmeaning name, which had not come into general use, instead of the expressive one of *heterophylla*. This evil it is now too late to remedy. The plant is hardy and perennial, bushy, of a pale and smooth appearance, the leaves variously cut, thin, flat, and plant. Flowers copious, rather large, light blue, prettily fringed. Calyx and bractæas linear, rather downy. Capsule kidney-shaped.

45. *V. taurica*. Narrow-leaved Taurian Speedwell. Willd. n. 42. (*V. orientalis* β; Vahl n. 39. Marich. Taur.-Cauc. v. 1. 12.)—Clusters lateral, lax, on naked stalks. Leaves

linear, revolute, downy, tapering at the base; entire, or somewhat toothed. Partial stalks longer than the obtuse bractæas.—Native of Tauria, on chalky stony hills, flowering from June to August. We cannot agree with Vahl in reducing this to *V. orientalis*. Our wild specimens, from the Chevalier de Steven, shew it to be a more firm and rigid plant, with woody roots. The decumbent stems are not a finger's length. Leaves almost coriaceous, bright green, an inch long, somewhat downy on both sides, very narrow and revolute in their lower part; some of them cut into two, rarely more, strong, lateral, tooth-like segments. Clusters axillary, greatly overtopping the branches, as in the foregoing; but the lower part of their long firm stalks is naked, never leafy. The bractæas, and segments of the calyx, are obovate and obtuse, not linear. Flowers but half the size of the last; according to Willdenow rose-coloured, as they seem in our specimen. Capsule abrupt, scarcely lobed.

46. *V. parviflora*. Small-flowered Oriental Speedwell. Vahl n. 40. (*V. orientalis minima, foliis lacinatis*; Tourn. Cor. 7. Buxb. Cent. i. 26. t. 41. f. 2.)—Clusters several, on naked stalks. Leaves pinnatifid, linear, revolute. Bractæas linear, obtuse, as long as the partial stalks.—Native of Cappadocia and Armenia, in grassy hilly pastures, flowering in June. Linnæus confounded it with *V. pedinata*, though nothing can be more distinct; nor can there be less difficulty in distinguishing this species from the two last. The stems are hardly a finger's length. Leaves deeply and regularly pinnatifid, thick, obtuse, revolute, and in our specimen rather downy, as in *taurica*; Vahl says smooth. Clusters from four to six about the top of the stem, and rising far above it, downy all over, on long, round, downy, leafless stalks. Partial stalks rather shorter than the bractæas. Flowers blue, much smaller than even the last. Calyx with four linear, obtuse, very unequal segments. Capsule inversely heart-shaped, more deeply divided than in *taurica*.

47. *V. rosea*. Rose-coloured Speedwell. Desfont. Atlant. v. 1. 13. Vahl n. 41.—Clusters dense, axillary, nearly terminal, on naked stalks. Leaves unequally pinnatifid, minutely hairy; lower ones wedge-shaped, obtuse, toothed. Bractæas linear, nearly as long as the partial stalks.—Found by Desfontaines, on mount Atlas, near Tlemcen. The stems are shrubby, numerous, ascending, from four to eight inches high. Leaves an inch long, acute, tapering at the base into a short footstalk. Calyx in four linear-lanceolate unequal segments. Corolla rose-coloured, the size of *V. Teurium*, here after described.

48. *V. austriaca*. Austrian Speedwell. Linn. Sp. Pl. 17. Willd. n. 41. Vahl n. 42. Ait. n. 28. (*V. multiæta et austriaca*; Jacq. Austr. v. 4. 15. t. 329. *Chamædrys spuria, tenuissimè lacinata*; Bauh. Hist. v. 3. 287. Morif. sect. 3. t. 23. f. 17.)—Clusters lateral, on long naked stalks. Leaves slightly hairy, variously pinnatifid, or bipinnatifid; most deeply towards the base. Partial stalks capillary. Calyx very unequally five-cleft, somewhat hairy.—Native of Austria, Silesia and Carniola, a hardy perennial in our gardens, flowering from June to August. The herbage is more or less downy, but scarcely hoary, except the stems, which are round, leafy, a span or more in height. Leaves various in their divisions, the segments generally broader upwards, all decurrent, sometimes as narrow and compound as in *V. multifida*, with which most botanists have always confounded the present species. Flowers light blue, in several long, lax, axillary clusters, rising high above the stem. Segments of the calyx acute, the two lowermost very long, the fifth opposite to them, between the two others, much smaller than

than either, but, as far as we can discern, always present. Divisions of the *corolla* elliptic-oblong, acute. *Capful* small, shorter than the calyx, elliptic-obcordate.

49. *V. multifida*. Fine-cut Speedwell. Linn. Sp. Pl. 17, excluding the synonym. Willd. n. 40. Vahl n. 43. Sm. Tr. of Linn. Soc. v. 1. 191. Marfch. Taur.-Caucas. v. 1. 12. Curt. Mag. t. 1679. (V. n. 38; Gmel. Sib. v. 3. 222; excluding the synonym of Tournefort.)—Clusters lateral, on long naked stalks. Leaves deeply and doubly pinnatifid, downy, with linear revolute segments tapering downwards. Calyx very unequally five-cleft. Segments of the corolla rounded.—Native of open fields and hills, in Siberia, Tauria, and about mount Caucasus, flowering in April and May. A much smaller plant, more delicate in its herbage, than the last, as well as more downy. The narrow revolute spreading segments of the leaves, resembling some kinds of *Artemisia*, readily distinguish it. The flowers are bright blue, with rounder broader divisions than in *V. austriaca*. The calyx is very smooth in every flower of the original Linnean specimen, but in most others, from various quarters, it is more or less downy. The fifth segment is minute, scarcely half so long as the shortest of the others. Baron Marfchall a Bieberstein observes, that all this tribe of *Veronica*, with cut leaves, have a five-cleft calyx.

50. *V. tenuifolia*. Slender-leaved Georgian Speedwell. Marfch. Taur.-Caucas. v. 1. 13.—“Clusters lateral. Leaves pinnatifid, with linear-threadshaped divisions. Segments of the calyx awl-shaped; three upper ones very short. Stems ascending.”—Gathered in Georgia, by the Chevalier de Steven. Perennial. Akin to the last, but the stems are more elongated; leaves less subdivided; their segments, especially those of the lower ones, longer; partial stalks equal to the bractes, or longer; three upper segments of the calyx minute. May this be *V. parviflora* of Vahl? (see n. 46.) The flowers however are by no means smaller than *multifida* or *orientalis*. Marfchall.

51. *V. caucasia*. Slender-leaved Caucasian Speedwell. Marfch. Taur.-Caucas. v. 1. 13.—“Clusters lateral. Leaves doubly pinnatifid, with lanceolate or linear segments. Partial stalks capillary. Segments of the calyx lanceolate, nearly equal. Stem almost erect.”—From the same country. Perennial. The leaves are like *multifida*, but the divisions of the lower ones are broader. Partial stalks longer than the bractes. Segments of the calyx four, almost equal, broader than in the neighbouring species. Lobes of the corolla rounded. Marfchall.

52. *V. Allionii*. Shining-leaved Speedwell. Villars Dauph. v. 2. 8. Sm. Tr. of Linn. Soc. v. 1. 190. Willd. n. 18. Vahl n. 44. Ait. n. 19. (V. pyrenaica; Allion. Pedem. v. 1. 73. t. 46. f. 3. V. repens, ex alis spicata, &c.; Spec. 21. t. 4. V. officinalis β ; Linn. Sp. Pl. 14. V. n. 2; Ger. Galloprov. 332. V. mas repens pyrenaica, folio longiori glabro; Sherard Schol. Bot. 46. Tourn. Inf. 143. Pluk. Phyt. t. 233. f. 1.)—Clusters lateral, very dense, obtuse, on long smooth stalks. Leaves roundish-oblong, crenate, rigid, shining, smooth as well as the creeping items.—Native of mount Cenis, and the alps of Switzerland, Dauphiny and Savoy, flowering in August. Root perennial, creeping. Stems round, procumbent, leafy, creeping also to a great extent. Leaves roundish, or obovate, firm and coriaceous; paler beneath: on short broad footstalks. Clusters axillary, solitary, scarcely more than one to each branch, on a round, naked, firm, ascending stalk, thrice the length of the leaves; the cluster itself an inch long, downy, elliptic-oblong, obtuse, of numerous, crowded, violet-blue flowers, with very short partial stalks, not half the length of the obtuse bractes. Calyx in four oblong,

unequal segments. Villars mentions a hairy variety. This species, confounded by Linnaeus with the following, is of a much more rigid, compact, and smooth habit, of a darker hue, and unquestionably very distinct. Its infusion, used medicinally in the south of France, for colds, coughs, debility of the stomach, &c. is said to be more fragrant and aromatic than that of *V. officinalis*, a popular medicinal tea in the northern parts of Europe.

53. *V. officinalis*. Common Male Speedwell. Linn. Sp. Pl. 14. Willd. n. 17. Vahl n. 45. Fl. Brit. n. 3. Engl. Bot. t. 765. Curt. Lond. fasc. 3. t. 1. Pursh n. 2. Woodv. Suppl. t. 219. Rivin. Monop. Irr. t. 93. Fl. Dan. t. 248. Poit. et Turp. Paris. 12. t. 8. (V. mas; Fuch. Hist. 166. V. vera et major; Ger. Em. 626.)—Clusters lateral, stalked, slender, acute, rather lax. Leaves elliptic-oblong, serrated, rough, stem procumbent.—Native of dry sandy banks, heaths and woods, on a barren soil, throughout Europe and North America, flowering in May and June. Perennial. Stems trailing, branched, forming broad tufts or scattered patches. Whole plant hairy. Leaves more oblong, acute, pliant, paler, and more deeply serrated, than in the former. Flowers pale blue, or light pink, striated, in long, rather lax, alternate, axillary clusters, on hairy stalks, about twice the length of the leaves. Capsule inversely heart-shaped, splitting into four valves.

The late Mr. Mackay has sent us from the mountains above Blair in Athol, and from Ireland, a sort of intermediate variety between this and *V. Allionii*, partaking of the rigidity and smoothness of the latter, but even more strongly serrated than *officinalis*. We scarcely hesitate to which species to refer it, though we have never compared living specimens.

54. *V. reniformis*. Kidney-leaved Speedwell. Pursh n. 3.—Spikes lateral, stalked. Leaves kidney-heartshaped, deeply crenate, smooth. Stem creeping.—Collected by Messrs. Lewis and Clark, in boggy soil, on the banks of the Missouri, flowering in June. Perennial. Stem creeping, thread-shaped, taking root at the joints. Leaves opposite, on long stalks, deeply cut and notched. Flower-stalks axillary, alternate, round, smooth, the length of the leaves, bearing towards the top a single, oblong, crenate bractea. Spike oblong, short. Flowers large, crowded, pale blue. Calyx four-cleft; the two upper segments oblong; two lower linear, much smaller. Corolla flat, with oblong acute segments, thrice the length of the calyx; the lower one linear. Filaments the length of the corolla. Pursh.

55. *V. prostrata*. Trailing Germander Speedwell. Linn. Sp. Pl. 17. Willd. n. 35. Vahl n. 46. Ait. n. 24. Ehrh. Herb. n. 71. Roth in Sims and Kon. Ann. of Bot. v. 1. 137. (V. angustifolia minor; Rivin. Monop. Irr. t. 95. f. 2. Chamaedrys spuria minor angustifolia; Bauh. Hist. v. 3. 287.)

β . *V. fatureizifolia*; Poit. et Turp. Paris. 18. t. 17. Clusters lateral, mostly opposite, corymbose. Leaves elliptic-oblong, variously serrated, nearly sessile; upper ones narrower and entire. Stem ascending, partially naked at each side. Calyx five-cleft, very unequal.—Native of Germany, Switzerland, Italy, France, and the Levant. A hardy perennial, flowering in May and June. The herbage is light green, more or less downy, slightly hoary. Stems not a span long, clothed with short dense recurved pubescence, which is partly smoothed away, here and there, in opposite lateral lines. Leaves three-quarters of an inch long, rarely more, rather blunt, crenate or deeply serrated for the most part; the upper ones only being linear, revolute and entire; but in the variety, as we judge it, most of the

the leaves are of the latter description. The flowers are bright blue, rather showy, in corymbose dense tufts, subsequently lengthened out into long lax clusters. The calyx seems to vary in acuteness, but is generally smooth.

56. *V. pilosa*. Hairy-stalked Germander—Speedwell. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1663, excluding the description. Willd. n. 34. Vahl n. 47. (*Chamædrys falva* species, *Teucrium fecundum* aut *quintum* Clusii; Bauh. Hist. v. 3. 286.)—"Clusters somewhat spiked. Leaves ovate, obtuse, plaited. Stem prostrate, hairy."—Native of Austria. Linnaeus. This is a very doubtful species, not to be found in the Linnaean herbarium; and the description in Sp. Pl. 1664. is erased by Linnaeus himself, from his own copy.

Willdenow's description of a Bohemian specimen, in his possession, answers very nearly to one of those passed together as the *prostrata*, in the Linnaean herbarium, whose leaves are more cut, and calyx rather sharper than the three others; but we cannot think there is any specific distinction between them. The calyx of this specimen has five segments, though that character is not invariable. Willdenow describes four.

57. *V. Teucrium*. Upright Germander Speedwell. Linn. Sp. Pl. 16, synonyms confused. Willd. n. 33. Vahl n. 48. Ehrh. Pl. Off. 51. Poit. et Turp. Paris. 16. t. 15. (V. montana; Rivin. Monop. Irr. t. 95. f. 1. *Chamædrys spuria* major angustifolia; Bauh. Pin. 249. Bauh. Hist. v. 3. 285. chap. 58. Ch. sylvestris; Dod. Pempt. 45. Ch. vulgaris mas; Fuchf. Hist. 871. *Teucrii quarti* tertia species; Clusf. Hist. v. 1. 349.)—Clusters lateral, opposite, cylindrical, on long stalks. Leaves sessile, oblong-lanceolate, bluntly serrated, rough. Stem ascending, hairy. Fifth segment of the calyx very minute.—Native of Germany, Bohemia, and France, on a dry soil, flowering in May. The root is perennial. Stems seldom quite erect, a foot long, round, hairy, partly smooth on two opposite sides, leafy. Leaves an inch and a quarter long, veiny, hairy, strongly serrated, but not cut; a little dilated at the base. Clusters axillary, usually two near the top of the stem, rising high above it, on long, parallel, naked, downy stalks. Flowers copious, rather crowded, large, handsome, of a fine blue. Segments of the calyx oblong, the fifth minute, various, often obsolete.

Mr. Sieber has sent as a variety of this species the *V. dentata* of Schmidt, whose leaves are narrow, linear, and nearly all entire. Yet it is probably not specifically distinct.

58. *V. latifolia*. Great Germander Speedwell. Linn. Sp. Pl. 18. Willd. n. 44. Vahl n. 49. Ait. n. 30. Marfch. Taur.-Caucas. v. 1. 10. (*V. Teucrium*; Roth in Sims and Kon. Ann. of Bot. v. 1. 137. *V. pseudo-chamædrys*; Jacq. Austr. t. 60. *Chamædrys spuria* major alata, five frutescens; Bauh. Pin. 248. *Teucrium majus* pannonicum; Ger. Em. 659. *T. quantum*; Clusf. Hist. v. 1. 349.)—Clusters lateral, opposite, tapering, on long stalks. Leaves sessile, ovate, somewhat heart-shaped, rough, deeply serrated and cut. Stem erect, hairy. Calyx unequally five-cleft. Native of Austria, Bohemia, Germany, and the Levant; a common hardy perennial in gardens, flowering in June and July. We have long supposed this not specifically distinct from the last. Vahl and Roth confound them; Willdenow seems to have been acquainted with their differences, and the old authors were clearly so. The present is a more robust plant, with broader more jagged leaves. The stem is quite smooth on two opposite sides, densely and equally hairy on the intermediate ones. Flowers large, copious, very brilliant, in dense more tapering clusters. Fifth segment of the calyx half as long as the two next, but on this mark we have little reliance. Linnaeus has led Jacquin and

others astray, by citing synonyms of *V. urticifolia* for his *latifolia*, of which latter, as above described, the original specimen is preserved in his herbarium, nor can we concur with the learned Dr. Roth in transferring this name to the *urticifolia*: see his excellent remarks in Ann. of Bot. above cited. Neither do we by any means affirm our *Teucrium* and *latifolium* to be more than varieties of each other, Schmidt's *dentata* perhaps excepted, which is too unlike the latter. We have only aimed at collecting their synonyms, and indicating what distinctions we could find, for future inquiry.

59. *V. peduncularis*. Long-stalked Germander Speedwell. Marfch. Taur.-Caucas. v. 1. 11. Sims and Kon. Ann. of Bot. v. 2. 401. (*V. pedunculata*; Vahl n. 50. *V. chamædrys foliis parvis*; Buxb. Cent. 1. 26. t. 4. f. 1.)—Clusters lateral, opposite; with long capillary partial stalks. Leaves stalked, ovate, deeply serrated and cut; their segments toothed. Calyx in four, nearly equal, blunth segments.—Native of shady thickets and groves of mount Caucasus, flowering in May. Perennial. Akin to *V. Chamædrys* hereafter described, but the stems are hairy almost all round; leaves stalked, smaller, and yet more cut, in an unequal or compound manner. The partial flower-stalks are also longer; the bractæ and segments of the calyx broader and more obtuse. The variety γ of *Fl. Taur.-Caucas.* sent by the Chevalier de Steven, is of a very different and diminutive aspect; the leaves scarcely stalked, or cut.

60. *V. umbrosa*. Wood Germander Speedwell. Marfch. Taur.-Caucas. v. 1. 11.—"Clusters lateral, of few flowers. Leaves oblong, obtuse, distantly serrated, rough; uppermost linear-lanceolate, entire. Stems creeping. Calyx as long as the corolla."—Native of the dense shady forests of Tauria, about the town of Karassubalar, flowering in April and May. Perennial, forming loose tufts. Partial flower-stalks thread-shaped. Segments of the calyx linear.

Specimens sent by the Chevalier de Steven from Tauria, under this name, have smooth leaves, except the edges; clusters of rather numerous, though distant, large and handsome blue flowers; bractæ ovate, as well as the segments of the calyx, which last is but half the length of the corolla.

61. *V. Michauxii*. Michauxian Speedwell. Lamarck Illustr. v. 1. 44. Dict. v. 8. 532. Vahl n. 51.—"Clusters lateral. Flowers somewhat crowded. Leaves ovate, toothed, sessile. Herbage hairy and glutinous."—Brought from the East by Michaux to the Paris garden. Stems four to six inches long, clothed with whitish viscid hairs. Leaves opposite, obscurely toothed, blunth, an inch and a half long, six lines broad, without ribs. Stalks axillary, opposite, some of them at the ends of the short lateral leafy branches all downy, hardly so long as the leaves. Flowers on very short downy stalks, crowded. Bractæ lanceolate. Segments of the calyx four, oval, sharpish, scarcely downy.

62. *V. Chamædrys*. Wild Germander Speedwell. Linn. Sp. Pl. 17. Willd. n. 38. Vahl n. 52. Fl. Brit. n. 12. Engl. Bot. t. 623. Curt. Lond. fasc. 1. t. 2. Mart. Rust. t. 66. Poit. et Turp. Paris. 13. t. 9. Fl. Dan. t. 448. (*V. pratensis latifolia*; Riv. Monop. Irr. t. 94. *Chamædrys*; Brunf. Herb. v. 1. 125. Ch. vulgaris fœmina; Fuchf. Hist. 872. Ch. sylvestris; Ger. Em. 657.)—Clusters lateral. Leaves ovate, sessile, rugged, deeply serrated. Stem diffuse, with a narrow hairy line at each side. Calyx four-cleft, lanceolate.—Native of grassy pastures, groves, and banks throughout Europe, and even in Japan, perennial, flowering in May. Few of our wild flowers can vie with this in elegance and brilliancy, nor can the pencil easily do

VERONICA.

do it justice. The wavy stems spread in every direction, and are merely fringed at each side with a line of longish hairs, not only partially naked, as in *V. Teucrium* and *latifolia*. The foliage is akin to the latter, but less cut. Clusters numerous, generally opposite, on hairy stalks, taper-pointed, many-flowered. Bracts lanceolate, usually rather shorter than the partial stalks. Flowers large, bright blue, most elegantly veined; paler at the back. Capsule inversely heart-shaped, small.

63. *V. urticifolia*. Nettle-leaved Speedwell. Linn. Suppl. 83. Willd. n. 43. Vahl n. 53. Ait. n. 29. Jacq. Austr. t. 59. (V. n. 535; Hall. Hist. v. 1. 232. V. pratensis, omnium maxima; Buxb. Cent. 1. 23. t. 34. V. maxima; Dalech. Hist. 1165. Chamædrys spuria major latifolia; Bauh. Pin. 248.)—Clusters lateral, lax, with capillary stalks. Leaves sessile, heart-shaped, pointed, sharply serrated. Stem quite erect. Calyx four-cleft, ovate.—Native of woods in Austria, Bavaria, Switzerland, and Bithynia, flowering in May and June. This species was not known to Linnæus, till Jacquin, who originally took it for *latifolia*, sent him a specimen. Under this latter name it is described by Dr. Roth, in Sims and Kon. Ann. of Bot. v. 1. 137, but was never what Linnæus intended. No species is better defined nor better named. The large nettle-like leaves at once determine it. The roots are perennial, moderately creeping. Stems erect and straight, slender, eighteen inches or two feet high, quite simple, marked with a slight hairy line. Clusters numerous, axillary, opposite, erect, loose and slender. Flowers small, flesh-coloured, with crimson lines. Capsule of two semi-orbicular lobes.

64. *V. Pona*. Rock Germander Speedwell. Gouan Illustr. t. 1. f. 1. Willd. n. 23, excluding the variety. Vahl n. 54. (V. petrea; Pon. Bald. 179? Clus. Hist. v. 2. 336?)—Cluster nearly terminal, lax, of few flowers. Leaves sessile, heart-shaped, obtuse, coarsely serrated. Stem erect. Calyx five-cleft, smooth.—Native of the Pyrenees, and perhaps of mount Baldus. Perennial. Stem four or five inches high, quite simple and upright. Lower leaves smallest, roundish, crenate; the rest an inch long, very blunt, coarsely serrated, entire at the extremity, besprinkled with distant close-pressed hairs. Bracts linear, the length of the partial stalks. Flowers distant, the size of *V. Chamædrys*. Such is Vahl's description of Gouan's plant, which he received from that author, and found himself also on the Pyrenees. He asserts it to be a distinct species, nor do we doubt his accuracy. We nevertheless have great doubts respecting Pona's plant, which may be a Linnæan *Pedrorata*, as Linnæus supposed; for the figure very closely agrees with Micheli's *Buonarola*, t. 15. Gouan himself seems not quite certain of Seguiet's plant, from mount Baldus; nor do we implicitly confide in Gouan's learning with regard to synonyms. The references to Plukenet, *Phyt.* t. 233. f. 2. and 3, are best omitted. Willdenow is surely wrong in referring hither Allioni's *V. pumila*, which Vahl more judiciously confides as *V. alpina*; see our n. 22.

65. *V. montana*. Mountain Germander Speedwell. Linn. Sp. Pl. 17. Suppl. 83. Willd. n. 37. Vahl n. 55. Fl. Brit. n. 11. Engl. Bot. t. 766. Curt. Lond. fasc. 4. t. 2. Jacq. Austr. t. 109. Hoffm. Germ. ann. 1791. t. 1. Fl. Dan. t. 1201. (V. procumbens; Rivin. Monop. Irr. t. 93. Alyssum Dioecoris montanum; Column. Euphr. v. 1. 286. t. 288.)—Clusters lateral, elongated, lax, of few flowers. Leaves ovate, stalked, serrated. Stem diffuse, hairy all round. Native of shady rather mountainous woods, especially on a calcareous soil, in Denmark, England, Germany, and Italy, flowering in May and June.

A very distinct perennial species, which some botanists have incautiously confounded with *V. Chamædrys*. Scopoli, still more unaccountably, united them both with *V. Teucrium*. Sherard, who first noticed the *montana* in England, and Curtis, have been more exact in their observations. The stem being hairy in every direction, and the large capsule formed of two orbicular lobes, not obcordate, are abundantly sufficient distinctions. The leaves are thinner, and more shining, than in *Chamædrys*; flowers smaller, paler, much less beautiful; segments of the calyx obovate. We regret that a mistake of the late very accurate Mr. W. Brunton is recorded in Turner's and Dillwyn's Botanist's Guide 666. He seems to have taken up a portion of the root of *Chamædrys* along with *montana*, and thought the latter was, in the following season, transformed into the former. His specimens are before us; and of the obvious and absolute distinctness of the species there can be no doubt, however they came together.

66. *V. calycina*. Long-cupped New Holland Speedwell. Br. n. 5.—Clusters lateral, of few flowers. Leaves stalked, ovate, rugose, unequally crenate, hairy as well as the creeping stem. Calyx hairy, fringed, longer than the capsule. Observed by Mr. Brown, in Van Diemen's island, and on the fourth coast of New Holland.

67. *V. difflans*. Diffuse-flowered New Holland Speedwell. Br. n. 6.—Corymbs lateral, stalked, of few flowers. Leaves ovate, broadly serrated, smooth. Footstalks fringed. Stem decumbent, with a hairy line at each side.—Gathered on the fourth coast of New Holland, by Mr. Brown.

68. *V. arguta*. Sharp-toothed New Holland Speedwell. Br. n. 7.—Clusters lateral, lax. Leaves ovato-lanceolate, smooth, unequally serrated. Stem downy on two opposite sides. Lower footstalks one-third the length of the leaves.—Gathered by Mr. Brown at Port Jackson, New South Wales. A specimen from the same country, communicated by Mr. Lambert, answers in every respect to the above definition, except that the leaves are triangular-heartshaped; but perhaps it may be a variety only. The calyx has four obovate segments, rather longer than the nearly orbicular capsule.

69. *V. plebeia*. Common New Holland Speedwell. Br. n. 8.—Clusters lateral, lax. Leaves ovate, unequally and deeply serrated, smooth. Stem very finely downy. Lower footstalks half as long again as the leaves.—Gathered at Port Jackson, by Mr. Brown, who speaks of it as very closely related to the last.

SECT. 4. Stalks single-flowered, axillary.

70. *V. biloba*. Two-lobed Speedwell. Linn. Mant. 172, excluding the synonyms of Columba and Bauhin. Sm. Tr. of Linn. Soc. v. 1. 193. Willd. n. 46. Vahl n. 56. (V. orientalis, ocyimi folio, flore minimo; Tournef. Cor. 7. V. arenensis annua, chamædrys folio; Buxb. Cent. 1. 24. t. 36.)—Flower-stalks thread-shaped. Leaves ovate, acute, serrated, nearly smooth. Calyx of the fruit in four deep, ovate, three-ribbed, almost equal, segments.—Gathered by Tournefort in corn-fields in Cappadocia; and by the Chevalier de Steven on the eastern mountains of Caucasus. The root is annual. Stems two to four inches high, erect, branched, downy. Leaves somewhat heart-shaped at the base, half or three-quarters of an inch long, on short stalks. Flowers axillary, solitary, alternate, about the top of the stem and branches, the leaves which accompany them being more entire, and sessile, than the rest. Segments of the calyx lanceolate while in flower, the two uppermost shortest; afterwards they become much larger, ovate, fringed, marked with two evident lateral ribs besides the central one. Corolla small, white. Capsule hairy, of

two distinct, divaricated, rounded lobes, much shorter than the permanent calyx. Linnaeus seems to have taken his specific character from Columna's Ephraisi, t. 290, which represents a widely different species, akin to *Chamædryas*, possibly the *Pone* of Gouan; see n. 64.

71. *V. amoena*. Handsome-flowered Annual Speedwell. Marfch. Taur.-Caucas. v. 1. 14.—“Flowers solitary. Leaves ovate, crenate; floral ones oblong, entire, much shorter than the flower-stalks. Segments of the calyx linear. Stem spreading.”—Gathered by the Chevalier de Steven, in the fields of Georgia, flowering early in spring. Root annual. Herb the size of *V. arvensis*. The floral leaves are minute and entire, so different from the rest, as to cause a doubt whether they be other than *bracteæ*, and the inflorescence racemose. This is the most beautiful species of the present section, on account of its very large blue flowers, white in the middle. *Marfch.*

72. *V. glauca*. Glaucous Three-cleft Speedwell. Sm. Fl. Græc. Sibth. v. 1. 6. t. 7.—Flowers solitary. Leaves heart-shaped, deeply ferrated. Stems procumbent. Segments of the calyx three-cleft.—Native of the summit of mount Hymettus, above Athens. Mr. Ferdinand Bauer. Root annual. Stems spreading on the ground in every direction, much branched, reddish, with a dense hairy line at each side. Leaves glaucous, stalked, more or less deeply cut, scarcely an inch long, most hairy at the base and underneath; the lower ones opposite; upper alternate. Flower-stalks capillary, smooth, shorter than the leaves. Calyx in four very deep, nearly equal, wedge-shaped segments, remarkable for being three-cleft, which well marks the species. Corolla deep blue, white in the centre.

73. *V. agrestis*. Procumbent Field Speedwell. Linn. Sp. Pl. 18. Willd. n. 47. Vahl n. 58. Fl. Brit. n. 13. Engl. Bot. t. 783. Curt. Lond. fasc. 1. t. 1. Fl. Dan. t. 449. (V. folio chamædryos; Rivin. Monop. Irr. t. 99. f. 2. Alfine foliis trifraginis; Ger. Em. 616.)

β. Sm. Fl. Græc. Sibth. v. 1. 6. t. 8. (V. perfica; Poir. in Lam. Dict. v. 8. 542. V. flosculus oblongis pediculis infidentibus, chamædryos folio, major; Buxb. Cent. 1. 26. t. 40. f. 2.)

Flowers solitary. Leaves ovate, deeply ferrated, shorter than the flower-stalks. Stems procumbent. Segments of the calyx ovate. Seeds cupped.—Native of cultivated and waste ground, throughout Europe, annual, flowering from April to the end of autumn. β was gathered by Dr. Sibthorp, in Prince's islands, near Constantinople. Root small. Stems prostrate, simple, except at the base, round, leafy, hairy, from six to twelve inches long. Some of the lower leaves are opposite, but the greater part are alternate, all stalked, roughish. Flowers deep blue, rather small. Segments of the calyx ovato-lanceolate, fringed, generally quite entire, now and then irregularly toothed; becoming broadly ovate as the fruit advances. Capsule rough, of two round swelling lobes. Seeds about six in each cell, externally rugged, hollowed out underneath, where their stalk is inserted.—We would gladly, if possible, have made a distinct species of the *V. byzantina* of Sibthorp's manuscripts, our variety β; but no difference is to be found, except the greater size of every part. The corolla is much larger, paler, more elegantly streaked. The form of the calyx, tumid capsule, and curious structure of the seeds, are all the same as in our common kind.

74. *V. arvensis*. Wall Speedwell, or Speedwell Chickweed. Linn. Sp. Pl. 18. Willd. n. 48. Vahl n. 59. Fl. Brit. n. 14. Engl. Bot. t. 734. Curt. Lond. fasc. 2. t. 2. Fl. Dan. t. 515. Pursh n. 8. (Alfine foliis veronica; Ger. Em. 613. Alyssum; Column. Phytob.

t. 28.)—Flowers solitary, nearly sessile. Leaves ovate, deeply ferrated; the floral ones lanceolate, entire. Stem erect. Seeds flat.—Native of Europe, North America and Japan, on walls, banks, and dry gravelly or sandy ground, flowering in May. The herbage is of a pale green, rough. Stem about six inches high, branched from the bottom. Lowest leaves on short stalks; the rest sessile; the floral ones so small, as to seem like *bracteæ* only, but their true nature appears from the analogy of other annual species. Flowers small, pale blue; their very short stalks more or less elongated as the fruit advances. Segments of the calyx lanceolate, somewhat unequal. Capsule inversely heart-shaped, compressed. Seeds elliptical, flat, with a little dimple in the centre of one side.

75. *V. rotundifolia*. Round-leaved Peruvian Speedwell. “Fl. Peruv. v. 1. 6.” Vahl n. 60.—“Flowers solitary, stalked. Leaves orbicular-kidney-shaped, crenate. Stem thread-shaped, creeping.”—Plentiful in boggy situations in Peru. Hairy. Stem slender, branched, round, purple. Leaves two or three, often but one, from each joint, on long stalks, somewhat peltate, deeply notched. Flower-stalks twice the length of the footstalks. Segments of the calyx lanceolate. Corolla of a rosy purple, with ovate segments. Stamens three, the length of the tube. The flowers are occasionally five-cleft, with four stamens. Vahl from the Fl. Peruv. There is no figure, and having seen no specimen, we are very ready to concur with Vahl, in his opinion, that the genus of this plant is doubtful.

76. *V. cymbalaria*. White Oriental Speedwell. Sm. Fl. Græc. Sibth. v. 1. 7. t. 9. (V. cymbalariaefolia; Vahl n. 61. V. cymbalariaefolia; Gmel. Tubing. 6. V. hederifolia β; Linn. Sp. Pl. 19. Willd. n. 49. V. chia, cymbalariaefolia, verna, flore albo umbilico virecente; Tourn. Cor. 7. Buxb. Cent. 1. 25. t. 39. f. 2.)—Flowers solitary. Leaves heart-shaped, deeply crenate. Segments of the calyx rounded. Seeds cupped, nearly smooth.—Native of fields about Constantinople, and in the Greek islands, as well as in Morocco. Annual. Stems spreading or procumbent, branched at the base only, a span long, square, with a hairy line on two opposite sides. Leaves all stalked, opposite, rounded, obtuse, with two or three deep notches at each side, but scarcely lobed. Flowers white with a yellow centre, on long, opposite, capillary stalks, reaching beyond their corresponding leaves. Segments of the calyx obovate, obtuse, fringed, entire. Capsule turgid, of two round lobes, hairy. Seeds only two in each cell, large, hollow at one side, nearly smooth externally, chiefly wrinkled at the margin. Very distinct in its calyx from the following.

77. *V. hederifolia*. Ivy-leaved Speedwell. Linn. Sp. Pl. 19. Willd. n. 49. Vahl n. 62. Fl. Brit. n. 15. Engl. Bot. t. 784. Curt. Lond. fasc. 2. t. 1. Poit. et Turp. Paris. 23. t. 26. Fl. Dan. t. 428. (V. folio hederæ; Rivin. Monop. Irr. t. 99. Alfine hederacea; Ger. Em. 616. Alfine quatum genus; Fuchf. Ic. 13.)—Flowers solitary. Leaves heart-shaped, flat, five-lobed. Segments of the calyx heart-shaped, acute. Seeds cupped, wrinkled.—Native of fields and waste ground throughout Europe, flowering in April and May. Annual, in habit like the last, but the leaves are more decidedly lobed, and ivy-like, though of a pale green. They are also, except a very few of the lowermost, all alternate, mostly longer than their footstalks. Flowers pale blue, on long, solitary, axillary stalks. Segments of the calyx nearly equal, pointed, three-ribbed, with a very broad heart-shaped base. Seeds much more wrinkled at the outside than the last, but agreeing with that species and *agrestis* in their reversed cup-like form.—The late Mr. Crowe observed to the writer of this, after the

the present species had appeared in *Engl. Bot.*, that it is scarcely to be found with us in flower later than May, and that the Norfolk farmers call it Winter-weed.

78. *V. filiformis*. Capillary-stalked Speedwell. Sm. Tr. of Linn. Soc. v. 1. 195. Willd. n. 50. Vahl n. 63. March. Taur.-Caucas. v. 1. 15. (*V. orientalis*, foliis hederæ terrestris, magno flore; Tourn. Cor. 7. Buxb. Cent. 1. 25. t. 40. f. 1.)—Flowers solitary. Leaves heart-shaped, crenate, much shorter than the long slender flower-stalks. Segments of the calyx lanceolate.—Native of the Levant; found by the Chevalier de Steven in mountainous fields of Georgia, flowering early in the spring. We have compared his specimens with Tournefort's, nor is there any difference, though the reference to this author is directed in the *Fl. Taur.-Caucas.* to be struck out. The root is annual. Stems long and trailing. Leaves a quarter of an inch long, alternate, on short stalks, and shaped more like those of *arvensis* or *agrestis* than of *hederifolia*. Flower-stalks four times as long as the leaves. Segments of the calyx elliptic-lanceolate, obtuse, slightly three-ribbed. Capsule inversely heart-shaped, reticulated with veins. Seeds somewhat cupped.

79. *V. Crista-galli*. Crested Speedwell. Stev. Tr. of Linn. Soc. v. 11. 408. t. 31.—Flower-stalks solitary, as long as the ovate, ferrated, nearly sessile, leaves. Calyx of the fruit divided to the base into two heart-shaped, cloven, ferrated, compressed leaves.—Found by the Chevalier de Steven, to whom we are obliged for a specimen, very plentifully in the dense shady forests of Eastern Caucasus, above Kuban, flowering in May. The root is annual. Stem a span high, ascending, simple, or alternately branched, slender, downy, on two opposite sides. Leaves most like *V. agrestis*, uniform; the floral ones alternate, the rest opposite. Stalks axillary, slender, downy. Flowers extremely minute and fugacious, blue. Calyx greatly enlarged after flowering, of two flat, parallel, strongly ferrated, veined, heart-shaped valves, each with two points, being altogether peculiar in this genus, and about the diameter of the leaves. Capsule of two nearly orbicular lobes, shorter than the permanent calyx, very minutely fringed. Seeds solitary in each cell, black, rugged; concave, or umbilicated, at one side; inserted at the top of the cell.

80. *V. triphyllus*. Blunt-fingered Speedwell. Linn. Sp. Pl. 19. Willd. n. 51. Vahl n. 64. Fl. Brit. n. 16. Engl. Bot. t. 26. Sm. Fl. Græc. Sibth. v. 1. 8. t. 10. Curt. Lond. fasc. 6. t. 2. Fl. Dan. t. 627. (*V. folio rutæ*; Rivin. Monop. Irr. t. 96. *Aline recta*; Ger. Em. 612.)—Flowers solitary. Upper leaves in deep, finger-like, obtuse segments. Flower-stalks longer than the calyx. Seeds flat.—Native of sandy fields, here and there, throughout Europe; rare in England, occurring chiefly in the sandy confines of Norfolk and Suffolk, flowering in April. Dr. Sibthorp found it, very luxuriant, in fields bordering on the Euxine sea. A small upright annual plant, more or less branched, leafy, downy, a little viscid and hoary. Lower leaves opposite, undivided, scarcely lobed; upper alternate, in three deep segments, the lateral ones often cloven. Flowers of a rich dark blue. Two segments of the calyx sometimes notched. Capsule almost orbicular, emarginate. Seeds numerous, obovate, flat. This plant turns black in drying, like most of the following species.

81. *V. verna*. Vernal Speedwell. Linn. Sp. Pl. 19. Willd. n. 52. Vahl n. 65. Fl. Brit. n. 17. Engl. Bot. t. 25. Rufe Elem. app. 444. t. 2. f. 1. Fl. Dan. t. 252. Poit. et Turp. Paris. 21. t. 22. (*V. Bellardi*; Willd. n. 56. Allion. Pedem. v. 1. 77. t. 85. f. 1. *V. succulenta*; ibid. 78. t. 22. f. 4.)—Flowers solitary. Leaves pinnatifid. Flower-stalks shorter than the calyx. Stem erect.—Native

of dry open sandy fields in various parts of Europe, flowering in April. In England it chiefly occurs about Bury, Thetford, and the same sandy country as the last, but there in the greatest abundance, though soon disappearing after the seed is shed. This diminutive species is most akin to *V. arvensis*, in the flat elliptical form of its seeds, general habit and colour; not turning black in drying, like *triphyllus* and most of its allies. But the leaves, unless starved, are deeply fingered, or pinnatifid, their terminal lobe often large and rounded, like *triphyllus*; even the floral ones are deeply three-cleft. The stem, whether branched or not, is stiff and erect, from one to four inches high. Calyx in four nearly equal, lanceolate, acute segments. Capsule inversely heart-shaped. The herb varies so much in luxuriance, and consequently in the divisions of its leaves, that scarcely two representations of it are alike.

82. *V. digitata*. Slender-fingered Speedwell. Vahl n. 66. Symb. v. 1. 2. (*V. verna*; Cavan. Leccion. 22. *V. acinifolia*; Ait. n. 37. *V. chamæpithyoides*; Lamarck Illustr. v. 1. 47.)—Flowers solitary, sessile. Leaves all in deep, finger-like, linear segments. Stem erect. Capsule wedge-shaped.—Native of the south of Europe. We have gathered it in Lombardy, and received it from near Aranjuez in Spain, by favour of the late abbé Cavanilles, who has described this species for *verna*. The plant is annual, flowering in April. Stem branched from the bottom only, from three to six or eight inches high, rigid, round, downy, leafy, rather woody. Leaves alternate, sessile, generally cut, more than half way down, into three, five, or seven, linear, obtuse, fleshy, somewhat rough or hairy, entire segments; the base narrow and linear, which Vahl considers, perhaps justly, as a footstalk. Flowers small, axillary. Calyx in four deep, lanceolate, fringed segments, the length of the capsule, two of them shorter than the rest. Capsule inversely heart-shaped, but with straight sides, rough, abrupt, rigid. Seeds pale, roundish, not compressed.

83. *V. præcox*. Early Jagged Speedwell. Allion. Auctuar. 5. t. 1. f. 1. Vahl n. 57. Poit. et Turp. Paris. 22. t. 24. (*V. acinifolia*; Willd. Prodr. Berol. 11. *V. minor annua*, ocyimi caryophyllati folio, subtus rubro; Vaill. Paris. 202.)—Flowers solitary, stalked. Lower leaves opposite, stalked, heart-shaped, deeply ferrated and notched; uppermost oblong, alternate, nearly entire. Stem erect. Style longer than the lobes of the capsule.—Native of fields about Turin, Paris, and Berlin, flowering in March and April. Mr. Davall found it also in the Lower Valais, in April, 1787. An annual upright plant, about the size of *V. arvensis*, but with more of the habit and red hue of *triphyllus*, much larger and stronger than *verna*. Stem chiefly branched from the bottom, round, downy all over, but most densely on two opposite sides. Leaves rough, rather fleshy; the largest half an inch long, and nearly as broad, obtuse; variously toothed or jagged; floral ones hardly so long as the flower-stalks. Flowers blue or purplish. Segments of the calyx obovate-oblong, hairy, two of them rather the shortest. Capsule inversely heart-shaped, hairy, tumid, rounded at the sides, so as to be somewhat orbicular, the permanent style extending far beyond its lobes. Seeds numerous, roundish, cupped and umbilicated.—No wonder that those botanists, who had not seen both species, have always taken this for the following, and yet they are essentially distinct.

84. *V. acinifolia*. Basil-leaved Early Speedwell. Linn. Sp. Pl. 19. Willd. n. 54. Vahl n. 67. Dickf. Dr. Pl. n. 1. Poit. et Turp. Paris. 22. t. 23. Allion. Ped. v. 1. 79. (*V. romana*; ibid. t. 85. f. 2. *V. minima*, clinopodii minoris folio; Vaill. Paris. 201. t. 33. f. 3. *V. minima*, clinopodii minoris folio glabro, romana; Bocc. Muf. 19. t. 102.)—Flowers

—Flowers

—Flowers solitary, stalked. Leaves opposite, ovate, slightly crenate; lower ones opposite, partly stalked; upper sessile, alternate, entire. Stem erect. Style about as long as the lobes of the capsule.—Native of France, Italy, Turkey, and, as it is reported, of Germany; though we have never received from that country any thing but *arvensis* or *præcox* under this name. In shady neglected garden walks, and gravelly ground, about Rome, nothing is more common than this little annual, flowering in April. What Mr. Davall sent to Kew for *acinifolia*, in 1788, was certainly the *præcox*. The present is by far the most delicate and slender plant of the two, though nearly of the same height. Leaves smoother, paler, ovate, and much more entire. Flowers much smaller, on rather longer, more capillary, stalks. Segments of the calyx ovate, or obovate. Capsule short, broadly obovate, with round distant lobes, between which the permanent style is situated, scarcely, if at all, extending beyond them. Seeds numerous, oval, flat. The authors of the splendib, but too soon discontinued, *Flore Parisienne*, have well distinguished these two last species, by the proportion of the styles to their respective, very differently shaped, capsules. It is curious to observe how authors have erred and copied each other's errors, in their citation of Boccone. See Linnæus, Willdenow, Vahl, and Poiret in Lamarck.

85. *V. peregrina*. Purslane-leaved Speedwell. Linn. Sp. Pl. 20. Willd. n. 55. Vahl n. 68. Ait. n. 38. Sm. Tr. of Linn. Soc. v. 1. 192. Pursh n. 9. Fl. Dan. t. 407. (*V. romana*; Linn. Sp. Pl. 19. Mant. 317. *V. marilandica*; Linn. Sp. Pl. 20. "Murr. in Comm. Goett. for 1782. 11. t. 3." *V. caroliniana*; Walt. Carolin. 61. *V. terrestris* annua, folio polygoni, flore albo; Morif. v. 2. 322. sect. 3. t. 24. f. 19.)—Flowers solitary, sessile. Leaves oblong, smooth, obtuse, toothed or entire; the lower ones opposite. Stem erect. Style shorter than the lobes of the capsule.—Native of cultivated ground in several parts of Europe, Britain excepted, as well as of North America, Lima, and the Brazils, flowering in summer. The root is annual. Herb very variable in habit and size, sometimes partly decumbent; it is branched from the base, smooth in every part, rather fusculent, vastly more like Purslane, than any species of *Polygonum*. Leaves an inch or more in length, for the most part sessile, some of them coarsely and distantly toothed, the upper or floral ones generally entire. Flowers nearly or quite sessile. Segments of the calyx oblong, bluntish, a little unequal. Corolla small, white. Capsule inversely heart-shaped, with a very short style, not reaching quite so far as the lobes. Seeds numerous, small, oval, flat.—Linnæus was singularly unfortunate with respect to this species and the *acinifolia*. His original specimen of *V. romana*, answering to the character, as well as the number, in Sp. Pl. ed. 1, is, notwithstanding Vahl's doubts, precisely the same as his *peregrina*, of which a third specimen is marked *acinifolia*; but this last specimen is not an original one. The synonyms of *romana* are properly referred in Sp. Pl. ed. 2. to *acinifolia*, so that the Linnæan *romana* is to be entirely excluded. Whether the *V. erecta acini folio glabro, floribus ceruleis*, Dill. Giff. app. 39, be the *acinifolia*, as commonly supposed, or the *præcox*, we have some doubts. *V. marilandica*, adopted from Gronovius, is universally allowed to be the *peregrina*, which therefore embraces three Linnæan species, none of them entitled to rank even as varieties of each other.

VERONICA, in Gardening, comprises plants of the herbaceous, perennial, and shrubby kinds, among which the species cultivated are, the Siberian speedwell (*V. sibirica*); the Virginian speedwell (*V. virginica*); the bastard speedwell (*V. spuria*); the sea speedwell (*V. maritima*); the long-leaved speedwell (*V. longifolia*); the Welsh speedwell

(*V. hybrida*); the cut-leaved speedwell (*V. incisa*); and the cross-leaved speedwell (*V. decussata*).

In the second sort the stems are terminated by long slender spikes of white flowers, which appear late in July; and it varies with the bluish-coloured flowers. The third is perennial in root, having the stems terminated by long spikes of blue flowers, which appear in June and July. A variety of this has a flesh-coloured flower. The fourth has the stalks of less length than those of the preceding, but the flowers are of a bright blue, and appear in July. There are varieties with leaves opposite, in threes or in fours, with blue, blueish, flesh-coloured, and with white flowers. The fifth has the stems a foot and a half high, which are terminated by long spikes of blue flowers, which appear in June. The sixth has very white and woolly stalks about a foot high, the flowers of which are deep blue in terminating spikes. A variety has white flowers. The last sort is a bushy shrub, about two feet in height.

Method of Culture.—These plants may be raised by seed and parting the roots. In the annual sorts the seeds should be sown in the autumn, or very early spring, in the borders or places where the plants are to grow, being lightly covered in: if the seeds be permitted to scatter, good plants may be raised: sometimes they are sown on beds, to be afterwards removed. In the perennial sorts the roots may be parted in the autumn or early spring, and planted out where they are to grow, or in nursery rows to be afterwards removed. They should not be parted too small, or oftener than every two years: the large-growing sorts are proper for the borders, clumps, &c. and the trailing kinds for banks and shady slopes, or other similar places: they are hardy, and require only to be kept clean afterwards. The eighth sort is readily increased by cuttings in the spring and summer, being managed as a hardy greenhouse plant, in the same way as the myrtle. In very mild winters it sometimes stands secure in the open air. The annual and perennial sorts afford variety in the borders, clumps, and other parts of pleasure-grounds, and the last among plants of the hardy potted greenhouse kinds.

VERONICA, in the *Materia Medica*. The *Beccabunga* was formerly used in several diseases, and applied externally to wounds and ulcers; but its supposed efficacy must depend on its antiscorbutic quality. As a mild refrigerant juice, it is deemed serviceable in an acrimonious state of the fluids; and it is ordered in the Lond. Ph. as an ingredient in the fucus cochliariz compositus. Its benefit depends on taking the juice in large quantities, or eating the fresh plant as food. The leaves of the *officialis* have a weak, not disagreeable, smell, and a bitterish taste: an extract from them by rectified spirit is moderately bitter and astringent. About a century ago, this plant was much recommended as a substitute for tea: as a medicine, it had considerable reputation in coughs, asthma, consumptions, &c.; but, as it is a less powerful astringent than many others, it is now disregarded. Lewis. Woodville.

VERONUS, in *Ichthyology*, a name given by many to a small river-fish, well known in England by the name of the minnow.

VEROVITZA, in *Geography*, a town of Slavonia. This is a strong town, situated near the Drave; 36 miles S.E. of Cambrha.

VERILLIERE, LA, a town of France, in the department of the Ière; 5 miles S.E. of Lyons.

VERPLANK'S POINT, a fortified spot in the state of New York, on the left bank of Hudson's river, in West Chester county, which was taken, in 1779, by the British troops; 34 miles N. of New York. N. lat. 41° 15'. W. long. 74°.

VERRANA, a town of Naples, in the province of Otranto; 10 miles S.S.E. of Oria.

VERREGNUM, or VERRUGO, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Italy, in Latium, in the country of the Volsci.

VERRETZ, in *Geography*, a settlement of the island of Hispaniola; 30 miles N.E. of St. Marc.

VERREZ, a town of France, in the department of the Dora, or in Piedmont, situated at the foot of a hill, on a stream of water, which divides into three branches, traversing the town on both sides, and the centre. The inhabitants have no other ramparts than the neighbouring mountains, and no other fosses than the beds of the rivers, made by nature: the houses are about 150 in number. In the most elegant part is a square fortress, built on a sharp rock, surrounded with a wall of stone, a parapet, and a good rampart, which surrounds the fortress and the gate of entrance, so that no one can arrive at this gate till they have passed the rampart and a drawbridge upon the fosse. When the bridge is up, the fortress is supposed to be impregnable, being surrounded on all sides with frightful precipices, while the access is only by narrow passes in the valley, which a small garrison can obstruct and annoy the enemy far and near; 15 miles S.S.E. of Aosta.

VERRIERES, a town of France, in the department of the Vienne; 13 miles S.E. of Poitiers.—Also, a town of France, in the department of the Marne; 3 miles S. of St. Menchould.—Also, a town of Neuchâtel, on the borders of France, the environs of which are famous for cheese. Near it is a narrow pass of only five feet wide, with inaccessible rocks on both sides; so that a few men could defend it against great numbers.

VERRIO, ANTONIO, in *Biography*, was born at Naples in 1634. After he had acquired the management of the pencil, he went to Toulouse, and there was engaged to paint the high altar in the church of the Carmelites. He was invited by Charles II. to England, the king intending to engage him in designs for tapestry, to be made here; but he changed his mind, and ordered him to paint most of the ceilings of Windsor castle, the great hall, and the chapel; all which he loaded with heterogeneous compounds of gods and goddesses, vices and virtues, and all the emblematic imagery which scholastic pomposity could muster up, to supply the place of common sense; and this he executed with great freedom and great freshness of colour, but in a manner devoid of any other good quality of art. For these labours he was paid nearly 600*l*.

The Revolution was not to his mind: he declined to serve king William, and went to the earl of Exeter at Burleigh, where he painted several apartments, which are esteemed his best works. He afterwards painted at Chatsworth, and at Lowther: at length he was persuaded by the earl of Exeter to engage to paint for the king the great staircase at Hampton-Court; and Walpole observes, "he painted it as ill as if he had spoiled it out of principle." His eyes failing him, queen Anne gave him a pension of 200*l*. per annum for life; but he did not long enjoy it, dying at Hampton-Court in 1707.

VERRO, in *Geography*, a town of Russia, in the government of Riga; 124 miles N.E. of Riga. N. lat. 58° 10'. E. long. 27° 24'.

VERROCHIO, ANDREA, in *Biography*, was among the early Florentine artists who prepared the way for the greater talents of subsequent painters. He was born at Florence in 1432, and distinguished himself both as a sculptor and painter. He had the honour to be the instructor of P. Perugino and Lionardo da Vinci, and was much employed; till, as Vasari reports, being engaged by

the monks of St. Salvi, at Valombrosa, to paint a picture of the Baptism of Christ, he set Lionardo da Vinci, then his pupil, to put in the figure of an angel from his design, and he executed his task in a manner so superior to the work of his master, that Verrochio, in disgust, resolved to paint no more, but apply himself entirely to sculpture and drawing. His style of design was grand and free, and Lionardo took great pleasure in copying his drawings, particularly a battle-piece, on account of the peculiar airs of the heads, the disposition of the hair, and the actions of the figures. He died in 1488, aged 56.

VERRUA, in *Geography*, a town of Piedmont, or lately of France, in the department of the Tanaro, on a high hill, near the Po, opposite Crescentin: the fortifications were once very strong, and the castle was called impregnable; 18 miles N.E. of Turin. N. lat. 45° 14'. E. long. 8°.

VERRUCA, in *Medicine*. See WART.

Hence, verrucous is applied to any excrescences which have a resemblance to warts. There are also verrucous ulcers, &c.

VERRUCARIA, in *Botany*, so called by Perfoon, from *verruca*, a wart, in allusion to the protuberant form of its fructification. The same name had been previously applied by Wiggers in his *Primitia Fl. Holst.* 85, in an extremely vague manner, to many of the crustaceous Lichens of Linnæus; but it is now limited, as Perfoon intended, to a very natural genus. —Pers. in *Ust. Annal. fasc. 7. 23.* Schrad. Spicil. 108. Achar. Prodr. 13. Meth. 113. "Lichenogr. 51. t. 4. f. 2, 3." Syn. 87.—Clafs and order, *Cryptogamia Algæ. Nat. Ord. Lichenes*.

Gen. Ch. Frond crustaceous, expanded, flat, uniform, closely attached. *Receptacles* nearly globose, or somewhat hemispherical; their base sunk in the frond; their coat double; outermost rather cartilaginous, thick, black, clothing the upper, or exposed, half, and furnished with a small prominent mouth; inner very thin and membranous, entirely inclosing a globular, cellular nucleus.

Ess. Ch. Frond crustaceous. *Receptacles* half-immersed, globose, concave, black, with a cellular nucleus.

We have, under ENDOCARPON, adverted to the near agreement between the fructification of that genus and the present. Their habits and fronds however are very different, and Schrader has long ago indicated another distinction, that the *receptacle* is always closed in *Verrucaria*, while in *Endocarpus* its contents are discharged, he says "exploded," by a small, but distinct, orifice. On these characters this great cryptogamist would found his generic distinctions, regardless of the nature of the frond, and the greater or less degree of prominence of the *receptacles* sunk therein. But the learned Acharius, so peculiarly devoted to this difficult department of botany, has defined *Verrucaria* by more obvious, and as we think more natural limits, by which we have profited above. He defines forty-five species of this genus, in his latest publication, the *Synopsis Methodica Lichenum*. They are distributed into four sections, according to the nature of the crust, or frond.

SECT. 1. Frond membranous, or somewhat cartilaginous, contiguous and smooth. Twenty-one species.

These all grow on the smooth barks of various trees, in Europe, Africa or America, in the form of a thin inseparable membrane, generally of a different colour from the cuticle of the bark, by which, more than the black dot-like fructification, these plants are generally rendered conspicuous. Examples of this section are

V. punctiformis. Ach. Syn. n. 1. (Lichen punctiformis; Engl. Bot. t. 2412. L. mycospoides; Ehrh. Crypt. 264.)

—Crust determined, very thin, smooth, rusty-brown. *Receptacles*

ceptacles minute, black, hemispherical, umbilicated.—Found by Mr. W. Borrer, on the smooth bark of ash-trees.

V. analeptia. Ach. n. 2. (Lichen analeptus; Engl. Bot. t. 1848.)—Differs from the foregoing chiefly in the central depression of the *receptacles* being more minute.

V. gemmata. Ach. n. 12. Meth. 120. t. 3. f. 1. (*V. melaleuca*; ibid. 117. *V. alba*; Schrad. Spicil. 109. t. 2. f. 3.)—Cruet undefined, thin, smooth, of a hoary white. Receptacles scattered, hemispherical, polished, beaked; nucleus globular, pellucid.—Found on the barks of the taller kinds of trees. *Acharius*. Mr. D. Turner has met with this species in England. The black and shining prominent *receptacles* are strongly contrasted with the white, somewhat mealy, cruet.

SeCt. 2. *Frond rather solid, more or less gelatinous*. Three species.

V. mucosa. Ach. n. 22. Meth. suppl. 23. "Wahlenb. Lapp. 466."—Cruet gelatinous and slimy, very smooth, blackish-green. Receptacles minute, nearly globular, sunk, with a prominent beak; dirty white internally.—Found by Mr. Wahlenberg, on rocks and stones washed by the mountain streams of Lapland and Sweden. When dry it is hard and almost black, but moisture restores the cruet to a slimy state, and the *fructification* is visible, in both states, to a careful observer.

The other species of this section are named *gelatinosa* and *ceuthocarpa*.

SeCt. 3. *Cruet somewhat tartareous and friable, uninterrupted, cracking into small portions, or powdery*. Seventeen species.

V. Schraderi. Ach. n. 25. Meth. 114. (*V. rupestris*; Schrad. Spicil. 109. t. 2. f. 7. Lichen Schraderi; Engl. Bot. t. 1711. *L. immerfus*; Hoffm. Enum. Lich. 24. t. 3. f. 5. *L. fusco-ater* β; Hag. Lich. 49.)—Cruet tartareous, hard, whitish, smooth. Receptacles minute, crowded, nearly globular, umbilicated, sunk; semitransparent within.—This is often to be seen on chalk or lime-stone. The cavities in the very hard cruet, seem formed by the growth of the *receptacles*, and remain empty and unclosed after the latter fall out; just as happens in the true *Lichen immerfus*, or *Lecidea immerfa*. In this state our present *Verrucaria* may frequently be observed, on wrought stones in exposed situations; its hard cruet being scarcely distinguishable from the stone, except by its internal green hue when rubbed.

V. Harrimani. Ach. n. 26. Lichenogr. v. 1. 284. (Lichen Harrimani; Engl. Bot. t. 2539.)—Cruet tartareous, contiguous, limited, mouse-coloured, with very minute depressed dots. Receptacles minute, immersed, globose, with a prominent bordered orifice; brownish within.—Native of hard, grey, calcareous rocks, in the county of Durham, where it was discovered by the Rev. Mr. Harriman, a very skilful British botanist. The cruet of this is thicker, with a more defined black edge than usual in *Verrucaria*, yet it cannot be separated in any entire portions from the stone. The dotted surface is peculiar. The dilated rim of each *receptacle* is all that is visible of the fructification.

V. maura. Ach. n. 36. Meth. suppl. 19. (Lichen maurus; Engl. Bot. t. 2456.)—Cruet thin, continued, imperfectly circumscribed, coal-black, smooth, with innumerable minute cracks. Receptacles black, immersed, swelling under the cruet, marked by an umbilicated point; nucleus blackish.—Mr. W. Borrer has noticed this frequently on rocks on the Scottish coast, and his specimens agree with those sent by Mr. Wahlenberg, the original discoverer of the present species, on the rocky shores of Sweden. It composes sooty inseparable blotches, on stones exposed to the flux and reflux of the tide; but when examined, will be found as distinct in characters as any of its tribe.

SeCt. 4. *Cruet soft, fibrous, somewhat spongy, or like a thin cobweb*. Four species.

V. epigæa. Ach. n. 43. Meth. 123. (*Sphæria epigæa*; Perf. Syn. Fung. append. 27. Lichen terrestris; Engl. Bot. t. 1681.)—Cruet somewhat fibrous, gelatinous, uneven, pale greenish-grey. Receptacles minute, globose, immersed, with a prominent orifice; internally black.—Not unfrequent on earthy or muddy banks. When dry the cruet is smooth and even, without any sign of the fibrous texture, which becomes visible on the admission of wet. The *receptacles* are scattered like little black dots over the surface, being most prominent in a dry state.

V. byssacea. Ach. n. 45. Meth. 116. (*Sphæria byssacea*; Weigel Obs. Bot. 42. t. 2. f. 9. Perf. Syn. Fung. append. 27.)—Cruet somewhat leprous and fibrous, dirty white. Receptacles minute, nearly globular, half immersed, perforated; black within.—On the trunks of old oaks, and other trees. This seems to be a very doubtful *Verrucaria*. We have never examined it, but the cruet is described more of a leprous than fibrous texture, resembling *Byssus laeta* of Linnæus. Receptacles full of black powder. It is one of those ambiguous productions, partly allied to the *Lichenes*, partly to the *Fungi*, which the students of each tribe press into their own service. From an attention to the fibrous bases of some other *Sphæria*, we should incline to think this a fungus, especially if the *receptacles* be really full of powder: but on the other hand, the mealiness of the cruet is much more of the nature of the genus under consideration. *Acharius* now considers as a variety of this, his *V. sititica*, Meth. 118; and indeed they appear very nearly akin.

VERRUCINI, in *Ancient Geography*, a people of the Maritime Alps, N.W. of the Suelteri, mentioned by Pliny. They are placed at Verignon.

VERRUCOLA, LA, in *Geography*, a town of Etruria; 4 miles E. of Pisa.

VERRUCOSUS, Warty, in *Botany and Vegetable Physiology*, is a term applied to any part of the surface of a plant when furnished with scattered protuberances from its own substance. *Euonymus verrucosus* of Scopoli and Jacquin has a warty bark. The young branches are first besprinkled with little black shining oblong specks, which soon enlarge, crack longitudinally, and become tumid rough warts, having much more of the appearance of a parasitical fungus, than many productions that are so denominated. In *Aloe perlat* the cuticle of the leaves is studded with hard cartilaginous smooth warts, exhibiting a most genuine example of a *folium verrucosum*. So in *Echium*, several species bear hard, almost bony or fleshy, warts, sometimes elegantly stellated, from which the brittle clothing of the herbage originates. These are all less strong and remarkable, the more luxuriant the plant. The papillary coat of the Ice-plant, *Mesembryanthemum crystallinum*, can scarcely come under the above denomination; being an assemblage of cuticular bladders full of a watery fluid, without any cuticular or fleshy solidity.

VERRUYE, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Two Sèvres; 7 miles N.N.W. of St. Maixens.

VERY, in *Heraldry*. See VAIRY.

VERS du Gard, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Gard; 6 miles S.E. of Uzès.

VERS en Montagne, a town of France, in the department of the Jura; 18 miles N.E. of Lons le Saunier.

VERSA. See VICE Persa.

VERSAILLES, in *Geography*, a city of France, and capital of the department of the Seine and Oise. In the beginning of the last century, it was a small village, when

Louis XIII. built here a hunting feat, which Louis XIV. enlarged into a palace, in a forest 30 miles in circumference, which became a place of frequent residence of the royal family till the revolution. The palace is magnificent, with beautiful gardens, adorned with statues, canals, fountains, &c. and a park five miles in circumference, surrounded with a wall. Since the revolution, it has been erected into a bishop's see; 3 posts S.W. of Paris. N. lat. 48° 49'. E. long. 2° 11'.

VERMILLES, a township of Pennsylvania, in the county of Alleghany; containing 883 inhabitants.—Also, a town of Woodford county, in the state of Kentucky; containing 488 inhabitants.

VERSAK, a district of Asiatic Turkey, in the S. part of Caramania, so named from a mountain, 60 miles S.E. of Cogni.

VERSAMEYRA, a town of Hindoostan, in Cutch; 20 miles E. of Boogebooge.

VERSARA, a town of Hindoostan, in Guzerat; 32 miles S. of Amedabad.

VERSAUL, a town of Hindoostan, in Guzerat; 6 miles N. of Pernalla.

VERSCHORISTS, in *Ecclesiastical History*, a religious sect, deriving its denomination from Jacob Verschoor, a native of Flushing, who, in the year 1680, out of the tenets of Coccius and Spinola, produced a new form of religion; for the leading tenets of which see HATTEMISTS.

The disciples of Verschoor were also called Hebrews, on account of the zeal and diligence with which they applied themselves to the study of the Hebrew language.

VERSE, VERSUS, in *Poetry*, a line or part of a discourse, consisting of a certain number of long and short syllables, which run with an agreeable cadence; the like being also reiterated in the course of the piece.

This repetition, according to F. Bosius, is necessary to distinguish the notion of verse from that of prose; for in prose, as well as verse, each period and member are parts of discourse, consisting of a certain number of long and short syllables; only, prose is continually diversifying its measures and cadences, and verse regularly repeats them.

This repetition of the poets appears even in the manner of writing; for one verse being finished, they return to the beginning of another line to write the verse following: and it is to this return that verse owes its name; *versus* coming from *vertere*, to turn or return.

Accordingly, we find the same word used to signify any thing that is placed in a certain regular order: Cicero uses *versus* for a line in prose; Virgil for a row of trees, and even of oars in a galley. But as the regularity of verse carries with it more charms, and requires a greater degree of exactness, the word has, in time, become appropriated to poetry.

To make verse, it is not enough that the measures and quantities of syllables be observed, and six just feet put, one after another, in the same line; there are farther required certain agreeable cadences, particular teneses, moods, regimens, and even sometimes words unknown in prose.

But what is chiefly required, is an elevated, bold, figurative manner of diction; this manner is a thing so peculiar to this kind of writing, that, without it, the most exact arrangement of longs and shorts does not constitute verse so much as a sort of measured prose. See POETRY.

Dr. Blair (Lectures, vol. iii.) observes, that nations, whose language and pronunciation were of a musical kind, rested their versification chiefly upon the quantities, that is, the length or shortness of their syllables. Others, who did not make the quantities of their syllables to be so distinctly per-

ceived in pronouncing them, rested the melody of their verse upon the number of syllables it contained, upon the proper disposition of accents and pauses in it, and frequently upon that return of corresponding sounds which we call *rhyme*; which see. The former was the case with the Greeks and Romans; the latter is the case with us, and with most modern nations.

The Greek and Latin verses consist of a certain number of feet, disposed in a certain order; so that every syllable, or the greatest number at least, was known to have a fixed and determined quantity; and their manner of pronouncing rendered this so sensible to the ear, that a long syllable was counted precisely equal in time to two short ones. Upon this principle, the number of syllables contained in their hexameter verse was allowed to vary. The musical time, however, was precisely the same in every such verse, and was always equal to that of twelve long syllables. In order to ascertain the regular time of every verse, and the proper mixture and succession of long and short syllables which ought to compose it, were invented what the grammarians call metrical feet, dactyles, spondees, iambs, &c. And the hexameter verse was scanned or measured by six metrical feet, either dactyles or spondees, with this restriction, that the fifth foot was regularly to be a dactyle, and the last a spondee. And some have attempted to make French and English verses on the same foundation, but without success.

The introduction of these feet into English verse would not suit the genius of our language, which does not correspond, in this respect, to the Greek or Latin. Hence mere quantity is of little effect in English versification. The only perceptible difference among our syllables is owing to that stronger percussive of voice, called accent, with which some of them are uttered: and accordingly, the melody of our verse depends much more upon a certain order and succession of accented and unaccented syllables, than upon their being long or short.

If we take any of Mr. Pope's lines, and, in reciting them, alter the quantity of the syllables as far as our quantities are sensible, the music of the verse will not be much altered; but if we do not accent the syllables as the verse dictates, its melody will be totally destroyed. (See Lord Monboddo's Treatise of the Origin and Progress of Language, vol. ii.) In the constitution of our verse, the caesural pause is an essential circumstance, and this falls towards the middle of each line. In the French heroic verse this is very sensible. This is a verse of twelve syllables, and in every line, just after the sixth syllable, there falls, regularly and indispensably a caesural pause, dividing the line into two equal hemistichs. Thus the one-half of the line always answers to the other, and the same chime returns incessantly on the ear, without intermission or change; which is, without doubt, a defect in their verse, and renders it unfit for the freedom and dignity of heroic poetry. For the difference of the English verse in this respect, see PAUSE. See also ACCENT, PROSODY, and QUANTITY.

Vossius is very severe on the modern verse, and makes it altogether unfit for music: our verses, says he, run all, as it were, on one foot, without distinction of members or parts, and without regard to the natural quantities of syllables. We have no rhythmus at all; and we mind nothing, but to have a certain number of syllables in a verse, of whatever nature, and in whatever order.

Mr. Malcolm vindicates our verse from this imputation. It is true, he says, we do not follow the metrical composition of the ancients; yet we have such a mixture of strong and soft, long and short syllables, as makes our verse flow

smooth or rumbling, slow or rapid, agreeable to the subject. Instances of all which we have in the following lines.

“ Soft is the strain when Zephyr gently blows.
The hoarse rough verse should, like the torrent, roar.
The line too labours, and the words move slow.
Flies o'er th' unbending corn, and skims along the main.”

By making a small change, or transposition of a word or syllable in any of these verses, any body who has an ear will find, that we make a great matter of the nature and order of the syllables.

Vossius adds, that the ancient odes were sung, as to the rhythmus, (see RHYTHM,) in the same manner as we scan them; every *pes* being a distinct bar, or measure, separated by a distinct pause, though, in reading, that distinction was not accurately observed.

Lastly, he observes, that their odes had a regular return of the same kind of verse; and the same quantity of syllables in the same place of every verse; whereas, in the modern odes, to follow the natural quantity of our syllables, every stanza would be a distinct song.

It is next to impossible to write prose without sometimes intermixing verse with it; so that Vaugelas's rule, which enjoins us to avoid them, is next to impracticable. This may be farther said, that for short verses they are so little perceived, that it is scarcely worth one's while to strain one's self to avoid them; and as to long verses, they are chiefly to be avoided in the ends of periods, for, in the middle, they are scarcely felt. In the general, rules of this kind must be considered as principally regarding numerous verses, and such as are readily distinguished by their cadence: thus, in Latin, it is scarcely possible to avoid iambic verses; but hexameters must, by all means, be avoided, their cadence being more sensible and more studied.

Verses are of various kinds; some denominated from the number of feet of which they are composed; as the *monometer*, *dimeter*, *trimeter*, *tetrameter*, *pentameter*, *hexameter*, *hendecasyllabum*, &c. Some from the kinds of feet used in them; as the *pyrrhichian*, *proceleusmatic*, *iambic*, *trochaic*, *daitylic*, *anapestic*, *spondaic* or *mollossian*, *choriambic*, *iambic-daitylic*, or *daitylotrochaic*. Sometimes from the names of the inventors, or the authors who have used them with most success: as the *Anacreontic*, *Archilochian*, *Hippocratic*, *Phecratian*, *Glyconian*, *Alcmanian*, *Asclepiadean*, *Alcaic*, *Sesychorian*, *Phaliscan*, *Aristophanian*, *Callimachian*, *Galliambic*, *Phalacian*, and *Sapphic*. Sometimes from the subject, or the circumstances of the composition; as the *heroic*, *elegiac*, *Adonic*, &c. See HEXAMETER, PENTAMETER, IAMBIC, &c.

In reckoning the feet of iambics, trochaics, and anapestics, each meter is a dipody, or comprehends two feet. In other verses, a meter is but a single foot. Hence it is that the iambic trimeter is also called *senarium*, because composed of six feet. See VERSIFICATION, *infra*.

The ancients invented various kinds of poetical devices in verse, as *centers*, *echoes*, and *monorhymes*.

VERSE, *Alexandrin* or *Alexandrian*. See ALEXANDRIN.

VERSE, *Blank*, is a noble, bold, and disencumbered species of versification; free from that full close which rhyme forces upon the ear at the end of every couplet, and allowing the lines to run into each other, with as great, if not greater, liberty than the Latin hexameter. Accordingly it is suited to subjects of dignity and force, which demand more free and manly numbers than rhyme. The constraint and strict regularity of rhyme are unfavourable to the sublime, or to the highly pathetic strain. An epic poem or a tragedy would be fettered and degraded by it. As this kind of verse is naturally read with less cadence or tone than rhyme,

the pauses in it, and the effect of them, are not always so sensible to the ear. It is constructed, however, entirely upon the same principles, with respect to the place of the pause. See PAUSE.

VERSES, *Concordant*, *Daitylic*, and *Elegiac*. See the *adjunctives*.

VERSES, *Equivocal*, those where the same words contained in two lines carry a different sense.

VERSES, *Fiscennine*. See FISCENNINE.

VERSE, *Heroic*. See HEROIC.

Our English heroic verse is of that kind which may be denominated iambic structure; that is, composed of a nearly alternate succession of syllables, not short and long, but unaccented and accented. The line often begins with an unaccented syllable, and sometimes, in its course, two unaccented syllables follow each other. But, generally, there are either five or four accented syllables in each line. The number of syllables is ten, unless an Alexandrian verse be occasionally admitted. In the Italian heroic verse employed by Tasso in his *Gierusalemme*, and Ariosto in his *Orlando*, the pauses are of the same varied nature with those that belong to English versification. See PAUSE, and VERSIFICATION, *infra*.

VERSES, *Metrical*. See METRICAL.

VERSES, *Reciprocal*, are those which read the same backwards as forwards. See RETROGRADE.

VERSES, *Rhopalic*, *Serpentine*, and *Technical*. See the *adjunctives*.

VERSE is also used for a part of a chapter, section, or paragraph, subdivided into several little articles.

The whole bible is divided into chapters; and the chapters are divided into verses.

The five books of the law are divided into fifty-four sections. See PARASCHE and PENTATEUCH.

Many of the Jews maintain, that this was one of the constitutions of Moses from mount Sinai; and some modern Christian writers, such as Buxtorf, Leusden, Pfeiffer, and their admirers, insist upon it, that the division of the verses of the Old Testament was not a work merely human, but had the peculiar privilege of being fixed by the inspired author of each book, or at the latest by Ezra. Others, with greater probability, ascribe it to Ezra, and say that it was made for the use of the synagogues, in which one section was read every Sabbath-day, and thus the whole law read over every year. When the Jews were forbidden, in the time of the persecution of Antiochus Epiphanes, to read the law, they substituted in its room fifty-four sections out of the prophets, which were afterwards continued; and when the reading of the law was restored by the Maccabees, the section which was read every Sabbath out of the law, served for their first lesson, and that out of the prophets for their second lesson; and so it was practised in the time of the apostles.

These sections were divided into verses, which the Jews call *pesukim*. They are marked out in the Hebrew bibles by two great points at the end of them, called *seph-pesuk*, i. e. the end of the verse. If Ezra was not the author of this division, it is certainly very ancient, and was probably invented for the sake of the Targumists, or Chaldee interpreters. Mention is made of these verses in the Mishna. Pridaux's Conn. vol. ii. p. 479. For the more modern division, see CHAPTERS.

That the modern division could not be of inspired authority is undeniable, for no inspired author could separate words which the sense determines to be inseparable, several instances of which occur.

It is probable, says Dr. Kennicott (State of the printed Hebrew

Hebrew Text, vol. i.), that the division of the verses of the Old Testament has been different at different times; and it seems certain, that verses were not the same in St. Jerom's time as at present: for that learned father, in his preface to the book of Job, observes, that there were seven or eight hundred verses (some think the true reading to be seventy or eighty) wanting in the ancient Latin translation of that book; which cannot be easily supposed of such verses as the present, the whole book containing no more than one thousand and seventy of our verses. But the nature of verses having varied, and the present verses, as terminations of, or pauses in the sense, having been probably fixed in the Hebrew text, or in the Greek version, some ages after the publication of the books of the Old Testament, as they confessedly were with regard to the New Testament; we shall the less wonder that some of the wiser Jews made no scruple to alter the received division where they found it to be erroneous. F. Simon tells us that Elias Levita, the best Jewish critic, affirms, the present distinction of verses was made by the Masorets Jews, after the Talmud; and that Aben-Ezra mentions amongst others, R. Moses Cohen, a learned grammarian, who took the liberty of joining some verses of the bible otherwise than they were joined by those who had marked them; affirming that they were mistaken in those places.

The division of chapters into verses has been found so convenient, that it has been used in all the editions of the bible, ever since it was first introduced. It is not, however, without its disadvantages. By this division the sense is often interrupted, and the reader may be thus led into mistakes, by fancying that every verse completes the sense. Besides, some persons are hence led to conceive, that every verse contains a mystery, or some essential point, though there is frequently no more than some incident or circumstance recorded in that place. Moreover, it has proved the occasion of that wrong method which sometimes prevails among preachers. Many imagine that one verse is a sufficient subject for a sermon; and when they find that it does not furnish solid and instructive reflections enough, they are constrained to wander from their point, and in order to fill up their discourse, display their wit and learning, which often administer but little edification to their hearers, and is undoubtedly contrary to the end of preaching.

It is then much to be wished, that some judicious person would divide the chapters otherwise than they are at present divided. If the verses were suffered to remain, they should be so divided, as to make always a complete sense, though on this account they might happen to be longer or shorter than they now are. But perhaps it would be better to suppress the verses entirely, and to divide the chapters into certain articles, which should contain such a number of verses as would complete the sense. When any word or passage of scripture is quoted, it would be no great trouble to look over a whole article, which could not require much time. To which we may add, that such a method of division would much assist the memory, which is now overburdened with such a great number of verses as preachers are, occasionally, obliged to remember.

The division of verses in the New Testament was first made by Robert Stephens; and so negligently was it done, that his son, Henry Stephens, assures us, he worked at it as he travelled from Paris to Lyons. Many learned men find great fault with this division, and yet it is every where followed.

F. Simon observes, that the Greeks and Latins meant by verse, a line, containing a certain number of words. He adds, that the authors of those days, to prevent any thing being added or taken away from their works, used to mark, at the end, the number of verses they contained; but the

books themselves were written all running, without any division, points, or the like.

VERSE, *Neck*. See NECK-VERSE.

VERSE, in *Church Music*: as, a verse anthem is distinct from a solo anthem, an anthem for two or three voices, and from a full anthem. A verse anthem consists of chorusses, with solo movements between them, for one, two, or three voices, so that in this sense verse is equivalent with solo.

VERSED *Sine of an Arch*. See VERSED SINE.

Co-VERSED *Sine*. See Co-VERSED SINE.

VERSHIRE, in *Geography*, a town of Vermont, in the county of Orange, containing 1311 inhabitants; 16 miles N. of Hanover.

VERSHOCK, or WERSHOCK, a Russian measure equal to $\frac{1}{16}$ of an English inch. An arsheen is divided into 16 vershocks, or werhocks, and equals 28 Eng. inches: thus 9 arsheens = 7 Eng. yards, and 4 vershocks = 7 Eng. inches. A fath, fath, or fathom, is = 3 arsheens, or 7 Eng. feet.

VERSIFICATION, the art or manner of making verse; also the tune and cadence of verse.

Verification is properly applied to what the poet does more by labour, art, and rule, than by invention, and the genius, or furor poeticus. See POETRY.

The matter of verification is long and short syllables, and feet composed of them; and its form is the arrangement of them in correct, numerous, and harmonious verses; but this is no more than a mere translator may pretend to, and which the Catilinarian war, put in measure, might merit.

It is with reason, therefore, that these simple matters are distinguished from the grand poetry, and called by the name verification.

In effect, there is much the same difference between grammar and rhetoric, as there is between the art of making verses, and that of inventing poems.

History of Verification.—It appears that verse has been cultivated from the earliest period of literature, and among all people, from the most barbarous to the most refined; and to it principally we are indebted for most of the original accounts we have of the ancient nations of the earth. Equally measured lines, with an harmonious collocation of expressive and sometimes highly metaphorical terms, the alternate lines either answering to each other in sense, or ending with similar sounds, were easily committed to memory, and easily retained. As these were often accompanied with a pleasing air or tune, the subject being for the most part a concatenation of striking and interesting events, histories formed thus, became the amusement of youth, the palliative of labour, and the solace even of old age. In such a way, the histories of most nations have been preserved. The interesting events celebrated, the rhythm or metre, and the accompanying tune or recitative air, rendered them easily transmissible to posterity; and by means of tradition, they passed safely from father to son, through the times of comparative darkness, when the various tribes of mankind had no method more effectual of communicating to their descendants the principles of their worship, their religious ceremonies, their laws, and the renowned actions of their sages and heroes, till they arrived at those ages in which the *pen* and the *press* have given to them, by multiplying the copies, a sort of deathless duration.

The propriety of assigning the priority to Hebrew verification is obvious. The most intelligent consider the Hebrew to have been the primeval language, or at least the most ancient of which we have any knowledge; and, therefore, it is here that we must look for the earliest dawn of the poetic art. The address of Lamech (Gen. iv. 23.), which is in hemistichs in the original, is doubtless the most ancient verse in the world.

Of the same kind is Noah's prophecy concerning his sons (Gen. ix. 25-27.), Jacob's blessing to the twelve patriarchs (Gen. xlix. 2-27.), the song of Moses (Exod. xv.); and the book of Job, of Psalms, the songs of Solomon, Isaiah, &c. afford ample proof not only of the existence of verse among the ancient Hebrews, but that in its origin and earlier history it was intimately connected with music; that is, it was frequently set to some air or tune, for vocal or instrumental performance.

Having thus pointed out the origin of verse, at an early period, among the Hebrews; we shall now endeavour to trace its rise amongst other nations, assigning the precedence chiefly to those where we are most likely to find it in a *native*, rather than in a *borrowed or ingrafted* state.

Tcho-Yong, the sixteenth emperor of the ninth period, is the first on record among the Chinese for his attachment to the Muses. Feu-Hi composed verses on the piscatorial art. Chin-Nong, a succeeding emperor, wrote verses on the fertility of the earth. Here we find what is frequently remarkable in the early history of the ancients, the office of a chief or legislator and bard or poet united in one person: for many of the ancient poems were of a legislative cast, and contained, in verse, the most essential parts of their religious, moral, and political systems. The last emperor whom we find to have retained the poetical character was Chao-Hao. After him the complex office seems to have separated, as the next bard we meet with is in the person of the philosopher Confucius, who lived about six hundred years before the Christian era. (See *Extraits des Hist. Chinoises*, and *Du Halde Hist. Chinoises*.) The Chinese ode, therefore, translated by Sir William Jones, must be of high antiquity, as Confucius considered it as very ancient in his time. About one century before the same epoch, Calidas, who has been termed the Shakespeare of India, wrote his poems. Such being the state of oriental verse at these early periods, it is not more than we might expect, that the Portuguese missionaries should meet with it on the coast of Proper India, where they found the natives possessed of a species of rude verse set to music. They composed, in the Malabar tongue, a long ode, containing a history of the Portuguese prelate, and a descriptive detail of what had passed at his synod. This nation had preserved the ancient custom of transmitting to posterity, by this kind of poem, all the most remarkable events. (*La Croze's Hist.*) The missionaries, who visited the opposite coast of Coromandel, give us sufficient proof that the culture of verse was not inconsiderable at that early period. (*Lettres Edifiantes*, rec. xviii. p. 28.) With respect to Egypt, the origin of the belles lettres is so lost in the antiquity of that famous kingdom, that we know nothing of the first advances made there in verse. We naturally expect that it met with the fate of its kindred science, music; which, in an early period, had all its forms unalterably fixed by law, and, therefore, improvement and corruption were alike prevented.

In adverting to those points of the poetic horizon, where we are most likely to descry the early dawn of the art of verse, it is now incumbent on us to notice the Arabs, whose language, from its manifest affinity, unquestionably had a common origin with the Hebrew and Chaldaic; and, consequently, is one of the most ancient in the world. Count Reviczki, however, was of opinion, that with respect to the metrical art of the Arabs, it was an invention of a date much later than that of the Hebrews, and that it assumed its form only a short time before Mohammed. At the beginning of the seventh century, the Arabic language was brought to a high degree of perfection, by a sort of poetical academy, that used to assemble at stated times in a place called *Ocadh*, where every poet produced his best composi-

tion, and met with the applause which it deserved. The most excellent of these poems were transcribed in characters of gold upon Egyptian paper, and hung up in the temple of Mecca, whence they were named *mozahebat*, or *golden*, and *moallakat*, or *suspended*. The poems of this sort were called *casseidas*, or *eclogues*, seven of which are preserved in our libraries, and are considered as the finest that were written before the time of Mohammed. Concerning the Arabic and oriental verse in general, Count Reviczki remarks, that he "anticipates the mortification of all our European poets, when they discover that the oriental dialects had a greater variety of feet, and consequently the true science of metre and prosody." After the above-mentioned period, however, the Muses disseminated their gifts with a prolific hand, and many were signalized with their favours. Amongst the rest, the caliph Almamoun, sometimes termed the Arabian Augustus, for the protection he afforded to the belles lettres, bore an early and a distinguished rank. We have only to consult the abbé Andres, in his luminous work "Dell' Origine, de' progressi e dello Stato attuale d'Ogni Letteratura," to assure ourselves, on the authority of the authentic manuscripts which he cites, that the Arabs had now become pre-eminent for their cultivation of the Muses. Scoppa affirms that there is no exaggeration in the expression of the "Histoire de la Poésie Française," which, from undoubted evidence, asserts "that there had been more poets amongst the Arabs than in all the rest of the world." Abilabba-Abdalla, son of the caliph Motaz, recapitulates the lives of an hundred and twenty-one poets of the first rank. Another work, entitled "Théâtre des Poètes," forms a library of twenty-four volumes. Casiri, the celebrated author of the "Bibliothèque Arabico-Hispana de l'Escurial," does not hesitate to maintain that the excellencies of the Arabian poets rose as high in the scale of merit as those of the Greeks and Latins.

In our endeavour to trace the history of versification, where it is more likely to be found in its native and un borrowed state, we now turn to the northern nations of Europe. Tacitus mentions the verse and hymns of the Germans, at a time when that rough people inhabited the woods, and whilst their manners were yet savage. The Arthur of Teutonic romance is the hero Dietrich of Berne, who lived about the year 450 A.D. It is thought that his deeds of high enterprise were sung in the ancient and barbarous verses, some of which were collected by Charlemagne. The flight of Theodoric to the Huns is related in an exceedingly curious fragment, from the language and metre of which we infer, it must have been composed in the eighth century. We learn from a Latin fragment, written by Du Chefne, that Lewis the Pious, son of Charlemagne, being desirous that all his subjects speaking the Theotic language should be enabled to read the scriptures, "ordered a Saxon, who was reputed to be no vulgar bard, to make a *poetical* translation of the Old and New Testament into the German tongue." It is supported by Eccard and the German philologists, that the "Harmony of the four Evangelists," in the Cottonian library, forms a part of this translation. Ottfried's Paraphrase of the four Gospels, made about the year 870, affords a proof that alliteration had fallen into disuse, and presents us with the earliest specimen of German rhyme.

Nor is this early production uninteresting. The infant Saviour is described as growing amongst men as a lily amongst thorns.

The victory gained in the year 883 over the Normans, by Louis III., was recorded, as is stated by a contemporary chronicle, "not only in our annals, but also in our national songs." The Franks had not yet adopted the language of

their vassal Gauls; and one of their national songs, which has been singularly preserved, is written in the pure Franco-Theotic dialect, and consequently belongs to the history of German poetry. From these scanty remains we pass on to the period (from 1136 to 1254) during which the imperial dignity was held by the house of Hohen-Staufen. Upon the accession of Conrad III., the founder of the Swabian line, the banquet-hall suddenly unfolds its portals, and we behold the fathers of romantic verse, in the persons of "kings and dukes, mailed knights and trusty squires," each of whom

"took the harp in glee and game,
And made a lay, and gave it name."

Under this new race of rulers, the dialects of the fourth and west of Germany obtained a decided preponderance. The Swabian or Allemannic became blended with the Franco-Theotic, and thus formed the basis of the language of the present day; which, as in the parallel instance of the "Vulgar illustre" of Italy, has superadded its filter idioms, and become the sole vehicle of information.

Whatever literary impulse may have been given by the first crusade, it appears that the second produced a more decided effect, by generally diffusing the cultivation which had been maturing in the more propitious regions of the fourth. The population of the empire was brought into closer connection with the songsters of Provence and Catalonia, and their polished strains were soon re-echoed in the harsher tones of the "Minne Singers," or bards of love, as they were pleased to call themselves, of the Swabian era. A noble author is now considered as a rare occurrence. But in the age of the "Minne Singers," hardly any one dared to cultivate the art of versification, unless he could prove his sixteen quarters. The sovereigns of Germany themselves, emulating perhaps the example of our captive Richard, shared in the same fervour. The collection in the volume of Rudiger Manis is headed by the poems of the emperor Henry; the next place is held by Wenceslaus, king of Bohemia. A ballad, distinguished for its tenderness, is given as the production of the duke of Breislau. The verse of Henry, duke of Anholt, is by no means devoid of taste and elegance; and a single lay bears witness to the talents of the unfortunate Conradine. The "Geste" of king Rother connects itself both with the Helden-buch and the Cycle of Charlemagne. This poem, and a fragment of the history of the expeditions of the French monarchs against the Saracens, are the earliest specimens now extant of the German metrical romance.

The Swabian era produced upwards of two hundred poets, many of whom are deserving of attention. Under Rodolph of Hapburg (1273) and his successors, they began to lose ground; and the brilliancy which had distinguished the preceding era gradually died away.

It is difficult to establish a definite boundary for the different periods of literary history; they melt into each other, like the colours of the rainbow. In Conrad of Würzburg, who flourished towards the conclusion of the 13th century, we find the glow of better days united to some of the peculiarities of the later "Master-Singers" of Augsburg and Nuremberg. At this time a few princes and high-born lords, amongst whom Otto the marquis of Brandenburg, and the count of Leiningen, may be named as the most distinguished, still continued to imitate the style of the Swabian poets. But they had no successors. The art expired amongst the nobility, and the scene was suddenly changed. Poetry certainly never had so singular a fortune in any other country as in Germany. It actually

became one of the incorporated trades in the German cities; and the burghers obtained the freedom of it, as of any other corporation. By M. Grimm the "Minne-Singers" and the "Master-Singers" are supposed to have originally formed but one class of poets. At all events, these societies offer a most singular phenomenon. Composed entirely of the lower ranks of society, they obtained a monopoly of verse-craft, and extended their tuneless fraternity over the greater part of the empire. The candidate for admission into these societies was introduced with prescribed formalities. The four "merkers," or examiners, sat behind a silken curtain, to pass judgment on his qualifications. One of these had Martin Luther's translation of the bible before him, it being considered as the standard of the language. His province was to decide whether the diction of the novice was pure, and his grammar accurate. The others attended to the rhyme and metre of the composition, and the melody to which it was sung. And if they united in declaring that the candidate had complied with the statutes and regulations, he was decorated with a silver chain and badge, and admitted into the society.

Bouterwick remarks, that the rude inferiority of the German poetry, during the 16th century, forms an unpleasant contrast to its state in Italy and Spain. In the age of Ariosto and Cervantes, Hans Sach continued to rank as the first German poet; and the only dignified epic which Germany possessed was the stiff allegory of Melchior Pfuitzing.

Having traced the rise and progress of the art of versification in Germany, we shall now still pursue the same system, in noticing, first, those places where its early dawn was unmixed with the rays of neighbouring constellations. Sheringham and Bartholine inform us, that the scaldi or bards were highly honoured among the Danish tribes; that their verse was of the legislative cast; and that they sung the great actions of their ancestors, and kindled the flame of war by the influence of poetic recitation. The "Welkina" and "Niflunga Saga" were compiled in the 13th century from the songs of the Danes and Swedes. We also meet with the poetical and musical office united in almost every northern clime. The union of the legislator's and bard's character is exemplified in the person of Snorrio Sturluson, who, about six hundred years since, was at once the chief legislator and most eminent bard in the isle of Iceland. Odin, the Scythian legislator, boasted that the Runic songs had been handed to him by the gods. Strabo tells us, that throughout the whole district of Gaul, there were three kinds of men held in high estimation, the Bards, the Vates, and the Druids. Diodorus Siculus adds, that "the bards sung to instruments, praising fame and satyrizing others." The British bards, about the same time, were of the same character; and their genius is sufficiently evinced by their verse yet extant under the name of Ossian, if Ossian's work be genuine. In Ireland they were endowed with estates, and lived by public patronage, independent and free from temporal care. Ollamh Fodhla, one of their kings, summoned them to a triennial festival, for the purpose of transmitting to posterity the authentic records contained in their verse; which were from them selected and preserved in the custody of the king's antiquary. In the year 558, the Irish bards, being extremely numerous, and insolently powerful, had attained the summit of their influence. Even in the time of Spenser, they were the subject of serious complaint. (Keating's History, and Spenser's View of the State of Ireland.) Nor are we without instances of the native and ungrafted state of verse in the transatlantic world. In the ancient empire of Peru, Garcilasso de la Vega informs us, that their songs were innumerable;

VERSIFICATION.

numerable; that he had heard many, and learned some from his ancestors, who were the last of the royal family of the Incas. Their Incas or chiefs had been poets or musicians in the early periods of their history. The same author presents us with some specimens of their verse, which bear every character of aboriginal texture. Father Laftau (*Mœurs des Sauvages*, tom. ii. p. 213.) has given a circumstantial account of the festivities of the Iroquois, Hurons, and some less considerable tribes of North American Indians, in which verse and song bore an essential part. These, for the most part, consist of the fables of ancient times, and are composed in a style so antiquated as to differ materially from their colloquial dialect. They were observed also to retrench or strike off some syllables from their words, to produce the requisite measure; and the audience beat the time with a corresponding motion of the head, accompanied with shouts, repeated at certain intervals with such accuracy that they never err.

It is easy to perceive that our remarks have hitherto been confined to trace the earliest source and rise of versification amongst those nations only, where we were most likely to discover it in a state unmixed with borrowed streams. The task is evidently not a little difficult, to say exactly where it can be contemplated in a stage purely nascent. Its distant course has gradually receded from our view, and ultimately lost itself in the remote and visionary forms of aboriginal tradition. Nor do we mean to affirm that the subsequent meanders, which, from each insulated fountain, we have for a while been led to pursue, has, in every instance, remained unblended with the confluence of adventitious channels. It is sufficient if, by the preceding remarks, we have, in any degree, developed those features which appear to be uniformly peculiar to its infant state. This, however, will not only apologize for, but even warrant, our omitting, until this, to mention the Greek and Roman versification, where we can contemplate it only in an engrafted predicament. It is admitted, that knowledge and useful arts the Greeks received from the East; yet it is the opinion of some, that since "the Greeks studied no foreign language, it was impossible that any foreign literature should influence their's. Not even the name of a Persian, Assyrian, Phœnician, or Egyptian poet is alluded to by a Greek writer. The Greek poetry was, therefore, wholly national. The Pelagic ballads were infensibly formed into epic, tragic, and lyric poems; but the heroes, the opinions, the customs mentioned in them, are exclusively Grecian; as they had been, when the Hellenic minstrels knew little beyond the Adriatic and the Egean." This argument, however, is not so conclusive as to lead to the inference, that the Greeks had no preceding example from which to copy. No more can we suppose that Homer was the most ancient poet: for as the *Paradise Lost* of Milton plainly implies that other epic poems existed prior to this; and that Milton had read them; so do the *Iliad* and *Odyssey* of Homer. It is contrary to all the phenomena of the human mind, that so finished a work should have been the *first* essay of the kind. There can be no room to doubt but many poets flourished before Homer. As the *Paradise Lost* necessarily supposes Spenser's *Fairy Queen*; that, Tasso's *Gerusalemme Liberata*; that, Virgil's *Æneid*; and the *Æneid*, the *Iliad* of Homer; so the *Iliad* itself may stand in reference to as many preceding poems as the *Paradise Lost* does. As the *Æneid* never could have existed, had not the *Iliad* gone before, after the model of which it is entirely constructed; and as the *Jerusalem Delivered* is a proceed from the *Æneid*, as the *Fairy Queen* is from the poem of Tasso, and the *Paradise Lost* from the whole; so we may conjecture,

that the *Iliad* is from the works of preceding poets, and that we are left to lament the irreparable loss of a vast mass of intellect in the destruction of the works which preceded and gave birth to those of Homer.

In the art of versification, the Greeks and Romans claim that eminent and distinguished rank, which has already secured to their memory that renown and celebrity to which they were so unquestionably entitled. But as they possessed this art only in an engrafted state, and as their success in this department of literature is so universally known, and as we shall have a future opportunity to notice it, our limits compel us here to pass to that which is more recondite and less generally understood.

According to the testimony of the abbé Andres, and the authentic MSS. which he cites, it is to the Arabs that Spain, France and Italy, were not a little indebted for the cultivated state of their versification. These nations had for a long time groaned under the yoke of the barbarians of the North; and according to the testimony of the abbé Andres, it is chiefly to the instrumentality of the Arabs that we owe the return of the sciences into Europe. Amongst the French and the Spaniards who have cultivated with the greatest success the poetry of which the Arabs gave them the example, the Troubadours of Provence, for the harmony of their enchanting verse, which has been received with such éclat through Western Europe, stand pre-eminently distinguished. The history of the Troubadours is replete with the names of those exalted personages, to whom it had become a delightful recreation to compose verse in the Provençal dialect. We may mention, amongst others, William, duke of Aquitania, whose verses were composed in the year 1100 A.D.; Peter I.; Alphonse I.; James the Conqueror; James I.; Thibaut, king of Navarre; Charles of Anjou, brother of St. Louis, king of Naples and Sicily; Henry, duke of Brabant; Peter Mauclerc, earl of Brittany; Raoul, count of Soissons. There exists yet at the Escorial a code, of which Casiri (tom. i. p. 126.) makes mention, and which notices the literary dispute between Abul-Jahia, son of the king of Toledo, and Almotemed, king of Cordova, to obtain the poetic prize. Neither must we omit to mention the name of Frederic II., who patronized the Muses, and was himself a poet. Nor the poems composed by king Alphonse X. son of St. Ferdinand, who signalized himself for the protection he afforded to the Troubadours.

The encouragement which the Provençal poets enjoyed under the auspices of the great, induced them to traverse Europe in every direction. They resorted to the castles and palaces of kings, they were received with transport, and their melodious strains were listened to with enthusiastic plaudits. Nor was England without some share of the general fervour. It was by the aid of the Troubadours, says Dryden, that Chaucer enriched and polished that language, which the same Dryden calls "sterile." Richard I. was surrounded by the Troubadours and cultivated their verse. In short, says the same Andres, every king and emperor accounted it an honour to become accomplished in Provençal poetry.

From the intercourse of the Provençals throughout Italy, their verse obtained the honour of becoming the mother of Italian poetry. This is asserted by Bembo, Equicola, Varchi, and by many other Italian authors, and especially by Balzaro (*Prefaz alla Crusca Provenzale*.) There is no Italian author who has more frankly pronounced his opinion in favour of the Provençals than Bembo. (Prof. I.) He favours us with a long detail of all that the Italians had borrowed from the Provençals. Redi also enumerates those amongst the Italians, who had blended in their Tuscan composition, a multitude of words and phrases peculiar to the Provençals.

The

VERSIFICATION.

The celebrated Tiraboschi, in his History of Italian Literature, speaks also of the rhyme and the different kinds of poetic composition which the Italians had borrowed from the Provençals. On this subject may be read the work of Vicenzo Gravina della Ragion Poetica, liv. ii. p. 132, and L'Istoria della volgar Poesia del Crescimbeni. The three fathers of Italian literature, Dante, Boccaccio and Petrarca, were eminently conversant with this exotic verse. The last lived a long time in Provence, and studied for a while at Paris; and Tassoni assures us, "il Petrarca molto prese da' rimatori Provençali." As to Boccaccio, it is generally acknowledged, that in his Decameron, he excels by the riches he has culled alike from the Roman and Provençal poets. But of the three, it is more especially Dante who has clearly decided, that it is Italy which has borrowed from the French, and more particularly from the Troubadours.

It is not without foundation that the count Caylus accuses the Italians of plagiarism; and it is not without reason that Millot says, that the Provençals opened the road to the Italians and furnished them with models for imitation.

Nevertheless, whatever may be the degree of plagiarism of which the ancient Italian poets are accused; whatever may have been the anteriority of the time in which the belles lettres flourished among the Provençals; and the time when it passed to the Italians; we cannot refuse to the latter the honour of being pre-eminently distinguished for the peculiar care they have bestowed on the superstructure, and for their advancing to the acmé of cultivation those arts and sciences which had been sepulchred under the ruins of the Roman empire. The Arabs, the Spaniards, the French, the English, and all other nations, says Andres (tome i. c. 12. p. 339. edit. de Parme), have been as the Egyptians and the Asiatics who claim the right of originality in the invention and culture of their verse; but the Italians may be regarded as the Greeks, who with the industrious bee culled their honey from every surrounding flower.

We must not forget, however, that with regard to this right of priority, the Provençals have formidable rivals in the Sicilians. The authorities on each side of the question seem paradoxically equal. Sicily has always boasted herself to have been the cradle of Italian poetry. She encircles herself with a cloud of authorities, which serve as a shield to protect her from the design to rob her of that title of which she desires the exclusive enjoyment. To this end, she frequently refers to consideration the following passage of Dante. (Vulg. Eloq.) "Ex acceratis, quodammodo, vulgaribus Italis, inter ea quæ remanserunt in cribro comparationem facientes honorabilibus ac honorificentibus, breviter seligimus: et primò de Siciliano examinemus ingenium: nam videtur Sicilianum vulgarem sibi famam præ aliis adfiscere, eò quòd quidquid poetantur Itali Sicilianum vocatur."

Petrarch, who in the next age succeeded Dante, both in his prose and poetic works, confirms the same opinion. Nor does he express himself with less decision in the epistle which he composed about the year 1360.

Petrarch also informs us, that in his poems, he had followed that species of versification, which had made its re-appearance some ages before in Sicily, or at least two or three hundred years before the twelfth century.

But to afford the clearest light in the discussion of this subject, it is necessary to transport our ideas to the period of the decline of the Roman empire. The Italian language took its radical elements from the nature of the Latin. Even before the splendour and the authority of the emperors had been impaired, the language was adulterated by that admixture of barbarisms which seemed the necessary consequence of foreign intercourse. But all limits to this cor-

ruption were overthrown, when the Goths, the Huns, the Greeks, the Lombards, the Franks and Germans in rapid succession inundated the empire. Hence arose a new jargon which served the vulgar and the plebeian tribes in their colloquial intercourse, whilst the learned and the polite circles of society endeavoured to maintain the dignity and purity of the Latin language. The former, however, composed the majority, and carried the day. This, according to Muratori, happened about the 11th century.

But whilst this revolution happened in Italy, France and Spain, where the Latin language, the common genus, branched into three kindred species, each receiving such modifications as were suited to the circumstances and temper peculiar to each nation, Sicily had also been long subject to a similar revolution by the frequent invasions of the Saracens from the year 649 to 827; and again to 1060. And besides this, the Latin language had been already corrupted by the influence of the Vandals, who made a descent on this isle in 440, and by the dominion of the Goths, who governed it from 493 to 535, when Belisarius rescued the island. The Sicilians had also their plebeian dialect; and they had, from the dominion of the Arabs, imbibed a predilection for that peculiar species of versification, which the latter had been equally successful in communicating to the Spaniards. The Sicilians, guided by that delicacy of the ear for which they are always remarkable, discovered themselves to be the first that had in their native language a certain melodious order, resulting not from that prosodial quantity which defines merely syllables to be long or short, but rather from another measure, which is the effect of the acute accent, artificially distributed within the limits of a definite number of syllables. They were thus enabled, without any other effort, to imitate the taste and the versification of the Arabs their conquerors; and the example of the latter was a spark to set on fire what till this was but latent in their imagination, and thus the genius and natural disposition of their minds received an unexpected and brilliant development.

It is, at least, affirmed, that the Sicilians have far exceeded the Spaniards and the French in the culture of this modern versification. And Castelvetro and Muratori maintain, that it was not Italy and Sicily that received from the Provençals the elements of this new species of verse, but that the latter were indebted for it to the Sicilians. We learn, however, from the authority of incontestable witnesses, that the Sicilians made great progress in the culture of the fine arts either during the 9th or 10th century; whilst Fauchet could not find among the poetry of the French a writer more ancient than Eustaché, who flourished about the middle of the 12th century. And Galland (Acc. Infer. tom. iii.) could not quote an author anterior to the fame. And whilst the learned Andrews could not fix the birth of the same art amongst the Spaniards earlier than the 11th century.

The Sicilian versification, at first rude, uncultivated, and barbarous, became, by degrees, a studied and polished art, replete with brilliant images, and with thoughts noble and sublime. It was, in short, the verse of the year 1220 that was seen to shine with peculiar lustre in the mind of Frederic II., who, after he had received the investiture from pope Celestin, came to reign in Sicily. The Sicilians preserve even yet his poems, those of Euzo his son, king of Sardinia, and those of Pier delle Vigne, secretary to the fame. From the centre of Sicily, this art diffused itself over all Italy. The more learned Italians, attracted by the virtues of a generous prince, came in a crowd to Sicily, frequented the court of Frederic, became themselves poets, and carried the taste of the novel versification into their native country.

Cres.

VERSIFICATION.

Crescimbeni dates the commencement of this art about the year 1189. But Quadrio fixes its origin about the year 1135. And this he proves by an inscription in verse, which he found in the cathedral church of Ferrara.

It is not improbable, however, that when Frederic II. arrived in Sicily, which happened nearly a century after this, he was already well instructed in this new species of versification, which he had learned in Provence, his native country; and also that he possessed an art which he had derived from the Arabs established in Spain, whilst the Sicilians boasted the possession of the same art, which they had originally received from the Saracens.

These two points of history being reduced to these parallel terms, it will become easy to resolve what would otherwise appear to be contradictory and paradoxical in those apparently opposite opinions, of which the one attributes to the Sicilians, the other to the Provençals, the honour of having been the first who communicated to Italy the knowledge of this modern species of versification. The fact doubtless is, that both the one and the other; nearly at the same time, received from the Arabs that new acquisition for which their own dialects were found to possess a certain innate congeniality, and subsequently became reciprocally instrumental in confirming and maturing that art, which soon became celebrated throughout Europe, under either the Italian epithet "lettere amene e leggiadre," or the Provençal "guai faber," i. e. the *gay science*.

Having now, perhaps, executed the most difficult part of our task, in tracing from this remote and obscure period, the earliest source of this new species of versification, our limits and our readers will exempt us from entering into a long detail of the subsequent progress of this art amongst two neighbouring nations, especially as this part of the subject is more accessible through the medium of the pens of the literati of France and Italy.

Before we proceed to treat on the nature of verse, it will be necessary to premise the following explanations of such technical terms as will occur in the sequel.

A SYLLABLE.

By a reference to the article QUANTITY, the reader will discover that we have already had an opportunity of distinguishing between a short and a long syllable, and of stating that the former is usually denoted by a small curve, as *˘*; and the latter by a dash, as *—*.

FEET.

A *foot*, (so called from the ancient custom of beating time by the foot,) is a part of a verse, and consists of two or more syllables, as here exemplified.

I. TWELVE SIMPLE FEET.

1. Four feet of two syllables.

1 } A spondee	— —
2 } A pyrric.....	˘ ˘
3 } A trochee, or choree.....	— ˘
4 } An iambus.....	˘ —

2. Eight feet of three syllables.

5 } A molossus.....	— — —
6 } A tribrach.....	˘ ˘ ˘
7 } A dactyl.....	— ˘ ˘
8 } An anapaest.....	˘ ˘ ˘
9 } A bacchiæ.....	˘ — —
10 } An antibacchiæ.....	— ˘ —
11 } A cretic, or amphimacer.....	— — ˘
12 } An amphibrach.....	˘ — ˘

II. EIGHTEEN COMPOUND FEET.

"Quidquid enim supra tres syllabas habet, id ex pluribus est pedibus." Quintil. 9. 4.

1. Four of the same foot doubled.

13 } A dispondee, or two spondees.....	— — — —
14 } A proceleusmatic, or two pyrrics.....	˘ ˘ ˘ ˘
15 } A dichoree, or two chorees, or trochees.....	— ˘ — ˘
16 } Adiiambus, or two iambuses.....	˘ — ˘ —

2. Four of contrary feet.

17 } A great ionic, or a spondee and a pyrric.....	— — ˘ ˘
18 } A small ionic, or a pyrric and a spondee.....	˘ ˘ — —
19 } A choriambus, or a choree and iambus.....	— ˘ — ˘
20 } An antispast, or an iambus and a choree.....	˘ — — ˘

3. Four feet in which long times exceed

21 } First epitrit, or an iambus and spondee.....	˘ — — —
22 } Second epitrit, or a choree and spondee.....	— ˘ — —
23 } Third epitrit, or a spondee and iambus.....	— — ˘ —
24 } Fourth epitrit, or a spondee and choree.....	— — — ˘

4. Four feet in which short times exceed

25 } First pæon, a choree and pyrric.....	˘ ˘ ˘ ˘
26 } Second pæon, an iambus and pyrric.....	˘ — ˘ ˘
27 } Third pæon, a pyrric and choree.....	˘ ˘ — ˘
28 } Fourth pæon, a pyrric and iambus.....	˘ ˘ — —

5. Compound feet of five syllables.

29 } Dochmius, an iambus and cretic.....	˘ — — — —
30 } Mesomacer, a pyrric and a dactyl.....	˘ ˘ — — —

METRE.

A *metre* is composed of two adjacent feet. In Greek verse of the dactylic species, one foot constitutes a metre, according to Hephæstion;

"Κατὰ Μουσικῶν μετρεῖται τὰ Δακτυλικά."

In Greek verse of double feet, a metre is also said to consist of only one foot; but since, in this case, each foot comprises two simple feet, it forms no exception to the general rule. Metre is divided into nine species; *iambic, trochaic, anapestic, dactylic, choriambic, antispastic, ionic à majeure, ionic à minore, pæonic*.

RHYTHM.

Is a series of similar feet, continued until the ear perceives the order of the series, and is able to anticipate the peculiar nature of the verse. To render this more plain, we add, that rhythm in verse is analogous to as many terms of an infinite series in mathematics, as are necessary to render the law of the rising order apparent, and from which we can easily anticipate the sequel; or, more exactly, if we

have the compound circulate $\frac{1}{3}25$ given to evolve the series,

we easily write or repeat $\frac{1}{3}25 \mid 325 \mid \frac{1}{3}25$, &c. to as many periods as necessary.

Now, a metre is said to be the commencement of this series. A rhythm is that portion of the series, which brings the whole under the recognizance of the ear. Metre respects both the *time* and *order* of the syllables. The rhythm of a dactylic and anapestic measure is the same; the metre different.

VERSE.

A *verse* is an assemblage of a definite number of feet, and contains one, two, or more metres; and is accordingly termed

termed either a *monometer*, *dimeter*, *trimeter*, *tetrameter*, *pentameter*, or *hexameter*, &c. Verse sometimes receives its name from a reference to the number of feet, not of metre, which composes it; as, the *senarius*, *octonarius*, *novenarius*, &c.: sometimes from a noted author who was particularly attached to that species; as, *Sapphic*, *Anacreontic*, *Alcæic*, *Hippocratic*.

A verse is also said to be *acatalectic*, if it be neither defective nor redundant; *catalectic*, if it want a final syllable; *brachycatalectic*, if it want two; *hypercatalectic* or *hypermeter*, if it exceed the regular measure; *acéphalous*, if it want an initial syllable.

Hence the complete name of a verse necessarily consists of three terms; the first referring to the species, the second to the number of metres, the third to the apothesis or ending. See *VERSE*.

Schmidius and Triclinius, in their Analysis of the Metres of Pindar and Sophocles, generally recite first the general name, consisting of the three terms above-mentioned, and then subjoin the particular feet.

A *hemijambic* is, properly speaking, a half verse: yet the name is commonly applied to either portion of an hexameter verse divided at the penthemimer.

The *trimeteris* is that portion of a verse (measured from the beginning of the line) which contains three half feet, or a foot and a half; *penthemimeris*, five half feet, or two feet and a half; *septemhemimeris*, seven half feet, or three feet and a half; *enemhemimeris*, nine half feet, or four feet and a half.

A *distich* is a couplet of two verses.

A *stanza*, or *strophe*, is such a series of two or more verses of different kinds, as comprises every variety employed in the composition.

When only one sort of verse is used throughout the ode or poem, such an ode, &c. is called *monocolos*; when several sorts, *polycolos*: or more precisely, if there are two sorts of verse in a poem, it is called *dicolos*; if three, *tricolos*; if four, *tetracolos*.

When the stanza, or strophe, is composed of two verses, it denominates the ode *distrophos*; when of three, *tristrophos*; when of four, *tetrasrophos*, &c.

By a complex use of these terms, the ode is *dicolos distrophos*, when in a stanza there are two verses of different kinds; it is *dicolos tristrophos*, when the stanza contains three verses, but only of two kinds, one sort being twice used; *dicolos tetrasrophos*, when the stanza has four verses, but of only two sorts, one sort being used thrice. Again, the ode is *tricolos tristrophos*, when the stanza consists of three verses, each of a different kind; and *tricolos tetrasrophos*, when in the stanza there are four verses, but of only three kinds, one being used twice.

Hebrew Versification.

On the very first attempt to elucidate the nature of this versification, a question presents itself uncommonly difficult and obscure. If it be essential to the existence of verse that it be measured by a definite number of feet or syllables, it appears absolutely necessary to demonstrate that those parts at least of the Hebrew writings which we term poetic are in a metrical form, and to inquire whether any thing be certainly known concerning the nature and principles of this versification or not.

It is well known, that an hypothesis was invented by bishop Hare concerning the Hebrew metres; and the arguments which he had advanced in its favour appeared so conclusive to some persons of great erudition, as to persuade them, that the learned prelate had fortunately retrieved the knowledge of Hebrew verse, after an oblivion of more than two thousand years. The following are the rules or canons of bishop Hare.

VOL. XXXVII.

1. In Hebrew verse all the feet are dissyllabic.
2. No regard is paid to the quantity of the syllables.
3. When the number of the syllables is even, the verse is trochaic, placing the accent on the first syllable.
4. If the number of the syllables is odd, the verse is iambic, and the accent is to be placed on the second syllable.
5. The periods mostly consist of two verses, often three or four, and sometimes more.
6. The verses of the same period, with few exceptions, are of the same kind.
7. The trochaic verses mostly agree in the number of feet; there are, however, a few exceptions.
8. In the iambic verses the number of feet are mostly unequal, though in some instances they are equal.
9. Each verse does not contain a distinct sense.

One of the examples given by bishop Hare for the illustration of these rules, is the 111th Psalm, which the learned reader may consult in any pointed Hebrew bible.

The same example is alluded to by bishop Lowth, in the following confutation of the principles of bishop Hare.

1. In the first place, the feet are not all dissyllabic.
2. Attention must always be paid to the quantity of the syllables, for the same word, as often as it occurs, is always of the same quantity.
3. The verses are either trochaic which admit a dactyl, or iambic which admit an anapaest. But it by no means follows, that a verse is either the one or the other, from its consisting of an even or odd number of syllables. Those, indeed, which consist of an even number of syllables, are, for the most part, iambic; but they are also sometimes trochaic. And those which consist of an odd number of syllables are mostly trochaic; but they are, however, sometimes iambic, contrary to the third and fourth canons.
4. The verses of the same period are of different kinds, a few only excepted; and those which are of the same kind seldom agree in the number of syllables and feet; and these facts are contrary to the sixth, seventh, and eighth canons.

5. All the periods consist of only two verses: this is contrary to the fifth canon.

6. Each verse has one particular sense; contrary to the ninth canon.

And in the same manner, perhaps, may every hypothesis, which pretends to state the laws of Hebrew verse, and to prescribe the numbers, the feet, the scanning of the lines, be confuted. For to that hypothesis another directly contrary, yet confirmed by arguments equally forcible, may be successfully opposed.

Subsequently to bishop Hare, John Robertson, M.D. published his treatise on the Hebrew versification. To give any idea of his method, it is requisite to premise, that he, in common with the antimetabolics, supplies the pointed vowel by *;*; to *י* he gives the power of U or V, and to *י*, O. His rules are as follow:

"1. Every syllable is long in which there is a written vowel. 'Tis true that I and U are sometimes joined in one syllable with the vowel *before*, but *oftener* with that *after* either of them. But in that case the I and U are not vowels, but consonants.

"2. Every syllable having the infixed or implied vowel *;* is short, if only one consonant follows it before another expressed or implied vowel occurs.

"3. Every syllable having only an infixed vowel in it is long, if two or more consonants intervene between it and the next expressed or implied vowel, either in the same or following word.

"4. In all Hebrew verses, every alternate syllable must be long; the others may be long or short.

"5. The last syllable of every verse is common; i. e. either long or short."

On laying down these preliminaries, it was easy for Dr. Robertson to reduce Hebrew verse to the iambic or trochaic metre. But so long as the true Hebrew pronunciation and the quantity of their vowels remain unknown, to attempt the analysis of Hebrew verse by iambic, trochaic, anapæstic, or any other metre, is to lay a superstructure without a foundation. But whilst we prefer to prosecute the sequel rather with bishop Lowth; we do not in the mean time withhold from our readers the pleasure of perusing Dr. J. Robertson's "Treatise on the true and ancient Manner of Reading Hebrew, and on Hebrew Versification," Lond. 1757.

As to the real quantity, the metre and rhythm, these from the present state of the language seem to be altogether unknown; which is the necessary consequence of our uncertainty of the ancient pronunciation. To some of those, indeed, who have laboured in this matter, thus much of merit is to be allowed, that they have rendered the Hebrew metre, which, without their methods, founded uncommonly harsh, in some degree polished and more agreeable. They indeed have furnished it with a sort of versification and metrical arrangement, when baffled in their attempts to discover the real. That we are warranted in attributing to them any thing more than this, is neither apparent from the nature of the thing, nor from the arguments with which they attempt to defend their conjectures.

It is, however, undeniably apparent, that certain of the Hebrew writings bear not only evident signs of poetic animation, but also such characteristics of verse, as leave us little difficulty in pronouncing them of the poetic class. There existed, amongst the Hebrews, a kind of verse, intended, perhaps, for the memory; in which, when there was little connexion between the sentiments, an alphabetic order was preferred by the initial letters of each verse or stanza. Of this there are several examples, where the verses are so exactly marked and defined, that it is impossible to mistake them for prose, especially if we compare the corresponding parts of the proximate verses, where word answers to word, and almost syllable to syllable. This being the case, though no appeal can be made to the ear, yet the eye remains competent to perceive the poetic symmetry and arrangement.

Hebrew versification also exhibits another property peculiar to metrical composition. Writers confined to the limits of verse, are generally indulged with the licence of using words in a sense and manner remote from their common acceptation, and of retrenching or adding a syllable for the purpose of reducing the line to their assigned limits. Next to the Greeks, none, perhaps, have admitted those liberties more freely than the Hebrews, and especially by the use of certain particles peculiar to metrical composition, so as to form to themselves a dialect distinctly poetical. There may be further observed a certain conformation of the sentences, so that a complete sense is almost equally infused into every component part, and every member constitutes an entire verse. So that as the poems divide themselves in a manner spontaneously into periods, for the most part equal, so the periods themselves are divided into verses, most commonly couplets, though frequently of greater length. The Hebrew verse too was adapted to their custom of singing corresponding parts by alternate and opposite choirs. (See Nehem. xii. 24. 31. 38. 40. and the title of the 88th Psalm.) Verse constructed in this manner, is similar to the Grecian

prosim or epode. And it was thus, it is thought, that Moses with the Israelites chanted the ode at the Red sea. (Exod. xv.) For "Miriam the prophetess, the sister of Aaron, took a timbrel in her hand; and all the women went out after her, with timbrels and with dances. And Miriam answered them, sing ye to the Lord, for he hath triumphed gloriously: the horse and his rider hath he thrown into the sea." (Exod. xv. 20, 21.) On some occasions, one of the choirs sung a single verse to the other, which was answered by the other by a verse in some respect correspondent to the former.

The 135th Psalm is obviously adapted to three choirs; the high priest with the house of Aaron constituting the first; the Levites, the second; and the congregation, the third; each having its distinct part, and all at stated intervals uniting in full chorus.

From an analysis of this psalm it might easily be shewn, that the Hebrew hymn is a composition not less regular than the Grecian ode. One cannot but observe too, that it was from the Jewish, that the Christian church derived the custom of singing in alternate chorus. Pliny (l. x. epist. 97.) observes of the primitive Christians, that "they repeat alternate verses to Christ as to a god." And the remains of this ancient custom are yet evident in the alternate or responsive parts of the liturgy of the established church. See Bingham's Antiq. xiv. 1.

The peculiar conformation, already alluded to, in the structure of Hebrew verse, consists chiefly in a certain equality, resemblance, or parallelism between the members of each period; so that in two verses, or members of the same period, things for the most part shall answer to things, and words to words, as if fitted to each other by a kind of rule or measure. This parallelism consists of three species. See PARALLELISM.

Greek Versification.

It is necessary, before we present the reader with a system of the Greek versification, to apprise him, that the second, fourth, and sixth foot, &c. of a verse are commonly called the even places; and the first, third, and fifth foot, &c. the odd places.

I. Iambic Metre.

1. An iambic verse admits in the even places an iambus, in the odd, an iambus or a spondee.
2. An iambus in the odd places may be resolved into a tribrach; the spondee, into a dactyl or anapæst.
3. An iambus in the even places (except the last) may be resolved into a tribrach. An anapæst is substituted for it in the case of a proper name only.
4. A dactyl must be avoided in the fifth place; and resolved feet must not concur.

Dimeters catalectic.

Οὐδ' ἔστιν ἄνθρωπος,
Οὐδ' ἔστιν τεύχος.
Ἐμὲ μὲν μύσειον
Καταστήσει ἱεῖον.
Ἐμὲ μὲν εὐδοκίαν
Καταστήσει λαμπράν.

Beginning with an anapæst.

Απολαύει πένθος αἰετός
Ο τοῖ ἀγρυπνοὶ φίλους.
Διὰ τούτων οὐκ ἀνιδρύει,
Διὰ τούτων οὐ τοκήεις.—ANACREON.

Trimeters

Trimeters or senarii.

Εἰ πάντι πρᾶγμι δ' ἀνὶ ἐμιλίᾳ κῆκη;
Κακίον οὐδέ, καρπὸς οὐ κομισίης.
Αἱ τῆς ἀρούρα θάνατον ἐκκαρσίζετ' αἶνε;
Ἢ γὰρ ξυμίσθας πλοῖον ἐσθλῆς ἀνῆ;
Ναυτῆσι θέρμης καὶ παυομένη τινί,
Ὅλας ἀνδρῶν συν θοιστοῦ γυνί.—Æschylus.

II. Trochaic Metre.

1. A trochaic verse admits trochees in the odd places, trochees and spondees in the even places.
2. The trochee may in any place be resolved into a tribrach; and the spondee into a dactyl or anapaest.
3. A dactyl in the odd places occurs only in the case of a proper name.
4. In trochaic trimeters, the second metre should always end with a word.

Dimeters catalectic.

Ταῦτα τις τάχ' ἀν πατρὸς
Ἢ τελευτᾷ νοστήσει;
Οἰκτὸς οἰκτισαίτ'. ἐπι-
-δὴ τίττει δῆμος Δικαί.—Æschylus.

Tetrameters catalectic.

Οὐ γὰρ ἀν ξυμδαιμην ἄλλως, ἢ πρὸς περμένους,
Ὅστε μὲ σκυπτήρην κραιπνότητα, τῆσδ' ἀνακτ' ἰκαί χθονός.
Τῶν μακρῶν δ' ἀπαλλοτρίωσα νοστήματα μ' ἐκ.
Καὶ σὺ τῶνδ' ἐξω κομίζω τεύχεον, ἢ καθήναι.

III. Anapaestic Metre.

1. An anapaestic admits either in the even or odd places an anapaest, a spondee, or a dactyl.
2. Except the dimeter catalectic, called paræmiacus, which requires an anapaest only in the last place but one.
3. Anapaestic verses are sometimes intermixed with other species.
4. A system is chiefly composed of dimeters, and is most correct when, first, each foot, or at least each fyszgy, ends with a word: secondly, when the last verse but one, is monometer acatalectic; and the last, dimeter catalectic; with an anapaest in the second metre.
5. In a system, the last syllable of each verse is not (as in other species) common; but has its quantity regulated by the foot of which it is a part.
6. The monometer acatalectic is termed an anapaestic base. This, in a system, is sometimes dispensed with. In the paræmiacus rarely.
7. A series of anapaestic verses, consisting of one or more sentences, must be constructed as if each sentence were only a single verse. Therefore, if the last foot of a verse, in the middle of a sentence, begin as an anapaest or spondee, its last syllable must be long; but as a dactyl, short. This rule, however, may be dispensed with, when a tribrach, cretic, or trochee, supplies the place of an anapaest, dactyl, or spondee.
8. An anapaestic verse has sometimes in the last place a proceleusmatic, which foot is isochronal to an anapaest; as,

Πρὸς ἔμην ο | μογίετο | ἐκ.—Eur. Ph. 169.

Anapaestic system with the base.

Διπλὸν ἔμοι γ' ὡς φόβος χρεῖα
Στεφὸν ὀρμύνει τοῦδε πύλας πῶν.
Ταῦτ' αἰ γὰρ ἔχιν βίους αὐτοῖ
Λόγος ἐστὶ φύσις, θεοβολούσῃ
Πῆπτος μὲς στήθεσιν ὀλνγῆς.
Οὐδὲ τῷ αὐτῷ
ΠΑῖΝΑ ΚΑΚΩΝ ἱππινυμέναι.

Anapaestic system without the base.

Ὡ δῖον ἰδὲν πρὸς ἀνθρώπων;
Ὡ δῖοτατον πάντων ὅς' ἐγώ
Προσεκμεσ' ἦδη. Τίς σ' ἢ τλημὸν,
Προσέβη μαῖνα; τίς δ' ἰππότης;
Δαίμων μείζων τῶν μακίστων
Πρὸς τῇ σὴ δυσδαιμονίᾳ;
Φῖν, φῖν, δύσταν'. ἀλλ' οὐδ' ἰσθίην
Δυσταίμι σίς βίην πολλ' ἀνείσθαι,
Πολλὰ πυθίσθαι, πόλλα δ' ἀθῆναι.
Τοιᾶν φεῖται παρὲξίς μοι.—Sophocles.

System of paræmiaci.

Σίγα μὴν ἀπᾶς ἐχὶ σίγα;
Καὶ πάντα λόγον τάχα πιστῷ;
Ἥμιν δ' ἴθακ' πατρὲς ἰστί.
Πλοῖον δ' ἀμ' Ὀδυσσεὶ βίω.—Cratin.

Tetrameters catalectic.

Ὀνοῦ τ' ἀπερχὲ καὶ γυμνασίην καὶ τῶν ἄλλων ἀσκή-
Καὶ βελτίον. τοῦτο νομίζω, ἑπὶ υἱὸς δεξιὸν ἀνδρᾶ,
Νικᾶν πρᾶττον καὶ βουλήν καὶ τῇ γλῶττῃ πολυμύζην.
Aristoph.

IV. Dactylic Metre.

1. A dactylic verse consists only of dactyls and spondees.
2. The common heroic is hexameter acatalectic, having in the fifth place a dactyl, in the last, a spondee.
3. In the heroic verse, several licences are allowed, which are not admitted in iambic metre; as, first, the lengthening a short final syllable not only at the place of the caesural pause, but sometimes even on other final syllables, whose emphasis is increased by their beginning a foot; as,

Τὸς' ὁμοῖον ἔχον ἀμφιφρεσά. τὲ φερετῆρην.—Il. 4. 45.

Secondly, the hiatus, or the concurrence of two vowels in contiguous words; as when the word ends with a short vowel, Ἀλλ' ἄκιστος καθύστα, ἐμῷ δ' ἐπιπυθίῳ μῶν. Il. 4. 565. Or when the word ends with a long vowel or diphthong, in which cases the syllable may either be long without elision, or short, on the supposition that the latter of the component vowels is cut off; as,

Κερίδης ἀλόχῃ, ἐπὶ ἢ ἰδὲν ἐστὶ χρεῖαν
Οὐκ ἔθελον δεῖξασθαι ἐπὶ πολλῷ βελομῇ αὐτῇ.

4. The Ionic dialect affords great variety in the form of epic verses. And that irregular sort of dactyls, called æolics, admits in the first place any foot of two syllables: the rest must be all dactyls, except when the verse is catalectic, and then the catalectic part must be a trochee.
5. Hephæstion terms that species of dactyls, logocædics, which requires at the end a trochaic fyszgy; but every where else a dactyl.

Dactylic trimeters.

Αἱ Μουσᾶι τὸν ἔργα
Δασασι σὺβασινοι,
Τῷ Καλλίῳ παρὶδᾶσαν
Καὶ νῦν ἢ Κιβήρια
Ζῆτι, λυτὰ φέρουσα,
Αὐτασθαί τὸν ἔργα.—Anacr.

Dactylic hexameters.

Εἰ δ' ἐπὶσ', ὥς ἐτι κίμα βορ ἢ πῆ πεισσι
Λαβὸν ὑπᾶι νιφῶν ἀμφοτέρησ' ἢ οἱ τὲ πασα
Ἀχρὶν ὑπὲρβῆν, αἰνιμοὶ δὲ δῖος ἀντὶς
Ἰστίῳ μὲνδρεται, τρομῶνσι δὲ τὲ φῆνα ταῦται
Δειδῶσις τυτθὸν γὰρ ὕπ' ἐκ βασιλῆος φερόται.—Hom.
M 2 Elegiac.

Elegiac.

Πένοντο, μὴδ' ἀπ' ἄλλου κεν εὖ ἐχρησάτο μὴδ' ἀνέκω.
Τίμας μὴδ' αἰτίας ἴλκιο, μὴδ' ἀφίνο.
Ταῦτα μὲν οὕτως ἐσθ'· ἀκακοὶς δὲ μὴ προσομίλῃ
Λόγουσιν, ἀλλ'· αὖτις τὸν ἀγῶνα ἔχουσιν.—Theogn.

V. Choriambic Metre.

1. A choriambic verse requires in every place but the last a choriambus, and in the last, an iambic fzygy, entire or catalectic.
2. Sometimes the iambic fzygy occurs in the first place, and in long verses in other places; but this happens less frequently.
3. Either two iambic feet, or a spondee and iambus, or the third epitrite, form the iambic fzygy: it is used here for the former case.
4. Any other foot of four syllables joined with a choriambic constitute the epichoriambic verse.

Dimeter catalectic.

Οὐκ ἐτός, ὡ γυναικίς,
Πᾶσι κακοῖσιν ἦμας
Φλωσιν ἱκασίως· ἀνδρεί.
Δίονα γὰρ ἔργα δέσσει
Λαμβανόμεσθ' ὑπ' αὐτῶν.—Aristoph.

Sapphic system; consisting of epichoriambic and Adonic verses.

Ποικιλοφρον' ἀθανάτ' Ἀφροδίτα,
Παῖ Διο· δολοδόχοι, λίσσονται σὶ,
Μη μ' αἰαίσι, μὴδ' ἀνίστα δαίμονα
Ποτῖνα θομού —
— Ἐλθε μοι καὶ νῦν, χαλεπαῖν δὲ λυτοῖν
Ἐκ μεγάλων ὅσα μοι τέλιστα
Θμός μοιρεῖ τέλιστον, σὺ δ' αὖτα
Ἐνιμαχος ἴσσο.

VI. Antisipalic Metre.

An antisipalic verse admits in the last place, an iambic fzygy complete, or catalectic, or an incomplete antisipaltus; and in the first place, besides the proper foot, is admitted any foot of four syllables ending like an antisipaltus in the two last syllables; i. e. either — — — — —. But in the intermediate places only an antisipaltus.

The following are the most usual varieties in this species of verse.

1. In short verses, the proper foot frequently vanishes, and the verse is composed of one of the above-mentioned feet, and an iambic fzygy.

2. Every epitrite, except the second, is occasionally substituted in the different places of the verse, especially the fourth epitrite in the second place.

3. If an antisipaltus begins the verse and three syllables of any kind remain, the verse is antisipaltic; because the remaining syllables may be considered as a portion of some of the admissible or resolved feet.

4. Long verses sometimes contain an iambic fzygy in the second place, and then the third place admits the same varieties as the first.

Dimeter acatalectic and hyperacatalectic.

Μη θύειν τὸν πάντα νι-
κά λογόν· το δ' ἐπι Φαίη,
Βναι κείνῃ ὅτι περ ἡκί,
Ποῦ δυνιτρον, ὡς ταχίστα.
Ὡς ἔντ' αὖ το νον παρῇ,
Κούφας ἀφροσινὰς φέρον,
Τίς πλάγχθη πολυμάρχους ἔξω;

Ὅστις τοῦ πλόνους μέγους
Χρησὶ τοῦ μετρίου παρῇ
Ζῶντι, σπουδῆται φύλασσαν
Ἐν ἡμοι καταδῆλος ἐσται.—Sophi.

VII. Ionic Metre à Majore.

An Ionic verse à majore admits a trochaic fzygy promiscuously with its proper foot.

Var. 1. The second pæon is sometimes found in the first place.

2. A molossus in an even intermediate place, followed by a trochaic fzygy.

3. The second pæon is sometimes joined to a second or third epitrite, so that the two feet together are equal in time to two Ionic feet. This is called an *Ανακλασις*, the defect in time of the preceding foot being supplied by the redundant time of the subsequent. And the verse so disposed is called *Ανακλαμένος*.

4. Resolutions of the long syllables are allowed in all possible varieties.

If the three remaining pæons, or the second pæon in any place but the first, without an *ανακλασις*; or if an iambic fzygy, or a third epitrite, a choriambus, or any of the didorant feet of four syllables, be found in the same verse with an Ionic foot, the verse is then called Epionic.

Trimeters brachycatalectic.

Ὅλας μὲν ἔφατ' ὡ σόλων,
Λιδ' ὡς περὶ βωμόν ἐπ' ἀθήσαν.—Sapph.

Tetrameters brachycatalectic.

Σωκράτην ὁ κόσμος πεποινηκὸν σοφόν εἶναι,
Καὶ κακὸς ἀνίλεν τὸν Σωκράτην ὁ κόσμος;
Ἐν τῇ φύλακι, κινῶν σὶ πῶν τίθηται.—Sotad.

VIII. Ionic Metre à Minore.

1. An Ionic verse à minore is often composed entirely of its proper feet. It begins sometimes with the third pæon, followed by one of the epitrites, for an *ανακλασις*. And it admits an iambic fzygy promiscuously.

2. In the odd places, a molossus preceded by an iambic fzygy sometimes occurs; and in the first a molossus alone.

3. In the intermediate places, a second or third pæon is prefixed to a second epitrite, and this construction is also called *ανακλασις*.

4. The long syllables admit of resolutions, as in the other Ionic metre.

5. An epionic verse à minore is formed by intermixing with the Ionic foot a double trochee, second epitrite, or pæon without an *ανακλασις*.

6. When a choriambus precedes or follows an Ionic foot of either kind, the verse is called *profodiacus*: which name is applied to a verse consisting of an alternate mixture of choriambic and Ionic feet, or of their respective representatives.

7. The two species of Ionic feet are not to be intermixed in the same verse.

Dimeters.

Δοκίμος δ' οὐτις ὑποσῆας
Μεγαλὸν εὐματὶ φώτων
Ἐχρὸς ἱκίον ἡγῶν
Ἀμαχὸν κυμα θαλάσσης·
Ἀπροσσίτος γὰρ ὁ Πιεσσῶν
Στέφανος, ἀλκιφρὸν τι λαός.—Ανακλαμ.
Δολομέντι δ' ἀπαταῖν ἔστι
Τίς ἀνὴρ διανὸς ἀλγεῖ;
Τίς ὁ κερκίτην ποδὶ πηδῶ-
ματος ἐπιτίτος ἀνίσταται.—Mchylus.

IX. Pæonic

VERSIFICATION.

IX. Pæonic Metre.

1. A pæonic verse requires all the admissible feet to have the same rhythm with the proper foot, *i.e.* to consist of five times.

2. The construction is most perfect when each metre ends with the several words of the verse.

3. Verses called Bacchiac and Cretic are referrible to this head.

Tetrameters catalectic.

Εἶπε τινες ὅτι μ' ἔλεγον, ὡς καταδιλλὰ γυνή,
 Νῆκα Κλέων μ' ὑπεταράχον επικριμένους.
 Καί με κακισταῖς ἐκνισε' καθ', ὅ τ' ἀπειδωρόμην
 Οὐκ οἶτος, ἐγὼ μὲν μέγα κεκοσμάτα με θεωμεῖται,
 Οὐδὲν ἄρ' ἔμην μέλον. ὅσον δὲ μοῖνον εἶδεναι,
 Σκυμνημαῖον εἰ ποτε τι βλοῦμαινος ἐκβαλλῶ.—Aristoph.

X. Of the Pause.

Besides the division of a verse into metres and feet, writers have taken notice of another division into two parts only, arising from the natural intermission of the voice in reading it. This is called the *pause*, which necessarily ends with a word. Heroics and trimeter iambs are esteemed most harmonious, when the pause falls upon the *first syllable of the third foot*. In iambic and trochaic tetrameters, its place is *at the end of the second metre*. These rules, which are far from being general, are more observed by the Roman than the Greek poets. In anapaestic and pæonic verses, and the verse Ionic à minore, no place is assigned to the pause; because the effect of a pause will be produced at the end of each regularly constructed metre.

XI. Of the different Combinations of Metre.

1. The first is a long syllable between the parts of a verse, as in the common pentameter; thus,

— — — — —
 — — — — —

2. In some species, the portions of an admissible foot of four syllables are separated by the intermediate metres.

3. It frequently happens that two species totally dissimilar are united in the same verse, which is then denominated *Ασυνκαρτετος*.

We shall employ the mark + to connect the dissimilar portions, in the following instances.

1. Daçtyl. tetram. + troch. hemihol.
2. Iambic penth. + troch. hemihol.
3. Daçtyl. dim. + troch. monom. or logocædic verse.
4. Daçtyl. comma prefixed to an iambic dim. which is called elegiambus.
5. { Iamb. dim. } prefixed to a daçtylic comma,
 { or } the converse of the former, and
 { Iamb. penth. } called iambelegus.
6. Daçtyl. comma + iamb. hemihol.
7. Iamb. penth. + daçtyl. dim.

4. When the parts thus united are an iambic and trochaic syzygy, the verse is called periodic or circulating; the quantity being the same as if scanned from the end.

5. A verse agreeing with none of the preceding institutes is termed *Παυστοχηματιστός*, or anomalous; to which class we may refer,

1. A verse, otherwise iambic, having a spondee in the second or fourth place.

2. An iambus in a trochaic, &c.

3. Scazon.

"Fit scazon, si spondeo prior exit iambus."

"Ἄκουσ' αὖτ' ἱππ|ὠκεκτός οὐ | γὰρ ἄλλ' ἤκω."

Of the Figures used in Versification.

The syllables composing a verse are affected seven different ways: by cæura, by synalæpha, by ecthipsis, by synærisis, by diæresis, by isysole, and by diastole.

Of Cæura.—When, after finishing a foot, there remains one syllable of the word, this circumstance is called cæura; a term which is also sometimes applied to the syllable itself thus cut off, and which forms the first part of the following foot.

There are four species of cæura; the *trienimeris*, *penthemimeris*, *hepthemimeris*, and *enemimeris*.

The *trienimeris* is when, after the first foot, or two half feet, there remains a syllable terminating a word, or a *third* half foot.

The *penthemimeris* is when, after two feet, or four half feet, there remains a terminating syllable, or *fifth* half foot.

The *hepthemimeris* is when, after three feet, or six half feet, a syllable remains, which is the *seventh* half foot.

The *enemimeris* is when, after four feet, or eight half feet, a syllable remains, which is the *ninth* half foot.

The first three cæuræ are in the following line:

Silve|—|trēm tenu|—i⁶ Mu|—|fām med|taris a|vena.—Virg.

All are in the following line:

Ille la|—tus nive|—um mol|—i² ful|—tus hya|cintho.—Virg.

Οὐ χερσ|— παρυχο|—ν ἐν|δῖον βοληφόρον ἄνδρα.
 Hom. Il. β. 24.

Ἄλλα με|—γα² ἰω²—χων φλογ|—ι εκδρα τευχ|—ε παλλων.
 Hesiod. Suet. 451.

The preceding are named syllabic cæuras. To these may be added the trochaic cæura, which is formed either by a trochee remaining at the end of a word, after the completion of a foot, or by a word consisting of a trochee; as,

Cuncta pri|us ten|—tātā; fed | immedicabile vulnus.—Ovid.

Per cop|—nubia | nō|frā per | incæptos Hymenæos.—Virg.

And the monosyllabic cæura; as,

De grege | nunc tibi | vir nunc | de grege | natus ha|—bendus.—Ovid.

The principal effects of cæura are, first, to impart smoothness and elegance to a verse, by connecting the different words harmoniously together; secondly, to cause a short syllable to become long, especially after the first, second, or third foot; as,

Pectori|—būs inhians, spirantia confulit exta.—Virg.

Of Synalæpha.—Synalæpha cuts off the final vowel or diphthong of a word, when the following word begins with a vowel or a diphthong; as,

Tērra ān|—tiqua, potens armis atque ubere glebæ.—Virg.

As though it were,

Tērr' ān|—tiqua, &c.

The

VERSIFICATION.

The Greeks never employ the *synalæpha*, unless they join the apotrophe; as,

ὦς φῶτα', | ἰδδὲ|—τες δ' ο γέ|βους, καὶ ἱ|παιθε| | μύθῳ.
Iliad, α 33.

Synalæpha is sometimes omitted. First, regularly, as in the interjections O, heu, ah, proh, vœ, vah, hei; as,

Heu ubi pacta fides, ubi quæ jurare solebas.—Ovid.

Secondly, by poetic licence; as,

Et fuccus *pecoris*, et lac subducitur agnis.—Virg.

Long vowels and diphthongs, when they are not cut off, become common; as,

Infulæ Ionio in magno quas dira Celæno.—Virg.

Ante tibi Eoæ Atlantides abscondantur.—Virg.

Of Ecclipsis.—*Ecclipsis* cuts off the final *m*, and the preceding vowel, when the following word begins with a vowel; as,

Dice puer, virtutem ex me, verumque laborem Fortunam ex aliis.—Virg.

This figure is not employed in the Greek language.

The ancients sometimes retained the *m*, and its preceding vowel, which they made short; as,

Corporum officium est quoniam premere omnia deorsum.
Lucret.

But the *um* of officium is elided.

S was formerly elided, not only before a vowel, with the loss of a syllable; but also before a consonant, without the loss of a syllable; as,

Vicimus, O focii! et magnam pugnavimus pugnam.—Enn.
Nam, si de nihilo fierent, ex omnibus rebus.—Lucret.

Both *synalæpha* and *ecclipsis* are found in the last syllable of a verse, when the following verse begins with a vowel, provided no long pause intervene to suspend the sense; as,

Jamque iter emensis, turres ac tecta Latinorum
Ardua cernebant juvenes murosque subibant.—Virg.

Sternitur infelix alieno vulnere cœlumque
Aspicit, et dulces moriens reminiscitur Argos.—Virg.

Of Synæresis.—*Synæresis* is the contraction of two syllables in the same word into one syllable; as ταχὺν for ταχύ; ἢ for ἢ; deinde for deinde; abiete pronounced abyête for abiete, &c.

And in the following verses for parietibus, tenuius, vindemiator, pronounce pār-yētibus, tēn-wiūs, vindēm-yātor.

Hærent pārietibus scæle; posteq̃ue sub ipso.—Virg.

Quæ nec nobilius quidquam neque tēnuūs exiit.—Lucr.
Vindēmīator et invictus cui sæpe viator.—Hor.

Of Diæresis.—*Diæresis* is the division of one syllable into two; as ταῦτος for ταῦτος, αὐραὶ for αὐρα, σὺς for σὺς, filæ for filæ, soluit for solvit, subiecta for subiecta, Jüpiter for Jupiter, &c.

Of Sytote.—*Sytote* is the shortening of a syllable, otherwise long by nature or position; as τας; ταχὺς ἡγυρεσι, Theocr.; vidēn. for vidēs ne, hōdie for hōc die, ὀβίς for ὀβίς, &c.

Of Diafote.—*Diafote* is the lengthening of a syllable, otherwise naturally short; as ἡγουρ αὐτὸς δ' ἡγουρ ταχὺ

κυνεσσιν, Hom. Il. α. 4. So are the first syllables in Priamides, Arabia, occasionally lengthened; without which licence, these and some similar proper names would scarcely be admissible in heroic verse.

There are other figures which may affect a verse, but these belong to etymology.

Latin Versification.

I. An hexameter or heroic verse consists of six feet, of which the fifth is usually a dactyl, the sixth a spondee: the rest may be either spondee or dactyls, at the option of the poet. The following scale exhibits the construction:

1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.
—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—

At tūbā | tērribī|—lēm sūn|tām prēcūl|arē ca|-noro.
Virg.

Sometimes when the description is grave, slow, majestic, mournful, &c. a spondee is admitted in the fifth place, and the verse is called *spondaic*. In this case, a dactyl usually occupies the fourth place, and the verse terminates with a word of three or four syllables. It is but seldom otherwise; as,

Constitit atque oculis Phrygia | agmina | circūm|
spexit.—Virg.

Hexameters abounding too much in spondee may appear to drag, as it were, heavily; and those in which dactyls prevail seem sometimes to have a light and fluttering effect. An equal admixture, therefore, has been thought to afford the just and most harmonious medium.

A proper regard to the *cæsura*, in the structure of an hexameter, is indispensably necessary. The term *cæsura* is used by grammarians in two senses. In the former, it signifies the division of a verse into two portions, affording a little pause or rest for the voice, at some convenient place, where the pause may take place without injury to the sense or harmony of the line. This kind of *cæsura* is sometimes called a *tome*, which term, for distinction's sake, we shall in this former sense exclusively employ.

Tantæ molis erat ☞ Romanam condere gentem.—Virg.

Errabant, ætī fatīs ☞ maria omnia circum.—Virg.

From these examples, it is evident that the *tome* is not exclusively confined to a particular part of the hexameter, as in the pentameter, which, like the English and French Alexandrine, is invariably divided into two equal portions.

But the *tome* most approved in heroic verse was the *penthemimeral*; as,

Lūctān|—tes vēr|—tos, ☞ tempestatesque sonoras.—Virg.

Instead, however, of the *tome* at the exact *penthemimeris*, a different division was admitted after a *trochee* in the third foot; as,

Effigī|—ēm stātū|—rē, ☞ nēfas quæ triste piaret.—Virg.

This, however, is generally censured, as the ear seems to require that there should be no pause immediately after a *trochee* in this place, especially as the voice, which would find an agreeable rest on a long *semifoot*, is disagreeably suspended on a short syllable.

The

VERSIFICATION.

The *hepthemimeral tome* was also approved as heroic ; as,
Clāmō-|rēs sīmūl | hōrrēn-|dōs ☞ ad fidera tollit.—Virg.

The *tome* after the third foot has been the subject of critical censure, though Virgil, the princeps faciliē poetarum, has on a *few* occasions employed it. The *penthemimeral* or *hepthemimeral tome* is, however, unquestionably preferable.

The *tome* between the fourth and fifth feet has been considered as peculiarly adapted to pastoral verse, and therefore called *Tome Bucolica* ; as,

Stānt vitū-|li, ēt tēnē-|ris mū-|gītūbūs | ☞ aëra complent.—Nemesian.

But this pause occurs as frequently in heroic as in pastoral verse.

In the second acceptance, the *cæsura* means the division or separation which takes place in a foot, when that foot is composed of syllables belonging to different words.

A verse in which this *cæsura* is neglected, in which the insulated and unconnected feet seem to thum all society with each other, is held to be stiff and uncouth in the extreme, and devoid of all poetic elegance ; as,

Spārsis | hālīs | lātē | cāmpūs | splēndēt ēt | hōrrēt.
Ennius.

On the contrary, those verses are the most pleasing in which this figure abounds ; and this effect is equally produced, whether the division take place before a *semifoot* or before a *solid trochee*.

N. B. By a *solid trochee* is meant a trochee consisting of a single word, or the last two syllables of a word ; not a *semifoot* joined with a short monosyllable.

Tē spēc-|tēm, lū-|prēmā mī-|hī quum | vēnērīt | hōrā.
Tibullus.

But two successive trochees of this kind occurring in the second, third, or in the third and fourth feet, should be avoided ; but in the first and second, or in the first, third, and fifth, they are unobjectionable.

After the first foot, the neglect of the *cæsura* is no blemish, provided that foot be a *daçtyl* ; as,

Rēgīā | solis erat sublimibus alta columnis.—Ovid.

Nor after a spondee is it much felt, especially if it be an emphatic word ; as,

Tāndēm | progreditur, magnā stipante catervā.—Virg.

Nor is the want of the *cæsura* felt after the second foot, if it be a spondee concluding with a monosyllable ; as,

Ah quo, ties per | faxa canum latratibus acta est.—Ovid.

The *cæsura*, at the third foot, is held to be, if not absolutely necessary, highly desirable. When the *tome*, however, takes place at the *penthemimeris*, and there is no pause at the close of the third foot, no objection can be made to its terminating, either with a long monosyllable, two short monosyllables, or a dissyllabic word ; as,

Contem-|nuntque fa-|vōs, ☞ zt | frigida tecta relinquunt.
Virg.

Scindit | se nu-|bēs, ☞ et in | æthera purgat apertum.

Virg.

Et semel | emis-|sum ☞ vōlūt | irrevocabile verbum.

Hor.

The *cæsura* is seldom introduced after the fourth foot ;

it is then generally unnecessary, and when it occurs the verse is not harmonious ; as,

Omnes innocuæ ; sed non pup-|pis tua Tarchon.—Virg.

Vertitur interea cœlum, et ruit ocean-|o nox.—Virg.

When formed by a monosyllable, and when the verse is spondaic, it is unobjectionable ; as,

Explore labor : mihi iussa capeffere fas est.—Virg.

Perfolvit pendens e vertici-|būs præruptis.—Catul.

II. Neglected Hexameters.

In the epistles and satires of Horace are hexameters, which, from their studied *negligence*, and their want of all the characteristic majesty of the heroic, have received this appellation. They are not, however, devoid of either beauty or simplicity ; and Horace has successfully employed them in occasionally drawing the portrait of the foibles and passions of mankind ; as,

Rure ego viventem, tu dicis in urbe beatum :

Cui placet alterius, sua numerum est odio fors.

Stultus uterque locum immeritum causatur inique

In culpā est animus, qui fe non effugit unquam.

The following verse consists either of the beginning or latter part of an hexameter.

1. The Archilochian penthemimer or dimeter, named from Archilochus, its inventor, consists of two *daçtyls* and one syllable, and therefore named *hypercatalectic* ; as,

Pūlis ēt | ūmbrā sū-|mus.—Hor.

2. The Alcmæan *daçtylic trimeter*, first used by Alcmæan, consists of three *daçtyls* and a *hypercatalectic syllable* ; as,

Nōtrā dē-|ūs canēt | hārmōnī-|a.—Prudent.

This verse, like the hexameter, of which it is a part, admits a spondee in the first, second, and third places.

3. The Alcmæan *daçtylic tetrameter catalectic* admits in the first, second, and third places, either a *daçtyl* or spondee ; in the fourth, a *daçtyl* only ; as,

Lūminī-|būsqūe pri-|or rēdīt-|it vīgōr.

Nimbōf-|isqūe pō-|lūs stēt | imbrībūs

Dēsūpēr | in tēr-|rām nox | funditūr.—Boët.

Sōlvitūr | æris hū-|mīs grā-|tā vicē.—Hor.

4. The Alcmæan tetrameter *acatalectic* contains the last four feet of an hexameter, of which, of course, the third is a *daçtyl*, and the last foot a spondee ; as,

Ibimūs | ō sōcē-|ī cōmī-|tēsqūe.—Hor.

A spondee may precede the last foot, provided a *daçtyl* precede it ; as,

Mēfō-|rēm cōhī-|bēt Ā-|r-|chytā.—Hor.

5. The Alcmæan tetrameter *catalectic* contains one long syllable, or two short syllables, then a *daçtyl* or spondee ; afterwards a *daçtyl* ; and lastly a spondee.

Qui | sē vōlēt | ēssē pō-|tētēm

Ānī-|mōs dōmēt | illē fe-|rōces.—Boët.

6. The Alcmæan tetrameter *hypercatalectic* contains an heroic penthemimer and an adonic (see N^o VI.) ; as,

Hēū quā | præcēpi-|tī || mērsā prō-|fundo.—Boët.

VERIFICATION.

7. The tetrameter acatalectic consists of three dactyls and a pyrric, or iambus; as,

Qui fērē-|re ingēnū-|ūm vōlēt | āgrum.—Boët.

8. The Bucolic hexameter has in the fourth place a dactyl; as,

Ab Jove principium, Musæ; Jōvis omnia plena.—Virg.

Fortunatianus observes, that Theocritus adhered to this rule in his pastorals, and that Virgil often neglected it.

9. The hexameter, which is named *miurus* or *teliambus*, having for its last foot an iambus instead of a spondee; as,

Dirige odoriferos ad cæca nubilia canes.—Liv. Andron.

The two *alcaics* will be noticed hereafter.

III. Of the Pentameter.

The pentameter verse consists of five feet, of which the first two may be either dactyls or spondees, the third must always be a spondee, the fourth and fifth anapaests.

It appears from Quintilian that this was the ancient mode of scanning the pentameter. (Inst. ix. 4.) But among the moderns it is scanned otherwise. By dividing the verse into two hemistichs or penthemimers, the first hemistich must contain two dactyls or two spondees, or one of each indiscriminately, and a long syllable, or cæsure; in the latter hemistich, two dactyls with another cæsure; thus,

Cārminī-būs vī-|vēs || tēmpūs īn | ōmnē mē-|is.—Ovid.

1. The first hemistich ought to end with the entire word; that the cæsure belonging to the penthemimer may take place; otherwise it will not be a legitimate pentameter, according to Quintilian, ix. 4. "In medio pentametri spondeo, qui nisi alterius verbi fine, alterius initio consistet, versum non efficit." Therefore Terentianus condemns the following line.

Intēr | nōstrōs | gēn-||tilis ō-|berrāt ē|quus.

2. An elision immediately after the penthemimer is harsh; as,

Mi mīse-|ro eripu-|jūi || omnia | nōstra bo-|na.

which verse is rendered still more harsh by the elision in the preceding foot.

3. Neither hemistich should end with a monosyllable, except it be preceded by another monosyllable, or an elision.

4. The most eligible conclusion of a pentameter is a dissyllable, or a word of four or five syllables. But the verse of Ovid, Propertius, or Tibullus, seldom ends with a trisyllable.

5. A pentameter subjoined to an hexameter constitutes an elegiac distich; as,

Flebilis indignos, elegia, solve capillos.
Ah nimis ex vero nunc tibi nomen erit!

6. Every distich should terminate with a period, or colon.

7. Rhyming must be avoided in this and every other kind of Latin verse; as,

Quærebant flavos per nemus omne favos.

Such verses are called *Leonine*, or monkish, from Leoninus, a Benedictine monk, who is censured by Vollius and others for affecting this mode of versifying.

IV. Of the Asclepiadic, or Choriambic.

This verse, invented by the poet Asclepiades, consists of four feet, a spondee, two choriambi, and a pyrric; or, considering the last syllable of the verse as long, an iambus; thus,

Mæcē|nās atāvīs | ēdītē rē|gibus.—Hor.

1. Sometimes the first foot was a dactyl; as,

Effūgi-|ūm ēt miserōs | liberā mōrs | vehit.—Seneca.

2. Sometimes, but seldom, a spondee was admitted into the second and fourth places; as,

Tēdīt īn | ēxtēr-|nas ire tenebras.—Boët.

3. Single feet are elegantly composed in this verse of complete words; as,

Quāssās | indōcīlis | pāupēriēm | pāti.—Hor.

4. The first choriambus, or a cæsure, falls inelegantly in the middle of a word; as,

Non in-|cēndiā Cārth|āgūis im-|piā.

Unless there be an *æthipsis*, a *synalepha*, or the word be a compound; but even then the lines lose not all their harshness, and are but seldom to be imitated.

There are, likewise, the following varieties in choriambic verse.

1. The Aristophanian choriambic dimeter acatalectic, consisting of a choriambus and a bacchic, or an amphibrac; as,

Lydīā dic | pēr ōmnes.—Hor.

2. The Alcaic pentameter acatalectic, consisting of a spondee, three choriambi, and a pyrric; as,

Sēu plū|rēs hiēmēs | seu tribūt | Jupitēr ūl-|timam.
Hor.

3. The Alcaic epichoriambic tetrameter acatalectic, consisting of the second epitrite, (a choree and a spondee,) two choriambi, and a bacchic; as,

Tē Deōs ō-|ro Sībārīn | cūr prōpēres | amando.—Hor.

V. Of the Glyconic.

The Glyconic verse, so named from the poet Glyco, consists of a spondee, a choriambus, and an iambus; as,

Sic tē | divā pōtēs | Cypri.—Hor.

But the first foot was sometimes varied to an iambus, or a trochee: but Horace, who was partial to the Glyconic, invariably adheres to the spondic commencement, except in one solitary instance; viz. ode i. 15. 36.

VI. Dactylic Dimeter, or Adonic.

The Adonic verse consists of two feet, the first a dactyl, the other a spondee; as,

Vitēre | mōntēs.—Hor.

We seldom find this verse employed alone. Terentianus Maurus (De Metr. 439.) informs us that Sappho wrote entire poems in this short measure. Terentianus himself has also left us a short piece of the kind; and another of thirty-one successive adonics occurs in Boethius, lib. i. metr. 7.

VII. Of the Sapphic Pentameter.

The Sapphic verse, so named from the poetess Sappho, consists of five feet; the first a trochee, the second a spondee,

VERSIFICATION.

spondee, the third a dactyl, and the fourth and fifth trochees; as,

Dēfū-'.it fax-'.is āgē-'.tātūs | hūmōr.—Hor.

1. The penthemimeral cæsura adds that elegance to Sapphic verse, without which it does not flow harmoniously.

2. Sappho and others admitted sometimes, in the first place, a spondee, or a pyrric; as,

Δι-'. δαλ' | εἰκαστο τυ δ' α μανιαχ.—Sappho.

Pōst-'.tis tandem levibus fagittis.—Seneca.

3. Sappho, Catullus, and Seneca, sometimes made the second foot an iambus, a trochee, or a dactyl; as,

Χρυσι-'.-εἰμ-'.-την δαίφρων σκασσα.—Eriinna.

Παι Δι-'.-εἰ δδ'-'.λοπλοει, λισσμαι σι.—Sappho.

Quæque ad | Hēspēri-'.as jacet ora metas.—Seneca.

Horace, however, who in many instances improved upon the invention of Sappho, invariably adheres to that form which has the second foot a spondee; and the young poet, if he be prudent, will not pass beyond his limits.

4. Sapphic verse appears sometimes to be hypercatalectic, but in this case the final vowel of the line suffers the elision consequent on the following verse beginning with a vowel.

5. Instances occur in Sappho, Catullus, and Horace, of the division of a word between two lines; as,

Grofphe, non gemmis, neque purpura ve-
-nale; nec auro.—Hor.

It has been conjectured, however, that the cause of this peculiarity in the Sapphic is, that neither Sappho, Catullus, nor Horace, intended the stanza to consist of four, but of three separate verses; viz. two sapphics, and one verse of seven feet; as,

Otium bello furiosa Thrace,
Otium Medi pharetrâ decori,

Grofphe, non gemmis, neque purpura venale, nec auro.
Hor. Od. ii. 16. 5.

6. However, we moderns usually consider the strophe to consist of three sapphics and an adonic: see No. VI.; as,

Quid brevi fortes jaculamur ævo
Multa? Quid terras alio calentes
Sole mutamus? Patriz quis exul

Se quoque fugit.—Hor. Od. ii. 16. 17.

VIII. Of the Phalæcian Verse.

The Phalæcian verse, denominated from the poet Phalæcius, consists of five feet, viz. a spondee, a dactyl, and three trochees; as,

Nōn est | vivēre, | sēd vā-'.lērē, | vitā.—Martial.

1. This verse neither rejects nor requires a cæsura.

2. Sometimes the first foot was made an iambus or a trochee by Catullus, but by the poets posterior to Catullus, not more than two or three solitary instances of this anomaly can be proved from an analysis of some thousand verses.

3. The same poet has in some instances also spoiled the elegance and harmony of his measure by introducing a heavy spondee into the second place, but his example was not imitated by his more polished successors.

4. The term hendecasyllabic (as employed by some) is not applicable exclusively to the Phalæcian verse, since
VOL. XXXVII.

the epithet is equally suitable to the Sapphic and to the Alcaic verse.

IX. Of the Pherecratic Verse.

This verse, invented by Pherecrates of Athens, consists of what may be the three last feet of an hexameter; viz. a spondee, a dactyl, and a spondee; as,

Nigris | æquorā | ventis.—Hor.

1. Boëthius sometimes admits an anapæst in the first place; as,

Simili | fūrgit āb | ortu.

2. Catullus sometimes admits in the first place a trochee, or an iambus, and at others, in the last place, a dactyl; as,

Prōde-'.as nova | nupta.

Pūel-'.keque cū-'.namus.

X. Of the Iambic Verse.

Iambic verses take their name from the iambus, which in pure iambics was the only foot admitted. The two most common kinds are the dimeter and the trimeter; as,

I.	II.	III.
Inār-'.sīt æ-'. -flūō- -sūs	Sūs ēt ip-'.sā Rō-'.mā vī-'.ribūs rūt.—Hor.	

1. But in order both to facilitate and dignify the composition, spondees were admitted into the odd places; as,

Fōrti sēquē-'.mūr pēo-'.tōre	Pārs sā-'.nītā-'.tis vēl-'.lē sā-'.nārī fūit.—Seneca.	Hor.
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2. The former of these makes two thirds epitrits, and the latter three.

3. And instead of an iambus and a spondee, their isochronal feet were admitted instead of them, i. e. in the odd places, an anapæst, a dactyl, and sometimes a tribrac; and also in the even places, (except the last, which always requires an iambus,) a tribrac: the scale of the mixed trimeter iambic is, therefore, as follows:

1.	2.	3.	4.	5.
— — —	— — —	— — —	— — —	— — —
— — —	— — —	— — —	— — —	— — —
— — —	— — —	— — —	— — —	— — —

4. The comic poets not only admitted these feet, but also the amphibrac, proceleumatic, and bacchi into the even as well as the odd places, the last always excepted; and almost all the fables of Phædrus are written in the following manner:

Amīt-'.tīt mēri-'.tō prōpri-'.ūm, qui āli-'.ēnum
āp-'.pētīt
Fācīt | pāren-'.tēs bōni-'.tās nōn | nēcēs-'.cītās.

The following are the varieties of the iambic.

1. The iambic monometer, or binarius, consisting of two iambs; as,

Cāvē | mālūm
Tēnē | bōnūm.

2. The iambic dimeter consists of two metres, or four feet, properly

VERSIFICATION.

properly all iambuses; it admits, however, the same variations as the trimeter; as,

Förtü-|nā nōn || mütät | gēnus.—Hor.

Äll ĕgō | vīcis-||sīm rī-|sērō.—Hor.

Prudentius, and several posterior authors, wrote entire poems in this metre.

3. The Archilochian trimeter catalectic, which in the first place has an iambus or spondee, in the second an iambus, in the third a spondee, in the fourth and fifth an iambus with a common syllable; thus,

Trāhūnt-|qūe sic-|cās mā-|chīnæ | cārī-|nas
Nēc prā-|ta cā-|nis āl-|bīcānt | prūī-|nis.—Hor.

4. The Archilochian trimeter catalectic differing from the last in this, that it admits a spondee or iambus in the third place; as,

Mēā | rēnī-|dēt īn domo | lācu-|nar.
Premunt | colum-|nās ūl-|timā | recit-|as.—Hor.

5. The Galliambic trimeter (so named from the Galli or priests of Cybele) acatalectic consists of six feet, of which the first is an anapæst, the second and third an iambus, the fourth and fifth a dactyl, and the sixth an anapæst; as,

Super ¹ al- ta	vec- tus	Ā- tys	ēle- ri	rāte	māria
Phrygium	nemus	cita- to	cupi- dē	pede	tetigit
Adit-	-que opa- ca	fil- vis	redi- mita	lo- ca	Dex.
					Catullus.

This verse has always an iambus in the third verse place, in the fifth a dactyl, and in the sixth a spondee. In the second, however, it admits an anapæst or a tribrac; and in the fourth, a spondee. It is but seldom that other feet are admitted, viz. in the first place a spondee, a cretic, or a proceleusmatic; in the second, a spondee and its isochronal foot, a dactyl; in the fourth an iambus.

6. The Saturnian trimeter hypercatalectic, which has a spondee in the fourth place, and in the other five iambs, with the hypermeter syllable at the close; as,

Dabunt | mālum | Metel-|li Næ-|vio | Pōē-|tæ.
Ter. Maur.

7. The Hipponactic tetrameter catalectic consists of seven iambs and a long syllable, and sometimes admits a spondee into the odd places; as,

Et īn | solen-|ter æf-|tues | velut | minu-|ta mag-|no.
Depren-|sa na-|vis īn | mari | vēsā | nien-|te ven-|to.
Catullus.

8. The tetrameter, or octonarius acatalectic, contains eight feet, of which the last is always an iambus; in the other even places are iambuses or tribracs; in the odd places, iambuses or spondees, or their isochronal foot, tribracs, anapæsts, or dactyls; as,

Suīpi-|cio-|fi ad³ con-|tūme-|liam⁵ om-|niā⁴ æ-
|cipiunt⁷ | māgis.—Terence.

Comic writers admit not only in this, but also in the trimeter and catalectic tetrameter, such feet, in the even places, as are generally used in the odd places, and *vice versa*; the last place excepted, in which there is always an iambus.

Of the Scazon, or Choliambus.

The scazon or choliambus (*i. e.* lame iambic), so named,

because in it the cadence is inverted, or maimed, by the change of feet in the two last places, consists of six feet, of which the fifth is invariably an iambus, and the sixth a spondee, the others being the same as in the iambic trimeter; as,

Ō quīd | sōlū-|tis est | bēā-|tūš | cūrīs?—Catul.

Of the Anacreontic.

The name of the celebrated lyric poet Anacreon forms the distinguishing epithet that characterizes this verse; which is nothing else but the iambic dimeter catalectic. The first foot is an iambus, often a spondee or anapæst, sometimes a tribrac or a cretic; the second and third are iambuses, with an additional syllable at the end; as,

Ὅρῳσζ | φερον-|τιν ι-|λαι.—Anac.

Lēx hāc | dāta est | cādū-|cis.—Prudent.

Hābēt om-|nis hōc | vōlūp-|tas.—Boët.

Of the Trochaic.

The trochaic verse admits, in the odd places, a trochee or a tribrac; but in the last place a trochee only; in the even places, besides the trochee and tribrac, a spondee, a dactyl, or an anapæst, but a proceleusmatic was seldom admissible. It rejects the iambus, as the iambus does the trochee.

The most common trochaic verse is the tetrameter catalectic, which consists of seven feet, (properly all trochees,) followed by a catalectic syllable; as,

Jūssūs | est īn-|ērmīs | Irē : || pūrūs | Irē | jūssūs est.
Catullus.

1. Although iambic and trochaic verses seem opposite in their nature, yet as in each, single short and long syllables alternately recur, the retrenchment of the initial syllable of either, transforms it into the other, *i. e.* the iambic into the trochaic, and the trochaic into the iambic. This circumstance has induced some, particularly the author of the Port Royal grammar, to deny the existence of trochaic verse, and to denominate them accephalous iambs.

2. In the trochaic tetrameter, the cæsura ought to be altogether avoided *after* the fourth foot, which divides the verse into two hemistichs.

3. The comic writers use, in trochaic verse, the same liberties in regard to the choice of the feet as in iambs, planting promiscuously, in the odd places, such feet as others admit in the even places, the seventh foot alone excepted.

Of trochaic verse we have the following species.

1. The trochaic monometer hypercatalectic contains two trochees and the hypermeter syllable; as,

Nullā | jān fi-|des.—Scalig.

2. The trochaic dimeter brachycatalectic contains three trochees; as,

Huc a-|des Ly-|æe.—Scalig.

3. The Euripidean dimeter catalectic consists of three trochees, (in the second place sometimes a spondee or a dactyl,) with a catalectic syllable; as,

Dōnā | cōnfer-|ēntī-|æ.—Prudent.

Vītā | dēcūr-|rēns vī-|ā.—Seneca.

Lēnīs | āc mōdi-|cūm flū-|ens.—Idem.

4. The Alemanic dimeter acatalectic contains four trochees;

VERSIFICATION.

trochees; but it admits, in the second place, a spondee, or its isochronal feet, a dactyl or anapæst; as,

Nōn fā-|cūt quōd | ōptāt | ip̄sē.—Boët.

Ārē | tōrvō | cōmmi-|nāntēs.—Boët.

Cōnfcī-|ōs scēlē-|rīs nē | fāndi.—Buch.

5. The Anacreontic dimeter acatalectic has, in the first place, a pyrric, in the other three trochees; as,

Rēdī-|mita | vere | tellus.—Claud.

6. The Hipponæctic tetrameter acatalectic consists of eight trochees; but it admits in the even places a spondee and its isochronal feet, an anapæst, a dactyl, and sometimes a proceleusmatic, and in the odd places a tribrac; as,

Appe-|tente | vere | primo | cum te-|ner vi-|refcit
| annus.—Scalig.

But the comic writers reserved to themselves the same licence which characterizes their catalectic iambic tetrameters, and introduce all the above-mentioned indiscriminately in any place.

Of the Anapæstic.

Anapæstic verse is so named, because in any place of it an anapæst may be used. It admits, however, so freely the isochronal feet, (the spondee and the dactyl,) that there is frequently not one anapæst in an anapæstic verse.

1. The anapæstic dimeter acatalectic is seldom found in its pure state; as,

Phātrē-|quē grāvēs | dātē fā-|vā fērō.—Seneca.

But the swiftest and most common kind, is that which is named the Aristophanian or Pindaric, which consists of an admixture of dactyls, spondees, and anapæsts, excluding, however, generally the dactyl from the second and fourth places; as,

Quānti | cāsūs | hūmā-|nā rotant :

Mīnus in | pārvīs | fōrtū-|nā fūrit,

Lēviūs-|quē fērit | lēviō-|rā Dēūs.—Seneca.

The pyrric, the trochee, and the tribrac, were occasionally substituted for the anapæst. The young poet must here observe, that those anapæstics are the most harmonious which are without the cæfura; and next to these in elegance are the lines in which each dipodia terminates with a word.

2. The Simonidian dimeter acatalectic consists of an anapæst, a dactyl, or a spondee, in the first place, and in the last an anapæst or spondee; as,

Dēflē-|tē vīrūm

Quō nōn | aliūs

Pōtuit | citiūs

Dīfcērē | cāusās

Ūnā | tāntūm

Pārte au-|ditā

Sēpe ēt | nēutrā.—Seneca.

3. The Parthenic tetrameter catalectic, having in the first and second places either an anapæst or a spondee; in the third only an anapæst; and, lastly, the catalectic syllable; as,

Ūtīnām | mōdō nōf-|trā rēdī-|rent

In mō-|rēs tem-|pōrā prīf-|cos.—Boët.

4. The Archæbulian pentameter acatalectic, (denominated from the inventor Archæbulus,) consists of four anapæsts and a bacchiæ; thus,

Gēnērī | dātūr aūc-|tōr hūic | vētūs Ār-|chæbūlus.

Terent.

Of the greater Alcaic.

The greater Alcaic is an hypercatalectic tetrameter, consisting of an iambic penthemimer, followed by a choriambus and an iambus; as,

Cālēf-|tīs ār-|cīs || nōbīlis in-|cōla.—Prudent.

The cæfura more frequently occurs in the last syllable of a word at the catalectic syllable, as above. In Horace, however, the cæfura is sometimes found in the beginning of a word, sometimes in the middle, and sometimes it is a monosyllable.

In the first place, Horace has *seldom* an iambus, but *generally*, and Prudentius *always*, a spondee.

Of the less Alcaic.

This metre consists of two dactyls, followed by two trochees; and is, therefore, a dactylo-trochaic tetrameter; as,

Lēvīā | pērsōnū-|ērē | fāxā.—Horace.

Of the Pyrric.

In Terentianus and Aufonius we find a pyrric tetrameter catalectic; as,

Pērit | ābit | āvī-|pēdis | ānī-|mūlā | lēpō-|ris.

Terent.

Of the Ionic à Majore.

1. The pure great ionic tetrameter acatalectic consists of four great ionics; as,

Fēcit fātis | ægrūm rābī-|ēm quī dōmū-|īt fēmīnæ.

Scalig.

2. The mixed great ionic, (or Sotadic, from the poet Sotades,) consists of three great ionics and a spondee; as,

Vōcālīā | quædām mēmō-|rānt cōnsōnā | quædām.

Terent.

This kind of verse oftener admits, in the third place, a dichoree instead of a great ionic; thus,

Has cum gemi-|na compede | dedicat ca-|tenas.

Mart.

It admits also, in all the places but the last, the second pæon, the second epitrite, and the dichoree; and in almost every place a long quantity may be resolved into short syllables.

Of the Ionic à Minore.

This verse receives its name from the foot, the ionic à minore, which it employs in every place. It is more usually either a trimeter or tetrameter. Thus Horace, Carm. iii. 12. after two trimeters places a tetrameter; as,

Mīserārūm ēst, | nēque āmōrī | dārē lūdūm

Nēque dūlcī | mālā vinō | lāvērē aut ēx-

ānīmārī | mētūētēs | pātūrā vēr-|hērā lingūæ.

The learned Bentley was, however, of opinion, that this composition of Horace's consists of ten small ionics, without any pause, and that, therefore, the whole of the ode is finished in four decapodizæ of this kind.

VERSIFICATION.

Of Mixt Verses.

Verses are said to be mixt, when two of different kinds are united. Amongst the Latin poets we find the following variety.

1. The Archilochian pentameter consists of two members, the first a dactylic tetrameter *à priori*, the latter is a trochaic dimeter brachycatalectic; as,

Solvitur | acris hi-|ēms grā-|tā vicē || vēris | ēt Fa-|
vōni.—Hor.

2. The Archilochian elegiac; of which the first member is the latter part of an elegiac pentameter, or the Archilochian dactylic penthemimer, (consisting of two dactyls and a syllable,) the second member, the iambic dimeter acatalectic; as,

Scribēre | vēsīcū-|los, || āmō-|re per-|cūssūm | gravi-
Hor.

which is commonly thus divided into two verses:

Scribere vericulos
Amore percussum gravi.

3. The dactylic hexameter acatalectic consists of two divisions of an hexameter, each of three feet, but in such a manner, that in the first place of each there is a spondee, or a trochee, or iambus; in the second and third place of the first division, there is a dactylus; in the second place of the second division a dactyl, and the third or last a spondee. In this kind of verse the last syllable of the first division is accented common; as,

Nām tē | prācīpū-|e in sūis || ūrbī-|būs cōlit | ōra.
Catul.

4. The iamblegiac (the converse of No. 2.), in which the first division is iambic, and the second elegiac; thus,

Nīvēs-|quē dē-|dūcūnt | Jōvēm: || nūnc mārē | nūnc
silīa.—Hor.

Commonly thus divided,

Niveque deducunt Jovem:
Nunc mare nunc silia.

5. The choriambic dactylic; in which the first division is the Glyconic, having generally in the first place a trochee; the second division is the Pherecratic, with a trochee also in the beginning; thus,

Ō Cō|lōnīā quē | cūpīs || pōntē | lūdērē | lōngō.—Catul.

6. The choriambic trochaic; of which the first division is the choriambic dimeter, or two choriambuses: the second, the trochaic dimeter brachycatalectic, of which the first foot is a dactyl, the other two trochees; thus,

Vēstīāt Al-|pīnūs āpēx || ēt rūbē-|ānt prū-|līnā.
Claud.

7. The trochaic dactylic; of which the first division is a trochaic penthemimer; that is, in the first place there is a trochee, in the second a spondee or dactyl, with an additional syllable; and the second part is an adonic; as,

Sī quis | Arctū-|rī | pē-|t | tē-|
Cum rī-|gan-|tē-|rīs | pē-|t | tē-|t.—Boët.

8. The iambic dactylic; of which the first is an iambic penthemimer, consisting of two iambs, with a long syllable, but oftener in the first place a spondee, and sometimes

in the second a tribrach; and in the last part an adonic; thus,

Prōpīn-|quā fum-|mō || cārdīnē | lābi
Mērgāt-|quē sē-|ras || āquōrē | flammās.—Boët.
Stūpēt-|quē subī-|tis || mōbilē | vulgus.

Of Compositions in which the Verse is varied.

From what has been already said, it appears that there are five different species of composition, consisting of a combination of various kinds of verses, and in each there are generally several varieties.

I. Of the Carmen Dicolon Distrophon.

1. The elegiac distich is already explained. See Pentameter, Obf. 5.

2. An hexameter with an Archilochian dactylic penthemimer; as,

Diffugere nives; redeunt jam gramina'campis
Arboribusque comæ.—Hor.

3. An hexameter with an Alcmæan dactylic tetrameter acatalectic; as,

Tunc me discussa liquerunt nocte tenebræ,
Luminibusque prior rediit vigor.—Boët.

4. An hexameter with an Alcmæan dactylic tetrameter catalectic; as,

Laudabunt alii claram Rhōden, aut Metylenen,
Aut Ephesum, bimariisve Corinthis.—Hor.

5. An hexameter with an Alcmæan dactylic tetrameter catalectic; as,

O qui perpetuis orbem moderaris habenis
Placidus bonus exere vultus.—Buchan. Psal. 68.

6. An hexameter with an iambic dimeter acatalectic; as,

Nox erat, et cælo fulgebat luna sereno
Inter minora sidera.—Hor.

7. An hexameter with an iambic trimeter; as,

Altera jam teritur bellis civilibus ætas;
Suis et ipsa Roma viribus ruit.—Hor.

8. An hexameter with an Archilochian elegiac; as,

Horrida tempestas cælum contraxit; et imbres
Niveque deducunt Jovem: nunc mare, nunc silia.—Hor.

9. An Alcmæan dactylic trimeter hypercatalectic, with a Pherecratic dactylic trimeter acatalectic; as,

Omne hominum genus in terris
Simili furtit ab ortu.—Boët.

10. The Alcmæan dactylic tetrameter acatalectic, with an Archilochian dactylic dimeter hypercatalectic; as,

Quam thalamo, tedifque jugalibus
Invida mors rapuit.—Auson. Parent 2.

11. The Alcmæan dactylic tetrameter acatalectic, with an iambic dimeter acatalectic; as,

Sunt etenim pennæ volucres mihi
Quæ celsa conscendant poli.—Boët.

12. The Anacreontic iambic dimeter catalectic, with the Pherecratic dactylic trimeter acatalectic; as,

Quisquis volet perennem
Cantus ponere sedem.—Boët.

VERSIFICATION.

13. The iambic trimeter acatalectic, with the elegiac pentameter; as,

Quamvis fluente dives auri gurgite
Non expleturas cogat avarus opes.—Boët.

14. The iambic trimeter acatalectic, with the iambic dimeter catalectic; as,

Ibis liburnis inter alta navium,
Amice, propugnacula.—Hor.

15. The iambic trimeter acatalectic, with the Archilochian elegiac; as,

Petti, nihil me, sicut antea, juvat
Scribere vericulos, amore percussum gravi.—Hor.

16. The scazon iambic, with an iambic dimeter acatalectic; as,

Verona docti syllabas amat vatis
Marone felix Mantua est.—Martial.

17. The Euripidean trochaic dimeter catalectic, with an iambic dimeter catalectic; as,

Orbis omnes incolæ
A sole Eoo ad Hesperum.—Buchan.

18. The Euripidean trochaic dimeter catalectic, with an Archilochian iambic trimeter catalectic; as,

Non ebur, neque aureum
Mea renidet in domo lacunar.—Hor.

19. The Alcmanian trochaic dimeter acatalectic, with a Pherecratic dactylic trimeter acatalectic; as,

Quos vides federe celfos
Solii culmine reges.—Boët.

20. The trochaic tetrameter catalectic, with an iambic trimeter catalectic; as,

Ore pulchro, et ore muto, scire vis quæ sim?
Imago Rufi rhetoris Pictavici.—Aufon.

21. The Sapphic pentameter acatalectic, with an iambic dimeter acatalectic; as,

Gentis humanæ pater atque custos
Quam sancta majestas tui.—Buchan.

22. The Sapphic pentameter acatalectic, with the Glyconic choriambic trimeter acatalectic; as,

Cum polo Phæbus roseis quadrigis
Lucem spargere cæperit.—Boët.

23. The Phalæcian pentameter acatalectic, with an elegiac pentameter; as,

Quid tantos juvat excitare motus
Et propriâ fatum sollicitare manu.—Boët.

24. The Phalæcian pentameter acatalectic, with an Alcaic dactylic tetrameter acatalectic; as,

Quamvis se Tyrio superbus ostro
Comeret, et niveis lapillis.—Boët.

25. The Phalæcian pentameter acatalectic, with a Sapphic pentameter acatalectic; as,

Hic partus placidâ manens quiete,
Hoc patens unum miseris asylum.—Boët.

26. The Aristophanian choriambic dimeter acatalectic, with an Alcaic epichoriambic tetrameter acatalectic; as,

Lydia dic per omnes
Te deos oro, Sybarin cur properes amando.—Hor.

27. The Glyconic choriambic trimeter acatalectic, with the Alcepiadic choriambic tetrameter acatalectic; as,

Sic te diva potens Cypri,
Sic fratres Helenæ lucida sidera.—Hor.

28. The Alcepiadic choriambic tetrameter acatalectic, with the Pherecratic dactylic trimeter acatalectic; as,

Si quantas rapidis flatibus incitus
Pontus verfat arenas.—Boët.

29. The Alcepiadic choriambic tetrameter acatalectic, with an iambic dimeter acatalectic; as,

Eheu, quæ miseros tramite devios
Abducit ignorantia.—Boët.

30. The dactylic-trochaic septenarius, with an Archilochian iambic trimeter catalectic; as,

Solvitur acris hiems gratâ vice veris et Favoni,
Trahuntque ficcæ machinæ carinas.—Hor.

31. The trochaic dactylic, with an iambic dactylic; as,

Si quis Arcturi sidera nescit
Propinqua fummo cardine labi.—Boët.

II. Of the Carmen Dicolon Tristrophon.

1. Two Aristophanian anapestic tetrameters acatalectic, and an Adonic dimeter acatalectic; as,

Tu quoque in ævum, Crispe, futurum
Mælli venies commemoratus
Munere threni.—Aufon.

2. Two Alcmanian trochaic dimeters acatalectic, and an Euripidean trochaic dimeter catalectic; as,

Incolæ terrarum ab ortu
Solis ultimum ad cubile,
Eia Domino pfallite.—Buchan.

3. Two small Ionic trimeters acatalectic, and a small Ionic tetrameter acatalectic; as,

Miserarum est, neque amore dare ludum
Neque dulci mala vino lavere; aut ex-
animari metuentes patræ verbera lingue.—Hor.

III. Of the Carmen Dicolon Tetragitrophon.

1. Three Anacreontic trochaic dimeters acatalectic, and a choriambic trochaic quinarius; as,

Age cuncta nuptiali
Redimita vere tellus
Celebra toros heriles
Omne nemus cum fluviis, omne canat profundum.—Claud.

2. Three Sapphic pentameters, and an Adonic dimeter; as,

Jam fatis terris nivis, atque diræ
Grandinis mist pater, et rubente
Dextera sacras jaculatas arces
Terruit urbem.—Hor.

VERSIFICATION.

3. Three Glyconic choriambic trimeters acatalectic, and a Pherecratic dactylic trimeter acatalectic; as,

Dianæ fumus in fide
Puellæ, et pueri integri:
Dianam pueri integri,
Puellæque canamus.—Catull.

4. Three Asclepiadic choriambics and a Glyconic; as,

Aurum per medios ire satellites,
Et perumpere amat faxa potentius
Ictu fulmineo. Concidit auguris
Argivi domus ob lucrum.—Hor.

IV. Of the Carmen Tricolon Tristrophon.

1. An hexameter, an Archilochian dactylic dimeter hypercatalectic, and an Iambic dimeter acatalectic; as,

Te regem Dominumque canam, dum lucida volvet
Lucidus astro polus,
Et unicum colum Deum.—Buchan.

2. An hexameter, an Iambic dimeter acatalectic, and an Archilochian dactylic penthemimer; as,

Horrida tempestas cælum contraxit; et imbres
Nivesque deducunt Jovem:
Nunc mare, nunc filiæ. Epod. 13.

Thus Heinſius ſcans the 13th Epod.

3. An Iambic trimeter acatalectic, an Archilochian dactylic penthemimer, with an Iambic dimeter acatalectic; as,

Petti, nihil me, ſicut antea juvat
Scribere verſiculos—
Amore perculum gravi.—Hor.

But others term this a carmen dicolon diſtrophon.

4. A Glyconic choriambic trimeter, an Asclepiadic choriambic tetrameter, and an Alcaic choriambic pentameter; as,

Per quinquennia jam decem
Ni fallor, fuimus; ſeptimus inſuper
Anno cardo rotat, dum fruimur Sole volubili.—Prudent.

V. Of the Carmen Tricolon Tetraſtrophon.

1. Two great alcaics, an Iambic dimeter hypercatalectic, and a ſmall alcaic; as,

Odi profanum vulgus et arceo:
Favete linguis: carmina non prius
Audita, Muſarum ſacerdos,
Virginibus puriſſique canto.—Hor.

2. Two Asclepiadic choriambics, a Pherecratic dactylic trimeter, and a Glyconic choriambic; as,

Prima nocte domum claude, neque in vias
Sub cantu querulæ deſpice tibias:
Et te ſæpe vocanti
Duram, difficilis manẽ.—Hor.

There is likewiſe a third kind formed by a certain arrangement of ode 12. lib. 3. of Horace; for which ſee the Carmen Diocolon Triſtrophon, No. III.

As the literature of Italy and France is allowed to hold ſuch diſtinguiſhed rank and importance in the republic of

letters, it is now incumbent on us to offer ſuch remarks as may tend to develope the nature and principles of

Italian and French Verſification.

I. If the reader will take the trouble to conſult the abbé d'Olivet on the French Language, (edit. of 1807, p. 6—10.) he will find a detail of thoſe who attempted the compoſition of verſe after the principles of the ancient Greeks and Romans. This practice, however, has long ſince become quite obſolete, and ſyllabic quantity has been ſuperſeded, in the ſtructure of verſe, by accentuation, and therefore the definition of modern verſe may be given in the following words.

II. A verſe is an aſſemblage of ſuch a definite number of ſyllables or feet, and comprises ſuch a ſeries of regularly recurring accents, as may be eaſily remarked by the ear; whoſe pleaſing ſucceſſion is regulated by our innate perception of what is muſical and harmonious; and it, therefore, admirably ſerves to delight the ear, to expand the ſoul, to ſolace the heart, to aid the memory, and to adapt the language of diſcourſe to that of ſong and muſic.

The extent or the meaſure of verſe ought to be ſuch, that it may be eaſily and ſenſibly felt by the ear; otherwiſe verſe differs not from proſe. For if the number of feet or ſyllables conſtituting the verſe be ſuch, as to prevent the eaſy recogniſance of the ſame returning ſeries, the ear fails to be delighted, or the memory to be aſſiſted by the recurrence of what it is only fatigue or difficulty to anticipate.

That an intimate analogy exiſts between verſe and muſic is manifeſt to the moſt ſuperficial obſerver. They receive their exiſtence from the ſame laws, and their object is to gratify and delight the ſame organ. Amongſt the ancients, muſic lent its numbers to poetry. It was to the lyre that Apollo, Orpheus, and Homer ſung their verſe. “Ilud quidem certum,” ſays Voſſius, “commem poeſim olim cantatum fuiſſe.” It is, therefore, to muſic that we muſt refer for the baſis, the rationale, of verſification.

It is affirmed too, by the definition juſt given, that verſe admirably ſerves to delight the ear, to expand the ſoul, and to aid the memory. Verſe aims to render the truths and ſentiments expreſſed by its language, amiable and intereſting. And this it effects by the medium of an accurately meaſured and agreeable ſucceſſion of accented and unaccented ſounds, which addreſs the ear; and by the means of ſuch images and ſentiments as delight and affect the ſoul: and the memory is powerfully aſſiſted as well by the one as by the other.

III. To explain the nature of Italian verſe, it is neceſſary to remark, that they divide all the words contained in their language into three claſſes, termed words *trunchi*, *piani*, and *ſdrucioſi*. Words having the accent on the laſt ſyllable are called *trunchi*; as *bontà*, *virtù*, *fà*, *fenti*. Thoſe having the accent on the penultimate are termed *piani*; as *uòmo*, *animàle*, *impéro*, &c. And thoſe that are accented on the antepenultimate are named *ſdrucioſi*; as *dòcile*, *àbito*, *àncora*, &c. The firſt are denominated *trunchi*, (*tronqués coupés*, *cut ſhort*;) becauſe they were originally entire, as *bontàde*, *virtutè*, *facè*, *fentis*. The ſecond claſs, *piani*, receives this diſtinction from the circumſtance of the words compoſing it being pronounced (*pianamente*) more gently than thoſe of the other two claſſes; and the laſt, the *ſdrucioſi* (*coulans* or *gliffans*), becauſe the words of this kind ſeem to flow or ſlide ſwiftly from the antepenultimate ſyllable to the end.

IV. Hence alſo it follows, that a verſe alſo receives its denomination, according as it is terminated by a word of one or the other of theſe kinds: conſequently, verſes termed *trunchi* are terminated by an acute accent; thoſe called *piani*

VERSIFICATION.

piani have a syllable after this accent; and the *sdruccoli* have two; to which some add the *più che sdruccoli*, which have four syllables after the accent.

The last accent decides the nature and the completion of every verse. The ear measures the extent of a verse from its commencement to the last accent. The ear is naturally sensible at the occurrence of this last accent, that the harmony of the verse is accomplished: it is satisfied, and demands nothing more. It is equal, whether the last accented syllable be itself the last syllable, or followed by one, two, or four syllables; for the measure of the verse is comprised between its commencement and this last accented syllable. The syllables remaining after this accent are redundant, with respect to the measure and harmony of the verse. (See Aristotle, *Poet.* cap. 8.) This consideration will render it evident, that if a verse be piano, (which species the Italians select for their regular measure,) it will have the precise number of syllables which the nature of the verse assigns to it; if it be tronco, it will have one less; if *sdrucolo*, one more. Therefore, the verse piano is *acatalectic*; the verse tronco, *catalectic*; the verse *sdrucolo*, *hypercatalectic*.

V. The French in a similar manner divide their words chiefly into two classes, the masculine and the feminine. The masculine (corresponding to those which the Italians term *tronchi*) have the accent on the last syllable; as *vertù*, *nouveau*, *il parlé*, and are generally of the masculine gender. The feminine (analogous to the Italian *piani*) have the accent on the penultimate; as *honôte*, *ils parlèrent*, *il parlé*, *France*, &c.: and these are so called, because that nouns of this description are generally terminated by the *e* mute, a characteristic of the feminine gender. The words called *sdrucoli* by the Italians (*glissant* by the French) can only be found in such phrases as *garde-le*, *dites-le*, *montre-le*, &c.

The same epithets are also applied to their verse, according to the characteristic of the word which terminates it.

These preliminary observations, well understood, will reconcile the anomalies which, until the present, have produced an apparent difference between the nature of the Italian and that of the French versification. For since the Italians select the verse piano for their common measure, and the French the masculine (or tronco), which, between the commencement of the verse and the accented syllable, will contain one syllable less than the former; it follows that the Italian verse will always exceed the French verse of the same kind by one syllable. For example, the Italian hendecasyllable piano has eleven syllables, and the French hendecasyllable masculine (tronco) ten; and the French hendecasyllable piano will have the same, for they do not reckon, as the Italians, the redundant syllable.

The only simple feet admitted in the composition of French and Italian verse are the trochee, the iamb, the dactyl, and the anapaest. It is unnecessary to repeat here the definition we have already given of a metre and a rhythm, in a former part of this article. We shall, therefore, now proceed to state all the possible combinations that can result from these four feet in the composition of a hemistich, which is, by a late French writer, considered as a simple or primitive verse.

An iambic hemistich may consist of three, four, or five feet; so may the trochaic, the anapaestic, or the dactylic hemistich: therefore, from hence we have twelve varieties, or all the possible combinations of the hemistich. For each of the four feet cannot produce more than three varieties, the smallest of which cannot consist of less than three, nor the greatest of more than five feet. Hence, then, we have

at once the *minimum* and *maximum* of their extent. At the former, we assert that an hemistich cannot consist of less than three feet. We have already remarked, that the extent or measure of a verse ought to be such as to admit of its being easily and sensibly remarked by the ear, otherwise it is not verse, but prose. And every verse or hemistich contains more or less of the rhythmical order; and, as we have already observed, a rhythm is a series of similar feet continued until the ear perceives the order of the series, and is able to anticipate the peculiar nature and recurrence of the verse. But one foot cannot be a series, therefore a foot cannot be a hemistich. We have already affirmed, too, that the succession of two similar feet constitute a metre; and a metre is the commencement of a series. But the commencement of a series is not the series itself: the series supposes a continuation; therefore, the succession of two feet, or a metre, cannot be a hemistich or primitive verse. For the union of two feet form a metre; but a metre is not a rhythm; therefore, two feet are not a hemistich. But if to two similar feet succeed another of the same nature, then the series is decided. An hemistich, then, cannot have less than three feet. What is smaller than this is only the element of an hemistich. Let us further inquire, in what consists the harmony of a verse? Doubtless in the regular order of the accents in its rhythm or series. But one foot has only one accent; therefore, it has no harmony, and cannot be an hemistich or radical verse. So we reply concerning two feet; they are not an order or series, but only the commencement of a series. We may, with M. J. J. Sulzer, illustrate these remarks by repeating the following series, *un deux, un deux, un deux, un deux, un deux*, &c. Here we can easily perceive the rhythmical order. But no one can suppose that the first foot, *un deux*, is an order or series; nor in the first two feet, *un deux, un deux*, do we perceive more than the commencement of a series. But if we include the third, *un deux, un deux, un deux*, we see at once the order, the series, the rhythm, and, lastly, the metrical hemistich precisely decided. Three feet, then, is the smallest number which can constitute the hemistich or primitive verse.

In the same manner we may determine the maximum of the hemistich. We have said that it cannot exceed five feet; for the number must be such as may be distinctly remarked by the ear. Suppose, for example, an hemistich of six feet; since it may be divided into two equal parts of three feet each, and since three feet form an hemistich, it is evident that the line of six feet is not one but two hemistichs, *i. e.* a verse. But the hemistich of five feet is incapable of being thus divided. If it be, let the one part consist of three feet, which, as we have just proved, is an hemistich; the other of two feet, which is only a metre; and a metre, as we have just observed, is not an hemistich; consequently, the line of five feet is an hemistich or primitive verse. And because a verse of six feet is composed of two hemistichs, the line of five feet is the maximum or greatest hemistich or primitive verse; and lines consisting of more than this, after the redundant syllables are cut off, contain two or more hemistichs of a verse.

VI. Some writers on versification are in the habit, however, of treating on verse, which they term *disyllabic*, *trisyllabic*, *quadrisyllabic*, the *quinarius*, and the *senarius*. But these are not verses, but only the elements of a regular and complete verse. We shall, however, in conformity to their custom, and to omit nothing essential, especially in what must be admitted to form the basis of this art, proceed to treat on the elements here enumerated.

1. The disyllabic member cannot have more than one accent.

VERSIFICATION.

cent. If it is *tronco*, it has but one syllable (see obs. 3. and 4. supra); if *piano*, two; if *sdruc-ciolo*, three; as,

Tronco	-	-	-	Là.
Piano	-	-	-	Làffo!
Sdruc-ciolo	-	-	-	Pénfaci.

2. The *trifyllabic* member, if it has but one word, has only one accent; if it consist of two words, it has two accents. If it is *tronco*, it has only two syllables; if *piano*, three; if *sdruc-ciolo*, four; as,

Tronco	-	-	-	Potrà
				Chi fù ² .
Piano	-	-	-	Potrànne
				Si disse.
Sdruc-ciolo	-	-	-	Risvegliati ³
				No, dissero ⁴ .

3. The *quadryllabic* member *tronco* has only three syllables; *piano*, four; *sdruc-ciolo*, five; as,

Tronco	-	-	-	Io men vò ³ .
Piano	-	-	-	Belle rose ⁴ .
				Porporine ⁵ .
Sdruc-ciolo	-	-	-	I di volano ⁶ .

We may here remark, that the Italians call that the accent (*commun*), which is placed at the end of each verse, and which accomplishes the measure of the same. They assign this epithet to it, in consequence of its being essential and *common* to all verse. And this accent is placed on the last syllable, if the verse is *tronco*; on the penultimate, if *piano*; on the antepenultimate, if *sdruc-ciolo*. Now, in the above quadryllabics, we may observe that this accent uniformly falls on the third syllable.

3. The *quinarius*, besides the common accent, has also an accent on the second syllable, sometimes on the first, and not unfrequently it has only the common accent. It contains four, five, or six syllables, according to the laws already prescribed; as,

Tronco	-	-	Porgilo a mè ⁴ .
Piano	-	-	Terli deh fòrgi ⁵ .
Sdruc-ciolo	-	-	Ah non ti pèrdere ⁶ .

The *disyllabic* member, when it is *tronco*, does not contain even the image of a foot; but if it is *piano*, it is a trochee, as *laffo*; and if it is *sdruc-ciolo*, it is a dactyl, as *pénfaci*. The *trifyllabic*, of whatever kind it be, can have only an iamb, as *potrà*, *potrànne*, *risvegliati*. Example:

Sè cèrca,	S'io vo'
Se dice:	"Colla forte
L'amico	Cangiando
Dov'è	Sembianza;
L'amico	Virtù
"Infelice	"L'incostanza
Rispondi	Diventa
Mori	Per me, &c.—Metaft.

The *quadryllabic* is a monometer, consisting of two trochees, which form a metre; and two of these united form the regular *octonarius*.

1. Dāmīgēllā
Tutta bella,
Versa versa — quel bel vīno
Fa che cada
La ruggiada
Distillata — di rubigo.

2. O' nel feno
Rio veneno
Che visparfe
Amor profondo,
Ma gittarlo
E lasciarlo
Vo' formarlo in-
questo fondo.

The *quinarius* is an iambic monometer, and consequently not a rhythm. Example:

Oh quāto e facile	Si scuote il laccio,
Nella catena	Ma non si spezza,
D'amor languir!	E amor si vendica
Quanto e difficile	Con piu fierrezza
Poterne ufcir!	Del folle ardir.—Zeno.

VII. Every species of French verse is the same as the Italian. In each we discover the same number of syllables, the same accents, the same caesura, the same feet, the same harmony. To evince this, we shall now state, in the same order as we have done for the Italian verse, the following elements or members of a verse.

1. The *disyllabic* Tronco - Èst.
Piano - Ètre.
Sdruc-ciolo - Dønnē.
Dønnē-lē.
2. The *trifyllabic* Tronco - Sērā².
Piano - Facile³.
Sdruc-ciolo - Rēgārdē-lē⁴.
3. *Quadryllabic* Tronco - Cōmbāttēz³.
Piano - Cōnsidērē⁴.
Sdruc-ciolo - Cōnsidērē-lē⁵.

VIII. The *Senarius*.

The *senarius* is an anapestic monometer catalectic, having only an iamb for the first foot. Besides the accent *commun*, (which is on the fifth syllable,) it generally requires an accent on the second syllable; though sometimes the accented syllables are the first, third, and fifth. It contains five, six, or seven syllables, according as the verse is *tronco*, *piano*, or *sdruc-ciolo*; as,

Tronco	-	Ufate pietà ⁵ .
Piano	-	Begli altri d'amòre ⁶ .
Sdruc-ciolo	-	Dà qui tu quel calice ⁷ .

The French, according to the rule which we have already explained, call this verse of five syllables. The difference is merely nominal: the verses are virtually the same.

Tronco	-	Toujours cē zéphir.
Piano	-	L'amōur à dēs chāmes.
Sdruc-ciolo	-	(no example exists).

IX. The *Septenarius*.

If to each of the monometers, of which we have just treated, we add one, two, or three other feet, these monometers become, according to the principles we have prescribed, regular and legitimate verse.

The *septenarius* is composed of iambic feet, and contains six, seven, or eight syllables, according as the verse is *tronco*, *piano*, or *sdruc-ciolo*; as,

Tronco	-	Che vino è quel colà ⁷ ?
Piano	-	In un gravólo affanno ⁸ .
Sdruc-ciolo	-	O liquor dólce e amābile ⁹ .

This verse, besides the *common* accent, which constantly falls

VERSIFICATION.

falls on the sixth syllable, requires an accent on the fourth. Often it has the accent on the second and fourth, and then the verse is exceedingly harmonious. It is stated, however, to be a peculiar convenience of this verse, that it does not *absolutely* require any other accent than the accent common; but since the regular septenarius consists of three iambic feet, we discover the evident reason that it should have the acute accent on the second, the fourth, and sixth; as,

u 2 3 4 u 6

This verse is of extraordinary antiquity in Italian versification, as appears from the verse of Messer Ruggeri, quoted by Triflino.

The French, who, as we have often remarked, measure their verse by the masculine (tronco), call the septenarius of six syllables. In reality it is only three iambic feet, the seventh syllable is redundant. With regard to the accents, it is subject to the same laws as the Italian septenarius.

Tronco - A foi-même odieux ⁶.
Piano - Le fût de tout s'irrite.

X. The Alexandrine Verse.

Two septenarian verses united, form what the Italians call an Alexandrine or Martellian verse.

These verses, called by the Italians Alessandrini, are an imitation of the French Alexandrine, which the French themselves, as Fauchet and Pasquier observe, have derived from an ancient rhapsody which celebrated the life of Alexander the Great. The Italians, however, also call them Martelliani, from James Martelli, a learned and ingenious author, who, in the composition of his tragic verse, successfully imitated the French Alexandrine.

Although this verse consists of fourteen syllables, it is not absolutely necessary to divide it into two exact sevens, with all the rules which are essential to each septenary. The rhythm is iambic to the end of the verse. But in proportion as we neglect the accents, the verse becomes more grave and majestic, and more free and harmonious in proportion as we pay strict attention to the rules prescribed for the septenarius.

There is not a literary Italian that is not perfectly aware that the Italian and French Alexandrine are the same. The most insensible ear may perceive the same percussion of the accent, the same number, the same harmony.

This verse, according to the different position of the accent, preserves in French as well as in Italian a character of dignity which equals the Latin hexameter. And the French have made choice of the Alexandrine to treat on epic and tragic subjects. Neither were they dissuaded from this because this verse was stigmatized by the epithet "*commun*," in consequence of the shepherds, the vintagers, and husbandmen having availed themselves of its peculiar facilities for their poetic effusions.

XI. Octonarius.

The octonarius consists of four trochaic feet. Besides the common accent, which is uniformly on the seventh syllable, it requires the accent on the third. But if the accent should fall both on the third and fifth, still more if on the first, third, and fifth, the harmony will become more sensible.

Tronco - Viva Bacco il nostro re.
Piano - Musa, amor portò novella.
Sdruciole - L'acqua agghiaccia i corpi, e gli animi.

VOL. XXXVII.

Loretto Mattei quotes some verses from Rospigliosi, accentuated on the second syllable; but this kind of verse has few admirers; it is scarcely discernible from prose.

The octonarius is generally employed for lyric poems, and airs adapted to music, and for the *canzonette*. But it is every where distinguished by that characteristic of gravity which renders it equally adapted to sublime and elevated subjects.

Since the octonarius contains two monometers of four syllables each, (see the quadrisyllabic member,) it may very properly be divided by the cæsura into two equal parts.

This verse amongst the French, for the reason already assigned, is said to be of seven syllables. It is subject to the same laws of accentuation as the Italian. The accent, however, on the fifth, amongst the French, is sometimes omitted, but never that on the third.

Tronco - Belle ¹nymph tes ³attraits ⁷.
 Que ¹langueurs, que ³foins ⁵jaloux.
Piano - Viens m'¹aider a ³fuir les ⁵vices.

XII. Novenarius.

Some are of opinion that the Italian novenarius does not possess sufficient harmony for poetic composition. And l'Abbé Quadrio declares that this species of verse ought not to be admitted in Italian poetry. On the other hand, Joseph Gaetan Salvatori affirms that verse of this kind is by no means defective in point of harmony; and many poets of distinguished rank have employed this species of rhythm with success. Example:

Tronco - Certo che vinto a morte andrò ⁸.
Piano - Tormento crudele tiranno ⁹.
Sdruciole - Vedi, vedi come sen fuggono ¹⁰.

This verse, as it respects the accent, is subdivided into four varieties. The first, besides the common accent, has the accent on the third and on the fifth syllable.

The celebrated Sacchi is inclined to suppose that this kind of verse is composed of two iambic quinaris, of which the former is acephalous, so as to give nine syllables in all.

The second variety has the accent on the third and sixth syllables.

The third variety has, besides that accent which is common to every species, the fourth syllable only accentuated.

This variety is an iambic dimeter hypercatalectic. It consists of two quinaris, of which the first is tronco: or if it is piano, it is subject to the elision consequent on the following hemistich beginning with a vowel. It admits also the accent on the second and sixth syllables, as well as on the fourth; and then the rhythm becomes purely iambic, and the harmony more complete.

The fourth variety, besides the common accent, has the second and fifth syllables accentuated.

This variety is an anapaestic trimeter, having the first foot supplied by an iamb.

XIII. The Decasyllabic Verse.

The decasyllabic sometimes consists of two quinaris, which form a cæsura at the point of their union.

Since this verse is composed of two quinaris, it is necessarily subject to the same laws. See § VI. 3.

Sometimes it is not composed of two quinaris, nor has it any regular cæsura.

This species of verse is anapaestic trimeter, either catalectic,

O

lectic,

VERSIFICATION.

leſtic, acataleſtic, or hypercataleſtic, according as it is tronco, piano, or ſdruciolò; as,

Tronco - Contra morte non val freſca età.
Piano - Vaſto incendio ſe bolle riſtretto.
Sdruciolò I bon vini fon quelli che acquietano.¹⁰

There is another variety of the decasyllabic verſe, of which Chiabrera has given us an example. It has the accent on the firſt, the third, the fifth, the ſeventh, and on the ninth ſyllables.

The rhythm of this verſe is eſſentially different from either of the preceding; it conſiſts of five trochaic feet.

XIV. The Hendecasyllabic Verſe.

The hendecasyllabic verſe is alſo called *heroic*; for it is that rhythm* which, from its harmony, its grave and maſtetic movement, and the variety of which it is ſuſceptible, offers to the poet peculiar advantages for the expreſſion of ſublime and elevated ſubjects. It is, in common with every other, capable of three kinds; as,

Tronco - Monte-pulciano d'ogni vino è ib re¹⁰.
Piano - T'Alzò natura in verſo al ciel la fronte¹¹.
Sdruciolò Celebri l'acqua, e ſe la bea pur Pindaro¹².
Redi.

Tronco - Le printems fuit, hàtons-nous d'être heureux.
Piano - Qui n'en ferait en effet idolâtre.—Petr.

This verſe is generally accented on the ſecond, the fourth, the ſixth, the eighth, and on the tenth ſyllable, which laſt is the accent common, or invariable.

And the verſe thus accentuated is the moſt harmonious: but as an unvaried recurrence of the ſame luxuriant rhythm would become eventually monotonous, it admits of the following varieties.

1. It is ſufficient, if, beſides the common accent, the ſixth ſyllable ſhould be accented.

2. The ſecond variety has, independently of the common accent, the fourth and eighth ſyllables only accented.

3. The third variety, beſides the common accent, has only the fourth and the ſeventh ſyllables accented.

With regard to the *apparent* difference in the number of ſyllables between the Italian and French hendecasyllable, the reader is referred to what has been already obſerved at § V.

Concerning the Intermixture of different Verſe.—Whatever harmony may ariſe from the ſucceſſion of verſes of the ſame kind, they often acquire a new excellency when the ſeries is compoſed of an *appropriate* admixture of verſe of a different rhyme.

It may now be reaſonably inquired, why is the intermixture of different verſe productive, at one time, of an agreeable effect, and at another of the contrary? In anſwer to this inquiry it is here only neceſſary to remark, that we have already ſaid that the hendecasyllabic verſe and the ſeptenarius, together with the two members of which the hendecasyllable is compoſed, the ſeptenarius and the quinarus, are of the iambic rhythm. Hence we clearly perceive, that the tranſition from the hendecasyllable to the ſeptenarius, and

vice verſà, from the latter to the former, preſerves the ſame rhythmical order and movement. And the ſame principle will ſanction the intermixture of an octonarius and a quadriſyllabic verſe, ſince the rhythm of each is trochaic. It often happens however, that notwithſtanding the exact identity of the rhythm in the alternation of different verſes, the effect is not agreeable. But this only happens when we connect verſes, for example, of four feet, with others of five or three feet. And here it is evident, that although a verſe of five feet and another of four are of the ſame rhythm, yet they preſent an eſſential difference. The verſe of five feet is indiviſible, but that of four feet, which is an even number, may be divided into two equal parts, which are in rhythmical quantity perfectly equivalent and reciprocal to each other. The impreſſion, therefore, reſulting from this verſe, is different from that of the verſe which can only preſent to the ear the rhythm of two unequal parts. And here we may add, once for all, that all which we have ſaid concerning the combination of verſe of the ſame or of different kinds in the Italian language, is perfectly applicable to that of the French alſo.

I. Of the Sonnet.

The regular ſonnet contains fourteen hendecasyllabic verſes, divided by the rhythm into four ſtanças, or ſtrophes, of which two are tetraſtrophes, and two triſtrophes.

The ſonnet, which the Italians call '*colla coda*, '*caudato*,' receives this appellation from the circumſtance of its having, after the fourteenth verſe, a train of one or more ſtanças of three verſes each, or triſtrophes. The fifteenth verſe muſt in this caſe be a ſeptenarius, and rhyme with the fourteenth.

Sonnets may be alſo compoſed of the verſe octonarius, ſeptenarius, or quinarus.

The two rhymes of the tetraſtrophe ſtança are ſuſceptible of four different combinations, according to the following table. Any of which, but legitimately no other, the poet may adopt freely at his choice.

1ſt. Tetraſtrophe: rhyme cloſed (*ſerée*).

1 - - - ano	5 - - - ano	} moſt in uſe.
2 - - - ore	6 - - - ore	
3 - - - ore	7 - - - ore	
4 - - - ano	8 - - - ano	

2d. Tetraſtrophe: rhyme alternate.

1 - - - alto	5 - - - alto	} 1
2 - - - era	6 - - - era	
3 - - - alto	7 - - - alto	
4 - - - era	8 - - - era	

3d. Tetraſtrophe: rhyme reciprocally alternate.

1 - - - idi	5 - - - ezzo
2 - - - ezzo	6 - - - idi
3 - - - idi	7 - - - ezzo
4 - - - ezzo	8 - - - idi

4th. Tetraſtrophe: rhyme alternate and cloſed.

1 - - - ente	5 - - - eme
2 - - - eme	6 - - - ente
3 - - - ente	7 - - - eme
4 - - - eme	8 - - - ente

The rhyme of the triſtrophe may have, at the option of the poet, the following varieties.

1ſt. Triſtrophe: rhyme connected (*enchainée*).

1 - - - ice	4 - - - ante	} moſt in uſe.
2 - - - ante	5 - - - ice	
3 - - - ice	6 - - - ante	

2d. Triſtrophe:

* Rhythm and rhyme are two diſtinct things: the former is defined in the preceding pages of this article, it is derived from *ῥυθμός*; the latter is only the correſpondence of the laſt ſound of one verſe, to the laſt ſound of the next. And on account of this material diſtinction, not generally underſtood, even by *English* lexicographers, the recent writers on this ſubject thus orthographically diſtinguiſh the former,—rhythm.

VERSIFICATION.

2d. Tristrophon: rhyme tertian (*atterzata*).

1 - - etto	4 - - etto
2 - - ente	5 - - ente
3 - - ogno	6 - - ogno

Or,

1 - - etto	4 - - ente
2 - - ente	5 - - etto
3 - - ogno	6 - - ogno

3d. Tristrophon: rhyme duplex.

1 - - ate	4 - - oria	} seldom used.
2 - - oria	5 - - ate	
3 - - oria	6 - - ate	

There is no essential difference between the Italian and French sonnet. In addition, however, to the above, they also employ the following rhymes.

4th. Tristrophon: rhyme tertian (à la manière Français).

1 - - use	4 - - eme
2 - - use	5 - - eme
3 - - net	6 - - net

Or,

1 - - eux	4 - - crit
2 - - eux	5 - - erre
3 - - erre	6 - - crit

We may, in the reading of poets, discover other methods; but every series differing from the above, is pronounced, by the connoisseurs, to be not "*ad unguem*."

II. Of the Ode.—*Canzone, or Chanson.*

The ode is a composition formed of an indefinite number of stanzas, which, with respect to the rhyme and the measure of the verse, are uniformly the same to the conclusion of the poem. We may except, however, those concluding stanzas which have been called *congé* (*congedo, or commiato*), as if the poet, by this concluding strophe, shorter than the rest, took his leave of the poem, or person to whom it is addressed. Our limits will not admit of examples.

III. Of the Canzonetta.

The canzonetta (*chanfonette, or the Anacreontic ode*) is an imitation of the characteristic, the simplicity, and the artless style of the odes of Anacreon. Of this species of composition, the celebrated Tasso was the inventor; but the praise is due to Chiabrera for that acmé of perfection to which he has advanced it.

The canzonetta differs from the ode in the following particulars.

1. Generally, though not always, the stanzas of which they are composed are less, and contain a smaller number of verses.

2. The stanzas consist of small verses of different kinds.

3. They are not adapted to that elevated and sublime style which the ode requires. The characteristic of their style should be simple, artless, and familiar; and they are, therefore, very well suited to what is of an agreeable and humorous nature, to fables, and to allegories, of which the fable or moral is usually given at the close.

The number of stanzas of which the canzonetta consists is indefinite, at the discretion of the poet. The strophes are usually composed of four or six verses, in their measure either mixed or uniform, but always agreeing together by the *closed* or *alternate* rhyme. (*Rime serrée ou alternée.*) See the table of rhyme under the *Sonnet*. Sometimes the stanzas contain ten verses, and then, as well as when they have

six verses, the two first and the two last should rhyme together.

When the strophe contains verses tronchi, piani, and sdruccioli, we may perceive a disagreement in the rhyme. But of whatever nature the first stanza may be, the subsequent stanzas should strictly conform thereto. In lyric poems, on the contrary, we are at liberty to vary the stanza, *pro re nata*, as circumstances and the taste and discretion of the poet may require.

IV. The Sapphic Ode.

This ode, of which the Grecian poetess Sappho was the inventress, is, when regular, composed of several tetrastrophons, of which the three first verses are hendecasyllabic, the last a quinarius. Frequently, however, the septenarius is substituted for the quinarius; in which case the strophe has less elegance, and less conformity to the Grecian original, of which they should be an exact imitation. The rhyme most employed is the *alternate* or the *closed* (*alternée* or *serrée*).

Among the several forms of the French ode, the following is much admired. The reader must be content with a single stanza for illustration; our limits forbid more.

Puissantes Dées, qui peupler cette rive,
Préparer, leur dirais-je, une oreille attentive
Au bruit de mes concerts.
Puissent-ils amollir vos superbes courages
En faveur d'un Héros digne des premiers âges
Du naissant Univers!—Rouffseau.

We are compelled, for want of appropriate epithets, to borrow the following terms with which the Italians and the French denominate certain strophes of their composition.

Terza Rima.—This species of composition contains several tristrophons, each consisting of three hendecasyllabic verses. The rhyme is connected together in such a manner, that the first verse of each stanza agrees with the third, and the second rhymes with the first and the third of the stanza following. And this order is preserved to the end.

There is no example of this species of composition in the French language, for, by a transposition of the verses, they convert the tristrophon into the tetrastrophon, and then call the *terza rima* the

Quarta Rima.—By the quarta rima, that species of poem is denominated which contains several tetrastrophons, of which each verse is an hendecasyllabic in Italian, and an Alexandrine in French; the rhyme is either *serrée* or *alternée*. See table of rhyme under *Sonnet*, *supra*.

Sesta Rima et Ottava Rima.—Compositions of this kind receive their name from the number of verses of which their stanzas are composed; the former of six, the latter of eight. The two last verses agree together in rhyme (*plate*) i. e. *unmixed*; the rest in rhyme (*alternée*) *alternate*; see table, *supra*.

The French do not adhere to any regular standard in the composition of the *sesta rima*, which they call *les sixains, ou les stances de six vers*.

But with regard to the "*Ottava rima*" of the Italians, and the "*Stances de huit vers*" of the French, there is, both as it respects the rhyme and the nature of the verse, which in either case is hendecasyllabic, a perfect similarity. This species of composition has prevailed much since the time of Thibaut, who lived a hundred years before Boccace.

V. The Madrigal and the Epigram.

The madrigal is a small poem consisting generally of not less than six nor more than twelve verses, which are either octonarii, or more commonly septenarii or hendecasyllabic.

VERSIFICATION.

The number of verses, however, of which the madrigal consisted, was amongst the poets of the sixteenth century arbitrary. The rhyme is yet *ad libitum*; sometimes only the two last verses rhyme together.

The character of the madrigal is not essentially different from the epigram of the Latins. It is contradistinguished, however, by its style, which, though simple, is so elevated as to become equally unadapted to the satire, or to humorous and trivial subjects.

The epigram is a small poem consisting of an indefinite number and kind of verses, and terminating in a point of wit. Generally, however, it contains not less than two nor more than eight verses, which are frequently hendecasyllabic, and rhyme together by couplets.

VI. The Dithyramb.

The dithyramb is a species of poem composed in honour of Bacchus; or, in fact, it is any poem written with a degree of unusual wildness and enthusiasm. It employs verse of every kind, piano, tronco, sdrucciolo, great and small, with or without rhyme, and stanzas of any magnitude. And the whole is written with that liberty and freedom from restraint, as indicates it to be the indigenous production of the devotee of Bacchus. Its style at one time is elevated, at another low. The metaphors it employs are bold; its phraseology excentric and whimsical, and words are admitted either purely exotic, or oddly compounded of others; as *ebriestoso*, *egidarmato*, *capribarbicornipede*, &c. The reader will find many examples of the Italian dithyrambic in the works of Crecimbeni, Quadrio, and Andrucci, and in the "*Bacco in Toscana*" of Francesco Redi.

VII. The Idyl.

This species of poem consists of an indefinite number of septenarii or hendecasyllabic verses, and free from all restraint as it respects the rhyme. The word idyl (idillio) is derived from *ιδύλλιον*, the diminutive of *ιδος*, a figure or representation; and the idyl, in fact, is nothing but the painting or image of some natural object.

There is no difference between the Italian and the French idyl.

The Cæsura.

We have now to notice what is peculiar to the cæsura in the French and Italian versification. Amongst the moderns, it is said to be that pause between one word and another, which divides the verse into two equal or unequal parts. A verse is said to be so much the more harmonious, in proportion as it abounds in cæsurs which give redoubled energy to the accented syllables. The use and design of this pause, Boileau very appositely mentions in the following lines.

Que toujours dans vos vers,—les sens coupant les mots,
Suspende l'hémistiche,—en marque le repos.

In the hendecasyllabic verse, the cæsura should occur between the fifth and sixth syllable, and between the ninth and the tenth, or between the seventh and the eighth only; as in the following verses of Ariosto.

Il collo è tondo il petto colmo e largo.
Da render molle ogni cor rozzo, e scabro
Quindi escon le cartelle-paulette.

By adverting to the principles of accentuation already explained, we shall discover that when the hendecasyllabic is accented on the fourth and eighth syllables, it ought to have

the cæsural pause between the fifth and the sixth, and between the ninth and the tenth syllables. And when the principal accent is on the sixth only, it ought to have the cæsura between the seventh and the eighth syllables; *i. e.* when the verse is *piano*. But if the words on which the principal accents fall (*i. e.* *accent commun*) are *trunchi*, the cæsura must follow immediately after each accented syllable.

We may, from these observations, easily infer what are the most suitable places for the cæsura in every other verse; as the cæsura ought to take place immediately after the principal or characteristic accent (*accent commun*) of the entire verse, the hemistich, or of any constituent member.

To the above remarks, which are perfectly applicable to the versification of the French language, we may add the following. If at the place of the cæsura, the preceding word be feminine, (*i. e.* end with *e* mute), the following word ought to commence with an initial vowel, in order that the elision or synalæpha may take place. For example, in the hendecasyllabic verse, which consists of a quinarius and a septenarius, when the former ends with an *e* mute, the latter must commence with a vowel; otherwise the verse will have a syllable too much, since a quinarius and a septenarius conjointly make twelve syllables.

English Versification.

All the different feet used in English versification are reducible to eight kinds, four of two and four of three syllables; as,

Disyllabic Feet.

1. An iambus, —; as, bêtrâys, consist.
2. A trochee, —; as, êxtôrt, gûltlefs.
3. A spondee, —; as, the pâle mōon.
4. A pyrric, —; as, òn the tall tree.

Trisyllabic Feet.

5. An anapæst, —; as, cōntrâvêne, acquiesce.
6. A dactyl, —; as, lâbôurèr, pôssible.
7. An amphibrac, —; as, delîghtfûl, domêstic.
8. A tribrach, —; as, numérâblè, cōnquerable.

Those feet of which verse may be wholly or chiefly formed are termed *principal* feet. Such are the trochee, iambus, dactyl, and anapæst. The others are denominated *secondary* feet, because their use in English versification, is merely to diversify the rhythm and to improve the verse.

I. Iambic Verse.

1. *Iambic Monometer Catalectic*.—This verse, which is the shortest form of the English iambic, consists of an iambus and an additional short syllable. It is only found in stanzas: we have no poem, (or *monocolon*,) formed exclusively of this measure.

Åfsâilling,
Åvâilling,
Relênting,
Rêpênting.

2. *Iambic Monometer Acatalectic*.—This verse, which is also too short to be continued through any great number of lines, contains an iambic metre, or two iambic feet; as,

With râptûr'd ears
Thè mōnârch hears.—Dryden.

3. *Iambic Monometer Hypercatalectic*.—This verse is the same as the former, with an additional short syllable, as,

Ûpōn à mōuntâin
Beside à fountâin,

VERSIFICATION.

4. *An Iambic Dimeter Brachycatalectic.*—This form consists of three iambic feet; being one foot less than the iambic dimeter; as,

Though in the ütmost peak
A while we do remain,
Amongst the mountains bleak,
Expos'd to fleet and rain,
Nor sport our hours shall break,
To exercise our vein.—Drayton.

5. *An Iambic Dimeter Catalectic.*—This verse is only one syllable less than the iambic dimeter; as,

Öür heärts nö löngër länguifh.

6. *An Iambic Dimeter Acatalectic.*—This form contains exactly, without redundancy or defect, two iambic metres, or four feet; as,

Thē spaciöus firmämēt öñ hīgh
With all the blue ethereal fky
And spangled heav'ns, a shining frame,
Their great original proclaim.—Addison.

7. *An Iambic Trimeter Brachycatalectic.*—This species of verse contains one foot, (or two syllables,) less than the iambic trimeter; as,

Dēfēr nôt till tō mörröw tō bē wifē;
To-morrow's fun to thee may never rise.

The cobwebb'd cottage with its ragged wall
Of mould'ring mud is royalty to me!
The spider's most attenuated thread
Is cord, is cable to man's tender tie
On earthly bliss; it breaks at every breeze.—Young.

This is also termed the heroic measure. In its pure or unmixed state it consists of five iambic feet only. But here we may remark, once for all, that not only this, but most of the English common measures admit, for the sake of variety, of the occasional introduction of other feet, as the trochee, dactyl, anapæst, &c.

8. *An Iambic Trimeter Acatalectic.*—This verse is commonly called the Alexandrine. It consists of six iambic feet; as,

Ĕspēcial audiēce crāves, öffēndēd with thē thröng.
Drayton.

The Alexandrine verse is now used only to diversify heroic lines; as,

Thē sēas shall wāste, thē skies in smöke dēcāy.
Rocks fall to dust, and mountains melt away;
But fix'd his word, his saving pow'r remains;
Thy realm för ever lasts, thy öwn Mējesty reigns.

9. *An Iambic Tetrameter Brachycatalectic.*—This last iambic form consists of one foot less than four iambic metres, i. e. of seven iambuses; as,

Änd äs thē mīnd öf süch ä män, thät häth ä löng wāy göne,
Änd eithēr knöwēth nôt his wāy, ör ölse wöuld lēt älöne.

Chapman.

But it is more usual now to break this verse into a lyric measure, or into two verses, consisting alternately of eight and six syllables; as,

Whēn in thē slipp'ry päths öf yóuth,
With hēddlēs stēps, I rān,
Thine arm unseē, convey'd me safe,
And led me up to man.—Addison.

II. Trochaic Verse.

1. *A Trochaic Monometer Catalectic.*—This, which is the shortest trochaic verse in the English language, consists of one trochee and a long syllable; as,

Öthēr jöys
Äre бүt töys.—Walton.

2. *A Trochaic Monometer Acatalectic.*—This verse consists of one trochaic metre, or two trochaic feet; but both this and the last verse are too brief to form a monocolon; as,

In thē gräsŷ
Mēädöw vērđänt.

3. *A Trochaic Monometer Hypercatalectic.*—This form of trochaic verse contains one syllable more than the exact trochaic monometer; as,

Häppy färmīng äge,
Heälthŷ, blithe änd säge.

4. *A Trochaic Dimeter Brachycatalectic.*—This species of trochaic verse contains two syllables, or one foot less than two trochaic metres; i. e. three trochees; as,

Blööm yē sūmmër röfēs.

5. *A Trochaic Dimeter Catalectic* consists of one syllable less than two trochaic metres; or of three trochees with an additional long syllable; as,

Fäirēst piēce öf wēll-förm'd eärth
Urge not thus your haughty birth.—Waller.

6. *A Trochaic Dimeter Acatalectic* contains two trochaic metres or four trochaic feet; as,

Röund üs shine thē sūn-beäms brīghtēr.

7. *A Trochaic Dimeter Hypercatalectic* contains a long syllable more than the last verse; as,

Sēē yön clöuds thät nów dispērsē änd cleär.

8. *A Trochaic Trimeter Brachycatalectic* is, as well as the last, seldom employed; it contains five trochaic feet, and, of course, one foot less than three trochaic metres; as,

Äll thät wälk öñ fööt, ör rīde in chäriots,
Äll thät dwell in palaces or garrets.

9. *A Trochaic Trimeter Acatalectic* contains six trochees, or three trochaic metres; as,

Öñ ä mōuntain strēch'd bēnēäth ä höärŷ willöw
Lay a shepherd swain, and view'd the rolling billow.

III. Anapæstic Verse.

The reader will recollect that we have already said, that in dactylic and anapæstic measure one foot forms a metre, but in every other case, two feet form a metre.

1. *The Anapæstic Monometer Acatalectic* contains, without redundancy or defect, one anapæstic foot; as,

Nöw ägäin
They remain.

But as by laying the stress of the voice on the first syllable, we reduce the verse into trochaic rhythm, this measure is ambiguous; hence the simplest form of our regular anapæstic verse is the

2. *Anapæstic Dimeter Acatalectic*, or verse of two anapæstic feet; as,

För nö ärt cöuld äväll.

3. *The Anapestic Dimeter Hypercatalectic* contains two anapestic feet, with an additional short syllable; as,

În thê câve | ôf thê moun-|tain.

4. *The Anapestic Trimeter Acatalectic* contains three anapestic feet; as,

Ô yê wôôds, sprêad your brânchês âpâce;
To your deepst recesses I fly;
I wôuld hide with the beasts of the chafe
I wôuld vanish from every eye.

5. *The Anapestic Tetrameter Acatalectic* consists of four anapestic feet; as,

Mây Î gôvêrn mý pâssions with âbsôlute swâý;
And grow wiser and better as life wears away.—Pope.

6. *The Anapestic Tetrameter Hypercatalectic* adds to the end of the last verse a short syllable; as,

Ôn thê tîp | ôf thât hîll | fêê thê fun | nôw âscend-|ing.

Of the Cæsura.

The same advantages result from a suitable and appropriate use of the cæsura in English verse, as in that of the French and Italian, which we have just noticed. What is peculiar to this pause amongst us may be briefly comprised under the following particulars.

1. In heroic verse the cæsura may take place on the fourth syllable; as,

Child of the sun", refulgent summer comes.

2. Or on the fifth syllable; as,

He comes attended" by the sultry hours.

3. Or on the sixth syllable; as,

But should he hide his face", th' astonish'd sun.

4. Or, two cæsuras may divide a verse into three portions; as,

Some love to stray"; there lodg'd", amus'd and fed.

5. Some lines admirably admit that subdivision of the cæsural pause, which may be called a *demi cæsura*; as,

Glow's while he reads", but trembles' as he writes.
Rides' in the whirlwind" and directs' the storm.

Warm's in the sun" refreshes' in the breeze,
Glow's in the stars' and blossoms' in the trees;
Lives' through all life" extends' through all extent,
Spreads' undivided', operates' unspent.

As we have now treated minutely on every point essential to Hebrew, Greek, Latin, French and Italian versification, our readers will permit us, in accommodation to the limits of our work, to refer them, for further information on English versification, to what has been said at the article ODE, EPIGRAM, SONNET, &c. in other parts of this work.

VERSIO CHEMICA, a term used by chemical writers to express a change, wrought by their art, of manifest forms into occult ones, which, they say, is done by a corruption of the specific form, and the generation of a more general one; that is, by a conversion of decompounded elements into compound bodies, and of impure into such as are perfectly pure.

VERSION, a translation of some book, or writing, out of one language into another.

The chief objects which ought to be regarded by every translator, and more especially by a translator of sacred scripture, are the following: viz. to give a just and clear representation of the sense of his original; to convey into his version as much of his author's spirit and manner as the genius of the language, in which he writes, will admit; and, as far as may be consistent with these two ends, to express himself with purity in the language of the version.

The ancient versions of the New Testament, in particular, have been justly considered as affording an important evidence of its antiquity, and presumptively of its authenticity. Some of these are supposed to have been made so early as the first century; such as the Syriac, and several Latin versions, the latter of which, abounding in Hebraisms and Syriacisms even in a greater degree than the original, were manifestly made by native Jews, and must have been productions of the first century. A book, therefore, so early and universally read throughout the East in the Syriac, and throughout Europe and Africa in the Latin translation, must be able to lay claim to a high antiquity. To the strange and trivial hypothesis, that the New Testament was forged in the fifth century, after the conquest of Italy by the Goths, the Gothic version of Ulphilas, which was made in the preceding century, will serve for a sufficient answer. For an account of the Anglo-Saxon, Arabic, Armenian, Coptic or Egyptian, Ethiopic, and Gothic versions, see BIBLE. See also ARMENIAN and COPTIC.

VERSION of Aquila. See AQUILA and HEXAPLA.

VERSIONS, Greek. See SEPTUAGINT, and GREEK BIBLES.

VERSION, Italian, called by St. Jerom the *common* and *vulgar*, and by Gregory the Great the *ancient*, was made in Italy, and for the service of the Latin Christians. As it was used in the church till the sixth century, there are several fragments of it extant in the quotations of those Latin fathers, who wrote before that time. As this version continued, partly from the influence of custom, partly from respect to antiquity, to be regarded and used by many, there is reason to believe that a part of that version still remains in the Vulgate, and is in a manner blended with it. (See VULGATE.) : From what remains of the old Italian, it appears to have resembled almost all the Jewish translations, and to have been very literal, and consequently, in a great degree, obscure, ambiguous, and barbarous. Dr. Mills supposes, that this version was the work of several persons in the second century, by order of pope Pius I., who was an Italian. This learned writer, in his "Prolegomena," has given an account of the qualities of this version; and how far it may be of use for discovering the true reading of the original Greek. St. Jerom, in his translation, has deviated from this version without sufficient reason.

VERSION, Latin, includes not only the *Italian*, (see the preceding article,) but other versions made before and since the time of Jerom, as well as that which he corrected and published. (See VULGATE.) It appears from the testimony of Augustin (De Doctrinâ Christianâ, lib. ii. c. 11.), that the Latin church had a great number of translations of the bible, that they were made at the first introduction of Christianity, but that the authors are totally unknown. Some of these Latin versions were probably written later than the first ages of Christianity. The style of these ancient versions, still perceivable in the Vulgate, though amended by Jerom, is not only devoid of classical elegance, but inaccurate and impure. False Latin frequently occurs, and such as no native Roman could have written. Errors of this kind, and a too servile attention to the idiom of the Greek, betray a translator, who was neither a native Italian, nor had learned the language by the rules of grammar.

At other times, we find expressions that seem to be improper, and that nevertheless are justifiable according to the usage of the Italian language. Words are also used in a sense that is very rare in the classic writers. Moreover, these versions contain very numerous Hebraisms, or rather Syriaisms, that are diametrically opposite to the genius of the Latin: from which circumstance we may infer, that some of these versions were made by Jewish converts, whose native language was the Syriac. The language of these versions has materially influenced the Latin of the church, which is not only unclassical, but has a tincture of the oriental idiom, though in a much lower degree than the versions themselves.

Michaelis differs from Mills, who refers the origin of the oldest Latin version no higher than to the time of pope Pius, in the middle of the second century, and who supposes that the Latin version was made by public authority, or under the direction of the bishop of Rome. It is, says the professor, very improbable, if a translator had been appointed by a bishop or a council, that a writer would have been chosen, who was so little master of the Latin. He therefore supposes, that the real state of the case was as follows. The New Testament was read in the Christian churches, in the same manner as the Old Testament in the Jewish synagogues; and as the Jews, after reading the original Hebrew, explained it by a Chaldee paraphrase, the Christian bishops and public teachers expounded the passages in Latin, which they first read in the Greek. At first this was done extempore; but by degrees, in order to facilitate the public service, these translations were committed to writing, and at length communicated to the different members. By these means we may account for their great variety, and the confusion, which might have been avoided by a version ordained by the public authority of the Christian church.

As it cannot be denied, that the oldest Latin versions are of very high antiquity, though some of their readings are false, their principal use in the criticism of the New Testament is, that they lead us to a discovery of the readings of the very ancient Greek MSS. that existed prior to the date of any that are now extant. The great confusion which prevailed in the copies of the old Latin version induced pope Damasus to employ Jerom in correcting it; and among all the Latin fathers, before and after his time, it seems that no one was better qualified for the task. Jerom finished this work about the year 384; but F. Simon observes, that the Vulgate, after the time of Jerom, was manifestly different from the old version, in all the books of the New Testament. He partly expunged the spurious readings, and partly corrected the translations, which appeared to be erroneous; but it must be acknowledged, that, with the best intention, he has sometimes altered for the worse. See *VULGATE*, and *Latin BIBLES*.

The learned and ingenious Eichorn, in his Introduction to the Old Testament, supposes, not improbably, that the first Latin version of the bible was made in Africa, where Latin alone being understood, a translation was more necessary, where the Latin version was held in the highest veneration, and where the language being spoken with less purity, barbarisms might have more easily been introduced, than in a provincial town in Italy. But the Greek Testament could not have been translated into Latin before the canon had been formed, which was certainly not made in the first century. Michaelis by Marsh.

Of the modern Latin versions, the first we shall mention is that of Erasmus, who translated the New Testament from the Greek; following not only the printed copies, but also four Greek MSS., and varying very little from the Vulgate.

The first edition appeared in 1516, and dedicated to pope Leo X.

Arius Montanus undertook, by order of the council of Trent, as some pretend, a version of the Old and New Testaments; following, in his translation of the Old Testament, Pagninus, keeper of the Vatican library, who had translated the Old Testament from the Hebrew, by order of Clement VIII. As for the New Testament, he only changed some words in it, where he found that the Vulgate differed from the Hebrew. See *BIBLE*.

A Latin version of the whole New Testament, except the Revelations, is ascribed to Thomas de Vio, a Dominican, commonly styled cardinal Cajetan; but not understanding Greek, he probably procured some person to perform the work in his name. This was printed at Venice in 1530 and 1531, with the cardinal's commentaries. Another Latin version was published by an English writer in 1540, and dedicated to Henry VIII.

The Zurich version is one of the most ancient Latin translations made by Protestants. Part of it was done by Leo Juda, one of the ministers of that city, aided by some of his learned brethren; but being prevented by death from completing it, he left it to the care of T. Bibliander, professor at Zurich, who, aided by Conradus Pellican, professor of Hebrew in the same place, translated the rest of the Old Testament. The New Testament was continued by Peter Cholin, professor in divinity, and by Rodolph Gualterus, Leo Juda's successor in the ministerial office. This version was published in 1544. The seventh verse of the fifth chapter of the first epistle of St. John is omitted in this version, and placed in the margin. This passage was not inserted by Erasmus in his first editions of the New Testament, because he did not find it in the Greek copies; but having afterwards found it in a MS. in England, he introduced it into subsequent editions. In the following years, Robert Stephens printed this edition, with a few alterations; joining to it the Hebrew text and the Vulgate, and notes from the public lectures of Vatablus. See *Latin BIBLES*.

Sebastian Castalio published a Latin bible, which has been both censured and admired. See *Latin BIBLES*, and *CASTALIO*.

Theodoros Beza's Latin version has been much approved by Protestants, but depreciated by the Roman Catholics. It has been also censured by bishop Walton and Dr. Mills. See *BIBLE*.

VERSION of Origen. See *HEXAPLA* and *TETRAPLA*.

VERSION, Persian. See *BIBLE*.

VERSION, Peshito and Philoxenian. See *SYRIAC Version*.

VERSION, Slavonian or Russian. See *BIBLE*.

VERSION, Sahidic. See *BIBLE*.

VERSION, Syriac. See *SYRIAC Version*, and *BIBLE*.

For an account of English, Flemish, French, Gaelic, Georgian, German, Indian, Irish, Italian, Rhenish, Saxon, Spanish, and Welsh versions, see *BIBLE*. See also *POLYGLOTT*.

VERSITZ, or *VERSECZ*, in *Geography*, a town of Hungary. It is the see of a Greek bishop, and contains some extensive barracks, with about 12,000 inhabitants. Near it are the ruins of a castle; 20 miles N.N.W. of Vipavanka.

VERSMOLD, a town of the county of Ravensburg; 10 miles N.W. of Bielefeld. N. lat. 52° 2'. E. long. 8° 5'.

VERSO. See *FOLIO Verso*.

VERSOIX, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Ain, at the mouth of a river of the same name, on the side of the lake of Geneva; 6 miles S.E. of Gex.

VERSOIX, *La*, or *Verfoy*, a river which rises in France, and runs into the lake of Geneva at Verfoy.

VERSOU, *Le*, a town of France, in the department of the Here; 6 miles N. of Grenoble.

VERSOY, a town of France, in the department of Mont Blanc; 4 miles N. of St. Maurice.

VERT, or WERT, a Russian measure, containing 500 fathes or 1500 arsheens = 3500 English feet. Hence 264 *verts* = 175 English miles; so that a *vert* is nearly two-thirds of an English mile, and a degree of the meridian is reckoned to be about 104 *verts*. The Russian foot is = 13½ English inches, and the Moscow foot = 13½ English inches; but the English foot is generally used at Peterburg, and also the Rhineland foot = 12½ English inches. See MEASURE.

VERSTEGAN, RICHARD, in *Biography*, a descendant of an ancient family in Guelderland, and the son of a cooper in London, enjoyed the advantage of a liberal education at Oxford, and distinguished himself by his literary acquirements; but becoming a Catholic, he left the university without a degree, and removed to Antwerp. About the year 1585, he there published a work, entitled "Theatrum Crudelitatum Hereticorum nostri Temporis," adorned with engravings, and intended as a counterpart to the Protestant Martyrologies. In this work he treated queen Elizabeth with great severity; and when Veritegan removed to Paris, complaint was preferred against him by the English ambassador to Henry III., who, from motives of policy more than from a disapprobation of his book, caused him for some time to be imprisoned. After his release, he returned to Antwerp, where he employed himself as a printer, and published, in 1592, a second edition of his Theatrum. He also entered with much acrimony into a dispute between the regular and secular Roman Catholic clergy in England, taking part with the former. But he was more honourably and usefully employed in preparing his "Refutation of decayed Intelligence in Antiquities concerning the noble and renowned English Nation," which was first printed at Antwerp in 1605, 4to. Bishop Nicolson's character of this work is as follows: "The writer had several advantages for making of some special discoveries on the subject whereon he treats, which is handled so plausibly, and so well illustrated with handsome cuts, that the book has taken, and sold very well. But a great many mistakes have escaped him." Some of these are stated by the bishop; and he adds, they have been carefully corrected by Mr. Somner. The last of three editions of this work that issued from the press in England was that of 1674. Among some other works of Veritegan, we find mentioned his "Antiquitates Belgicæ," Antwerp, 1613. He is supposed to have died about the year 1625. *Biog. Brit.*

VERT, DOM CLAUDE DE, was born at Paris in 1645, and at the age of 16 entered into the order of St. Benedict, in the Congregation of Cluni. In the Jesuits' college at Avignon he studied philosophy and theology; and after his return from a journey to Rome, he devoted himself to the study of the rule of St. Benedict, and contributed by his influence to the establishment of general chapters. In 1676 he and another monk were appointed to the office of reforming the breviary of the order. The result of their labour appeared in 1686; and in 1689 he published a translation of the rule of St. Benedict, with a preface and learned notes. In 1690 he wrote a letter to Jurieu, who had expressed himself contemptuously of the ceremonies of the church; and in 1690 he was rewarded for his services, by the dignity of vicar-general to the cardinal de Bouillon, and the priory of St. Peter in Abbeville. His work most

known is entitled "Explication simple litterale et historique des Ceremonies de l'Eglise," 4 vols. 8vo. The writer died at Abbeville in 1708, aged 63, leaving the character of a pious, as well as a mild and polished man. *Moreiri*.

VERT, in *Heraldry*, the term for a green colour.

It is also called *vert* in the blazon of the coats of all under the degrees of nobles; but in coats of nobles it is called *emerald*; and in those of kings, *Venus*.

In engraving, it is expressed by diagonals, or lines drawn athwart, from right to left, from the dexter chief corner to the sinister base.

In lieu of *vert*, the French heralds use *sinople*, or *synople*.

VERT, or *Green Hue*, in *Forest Law*, any thing that grows and bears a green leaf, within the forest, that may cover a deer.

This is divided into *over-vert* and *nether-vert*. The former is the great woods, which, in law-books, are usually called *haut-bois*; and the latter is the under-woods, otherwise called *sub-bois*.

We sometimes also meet with *special vert*, which denotes all trees growing in the king's woods within the forest, and those which grow in other men's woods, if they be such trees as bear fruit to feed the deer.

VERT, in *Geography*, a river of France, which runs into the Gave of Oleron.—Also, a river of France, which runs into the Lot, near Cahors.

VERT St. Denis, a town of France, in the department of the Seine and Marne; 3 miles N.W. of Melun.

VERTACOME CORI, in *Ancient Geography*, a people to whom Pliny ascribes the foundation of Navarre, in Gallia Cisalpina, and who formed a part of the Vocontii.

VERTÆ, a people of Asia, allies of the Persians, and found at the siege of Amida.

VERTAISON, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Puy de Dôme; 4 miles N.W. of Billon.

VERTE BAY, or *Green Bay*, a bay of the Atlantic ocean, between Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, on the north coast. N. lat. 46°. W. long. 63° 54'.

VERTE Bay, a bay on the north-east coast of Newfoundland. N. lat. 50° 10'. W. long. 56°.

VERTEBRÆ, in *Anatomy*, the bones composing the spine. They are distinguished by their situation into *vertebræ colli*, *dorsi*, and *lumborum*; or *cervical*, *dorsal*, and *lumbur*. See SPINE.

The cartilages between the *vertebræ* of the back yield considerably to the pressure of the body, in an erect posture, and expand themselves in the night, when persons lie down. Hence arises a very singular phenomenon, but a very true one; which is, that a man is considerably taller at his rising in the morning, after the expansion of these cartilages, during the absence of the pressure for several hours, than at night, when they have been pressed down all the day.

The reverend Mr. Wasse seems to have examined this difference more strictly than any other person. He found that several persons, enlisted as soldiers in a morning, had been discharged for want of height, on their being measured again before the officers in the evening; and on this occasion measured several other people, and found the difference, in many cases, to be not less than an inch. This gentleman observed in himself, that fixing a bar of iron where he just reached it with his head on getting first out of bed in the morning, he could lose near half an inch in an hour, or less, if he employed that time in rolling his garden, or any other exercise of that laborious kind. He observed also, that riding often took off the height very suddenly; and what was more particular, that in sitting close to study five or six

fix hours without any motion, he lost often a whole inch in height.

People who use hard labour sink rather less in the whole than those of sedentary lives; and the height once lost is never to be recovered that day, not even by the use of the cold bath; but a night's lying down can alone restore it. Phil. Trans. N° 383, p. 87.

This difference in height takes place only in the human species, as they are the only creatures who walk erect, and throw the pressure of their whole weight upon the backbone. This gentleman measured horses before and after riding, and could find no difference even after the longest journeys.

The alteration in height is much greater in young people than in those who are more aged. It is evident from this change happening to persons when they sit, as well as when they stand, that it is brought about merely by the backbone; and we must admire the structure of that part of the body, which owes its giving way thus to its being formed together in that manner, which alone could suit it to the several purposes it was intended for. The thickness and shortness of the bones, with the intervening cartilages, assisted by the bony processes, dispose it to a motion peculiar to itself; whereas, had the bodies been of any considerable length, upon bending the body, the articulations must have made a large angle upon their inmost edges, and the spinal marrow would have been continually liable to be injured; and had the cartilages been entirely wanting, it would have been as useless as if it were but one bone, by which the trunk of the body, being rendered incapable of bending, must have remained for ever in an erect posture. Another particular, which bespeaks the utmost wisdom and design in the contrivance of this part is, the remarkable difference there is in the cartilages placed between the several bones of the spine.

The vertebræ of the back require but little motion, and the cartilages there are for that reason small and thin, in comparison with those of the loins, which being very thick, the lowest more especially, the motion is much greater there, and much better to be borne. This being the state and disposition of the parts during the whole space of time in which we are usually employed about our several businesses, till the time that we dispose ourselves to rest, the cartilages of the spine will, by their compressible and yielding properties, become more close and compact for the pressure they sustain, and consequently the spine, which is the only support of the trunk of the body, will become shorter; but when this superior weight shall be entirely removed, by placing the body in an horizontal posture, as it always is when we are in bed, the compressed cartilages will, by their natural elastic power, begin gradually to enlarge themselves, till they, by degrees, recover the expanded state they had before they gave way.

The cartilages between the several vertebræ are twenty-four in number, and every one of these is pressed somewhat in our daily employments, so that when they all come to expand, the aggregate of their several expansions cannot be supposed less than about an inch. Now, if this be the difference occasioned by the pressure of the common weight of the body alone upon itself, it must necessarily be much greater in those persons whose constant employment is to carry heavy burdens. The compression and expansion of the cartilages in older people being less than in younger, is a necessary consequence of the cartilages in time of age growing harder, and less capable of compression; for they often grow almost bony in length of time: and hence it is, that old people are observed to lose somewhat of their former

height, the cartilages in them shrinking to a somewhat smaller compass as they grow bony; and this shortening is, therefore, not imaginary, as many have believed, but real, and owing to this plain cause. Phil. Trans. N. 383, p. 90. See CARTILAGE and SPINE.

VERTEBRÆ, *Disease of the*. See SPINE.

VERTEBRÆ, *Dislocations of*. See LUXATION.

VERTEBRÆ, *Fractions of*. See FRACTURE.

VERTEBRÆ of Fish. The vertebræ of fish are extremely different in shape in the several kinds, and even vary in number in the different species of the same genus. The anterior vertebræ in some have three apophyses, as in the cyprini, efores, pleuronecti, &c.; and in the clupeæ they have no less than seven of these apophyses, but they are slender and capillary. Artedi Ichthyol.

VERTEBRAL *Artery and Vein*, in *Anatomy*, branches of the subclavian vessels. See ARTERY and VEIN.

VERTEBRAL *Canal*, the canal of the spine, which contains the medulla spinalis. See SPINE.

VERTEBRAL *Nerves*, the nerves sent off from the medulla spinalis, and passing out at the lateral holes of the spine. See NERVE.

VERTEBRAL *Theca*, the sheath of dura mater inclosing the medulla spinalis. See BRAIN.

VERTEILLAC, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Dordogne; 7 miles N. of Ribérac.

VERTENEGGI, a town of Istria; 11 miles S. of Capo d'Istria.

VERTERIS, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Great Britain, in the second route of Antonine, between Brovonacæ or Kirbythure and Lavatræ or Bowes, and in the fifth route between Lavatræ and Broccavum or Brougham Castle, placed at Brugh under Stanemore.

VERTEUIL, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Charente; 3 miles S. of Ruffec.—Also, a town of France, in the department of the Lot and Garonne; 6 miles N.N.E. of Tonneins.

VERTEX, in *Anatomy*, the crown of the head, or that uppermost and middle part situated between the sinciput and occiput. See HEAD.

Hence, also, vertex is figuratively used for the top of other things. Thus, the vertex of a cone, pyramid, conic section, &c. is the point of the upper extremity of the axis, or the top of the figure.

VERTEX of an *Angle*, is the angular point, or the point A, (*Plate II. Geometry, fig. 15.*) in which the legs meet.

VERTEX of a *Figure*, is the vertex of the angle opposite to the base.

Such is the point M (*Plate XV. Geometry, fig. 17.*) opposite to the base A B.

VERTEX of a *Curve*, is the point A (*Plate XV. Geometry, fig. 18.*) from which the diameter is drawn; or it is the intersection of the diameter and the curve.

VERTEX of a *Glass*, in *Optics*, the same with the pole of it.

VERTEX is also used, in *Astronomy*, for the point of heaven perpendicularly over our heads, called the *zenith*.

VERTEX, *Path of the*. See PATH.

VERTIBULUM, a word used by some writers to express the round head of a bone, which, in its articulation, is inserted into the sinus, or cavity of another bone.

VERTICAL, in *Botany*, is technically used to express the perpendicular position, or insertion, of certain parts of a plant. Vertical Leaves are such as stand so erect, that neither of their surfaces can properly be called the upper or under, of which nature are all sword-shaped leaves, *folia ensiformia*. (See LEAF.) But the term is usually restricted

to such leaves as have properly an under surface, different in nature from the upper one, and yet stand upright; witness *Lactuca Scariola*, and perhaps several succulent leaved plants.

Vertical Anthers, as in the Tulip, terminate the filaments, and being inferted by one of the extremities, stand no less upright than the filaments themselves, being opposed to incumbent anthers, whose infertion is generally lateral, and whose position is more or less horizontal, over the stigma, as in the Passion-flower. In both these instances the anthers are remarkably versatiles, *anthera versatilis*; allowing themselves to be turned round many times without separating from the filament. Vertical stalks, &c. readily explain themselves.

VERTICAL Circle, in *Astronomy*, is a great circle of the sphere, passing through the zenith and the nadir, and any other given point on the surface of the sphere.

The vertical circles are also called *azimuths*; which see. The meridian of any place is a vertical circle. All the vertical circles intersect each other in the zenith and nadir.

The use of the vertical circles is to measure the height of the stars, and their distances from the zenith, which is reckoned on these circles; and to find their eastern and western amplitude, by observing how many degrees the vertical, in which the star rises or sets, is distant from the meridian.

VERTICAL, *Prime*, is that vertical circle, or azimuth, which passes through the poles of the meridian; or which is perpendicular to the meridian, and passes through the equinoctial points.

VERTICALS, *Prime*, in *Dialling*. See *PRIME Verticals*.

VERTICAL of the Sun, is the vertical which passes through the centre of the sun at any moment of time.

Its use is, in dialling, to find the declination of the plane on which the dial is to be drawn, which is done by observing how many degrees that vertical is distant from the meridian, after marking the point, or line of the shadow, upon the plane at any time.

VERTICAL Dial. See *Vertical DIAL*.

VERTICAL Line, in *Conics*, is a right line drawn on the vertical plane, and passing through the vertex of the cone.

VERTICAL Line, in *Dialling*, is a line in any place perpendicular to the horizon.

This is best found and drawn on an erect and reclining plane, by holding up a string and heavy plummet steadily, and then marking two points of the shadow of a thread on the plane, a good distance from one another; and drawing a line through those marks.

VERTICAL Line, in *Perspective*. See *Vertical LINE*.

VERTICAL Plane, in *Conics*, is a plane passing through the vertex of a cone, and parallel to any conic section.

VERTICAL Plane, in *Perspective*. See *PLANE* and *PERSPECTIVE*.

VERTICAL Point, in *Astronomy*, the same with vertex or zenith.

Hence a star is said to be vertical, when it happens to be in that point which is perpendicularly over any place.

VERTICILLARIA, in *Botany*, Fl. Peruv. 69, a Peruvian genus of plants, so called because its branches are disposed in regular whorls, one above the other. *De Theis*. See *VERTICILLUS*.

VERTICILLATÆ, Whorled-flowered plants, form the 42d natural order in Linnaeus's natural system, being precisely analogous to Jussieu's *LABIATÆ* (see that article); as well as to the order of *Didynamia Gymnospermia* in the Linnaean artificial system, except that it includes also several diandrous genera of the latter arrangement. Ray

first established this order, under the above name, and distinguished it, though not by a very clear or infallible definition, from his own *Asperifoliz*. Hermann injudiciously combined these two orders. Linnaeus first clearly defined their differences. Both have four naked seeds, and a monopetalous corolla; which is regular in all the *Asperifoliz*, except *Echium*; irregular in all the *Verticillata*, and also ringent, or at least two-lipped, except *Mentha* and *Lycopus*; see those articles. The *Asperifolia* have, moreover, alternate or scattered leaves; the *Verticillata* opposite ones; the former are more of a mucilaginous quality; the latter more aromatic. Linnaeus however detected the true characters of the orders in question in their *stamens*. These in the *Asperifoliz* are five, all of equal length; in the *Verticillata* either four or two; if four, two are longer, or more perfect, than the rest.

For the genera which compose this order of *Verticillata*, and their general characters and properties, the reader is referred to the article *LABIATÆ*. Their particular mode of inflorescence is explained under *VERTICILLUS*; though in many instances their whorls are so crowded together as to form a spike, or cluster, the foliage diminishing, or changing, into *bractæas*. Of this, examples occur in *Salvia*, *Mentha*, and *Origanum*, with some other genera.

This being one of the most natural of all the orders in the whole vegetable kingdom, few botanists have succeeded in defining its genera. Linnaeus has been eminently successful in this point, having happily seized some essential character by which each genus is clearly marked, in one part or other of the fructification; such characters being, on the whole, as well supported by the habit as can be expected in so natural an order.

VERTICILLUS, a Whorl, is a mode of inflorescence, in which the flowers surround the stem in a sort of ring. There is seldom a perfectly whorled insertion of the flowers, around a stem or stalk, independent of the leaves, though the rare genus *GNETUM*, (see that article,) may afford an instance. It is most usual for each flower to be axillary, or accompanied by a leaf, as in *Hippuris*. Nevertheless the natural order of *VERTICILLATÆ*, so denominated from this circumstance, is considered as having truly whorled flowers, though inserted on two opposite sides of the square stem; as they, being commonly very numerous and crowded, spread into one dense uninterrupted mass. Such may, or may not, be accompanied by leaves or bractæas.

Folia verticillata, whorled leaves, are when more than two leaves surround the stem at one point, or articulation. Examples occur in *Galium* and its allies, thence called by Ray and following authors *plante stellate*; as well as in a few of the first species of *VERONICA*. Peruvian shrubs are remarkably inclined to bear three or four leaves in a whorl, though the genera, or natural orders, to which they respectively belong, have merely opposite leaves. See under the article *LEAF*, *folia, bina, ternata*, &c.

Whorled *Cotyledones* are very rare, but they do occur in *PINUS* and *DOMBEYA*.—Even if such were, as Jussieu suggests, merely opposite cotyledons in numerous deep segments, they might perhaps, according to the analogy of the above-described inflorescence, be called *cotyledones verticillata*.

VERTICITY, is that property of the load-stone by which it turns or directs itself to some particular point.

The attraction of the magnet was known long before its verticity.

VERTICORDIA, in *Mythology*, one of the epithets of Venus. See *VENUS*.

VERTIGO, in *Medicine*, from *verto*, I turn, *giddiness*, *dizziness*, or *swimming of the head*, a well-known affection, in which

VERTIGO.

which external objects appear to move in various directions, though stationary, and there is a difficulty of maintaining the erect posture, often accompanied with sickness.

Philosophers have differed in their opinions respecting the cause of *vertigo*, when it is produced under various circumstances, independently of internal disease; as from swinging, turning round rapidly, looking from a high station, riding across a broad undulating stream, or over a plain covered with snow, or looking at the walls of a room painted with equal small figures, at a whirling wheel, &c. &c.; circumstances which might appear upon a casual view not explicable upon one common principle. Dr. Darwin, however, has very ingeniously explained the origin of giddiness from these various causes. He observes, that in learning to walk, we judge of the distance of the objects which we approach by the eye, and by observing their perpendicularity determine our own; and that at all times we determine our want of perpendicularity, or inclination to fall, by attending to the apparent motion of the objects within the sphere of distinct vision. Hence, when we are placed upon the summit of a high cliff or tower, and look down, we become dizzy, because the objects below are out of the sphere of distinct vision, and we are obliged to balance ourselves by the less accurate feelings of our muscles. Hence also, on going into a room hung with a paper which is covered all over with similar small black lozenges, many people become giddy; for the objects around being so small, that they do not perceive their minute parts, or so similar, that they do not distinguish them from one another, they begin to lose their balance; for on inclining to one side or the other, the next and the next lozenge succeeds on the eye, which they mistake for the first, and they are not aware that they have any apparent motion; but if you fix a sheet of paper, or draw any other figure in the midst of the lozenges, the charm ceases, and no giddiness is produced. Giddiness is occasioned in a similar way in riding over an extensive plain of snow or sheet of water, in which no distinct object presents itself by which we can ascertain our perpendicularity.

But the circumstance which occasions vertigo in the other cases, is the difficulty of distinguishing our own real motions from the apparent motions of external objects; and the difficulty is still greater, when both ourselves and the circumjacent objects are in motion. Our daily practice of walking and riding soon instructs us with accuracy to discern the modes of motion, and to ascribe the apparent motion of the ambient objects to ourselves; but those which we have not acquired by repeated habit continue to confound us. Hence whirling round, swinging, skating on the ice, sailing, riding backwards in a coach, and a thousand other movements, produce giddiness, which, if long enough continued, bring on sickness and vomiting. When first an European mounts an elephant sixteen feet high, and whose mode of motion he is not accustomed to, the objects seem to undulate as he passes, and he frequently becomes sick and vertiginous. And when we first go on ship-board, where the movements of ourselves, and the movements of the large waves are both new to us, the vertigo is almost unavoidable, with the terrible sickness which attends it. Yet in persons habituated to these motions, no vertigo occurs; even the most continued whirling, as practised by the dervises in Turkey, as a religious ceremony, and by European waltzers, may be learnt to be performed without giddiness.

Dr. Darwin mentions several other circumstances, which prove that we require experience in the motions of surrounding objects, even while we are ourselves at rest, in order to determine our own perpendicularity by them. Whence some people become dizzy at the sight of a whir-

ling wheel, or by gazing on the undulations of a river, if no steady objects are at the same time within the sphere of their distinct vision. And he mentions the following curious experiment, illustrating this fact. When a child first can stand erect upon his legs, if you gain his attention to a white handkerchief steadily extended like a sail, and afterwards make it undulate, he instantly loses his perpendicularity, and tumbles on the ground. See *Zoonomia*, vol. i. sect. 20.

Vertigo, however, arising from any of these causes, is not properly the subject of medical treatment; and it is only when it occurs independently of external circumstances, that it becomes the object of pathological inquiry. It is not in itself, indeed, considered as a distinct disease, but is always symptomatic of some other morbid affection, against which our remedies must be directed. Whence Dr. Cullen has excluded it altogether from his classification of diseases.

Vertigo occurs under three different states of the constitution, or is a symptom of three different species of disease, which it is necessary to distinguish, in order to apply the appropriate remedies. The first, and the only variety of vertigo that is accompanied with danger, is that which arises from an over-fullness of the vessels of the head, and which is sometimes the precursor of apoplexy or palsy. The vertigo from intoxication is probably chiefly produced in this way, though it may be partly explained upon the principle of debilitated muscular energy, by which the person is disabled from directing the eye steadily upon surrounding objects, and which even occasions double vision.

The vertigo originating from a plethoric state of the vessels of the brain will be indicated by the presence of certain other symptoms. If it occurs in a person of sanguine temperament, of a full habit of body, florid complexion, in the meridian of life, or past that period, and in one accustomed to free living; and if it is accompanied by occasional head-ache, throbbing of the vessels of the head, noise in the ears, and drowsiness; little doubt can remain that it originates from a plethoric condition of the vessels, and that the proper remedies will be, the abstraction of blood, either from the system at large, or by opening the temporal artery or jugular vein, or by the application of leeches to the temples; at the same time administering moderate purgative medicines, and enjoining an abstinence from fermented liquors, and high-seasoned food, as well as great moderation in respect to the quantity of the latter. If these remedies are not resorted to, and these precautions not adopted, the result may be a sudden attack of apoplexy, which may prove immediately fatal, or leave behind it a *hemiplegia*, or palsy of one side.

The second variety of vertigo, to which we have alluded, is attended with little hazard, though sometimes very distressing. It occurs in an opposite condition of the body, a state of nervous debility, and accompanies many of those anomalous affections which are comprehended under the appellations of *hysteria* and *hypocondriasis*. This vertigo occurs in persons of a different temperament from that above described; in thin and spare habits, or in those of a certain degree of corpulency, but pale and relaxed constitution. It is accompanied also by other symptoms characteristic of the hysterical and hypocondriacal diseases; and cannot easily be mistaken for the plethoric vertigo. The cure, of course, will depend upon the general features of the whole complaint, of which the vertigo is but a passing symptom, and we need not here enlarge upon the subject. See *HYPOCHONDRIASIS* and *HYSTERIA*.

There is a third variety of vertigo, which is also transient and void of danger; which is a symptom of indigestion; and

is connected with particular conditions of the stomach. This is not permanent, but comes on suddenly for a few seconds or minutes, and then goes off; but during this short interval, the person, if walking, will seize a rail, or post, or fix himself against a wall, to preserve his perpendicularity; or even if sitting, will be obliged to hold the back of his chair firmly, or to lean forward on the table for the same purpose. This slight attack is generally attended with a feeling of beginning nausea, which subsides with the vertigo.

As this occurs in persons who are neither plethoric nor hypochondriacal, is unaccompanied by head-ache, and generally attended by flatulence, irregularity of bowels, or some other symptom of disturbance in the digestive organs, so it is easily distinguished from the preceding species. It is generally soon removed by the use of an absorbent, and gentle laxative, in some moderately cordial vehicle; as by a little carbonate and sulphate of magnesia in mint-water, or in an infusion of chamomile, or orange-peel; or by a portion of magnesia and rhubarb, or similar medicines.

VERTIGO, in *Animals*. See APOPLEXY and STAGGERS.

VERTILLAGE, in *Agriculture*, the tilling or preparing of ground to receive the seed, by turning, stirring, or tilling it.

VERTINÆ, in *Ancient Geography*, a small town of Italy, in the interior of Lucania, according to Strabo.

VERTOBRIGE, a town of Hispania, in Beticæ. Pliny.

VERTON, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Lower Loire; 4 miles N.E. of Nantes.

VERTOT D'AUBÉUF, RENÉ AUBERT DE, in *Bio-graphy*, a French historian, was born in 1655, at the seat of Bennetot in Normandy. Inclined to retirement, he entered, at the early age of 15 or 16, among the Capuchins, whose austerities so impaired his constitution, that he was under a necessity of obtaining a brief for exchanging this order for that of the regular canons of Prémontré, with which he connected himself in 1677. Some disputes, however, occurred in this order, which occasioned his abandoning it. After several changes of situation, humorously called the "Abbé de Vertot's revolutions," he settled at Paris in 1701, where he was employed in compiling the memoirs for the house of Noailles, engaged in a contest with that of Bouillon, for which service he obtained a pension. In 1705 he became a pensioner of the Academy of Inscriptions and Belles Lettres, which was revived in 1701; and afterwards occupied several posts in connection with the duke and dukes of Orleans. In 1715 he was appointed, by the grand-master of Malta, historiographer to that order, with its attendant privileges, and the right of wearing the cross; and the commandery of Santeny was added to his other preferments. Some have said that he was sub-preceptor to Lewis XV., but he was deprived of this honour. As he advanced in life, his infirmities increased, so that he died in 1735, at the age of 80. His disposition and character were highly estimable. His principal works were, "L'Histoire des Revolutions de Portugal," 1689, 12mo., much commended by Bouhours for its style, though the memoirs upon which it was founded were not worthy of confidence:—"L'Histoire des Revolutions de Suède," 2 vols. 12mo. 1696, which is characterized as an interesting performance; though in this, as well as some other works, the author inclines to the romantic:—"L'Histoire des Revolutions Romaines," 3 vols. 12mo., considered as his principal performance:—"L'Histoire des Chevaliers de Malthe," 4 vols. 4to., and 7 vols. 12mo. 1727, less esteemed than the preceding:—"Traité de la Mouance de Bretagne":—"Histoire critique de l'Etablissement des Bretons dans les Gaules," works that have not been popular:—"Origine de la Gran-

deur de la Cour de Rome, et de la Nomination aux Evêchés et aux Abbayes de France," a posthumous publication: Several of his learned dissertations were inserted in the Memoirs of the Academy of Belles Lettres. The abbé Mably appreciates Vertot highly as an historian, from a preconceived notion that perfect history corresponds very much with epic poetry; but by others he has been deemed a pleasing and eloquent writer, and denominated "The French Quintus Curtius," whilst his style has been extolled, and his manner of treating his subject has been regarded as interesting. Some of the best judges have disputed his thorough knowledge of mankind, and the accuracy of his research. Moreri.

VERTUE, GEORGE, an eminent artist and antiquary, of whom we have given an account under the article ENGRAVING.

VERTUMNALIA, among the *Romans*, a festival celebrated in honour of the god Vertumnus, in the month of October.

VERTUMNUS, in *Mythology*, a god who presided over gardens and orchards, honoured among the Etruscans, from whom the worship of this deity was transmitted to the Romans.

Ovid (Met. lib. xiv.) has described the various forms assumed by this deity, in order to obtain the love of Pomona. Some have supposed that Vertumnus, whose name they derive à *vertendo*, because he had power to change his form at pleasure, marked the year and its variations; and thus, they say, he pleased Pomona, by bringing the fruits to maturity. Accordingly, Ovid says that he assumed the form of a labourer, reaper, vine-dresser, and old woman, to represent the four seasons, spring, summer, autumn, and winter.

Vertumnus had a temple and a statue near the market-place at Rome, being represented as one of the tutelary deities of the merchants. To this Horace is supposed to allude, where, addressing his book, he says, "Methinks, my book, you often turn your eye towards Vertumnus and Janus;" that is, you are longing to be handfomely bound, and exposed to sale.

Accordingly Vertumnus, says an ancient scholiast on Horace, "deus est preses vertendarum rerum," i. e. "venderarum ac emendarum."

At the feast instituted in honour of him, he was represented as a young man crowned with different sorts of herbs, dressed in a robe, which reached to his middle; holding fruit in his left hand, and in his right a cornucopia.

The commentators on Ovid say, that he was an ancient king of Etruria, who, by his diligent and successful cultivation of fruits and gardens, obtained the honour of being ranked among the gods. In proof of this, they refer to Propertius, eleg. l. iv. At Rome, in the street called "Vicus Thuficus," was a statue of Vertumnus, of which Cicero speaks, on occasion of Verres' avarice; "who is there but has traced thy avarice all along the way that leads from Vertumnus's statue to the great Circus?"

VERTUS, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Marne; 15 miles S.W. of Châlons-sur-Marne.

VERU, a comet according to some writers, resembling a spit, being nearly the same as the lonchites, only its head is rounder, and its train longer and sharper pointed.

VERVA, a word used by some authors to express an ivory amulet to be worn for the epilepsy.

VERVAIN, in *Botany*. See VERBENA.

The common vervain, or *verbena officinalis* of Linnaeus, is very common on the sides of roads, foot-paths, and farm-yards,

yards, near habitations; for although there is scarcely any part of England in which this is not found in plenty, yet it is never found above a quarter of a mile from a house; which occasioned its being called *simples joy*, because, wherever this plant is found growing, it is a sure token of a house being near; this is a certain fact, says Miller, but not easy to be accounted for. It is rarely cultivated in gardens, but is brought to the markets by those who gather it in the fields. It is annual, and flowers in July or August.

Vervain was used among the ancients at their sacrifices, and was thought to contain something divine. The Romans, in the beginning of the year, made a present of this herb to their friends. It appears to be the *lego Baccam*, or *asperula* of Dioscorides. It is destitute of odour, but manifests a slight degree of astringency. The root, worn at the pit of the stomach, an infusion, and an ointment prepared from the leaves, are said to produce good effects in scrophulous cases. Morley's Ess. on Scrophula.

But this, says Dr. Withering, wants confirmation from the more rational and less enthusiastic practitioner.

Its sensible qualities, says Dr. Lewis, afford little or no foundation for the abundance of virtues for which it has been celebrated. Its use in medicine seems to have originated from some superstitious idea of its efficacy, when suspended about the neck as an amulet. In order to obtain its virtues more effectually, the vervain was directed to be bruised before it was appended to the neck; and of its good effects thus used for inveterate head-aches, Forestus relates a remarkable instance. In still later times it has been employed in the way of cataplasm, by which we are told the most severe and obdurate cases of cephalalgia have been cured; for which we have the authorities of Etmuller, Hartmann, and more especially De Haen.

Notwithstanding these testimonies in favour of vervain, it has deservedly fallen into disuse in Britain; nor has the pamphlet of Mr. Morley, written professedly to recommend its use in scrophulous affections, had the effect of restoring its medical character. This gentleman directs the root of vervain to be tied with a *yard of white satin ribbon* round the neck, where it is to remain till the patient recovers. He also has recourse to infusions and ointments prepared from the leaves of the plant; and occasionally calls in aid the most active medicines of the *Materia Medica*. Woodville's Med. Bot.

VERVAIN, *Mallow*. See MALVA and URENA.

VERUDA, in *Geography*, a small island in the Adriatic, near the coast of Istria; 4 miles S. of Pola.

VERUES, in *Ancient Geography*, a people of Africa, in Mauritania Tingitana, S. of the Succoli and of the Macanite, according to Ptolemy.

VERVIC, in *Geography*. See WERWIC.

VERVIERS, a town of France, in the department of the Ourthe, situated on the river Weze. It was anciently walled, but when the French were masters of Limburg, they compelled the inhabitants of Verviers to demolish the walls. The body of citizens is represented by seven commissaries, appointed by the magistrates, whose office is for life, independent of the bishop. The inhabitants carry on a very considerable traffic in cloth, which they export to Germany, the northern parts of Europe, Italy, and Turkey; 17 miles E.S.E. of Liège. N. lat. 50° 36'. E. long. 5° 36'.

VERVINS, a town of France, and principal place of a district, in the department of the Aisne; 4 pöits N.N.E. of Laon. N. lat. 49° 50'. E. long. 3° 58'.

VERULÆ, or VERULANUM, in *Ancient Geography*, a

town of Italy, in Latium, in the country of the Hernici, according to Florus. Frontinus reckons it in the number of Roman colonies.

VERULAM, in *Geography*. See ST. ALBAN'S.

VERULAMIA, in *Botany*, received this appellation from the learned Decandolle, now botanical professor at Geneva, in memory of our immortal Bacon, baron of Verulam; see that biographical article. That lord Bacon's speculations in natural knowledge may allow us to claim him as a botanist, we are too much interested in the honour of our science to dispute; but we must deeply regret that his real name, so universally known and venerated, was not preferred, to one which serves but to perpetuate the remembrance of his lamentable disgrace. We should, on any future occasion, presume to establish *Baconia*, in preference to the above, as being, in addition to the above reasons, authorized by Linnæan rule and custom. The characters of this genus, in a paper read before the French Institute, were communicated by the above author to M. Poirët, from whom we adopt them.—Poirët in Lam. Dict. v. 8. 543.—Class and order, *Tetrandria Monogynia*. N. var. *Rubiacea*, Juss.

Gen. Ch. Cal. Perianth inferior, of one leaf, bell-shaped, in four obtuse segments. Cor. of one petal, funnel-shaped, longer than the calyx; tube cylindrical, shorter than the limb, its orifice beset with hairs; limb in four spreading segments. Stam. Filaments four, short, inserted into the upper part of the tube; anthers prominent, linear, twisted after discharging their pollen. Pist. Germen superior, nearly globular, umbilicated at the top; style thread-shaped, hardly so long as the anthers; stigma simple, cylindrical. Peric. Berry somewhat globular, compressed at the summit, nearly dry, of two cells. Seeds solitary, hemispherical, with a cartilaginous albumen, and straight cylindrical embryo.

Ess. Ch. Corolla funnel-shaped, bearded in the mouth. Calyx four-leafed, inferior. Berry of two cells. Seeds solitary.

1. *V. corymbosa*. Decand. Mem. t. 1. unpublished. Poirët n. 1.—Found by Mr. Stadman, in Africa, near Sierra Leone. A shrub, differing from all the known genera of this order besides, in having a superior germen. It is said to be most akin to GÆRTNERA, but we know not what these writers intend under that name; certainly not what we, in its proper place, have described. The branches are cylindrical and smooth. Leaves opposite, stalked, crossing each other in pairs, elliptical, entire, smooth on both sides, six or seven inches long, two or more in breadth. Stipules in pairs, entire, scarcely pointed, permanent. Flowers in terminal branched corymbs, without bractæas. Calyx wide, obtuse. Berry the size of a pea.

VERULUM, VEROLI, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Italy, in Latium, at a small distance from Alatrium; exhibiting some relics of antiquity.

VERU-MONTANUM, in *Anatomy*. See GENERATION and URETHRA.

VERURIUM, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Hispania, in Lusitania. Ptolemy.

VERUS, LUCIUS, in *Biography*, a Roman emperor, son of L. Verus, who had been adopted by Adrian, was born about A. D. 131; and on his father's death, in 138, adopted by Titus Antoninus, at the same time with M. Aurelius. In early life Verus neglected all serious studies, and attached himself to amusement and frivolous pursuits; and, therefore, T. Antoninus, at his death in 161, devolved the imperial power solely on M. Aurelius; but this emperor, with an almost unexampled generosity, declared Verus to be an

associate in the empire, with the titles of Cæsar and Augustus, and other appendages of imperial authority; consolidating the union by marrying his daughter Lucilla to Verus; nor was the new emperor inflexible of the condescension and kindness of his father-in-law. Upon an invasion of Armenia and Syria by Vologeses, king of Parthia, Aurelius, with a view of rescuing Verus from the temptations of the capital, appointed him to the command of an army which marched against this formidable foe. His attachment to licentious pleasure and dissipating amusements disqualified him for a service so important; his march was slow; and on reaching the voluptuous capital, Antioch, in the year 162, he totally neglected all military operations, and for four years devoted himself to almost every species of licentious gratification and idle amusement. At the conclusion of the war, rendered successful by subordinate Roman commanders, he returned to Rome, and partook of a triumph with Aurelius. Such, however, was the pernicious effect of the course he pursued in Syria, that he addicted himself, without restraint, to all the follies and excesses which have disgraced the most profligate and contemptible of the Roman emperors. Cruelly excepted, he vied in vice and folly with Nero and Caligula, or any of the imperial monsters that had preceded him. His virtuous colleague beheld his conduct with regret, and used every effort which wisdom could suggest for restraining and reforming him. With this view, he took Verus with him in the war against the Marcomanni, which commenced in the year 166. The two emperors wintered together at Aquileia; but Verus was soon tired of the war, and when the frontiers were secured from the barbarians, he determined to return to Rome. But upon their route from Aquileia, in the year 169, he was seized with an apoplectic fit, which terminated his life in three days, in the 39th year of his age, and the ninth of his partnership in the empire. Aurelius interred him with magnificence, and culpably lavished all kinds of divine honours upon his memory, whilst in his speech to the senate he expressed his satisfaction that death had removed an impediment to his designs and efforts for promoting the public welfare. Crevier.

VERY LORD and **VERY Tenant**, are those that are immediate lord and tenant to one another. See **LORD** and **TENANT**.

VERZELLINO, in *Ornithology*, the name of a bird common in Italy, and kept in cages for its singing, called by authors *citrinella*, and *thraupis*.

VERZINO, in *Geography*, a town of Naples, in Calabria Citra; 3 miles S.W. of Umbriatico.

VERZUOLO, a town of Piedmont, late France, in the department of the *Stera*, situated in a fruitful foil and salubrious air, near the *Vratis*. The country about it seems an agreeable garden, covered with fruit-trees, vines, pulse, &c. It is surrounded with an ancient wall, and flanked with towers. It has two parish-churches, besides several chapels and religious houses. It has also a castle or palace; 2 miles S. of Saluzzo.

VERZY, a town of France, in the department of the *Marne*; 9 miles S.E. of Rheims.

VESALIUS, **ANDREW**, in *Biography*, a very eminent anatomist, was born at Brussels in 1513 or 1514; pursued his classical studies at Louvain, and with a view to medicine and anatomy, frequented the schools of Cologne, Montpellier, and Paris, attending, in the last-mentioned capital, the lectures of Gunther and James Sylvius. Upon occasion of the war between Francis I. and Charles V. he was obliged to quit Paris, and in the Low Countries he served as physician and surgeon in the imperial troops from 1535 to

1537. In the latter year he removed to Padua, and taught anatomy there with great applause till the year 1543. He afterwards delivered lectures in the schools of Bologna and Pisa, and in the beginning of 1544, he became physician to Charles V., and resided chiefly at the imperial court. In the midst of his career of professional reputation, a singular circumstance occurred. Being summoned to examine by dissection the body of a Spanish gentleman who died in 1564, and too precipitately commencing the operation, a palpitation was observed in the heart of the subject. This incident being known to the family, Vesalius was accused before the Inquisition, and in order to avert some dreadful sentence, Philip II. interposed, and procured injunction of a pilgrimage to the Holy Land as an expiatory penance. Accordingly the unfortunate anatomist went first to Cyprus, and from thence to Jerusalem. During his abode in that city, he received an invitation to occupy the chair of anatomy at Padua. Having, as it is supposed, accepted this invitation, the vessel in which he was returning to Europe was wrecked on the coast of Zante, on which island he died in 1564, about the 50th year of his age. A jeweller of the island procured an honourable interment for his remains in the church of the Holy Virgin at Zante.

Vesalius has been represented as the first person who rescued anatomical science from the slavery imposed upon it by deference to ancient opinions, and who led the way to modern improvements. His first publication of note was a set of anatomical tables, entitled "Suorum de Corporis Humani Anatome Librorum Epitome," Basil, 1542, fol. max. The plates were for the most part given again in his great work, "De Corporis Humani Fabrica, Lib. VII." Basil, 1543, fol. which has been frequently reprinted in several countries. He is most correct, says one of his biographers, in the bones, muscles, and viscera; the muscles, says Haller, he describes more accurately than any other writer, to the time of Winslow. The earliest impressions of the plates are considered as the most valuable; but the author corrected his explanations in the second Basil edition, 1555. His treatise "De Radicis Chinæ usu Epistola," published in 1546, contains a severe critique on the anatomy of Galen, and a correction of his errors; and his reply to the defence of Galen by Fallopio is the subject of his "Anatomicarum Gabrielis Fallopii Observationum Examen," 1561. The medical and surgical writings of Vesalius are held in no high estimation. His paraphrase on the 9th book of Rhazes, published in 1537, is a compendium of medical practice. After his death, his disciple, Borgarucci, published "Chirurgia Magna" under his name, a work scarcely worthy of its alleged author. An edition of all the anatomical and surgical works of Vesalius, with fine plates, was published under the care of Boerhaave and Albinus at Leyden, 1725, 2 vols. folio. Haller. Tiraboschi. Eloy. Gen. Biog.

VESBOLA, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Italy, in the vicinity of the Ceraunian mountains, about 60 stadia from Trebula, and 40 from Suna, attributed by Dionysius Halicarnassus to the Aborigines.

VESCAVATO, in *Geography*, a town of the island of Corfica; 9 miles N.E. of La Porta.

VESCI, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Hispania, in the interior of Bætica, at the foot of mount Ilipula, belonging to the Turduli.

VESCIA, a town of Italy, in Aponia. Steph. Byz. Livy mentions this town and its territory.

VESCIS, a port of Hispania Citerior.

VESCONTE, in *Geography*, a town of Naples, in Calabria Ultra; 3 miles N.W. of St. Severina.

VESCO.

· VESCOVATO, a town of Italy, in the department of the Upper Po; 8 miles N.N.E. of Cremona.

VESCOVIO, or **VESCOVIO DI SABINA**, a town of the Popedom, in the province of Sabina; 12 miles S. of Narni.

VESCOVO, **LA**, a town of Naples, in Principato Citra; 14 miles W.S.W. of Amalfi.

VESERIS, in *Ancient Geography*, a place of Italy, in Campania, on the plains at the foot of mount Vesuvius. Livy says that it was in this place that Decius devoted himself to the gods Manes, on occasion of a battle between the Romans and Latins.

VESICA, in *Anatomy*, a bladder; a membranous or flaccid part in which any humour is contained.

VESICA Biliaria. See **GALL-Bladder**.

VESICA, among *Chemists*, is a large copper vessel tinned on the inside, used in distilling ardent spirits; so called, as resembling the figure of a blown bladder.

VESICÆ Spinhæter, in *Anatomy*. See **SPHINCTER**.

VESICARIA, in *Botany*, a genus of Tournefort's, thus named from the bladderly appearance of its very large inflated seed-vessel.—Tourn. Cor. 49. t. 483.—Linneus reduces this plant to *Alysum*; see that article, n. 16. Tournefort makes a singular remark, that "if the root were fleshy, it would belong to the same genus as *Leontopetalon*;" see **LEONTICE**. He subsequently perhaps discovered it to be a true cruciform flower, as it undoubtedly is. No other botanist seems to have met with this plant; though Willdenow, like ourselves, had seen a dried specimen, and he finds fault, we think unjustly, with the figure. Tournefort with this species in a bare and uncultivated valley of Armenia, not far from Baïboul, early in June. The root is woody, and appears to be perennial, crowned with tufts of linear, channelled, toothed, nearly smooth, bright-green leaves, not an inch long. Stems three or four inches high, simple, clothed with smaller, more entire, leaves. Flowers corymbose, small, yellow. Pouch somewhat ovate, inflated, four-fided, an inch long, and nearly as broad, membranous, smooth, with four longitudinal angles and ribs, and many reticulated veins, pale-green, purplish on one side, crowned by the permanent style. It consists of one cell, with two opposite, linear, marginal, membranous receptacles, into which the three or four oval seeds are inserted.—All things considered, we cannot but think this plant entitled to rank as a genus by itself, nor is the name exceptionable. Though not furnished with materials to draw up its full generic character, we can give the essential distinctions.—Class and order, *Tetradynamia Siliculosa*. Nat. Ord. *Siliquosæ*, Linn. *Cruciferae*, Juss.

Eff. Ch. Pouch inflated, quadrangular, acute, of one cell, with two linear marginal receptacles. Seeds several.

1. *V. dentata*. Toothed Bladder-crefs. (*V. orientalis*, foliis dentatis; Tourn. Cor. 49. Voyage, v. 2. 109, with a plate. *Alysum Vescaria*; Linn. Sp. Pl. 910. Willd. Sp. Pl. v. 3. 470. Mill. Dict. ed. 8. n. 9.)—Native of Armenia. It is scarcely necessary to remark, that Miller merely adopted this plant from Tournefort, without having seen it alive, nor can we discover his authority for saying the stems spread on the surface of the ground. They appear by our specimen, as well as by Tournefort's figure, to be upright.

· VESICATORY, **VESICATORIUM**. See **BLISTER**, **CANTHARIDES**, and **EMPLASTRUM**.

Vesicatories are a stronger sort of sinapisms, and a kind of potentia cauteris.

VESICULA, **VESICLE**, a diminutive of *vesica*; signifying a little bladder.

The lungs consist of vesiculæ, or lobules of vesiculæ, ad-

mitting air from the bronchiæ; and not only air, but all dust, &c.

There are several parts in the body which bear this appellation; as,

VESICULA Fellis, *Cistula Fellis*. See **GALL-Bladder**.

VESICULÆ Seminales. See **GENERATION**.

VESICULÆ Seminales. These vessels are very evident in fish; the females of most fish have double ovaria, though in some they are single, as in the osmerus, and perca fluviatilis of Bellonius; but the vesiculæ feminales in the males are two in number in all fish, not excepting the males of those here mentioned. They differ, however, very much in regard to their figure and situation. As to their situation, they in some fish occupy almost the whole length of the abdomen, as in the spinose kinds in general, and in the petromyzum, acipenser, and many of the other cartilaginous kinds. In some fish, they are placed only in the lower part of the abdomen, as in the cetaceous kinds, &c. As to figure, in the generality of fish they are oblong and compressed, but in some they are round, as in the cetaceous kinds. The other parts of generation are wanting in most fish. Artedi's Ichthyology.

VESICULÆ Adiposæ. See **ADEPS**, and **CELLULÆ Adiposæ**.

VESICULAR GLANDS. See **GLANDS**.

VESIDIA, or **VERIGLIA**, in *Ancient Geography*, a small river of Italy, in Etruria.

VESINNE, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Yonne; 10 miles S.E. of St. Florentin.

VESIONICÆ, in *Ancient Geography*, a place of Italy, in Umbria, S.W. of Iguvium.

VESIRE, in *Geography*, a river of France, which runs into the Lignon, near its union with the Loire.

VESLE, a river of France, which runs into the Aisne, near Veilly.—Also, a river of France, which runs into the Saône, opposite Varenne-le-Grand.

VESLING, JOHN, in *Biography*, a physician, anatomist, and botanist, was born at Minden, in Westphalia, in the year 1598; and having studied medicine at Padua, he travelled into Egypt, and upon his visit to Jerusalem, he became a knight of the Holy Sepulchre. Upon his return, he was appointed, in 1652, to occupy the first chair of anatomy at Padua, lecturing also in surgery and botany, and in 1638 superintending the botanical garden. In order to enrich this garden, he travelled to Candia, and other parts of the Levant, where he collected a large number of rare plants. At length, exhausted by his labours, he died at Padua in 1649, at the age of 51 years. As an anatomist, he published "Syntagma Anatomicum publicis Dissectionibus diligenter aptatum," Patav. 1641, and again with additions and figures, Patav. 1647; a work which has been often reprinted and translated into various languages, and which, though for the most part a compilation, contains new observations, especially pertaining to the organ of hearing. A posthumous work, entitled "De Pulitione Ægyptiorum, atque Observationes Anatomicæ, et Epistolæ Medicæ posthumæ," Hafn. 1664, is highly commended by Haller, and contains some curious observations on the hatching of eggs in Egypt, and evolution of parts of the chick, the anatomy of the viper, crocodile, and hyæna, the human lacteals and lymphatics, &c. His principal publications in botany were, "De Plantis Ægypti Observationes, et Notæ ad P. Alpinum," Patav. 1638; "Opobalsami Veteribus cogniti Vindicie," Patav. 1644; and "Catalogus Plantarum Horti Paduini," Patav. 1642-1644. Haller. Eloy.

VESLY, in *Geography*. See **VELLY**.

VESOUL, a city of France, and capital of the department

ment of the Upper Saône, situated on a mountain, called Mott de Veloul: near it is a medicinal spring; $5\frac{1}{2}$ posts N. of Befançon. N. lat. $47^{\circ} 38'$. E. long. $6^{\circ} 14'$.

VESPA, *Wasp*, in *Entomology*, a genus of the Hymenoptera order of insects, the characters of which are these: the mouth horny; the jaw compressed, without proboscis; the palpi or feelers four, unequal, filiform; the antennæ filiform, the first joint being longer and cylindric; the eyes lunated; the body smooth; the sting concealed; and the upper wings plicated. This is a very extensive genus, comprehending, in Gmelin's System of Linnæus, 159 species; but in the history and arrangement of this species there remains much confusion. We may observe in general, that they are remarkable, like those of the apis, or bee, for the dexterity with which they construct their nests, which in those of many species is of considerable size. We shall confine ourselves, in this article, to a description of two species; viz. the *Vulgaris* and *Crabro*.

VULGARIS; or Common Wasp. This has an interrupted small line on both sides of the thorax; a four-spotted scutellum, and the incisions of the abdomen marked with black spots. It is suggested by Dr. Shaw, that the *V. vulgaris* of Linnæus, which he represents as building its nest under projecting roofs, may not be the same with the common English wasp, so well known to us, which builds its nest under ground; as under the surface of some dry bank. M. Reaumur (*Hist. Acad. Sc. Paris*, 1719), and Dr. Derham (*Phil. Trans.* N° 382. p. 53. or *Abr.* vol. viii. p. 404.), agrees in distinguishing three sorts of wasps; viz. the queens or females, the males, and the common labouring wasps, called mules, which, according to Reaumur, are neither males nor females, and consequently barren. The queens, of which there is a considerable number, though fewer than the males, and of course much fewer than the neutral or labouring wasps, are much longer in the body, and larger than any other wasp: they have a large heavy belly, corresponding in size to the prodigious quantity of eggs with which they are charged. The males are less than the queens, but longer and larger than the common wasps, which are the smallest of the species: they have no stings, with which both the queens and common wasps are furnished. There are in one nest two or three hundred males, and as many females; but their number depends on the size of the nest; and Dr. Derham observed that the males were bred, or at least mostly resided, in the two cells or partings, between the combs, next to the uppermost cell. The antennæ or horns of the male wasps are longer and larger than those of either of the other sorts; but the chief difference, says Dr. Derham, consists in their parts of generation, which are altogether different from those of other wasps.

The mules are the labourers belonging to the nest, and are employed in procuring materials for the nests, and in constructing them, and also in furnishing the other wasps, and the young, with provisions.

M. Reaumur has observed, that when the females that have survived the winter begin, at the return of spring, to lay their eggs, they first lay those which hatch mules, and at this time they build cells of a smaller size to lodge the eggs from which they are produced: they afterwards build larger cells, and fill them with the largest eggs, which are those of the males and females. This writer says, that the copulation of the males and females is visible, and he has given a particular account of it; observing that it is performed in October, like that of all other flies.

At the beginning of winter the wasps destroy all the eggs, and all the young ones without exception; all the mules and males which have been employed in this work, being unfur-

nished with provisions, perish; and none survive, except some few females, which, according to Reaumur, were fecundated in October, and raise a new colony in the beginning of spring.

The wasps construct regular combs, and rear their young in the cells of these combs, in the manner of bees: wherever there is a young worm in a cell, the old wasps frequently thrust their heads into it, and cast up the food, being a coarse kind of honey, for the young one out of their mouths: their cells are hexagonal; and when they have a mind to enlarge their habitations, and make more or bigger combs in them, they are seen very busily coming out of the mouth of the hole, every one loaded with a parcel of earth, till they have carried out as much as is necessary for the intended enlargement.

They support their combs, one over another, by cross-pieces of about an inch long, so that there is ample room for the wasps to pass in their several businesses. Those cells which stand in the centre of a comb are always perpendicular; the others all stand more or less obliquely; and in the centre, the comb is somewhat hollowed and depressed on the face, and convex on the back; and in this part is inserted the principal cross-piece that serves for a support.

A wasp's nest is commonly round, or oval, measuring about ten or twelve inches in diameter, and made of materials resembling the coarser kinds of whitish-brown paper. These materials consist of the fibres of various dry vegetable substances, agglutinated by a tenacious fluid, discharged from the mouths of the insects during their operations. The common covering of it, which is formed of several leaves or layers, with intermediate spaces, is pierced by two holes at a distance from one another, one of which is used for the entrance of the wasps, and the other only for their exit. The space within this covering is cut by a number of horizontal planes, with intervals between them of the size of about half an inch; they are suspended from one another by ligaments, and attached to the covering by their edges; they all have hexagonal cells in their lower surface.

The eggs, larvæ, or maggots of the wasp are of an oblong form, and resemble those of a common fly, but they are larger; they are always fastened to the angles of a cell, never to the sides of it. They are usually placed single: it is very rare to find two in one cell; and, if they are laid so, it seems that only one succeeds; for there is never found more than one worm in a cell.

The heads of all the nymphs are turned toward the centre of the comb, and their tails go obliquely downward toward the base of the cell. They are continually seen opening their mouths, and moving their forcipes, seeming ever hungry, and impatiently waiting for food from their parents. The cells are left open till the nymph is at its full growth; then the wasps cover it over with a thin lid, under which the worm undergoes its transformation; and as soon as it arrives at the wasp state, it eats its way through this thin cover, and comes to work with the rest.

The wasps do not, like bees, prepare and lay up a store of honey for winter use, but the few which survive the season of their birth remain torpid during the colder months. Wasps in general are both carnivorous and frugivorous.

CRABRO; or Hornet. This has its thorax black on the fore part, and unspotted, having the incisions of the abdomen marked with a double contiguous black spot. This species is of a much more formidable nature than the common wasp, and of considerably larger size: its colour is a tawny yellow, with ferruginous and black bars and variegations. The nest of this species is generally built in the cavity of some decayed tree, or immediately beneath its roots; and not unfre-

frequently in timber-yards, and other similar situations. It is of smaller size than that of the wasp, and of a somewhat globular form, with an opening beneath; the exterior shell consisting of more or fewer layers of the same strong paper-like substance with that prepared by the wasp: the cells are also of a similar nature, but much fewer in number, and less elegantly composed. The hornet, like the wasp, is extremely voracious, and preys on almost any kind of fresh animal substances which it can obtain, as well as on honey, fruit, &c. &c. Its sting is greatly to be dreaded, and is often productive of very serious consequences.

A highly elegant wasp's-nest is sometimes seen during the summer season, attached, or hanging as it were, by its base to some straw or other projecting substance, from the upper part of unfrequented buildings or outhouses. It does not much exceed the size of an egg, but is of a more globular form, and consists of several concentric bells, with considerable intervals between each, the interior alone being entire, and furnished with a small round orifice; the rest reaching only about two-thirds from the base of the nest. In the centre of the complete or entire bell is situated the congeries of cells, built round a small central pillar attached to the base: the cells are not very numerous, and their orifices look downwards. This nest is attributed by M. Latreille, in the work entitled "Annales du Muséum National d'Histoire Naturelle," No. 4. to the *Vespa Holistica* of Fabricius, and appears to be found both in England and France, as well as in many other parts of Europe. Shaw's Zoology, vol. vi.

Mr. Ray mentions a peculiar species of wasp, which builds a much smaller nest. This is usually fixed to a beam of some old building, and has only one aperture, which is about half an inch wide, and serves for the wasps to go in and out at. This aperture is always exactly opposite to that part of the hive where it adheres to the beam. The hive or nest is covered with a thin membranaceous substance resembling paper, of a brown colour, with streaks of white, disposed in regular circles. The whole nest is about three inches in diameter, and is usually composed of about nine crusts; when these are cut away, there appears a round comb in the centre, and a smaller above it, fixed up by a pedicle arising from the centre of each. In every one of these cells, which are hexagonal, as those of the common wasp, is reared one worm, which, in fine, becomes a wasp.

The species of wasp which builds in this manner differs from the common wasp in that it is somewhat larger; it is smoother also, and has rings of a deeper yellow on the back: the black spots are not so regular in this as in the common wasp; and the forehead in this is of a perfect yellow, without any spots. These marks, with the difference of hanging a small nest against a beam, and building a large one in the ground, are sufficient to distinguish this as an absolutely different species. Besides these two, Mr. Ray mentions four other species of wasps.

We have an account in the Philosophical Transactions, No. 476, of some wasp-nests made of clay in Pennsylvania.

M. Reaumur, in his History of Insects, vol. vi. mentions clay-nests from St. Domingo, somewhat different from these.

The common wasp has four wings and six feet; its body is yellow, with black triangular spots: the common wasp breeds in the ground.

There is another kind much more fierce, but very rare: these breed in woods and mountains; they are larger, and have broader bodies, and much more black about them;

VOL. XXXVII.

their sting is so large, that it seems disproportioned to the size of their bodies. The application of vinegar is said to be good against their stinging.

To these are to be added the ichneumon wasps, which are smaller than the others, and have very slender bodies, but of the same colours with the common kind; these usually live in the holes of mud-walls, and make a sort of porch of mud before the doors of their habitations.

Of this insect, Mr. Ray mentions not less than thirty-two species; the greater part of which are common on the sides of mud-banks in the borders of fields. These have all slender bodies, and are armed with stings.

The origin of this creature is very strange; it is usually found issuing from the body of the common cabbage caterpillar; the occasion of which is this: the parent fly strikes her tail through the skin of the back of this caterpillar, and deposits her eggs in the creature's flesh. The eggs hatch into small maggots of the carnivorous kind; and these prey upon the flesh of the caterpillar till they arrive at their full growth: the creature that supports them keeping itself alive all this time by the vast quantities of nourishment it is continually taking in. At length, when these worms are arrived at their full growth, they spin themselves a web, under which they change into chrysalides, and soon after come out in form of the fly that laid the egg. This is not peculiar to this single species of fly; but many are formed thus in the bodies of caterpillars of several kinds: some of these spin their webs under the skin of the caterpillar, and eat their way through it, when arrived at their perfect state; but others crawl out while yet in their worm state, after having eaten their full time, and bury themselves under ground in order to spin their webs.

There is also another wasp common about Vienna; this is three times as large as the common kind, and seems of two different species, the one having rough antennae, and the other smooth: they are both variegated with black and a bright yellow. Mouffet's Hist. Insects, p. 6.

VESPA-Ichneumon. See the preceding article.

VESPASIE, in *Ancient Geography*, a place of Italy, in the country of the Sabines, on the summit of a mountain, six miles from Nursia. Many monuments indicating the antiquity of the Vespasian family, are found in this place, according to Suetonius.

VESPASIAN, **TITUS FLAVIUS VESPASIANUS**, in *Biography*, a Roman emperor, was born near Reate, in the country of the Sabines, A.D. 7, and brought up by his paternal grandmother near Cosa, in Tuscany. In the year 38 he was edile, and disgraced himself by his adulation of the tyrant Caligula: actuated by the same mean spirit, he married Domitia or Domitilla, the mistress of a Roman knight. In the reign of Claudius he distinguished himself by the command of a legion, obtained for him by the interest of Narcissus, first in Germany, and afterwards in Great Britain, and he was rewarded for his services by the triumphal ornaments, a double priesthood, and at last a consulate. During the early years of Nero's reign he lived in retirement, but at length he was appointed procurator of Africa; and in this office he incurred the detestation of the people, according to Tacitus, whereas Suetonius says, that he discharged his duties with integrity and dignity. By way of reconciling these contradictory accounts, it has been stated, that in levying the public impositions on the province he was rigorous, whilst he exacted nothing for himself, and that he administered justice with impartiality. Upon his return he was reduced to pecuniary embarrassments, from which he was relieved by mortgaging his landed property, and by some mean practices. In the attentions expected from a

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courtier

courtier he was deficient; for he is said to have fallen asleep during one of Nero's public musical performances, and to have thus hazarded his ruin. He accompanied this emperor in his tour to Greece, and A.D. 66, he was appointed imperial lieutenant in the Jewish war. In this station he had full scope for exhibiting his good qualities as a military commander. With three legions, a body of cavalry, and ten auxiliary cohorts, he invaded Judæa, his son Titus serving under him as lieutenant. His progress was irresistible; and after capturing Jotapa and Joppa, and reducing almost the whole of Galilee, he withdrew to Cæsarea, where he witnessed the conflict of two Jewish parties, who were destroying one another. Whilst he was preparing for the siege of Jerusalem, the death of Nero, A.D. 68, presented to him new prospects. As soon as he received intelligence of the accession of Galba, he sent his son Titus to pay homage to the new emperor; but on his journey Titus received an account of the murder of the emperor. This event produced a contest between Otho and Vitellius for the imperial throne. Vespasian declared for Vitellius, who, by Otho's death, was left in possession of the throne. But the new emperor was both hated and despised; and Vespasian's reputation was so generally acknowledged in the East, that in the year 69 he was proclaimed emperor by the legions of Judæa, Syria, and Egypt, and his sovereignty was every where recognized. When Italy submitted to his name, Vespasian was at Alexandria; and as the senate and people concurred in his elevation to the imperial throne, he left this city A.D. 70, and hastened to Rome, where his arrival was eagerly expected. He was received with general congratulation and rejoicing; and his conduct confirmed the hopes that were entertained at the commencement of his reign. To the revival of the ancient discipline of the army his first attention was directed; and as soon as he assumed the censorial office, he revised the list of senators and knights, displacing the unworthy, and augmenting the number by the admission of several meritorious citizens. Whilst he restrained luxury by his example and authority, and administered justice with impartiality, he manifested in his general conduct the clemency and mildness of his disposition. He avoided every kind of parade, nor did he ever attempt to disguise the meanness of his origin. With the senators he lived upon easy and familiar terms, receiving and returning their visits; and, as an historian observes, acting the emperor only by his vigilance for the public welfare. The principal blemish of his character was his avarice. Accordingly, he had recourse to various mean and oppressive expedients for raising money. Nevertheless, the wealth which he accumulated by forcible methods was distributed with munificence, in improving the capital and the country, and in providing for poor senators, for literary professors, and for the encouragement of the arts.

If we advert to the public events of his reign, the first year was distinguished by the termination of the rebellion of the Gauls under Civilis, and the capture of Jerusalem by Titus; and in the following year he shut the temple of Janus, and erected a magnificent temple to Peace. In the year 72, Cambrage was reduced to a Roman province by the deposition of its king Antiochus. The liberty granted to the people of Greece by Nero, in recompence of their adulation, was restricted A.D. 73, on account of some tumults which occurred, and they were again subjected to tribute and the Roman government. The islands of the Ægean sea were likewise constituted a Roman province, and Rhodes was made the metropolis. The honour of this reign was justly reproached for the death of the virtuous patriot Helvidius Priscus, who, for freedom of speech, and action scarcely

compatible with monarchical government, was first banished and afterwards sentenced to death by the senate, a sentence which, it is said, was executed by the contrivance of Murianus, contrary to the orders of Vespasian. The tragical fate of Sabinus, and his wife Eponina, was very derogatory to the character for clemency by which he was distinguished. (See SABINUS.) Vespasian has also been blamed for the banishment of the Stoic and Cynic philosophers from Rome, under an apprehension that they were enemies to absolute power. This emperor, having enjoyed the benefit of a good constitution to advanced age, was attacked with a fever in the insalubrious climate of Campania, and having drank too copiously of a cold mineral water, he was seized with a complaint in his bowels, which soon reduced him to a state of perilous debility. Apprised of his danger, and jesting upon the usual imperial apotheosis, he said, "In my opinion, I am going to become a god." Afterwards, as he found himself fainting, he attempted to rise out of his bed, observing, that "an emperor ought to die standing." He expired in the arms of his attendants, in June A.D. 79, in the seventieth year of his age, and tenth of his reign; lamented by the Roman people, who under his government had enjoyed several years of peace. Titus, one of his sons, was the great support of his father's throne, and the other, Domitian, was the cause of much trouble and vexation to him. Tacitus. Suetonius. Crevier.

VESPER, in *Astronomy*, called also *Hesperus*, and the *evening star*, is the planet Venus, when she is eastward of the sun, and consequently sets after him. See VENUS.

VESPER, in *Geography*, a small island in the Pacific ocean, about 36 miles in circumference, discovered by Roggewin in 1722; about 60 miles W. of Pernicious island.

VESPERIES, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Hispania Citerior, belonging to the Varduli; situated N.E. of Flaviobriga.

VESPERS, in the *Romish Church*, *Evening Song*, that part of the office which is rehearsed after noon; answering to our *evening prayers*; except that it differs more from the office of the morning, called *matins*.

VESPERS, *Sicilian*, denote a famous era in the French history; or a general massacre of all the French in Sicily, in the year 1282, to which the first toll that called to vespers was the signal.

Some will have it to have happened on Easter eve; others on the day of the Annunciation; but most authors assign it to Easter day. It is ascribed to one Prochites, a Cordelier, at the time when Charles of Anjou, count of Provence, was king of Naples and Sicily. The women with child by Frenchmen were not spared.

After the like manner we say, the *matins of Moscow*, speaking of the Muscovites assassinating their prince Demetrius, and all the Poles, his adherents, at Moscow, the 27th of May, 1600, under the conduct of their duke Choutsky, at six o'clock in the morning; and *French matins* to the massacre of St. Bartholomew, in 1572.

VESPERTILIO, *Bat*, in *Zoology*, a genus of the order Primates, in the class of Mammalia; which, though ranked by Linnaeus in the order of Primates, differs greatly from the rest. The characters of this genus are, that the teeth are erect, sharp-pointed, and approximated; and that the hands are palmated with a membrane surrounding the body, and giving the animal the power of flight. Dr. Shaw observes, that the curious formation of these animals cannot be contemplated without admiration; the bones of the extremities being continued into long and thin processes, connected by a most delicate membrane or skin, capable, from its thinness, of being contracted at pleasure into innumerable wrinkles,

VESPERTILIO.

wrinkles, so as to lie in a small space when the animal is at rest, and to be stretched to a very wide extent for occasional flight. The species of this extraordinary genus are numerous, and may be divided into the *tailed* and *tailless* bats. Gmelin, in his edition of the Linnæan System, enumerates twenty-three species, and distributes them into several divisions, according to the number of the fore-teeth in the upper and lower jaw.

** Bats with four Fore-teeth in both Jaws.*

VAMPIRUS. Tailless bat, with the nose simple, or without any appendage, and the flying membrane divided between the thighs. This is the ternate bat of Pennant; and this, or the variety α of Gmelin, the colour of which is chiefly black, is the *V. ingens* of Clusius, the *V. volans* of Bontius, the chien volant of Daubenton, and *rouffette* of Buffon. Gmelin enumerates two other varieties, differing in size and colour; one the great bat of Edwards, or *rouffette* of Buffon, and the other the lesser ternate bat of Pennant. See **VAMPIRE**.

SPECTRUM. Tailless bat, with a funnel-shaped, sharp-pointed membrane on the nose. This is the *andira guacu*, *vespertilio cornutus* of Pilo, the *vampyre* of Buffon, or *specière* bat of Pennant. See **VAMPIRE**.

PERSPICILLATUS. A tailless bat, with a nose furnished with a plane leaf acuminate. This is found in South America, and is supposed by some to be the javelin bat of Pennant.

SPASMA. A tailless bat, with a doubly heart-shaped leaf-like membrane on the nose. This is the *glis volans ternatanus* of Seba, and cordated bat of Pennant. The colour is reddish-brown; the extent of wing about fifteen inches, and length of body nearly four inches: it is a native of Ceylon and the Molucca islands.

HASTATUS. A tailless bat, with a trefoil-shaped upright membrane on the nose. This is the javelin bat of Pennant, with large pointed ears, a membrane at the nose in the form of an ancient javelin, with two upright processes on each side, cinereous fur, and of the size of the common bat: synonymous, according to Pennant, with the *V. perspicillatus* of Linnæus, and inhabiting the warmer parts of America.

SORICINUS. A tailless bat, with lengthened snout, furnished with a heart-shaped, leaf-like membrane. This is the leaf bat of Pennant, and bat from Jamaica of Edwards; with small rounded ears, a web between the hind-legs; fur of a mouse-colour, tinged with red, and size of the common bat. Found in South America.

LEPORINUS. Tailed bat, with the upper lip bifid. This is the Peruvian bat of Pennant. It has a head resembling that of a pug-dog; the ears are large and straight, sharp at the ends, and pointing forwards; tail inclosed in the membrane which joins to each hind-leg, and supported by two long cartilaginous ligaments, involved in the membrane; colour of the fur iron-grey; body of the size of a middling rat, and extent of wing two feet five inches.

** * Fore-teeth in the upper Jaw four, in the lower six.*

AURITUS. Tailed bat, with simple or inappendiculated mouth and nose, and double ears larger than the head. This is the long-eared English bat of Edwards, the oreiller of Buffon, and the long-eared bat of Pennant. This very much resembles the next species, but is rather smaller, and the fur has less of the reddish tinge; but it is distinguished by the very large size of the ears, which are more than an inch long, and very considerably wide; slightly rounded at the tips, and furnished internally with a kind of secondary auricle or internal flap, so placed as to serve by way of a valve or guard to the auditory passage.

MURINUS. Tailed bat, with simple nose, and ears smaller than the head. This is the *chauve-fouris* of Buffon, the short-eared English bat of Edwards, and the common bat of Pennant. It is about two inches and a half from the nose to the tip of the tail, and the extent of the wings, fully expanded, is about nine inches: it is of a mouse-colour, tinged with reddish; the wings and ears black, the latter being small and rounded.

This and the former bats are the two most common species in this country; and they are those which are seen fluttering about in the evenings of summer and autumn; often uttering a sharp, frigidulous note or scream during their flight, and pursuing the various insects on which they feed, particularly moths. They are sometimes taken by throwing up the heads of burdock whitened with flour, being thus caught by the hooked prickles and brought to the ground. The bat is, like the mouse, capable of being tamed to a certain degree. Insects are its favourite food, though it will not reject raw flesh when offered; so that the notion that bats go down chimneys and gnaw men's bacon is not improbable. The vulgar opinion, that bats, when on a flat surface, cannot get on the wing again, is erroneous. Bats are commonly supposed to produce two at a birth, which they suckle for a considerable time. When recently born, they adhere so tenaciously to the breast of the parent, as not to be removed without great difficulty: they lodge in great numbers in the cavities of old buildings, under the projections of walls, in the hollows of trees, in rocky places, &c. &c. In these recesses they lie torpid during winter, till the warmth of the vernal atmosphere invites them abroad to make their evening excursions. When taken torpid, and brought into a warm situation, they awake from their slumber, and again expand their wings. During their state of torpidity, the circulation of the blood is not perceivable in the smaller vessels, but when awakened by warmth, it becomes visible by the microscope. Bats are said to drink on the wing by sipping the surface, like swallows, as they play over pools and streams. They are fond of frequenting waters, not only for the sake of drinking, but on account of the insects that hover over them. The general appearance of the bat, together with its nocturnal flight, excites the idea of something that is hideous and dismal; and therefore the ancients consecrated it to Proserpine, and conceived it as one of her dusky regions; and hence painters, in their representations of fiends and demons, usually exhibit them with the leathern wings of the bat. It is also no less evident, that the larger bats of India and Africa might, by a little poetical exaggeration, serve very well in a general description of the fabulous Harpies. Spallanzani, having found that bats would fly in the darkest chamber with precision, and without touching the walls, discovered also the same exactness in their motions, when their eyes were closely covered; and he even destroyed the eyes and covered their sockets with leather; and in this state they were equally accurate in all their movements. Similar experiments were tried by several other naturalists with the same result. In order to account for these phenomena, professor Jurin of Geneva makes a variety of pertinent observations. Neither the touch, nor ear, nor smell, nor taste, is sufficient in his opinion to supply the want of sight; but from some anatomical investigations of these animals, he concluded that a very large proportion of nerves is expanded on the upper jaw, the muzzle, and the organ of hearing; and these appeared to him, in a great degree, to account for the extraordinary faculty above-mentioned. Mr. Carlisle's observations on this subject lead us to conclude that the sense of hearing in the bat is extremely delicate, and that this is one of the principal causes

VESPERTILIO.

of the dexterity with which these animals, even when blinded, avoid objects which would impede their flight. Mr. Carlisle found, that when the external ears of the *V. auritus* in a state of blindness were closed, it struck against the sides of the room, without being at all aware of its situation. These bats refused every kind of food for four days, as was also the case with others which were preserved in a dark box for above a week. During the day-time they were very desirous of retirement and darkness; and, while confined to the box, never moved nor endeavoured to get out during the whole day, and when spread on the carpet, they crawled slowly to a dark corner or crevice. At sun-set the scene was quite changed; every one of them then endeavoured to scratch its way out of the box; a continued chirping was heard, and no sooner was the lid of their prison opened than each was active to escape, either flying away immediately, or running nimbly to a convenient place for taking wing. When these bats were first collected, several of the females had young ones clinging to their breasts in the act of sucking. One of them flew with perfect ease, though two little ones were thus attached to her, which weighed nearly as much as their parent. All the young were destitute of down, and of a black colour.

NOCTULA. Tailed bat, with nose and mouth simple; oval ears, and very small valves. This is the noctule of Buffon, and great bat of Pennant. This species is larger than the *V. auritus*, its extended wings measuring from fourteen to fifteen inches; the length from the nose to the tip of the tail being about four inches and a half; the nose is slightly bilobed; the eyes are small and rounded; the body is fleshy and plump; the shoulders very thick and muscular; the fur very soft and glossy, and of a bright chestnut-colour. This is an inhabitant of Britain and France; and is said to be common in some parts of Russia, sheltering in caverns. It flies high in the air in search of food, and does not skim near the surface, like the smaller bats. It has been found occasionally in great numbers under the eaves of old buildings, and its smell is generally strong and unpleasant.

SEROTINUS. Tailed yellowish bat, with short emarginated ears. This is the serotine of Buffon; its length from nose to rump two inches and a half. A native of France, and found in Russia.

PIPISTRELLUS. Tailed blackish-brown bat, with convex front and ovate emarginated ears, scarcely longer than the head. The pipistrelle of Buffon and of Pennant. This is a small species, and found in France. The length from nose to rump scarcely an inch and a quarter; the extent of wings somewhat more than six inches.

BARBASTELLUS. Tailed bat, with elevated hairy cheeks, and large ears angulated on the lower part. The barbastelle of Buffon and of Pennant. Length about two inches from nose to tail; extent about ten inches; upper part of the body dusky-brown, lower part ash-coloured; ears broad and long; nose short; cheeks full; and end of the nose flattened. Found in France.

HISPIDUS. Tailed hairy bat, with channelled nostrils, and long narrow ears. The bearded bat of Pennant; a small species: above reddish-brown; beneath whitish, tinged with yellow; nostrils open; hair on the forehead and under the chin very long; tail included in a very veiny membrane.

*** *Fore-teeth in the upper Jaw four, in the lower eight.*

PICTUS. Tailed bat, with simple nose, and funnel-shaped appendiculated ears. The autre chauve-fouris of Buffon, and striped bat of Pennant. A Ceylonese species, measuring from nose to the end of the tail two inches; above

brown; wings striped with black, or with tawny and brown; changing in colour of the body, which is reddish-brown, with the under parts whitish; the nose small and short; the ears short, broad, and pointing forwards.

*** *Fore-teeth in the upper Jaw two, in the lower six.*

IGNITA. Tailed yellowish-brown bat, with the fore-part of the head, the feet, and the tail black. The Senegal bat of Pennant, with a long head, nose a little pointed, ears short and pointed, head and body tawny-brown, mixed with ash-colour; under parts paler; the two last joints of the tail extending beyond the membrane; length from nose to rump above four inches; extent of wing twenty-one inches. A native of Senegal.

**** *Fore-teeth in the upper Jaw two, in the lower four.*

MOLOSSUS. Tailed bat, with pendulous upper lip, and long tail, stretching beyond the connecting membrane. This is the bull-dog bat of Pennant, which has a thick nose; broad and round ears; the upper part of the body of a deep ash-colour, the lower paler; the five last joints of the tail disengaged from the membrane; length above two inches; extent of wings nine and a half. Found in the West Indies.

Gmelin reckons two varieties, one greater, the autre chauve-fouris of Buffon, and the other lesser, the autre chauve-fouris of Buffon. Found in the American islands.

***** *Fore-teeth in the upper Jaw two, in the lower none.*

CEPHALOTES. Tailed yellowish-grey bat, with large head, extended lips, spiral nostrils, subocular warts, and small ears without valves. This is a native of the Molucca Isles: the end of the tail reaches beyond the membrane; the tongue covered with papillæ and minute spines; the claw or thumb joined to the wing by a membrane, and the first ray of the wing terminated by a claw; the head and back of a greyish-ash colour; length from nose to rump three inches and three-quarters; extent of wings about fifteen.

***** *Fore-teeth in the upper Jaw none, in the lower four.*

LEPTURUS. Tailed bat, with tubular nostrils, slender tail, and a purse-shaped cavity on the interior part of each of the wings. This is the pouched bat of Pennant. The colour of the body is cinereous-brown; the under parts paler; length an inch and a half. A native of Surinam.

FERRUM EQUINUM. Bat with horse-shoe shaped nose; ears without valves; and tail half the length of the body. This is the fer-a-cheval of Buffon. The upper part of the body is deep cinereous; the lower part whitish. Gmelin mentions two varieties, greater and smaller, which may be the male and female, the greater above three inches and a half long from the nose to the tip of the tail, and extent of the wings above fourteen. Found in France, very rarely in England; also about the Caspian sea.

***** *No Fore-teeth.*

NOVEBORACENSIS. Long-tailed ferruginous bat, with short sharp nose, short round ears, and white spot at the base of each wing. This is the New York bat of Pennant; $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches long from nose to tail; tail $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch; extent of wings $10\frac{1}{2}$ inches; head shaped like that of a mouse; tip of the nose bifid; tail inclosed in a conic-shaped membrane; head, body, and upper side of the membrane inclosing the tail, covered with long soft hair of a bright tawny colour; the wings thin, naked, and dusky, and the bones

bones of the hind legs very slender. A native of North America, and also found in New Zealand.

***** *Number and Order of Fore-teeth unknown to Gmelin.*

LASIOPTERUS. Tailed bat, with the membrane connecting the feet very broad, and covered on the upper part with hair. The forehead of this species, which is one of the largest, is very prominent and rounded; nose short; general colour ferruginous; the upper part of the wings of a paler cast; the ends and lower parts black.

LASIURUS. Tailed bat, with tumid lips, and broad hairy tail. A small species, of unknown native country, with upright small ears; tail broad at the base, terminating in a point thickly covered with hair; colour reddish-brown.

Dr. Shaw adds the following species, *viz.*

AURIPENDULUS. Tailed bat, with obtuse nose, and large pendent ears, with pointed tips. This is the slouch-eared bat of Pennant; tail long, included in a membrane, and terminated with a hook; colour above deep chestnut, lighter on the belly, cinereous on the sides; length three inches and four lines; extent of wing fifteen inches. Native of Guiana.

NASUTUS. Tailless ferruginous bat, with long nose, flogging at the tip; and long upright rounded ears. This is the great ferretine of Pennant; colour of the upper parts a reddish-chestnut; sides of a clear yellow; remainder of a dirty white; length five inches eight lines; extent of wings two feet. A native of Guiana, assembling in great numbers in meadows and other open places; flying in company with goat-suckers in such multitudes as to darken the air.

SPEORIS. Tailed bat, with a transverse frontal cavity. This is the pit-nose bat, and from Schreber's description appears to be about the size of the common bat, and to resemble it in its general aspect, but differing in colour, which is a pale yellowish ash-brown. Its principal character, though not peculiar to it, is a remarkable transverse concavity situated on the forehead, lined with a naked blackish skin; the nostrils seated in a similar concavity at the tip of the nose. A native of India.

VESPERTILIO, in *Conchology*, the name of an elegant species of voluta, supposed to have some resemblance to the colour of a bat.

VESPERTILIONUM ALÆ, *Bat's Wings*, among *Anatomists*, two broad membranous ligaments, with which the bottom of the womb is tied to the bones of the ilium; they are so called from their resembling the wings of a bat.

VESPERTINE, **VESPERTINUS,** in *Astronomy*, is when a planet is seen descending to the west after sun-set.

VESPIVORUS BUTEO, in *Ornithology*, a name given by some authors to the bird, called in English the honey-buzzard, from its feeding its young with the maggot worms out of honey-combs. See **APIVORUS**.

VESPOLA, in *Ancient Geography*. See **VESOLA**.

VESPOLATE, in *Geography*, a town of Italy, in the department of the Gogna; 6 miles S. of Novara.

VESPRIN, a town of Hungary, the see of a bishop; 16 miles S.W. of Stuhl Weissenburg. N. lat. 47° 4'. E. long. 17° 49'.

VESPUCCI, AMERIGO, in *Biography*, was the son of a Florentine of noble family, and became famous by giving name to the largest quarter of the world. He was born in 1451, and having been educated under a paternal uncle, he was sent by his father, in the year 1490, to conduct a com-

mercial concern in Spain. At Seville he was informed of the discoveries made by Columbus, and imbibed the desire of distinguishing himself by a similar pursuit. Whether he had been previously engaged in any nautical expeditions has been a subject of controversy, since he has claimed the honour of being the first discoverer of the American continent. Of himself he says, that having been engaged by Ferdinand, king of Spain, to prosecute the discoveries in the New World, he sailed from Cadiz in May 1497, and after touching at the Canaries, arrived in thirty-seven days at a land which he conceived to be Terra Firma; and if this account be true, he must have anticipated Columbus's view of the coast of Paria by a whole year. But this expedition depends merely on his own statement; and if we consider the high estimation in which Columbus was held, in the year 1497, at the court of Ferdinand and Isabella, and that he possessed the privileges of viceroy and governor of all the newly discovered countries, we cannot suppose it credible, that any other person should be employed to prosecute the object above stated. Accordingly it has been generally believed, that Vespucci's account of his first voyage is a mere fiction, or that it is antedated, in order to support his own claims. It has also been disputed, whether in the voyage which he really made in 1499, Vespucci was a commander or merely a passenger. It is most probable that he was a passenger, and that being skilful in astronomy, a science at that time imperfectly understood, he was very useful to the navigators, and much esteemed by them. After his return he resided for some time at Seville; and upon being repeatedly invited to the court of Manuel, king of Portugal, he secretly quitted Spain, and went to Lisbon, where the king engaged him to undertake a voyage of discovery. With this view he had the command of three vessels, and sailed in May 1501, making land 5° S. of the equinoctial line, which must have been Brazil, though he has not mentioned it. Herrera, however, asserts, that at this time he was with Ojedo in the gulf of Darien, and the discovery of Brazil is attributed by the Portuguese to Cabral in the year 1500. But it appears from the testimony of Peter Martyr, a contemporary writer, that Vespucci really sailed in the service of Portugal some degrees to the south of the line. In May, 1503, he proposed in another voyage pursuing his course to the East Indies, but was thrown on the coast of Brazil, and moored in the bay of All-Saints, to which he gave name; and from thence he returned to Lisbon in 1504. Being again taken into the service of Spain, he resided at Seville in 1507, with the title of pilot-major and a yearly pension, in consideration of marking out the tracks to be followed by navigators, with the power of examining all pilots. This employment afforded him an opportunity of connecting his own name with new discoveries; and as he drew charts for mariners, he distinguished the newly discovered countries by the name of "America," as if it were "Amerigo's Land;" so that the true discoverer, notwithstanding the complaints of the Spaniards, was defrauded of the honour that belonged to him. Vespucci, however, cannot vie in the public estimation with Columbus. He is supposed to have died in 1516, and to have been buried on one of the Azores. Vespucci drew up a compendium of his four voyages, which was first published by Simon Grineus, in his "Novus Orbis," at Basil, in 1537, and afterwards in Ramusio's Collections. The Italian originals were afterwards discovered and published by Bandini. Tiraboschi. Gen. Biog.

VESSA, in *Ancient Geography*, a large and flourishing town of Sicily. Phalaris is said to have taken possession of it by stratagem from Tautus, its prince.

VESSAUX,

VESSAUX, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Ardèche; 9 miles S.W. of Privas.

VESSEL, *VAS*, *Vase*, a thing proper to hold or contain liquor. See *VAS*.

Thus, a ton, or hoghead, &c. are vessels fit to contain ale, wine, &c.

The chemists use a great diversity of vessels in their operations; as copper alembics, with their refrigeratories; worms and receivers; alembics of glass, stone, and earthen-ware; adopters, or small receivers with two necks; aludels, balloons, bottles, glass jars and basons of various sizes; cap-sules, or dishes of glass, stone-ware, crystal glass, crucible earth, and plate-iron; the cone, crucibles, glass funnels, ingot moulds, matresses, mortars, muffles, pelicans, retorts, receivers, circulatory vessels, subliming vessels, &c. See each article. See also *LABORATORY*.

Among anatomists, &c. all the tubes or canals in which the blood, and other juices or humours, are secreted, conveyed, deposited, &c. as the veins, arteries, lymphatics, spermatics, &c. are called vessels.

Some even extend the word vessel to the nerves; as supposing them the conduits of the animal spirits.

VESSEL, a general name given to the different sorts of ships, from the first-rate man-of-war to the smallest, which are navigated with masts and sails. It is, however, more particularly applied to those of the smaller kind. *Plate VI.* will represent most European vessels, with little description. The *first-rate* is a ship of the line, of one hundred guns and upwards, having three decks or tiers of guns; and the *seventy-four* is also of the line, with two decks or tiers of guns. The *gun-vessel* is rigged like a sloop of war, which is the sixth or smallest rate. The *brig* has only two masts, which are rigged like the main and fore masts of a ship, but has a fore and aft main-mast. A *sloop* only differs from a brig by having a try-fail, which hoists upon a small mast abaft the main-mast, and thereby can carry a square main-fail. A *ketch* has two masts, similar to the brig, but has no fore-mast, but a main-mast and a mizen-mast rigged as a ship's. The *lugger* has two masts, with square sails that are hoisted by their yards, not in the middle, as vessels in general, but at one-third of their length. *Schooners* are vessels of a similar size to luggers, having two masts, whose main-mast and fore-mast are suspended from gaffs at the head; and the foot stretched out by a boom, like a man-of-war's long-boat. Both luggers and schooners sometimes carry top-sails, as the brig. *Sloops*, or vessels having one mast, have a main-mast, fore-mast, and jib, as the man-of-war's long-boat. Foreign vessels, not rigged like the above, are mostly like the *xebec*; which see.

A vessel is said to be of *three or four hundred tons*; meaning, that it will carry three or four hundred times two thousand weight; or that, when immersed in water, it possesses the space of three or four hundred tons of water; which are equal to the weight of the vessel, and all the loading it can carry.

A vessel is said to *draw ten or fifteen feet of water*; meaning, that when laden, it sinks to deep under water.

The figure of vessels is an object of great importance, with regard to their motion, sailing, &c.; and in the determining what form is most commodious, the new doctrine of infinites becomes of apparent service to navigation and commerce.

A body moving in an immoveable fluid, is obliged to sever the parts thereof: and they resist such separation.—Now, setting aside a certain tenacity, by which they are, as it were, glued together, and which is different in different fluids; the whole force of the resistance depends on that of

the shock, or impulse: for a body that is struck, strikes at the same time; but a perpendicular stroke is that which a liquid resists the most, as being the greatest; and for a body to move freely therein, it must be of such figure, as to present itself as obliquely as possible. If it were triangular, and moved with the point foremost, it is certain all its parts would strike the fluid obliquely; but they would all strike it with the same obliquity; and it were more advantageous that each should strike more obliquely than the next adjacent.

Now, such a perpetual augmentation of obliquity can no where be had in a curve line; each point of which is considered as an infinitely small right line, always inclined to the other little right lines contiguous to it.

To find what curve it is, whose perpetual change of obliquity, or inclination in all its parts, renders it, of all others, the fittest to divide the fluid easily, is a problem much more difficult than it appears to be, and, in effect, is only to be solved by the new geometry; the solution was first given by sir Isaac Newton, in his investigation of the fluid of the least resistance.

That author, however, did not publish his analysis; yet the marquis de l'Hôpital hit upon it; and afterwards M. Fatio resolved the same problem, though by a much longer, and more perplexed way. See *Solid of the least RESISTANCE*, *SHIP*, and *SHIP-BUILDING*.

VESSELS, *Book of*. See *BOOK*.

VESSEL Bay, in *Geography*, a bay on the E. coast of lake Champlain.

VESSIGONSK, a town of Russia, in the government of Tver; 48 miles N.N.E. of Tver. N. lat. 58° 20'. E. long. 37° 34'.

VESSIGON, a term formerly applied to the puffy swelling termed *wind-gall* on the legs of animals. It is sometimes written *veslion*.

VEST, and VESTITURE. See *INVESTITURE*.

VESTA, in *Astronomy*, one of the new planets, which was discovered by Dr. Olbers in March 1807, and observed by S. Groombridge, esq. at Blackheath, near London, in April of the same year. For an account of this planet, see *PLANET*, *Planetary NUMBERS*, and *Solar SYSTEM*.

VESTA, in *Mythology*, one of the principal deities of the Pagans.

Those who have diligently investigated the religion of the Pythagorean philosophers pretend, that by Vesta they meant the universe, to which they ascribed a soul, and which they worshipped as the sole divinity, sometimes under the name of *to πᾶν, the vubole*, and sometimes under the appellation of *μονο, unity*. However, fabulous history records two goddesses under the name of Vesta; one the mother of Saturn, and wife of Caelum, and the other the daughter of Saturn, by his wife Rhea. The first was Terra, or the Earth, called also Cybele, and derived her name Vesta, according to some, from clothing, because the earth is clothed, *vestitur*, with plants and fruits, or, according to Ovid, from the stability of the earth, because *stat vi terra sua*, or it supports itself. Hence the first oblations in all sacrifices were offered to her, because whatsoever is sacrificed springs from the earth; and the Greeks both began and concluded their sacrifices with Vesta, because they esteemed her the mother of all the gods. The second was fire, and Vesta, whose power was exercised about altars and houses, derives her name, according to Cicero, from *isra, fire or hearth*. Accordingly the poets frequently use Vesta for fire or flame; as they do Jupiter for air, Ceres for corn, &c. An image of Vesta, to which they sacrificed every day, was placed before the doors of the houses at Rome; and the places where these statues

were erected were called *vestibula*, from *Vesta*. This goddess was a virgin, and so great an admirer of virginity, that when Jupiter her brother gave her leave to ask what she would, the befoUGHT that she might always be a virgin, and have the first oblations in all sacrifices.

This goddess is called by Horace *ætterna Vesta*, and it was in honour of her that Numa erected a temple at Rome, and dedicated virgins to keep a perpetual fire upon her altars, "ut ad simulacrum cœlestium fiderum cultus imperii flamma vigilaret," as Florus says. One way of representing this goddess, it is said, was in the habit of a matron, holding in her right hand a flambeau or lamp, and sometimes a Palladium, or small Victory. Mr. Spence, however, doubts, whether the figures, that are generally looked upon as Vestas, do really represent that goddess or not. There is nothing, he says, which he has seen, that would not be as proper for one of the vestal virgins, as for the goddess who presided over them. To this purpose Ovid expressly says (*Fast.* vi. ver. 298.) they had no representations of this goddess: "effigiem nullam Vestæ nec ignis habent." And he explains away another passage in the third book of his *Fasts*, ver. 46. where he speaks of a figure of *Vesta*. (*Polymetis*, p. 82.) The titles that are given to *Vesta* upon medals and ancient monuments are, *Vesta* the Happy, the Mother, the Saint, the Eternal, &c. The worship of *Vesta* and of fire was brought from Phrygia into Italy by Æneas and the other Trojans who resorted thither. To this purpose Virgil observes (*Æn.* lib. ii.) that Æneas, before he left the palace of his father, had taken away the fire from the sacred hearth: "Æternunque adytis effert penetralibus ignem."

Vesta was one of the eight great gods of the Egyptians, often mentioned by Herodotus.

The name *Vesta*, called by the Greeks *Ἥστια*, was synonymous with the Chaldean and Persian *Avesta*; and hence, according to the learned Hyde, Zoroaster gave to his famous book on the worship of fire, the name of *Avesta*, or *Avesta*, i. e. the custody of fire.

VESTALIA, feasts held in honour of the goddesses *Vesta*, on the fifth of the ides of June; i. e. on the ninth day of that month.

On that day, banquets were made before the houses; and meats were sent to the Vestals, to be offered by them to the goddesses. See VESTALS.

The asses, that turned the mills for grinding corn, were, on this occasion, led about the city, crowned with flowers, and chaplets formed of pieces of bread; and the mill-stones were likewise decked with garlands and crowns.

The ladies went barefooted in procession to the temple of *Vesta*; and an altar was erected to Jupiter the Baker, *Jovi Pifiori*, in the Capitol.

The Vestalia had their names from that of their goddesses *Vesta*.

VESTALS, VESTALES, in *Antiquity*, virgins in ancient Rome, consecrated to the service of the goddesses *Vesta*; and particularly to watch the sacred fire in her temple.

Numa first instituted four Vestals; and Plutarch tells us, Servius Tullius added two more; but Dionysius Halicarnassus and Valerius Maximus ascribe this augmentation to Tarquinius Priscus; which number, six, lasted as long as the worship of the goddesses *Vesta*. The Vestals made a vow of perpetual virginity; their employment was, the sacrificing to *Vesta*, and keeping up the holy fire in her temple. If they violated the vows of chastity, they were punished with remarkable severity; being shut up, or buried, in a deep pit, or cavern, in a place called "agger et sceleratus campus," with a lighted lamp, and a little water and milk, and there left to be devoured by hunger. If they let out

the fire, they were whipped by the pontifex maximus; and the fire was rekindled by the sun-beams. It is said, that they always lighted it anew on the first of March in every year, whether it had gone out or not.

To be secure of their virginity, at their admission, it was provided, that they should not be under six, nor above ten years old. They were chosen by lot, out of twenty virgins, carried by the pontiff to the comitia, for that purpose.

They were only consecrated for thirty years; after which time they were at liberty to go out, and be married. If they continued in the house after that time, they were only to be assistants, in point of advice, to the other Vestals.

The first ten years they were to employ in learning their functions; the ten following they were to exercise them; and the last ten, to teach them to others.

Their order was very rich; both on account of the endowments of the emperors, and of legacies of other persons.

The Vestals had a particular place allotted them at the amphitheatres and games of the Circus. Their vehicle was the carpentum, or plectrum. The veil in which they sacrificed was called *jubilulum*.

At first, they were nominated by the kings; but after the extinction of monarchy, by the pontifex maximus, or high-priest. The eldest of them was called *maxima*, as the first pontiff was *maximus*.

They had divers privileges; disposed of their effects by testament, in their father's life-time; had the same gratification as a mother of three children; and whenever they met a criminal going to execution, they had a power to pardon him. Whenever they went abroad, they had the fasces carried before them, a consul, or the prætor, being obliged to give way to them.

The fire which the Vestals were to watch, was not on an altar, or an hearth, but in little earthen vessels with two handles, called *capeduncula*.

This fire was held a pledge of the empire of the world. If it went out, it was judged a very unlucky prognostic, and was to be expiated with infinite ceremonies. Among the Romans, Festus tells us, it was only to be rekindled by the rubbing a kind of wood, proper for the purpose. But among the Greeks, Plutarch, in the life of Numa, observes, it was to be rekindled by exposing some inflammable matter in the centre of a concave vessel held to the sun. For it is to be noted, the Romans were not the only people who kept the perpetual fire of *Vesta*, in imitation of the celestial fires; but the Greeks were possessed with the same superstition; particularly the Delphians, Athenians, Tenedians, Argives, Rhodians, Cyziceniens, Milesians, Ephesians, &c.

This order of Vestals is said to have subsisted about a thousand years, i. e. from the time of Numa to that of the emperor Theodosius. See SIBYLS.

VESTALS Ferry, in *Geography*, a town of Virginia, on the Shenando; 18 miles N.W. of Leesburg.

VESTED LEGACY. See CONTINGENT Legacy.

VESTED Remainder. See REMAINDER.

VESTIARIUS, VESTIARY, in *Antiquity*, master of the wardrobe; an officer under the Greek empire, who had the care and direction of the emperor's apparel, robes, &c.

The *proto-vestiarius*, or first vestiary, was the grandmaster of the wardrobe. But among the Romans, *vestiarius* simply was only a fileman, or taylor.

VESTIBULE, VESTIBULUM, in the *Ancient Architecture*, a large open space before the door, or entrance, of a house.

Martinus derives the word from *vesta stabulum*; because the fore-part of the house was dedicated to *Vesta*. Daviler derives

derives it from *vestis* and *ambulo*; because people there begin to let their trains fall.

The Romans had places called vestibules, at the entrance of their houses, to shelter people obliged to stand at the door from the weather; and we have still vestibules of the like kind, in many old churches, houses, &c. called *porches*.

Vestibules only intended for magnificence, are usually between the court and the garden: these are sometimes *simple*; that is, have their opposite sides equally enriched with arches; and sometimes their plan is not contained under four equal lines, or a circular one, but forms several van-corps, and rear-corps, furnished with pilasters.

VESTIBULE is also used for a kind of little anti-chamber before the entrance of an ordinary apartment.

VESTIBULE is also an apartment in large buildings, which presents itself at the entrance into a hall or suite of rooms, or offices. The area, in which a magnificent staircase is carried up, is sometimes called a vestibule. And also when the ends of corridors, or passages, terminate in a room, without being separated from them by doors, either to receive light or air, or for appearance; such rooms are called vestibules.

VESTIBULUM, in *Anatomy*, a cavity belonging to the labyrinth of the ear. See EAR.

VESTIGIA, a Latin term frequently used by English writers, to signify the traces or footsteps any thing has left behind it.

The word is particularly applied to the marks remaining of something antique, gone to ruin by time.

VESTINCH, in *Geography*, a town of Bosnia; 44 miles S. of Bihacs.

VESTINI, in *Ancient Geography*, a people of Italy, regarded as Samnites; but being of Sabin origin, they were sometimes comprehended under the name of Marfi. They were situated between the Præstuli, Marracini and Peligni.

VESTINUS, a mountain of Italy, in the environs of Minturna.—Also, a river of Italy, in Campania, which discharged itself into the Sarnus.

VESTIS ANGELIA. See ANGELIC Garment.

VESTITZA, in *Geography*, a town of European Turkey, in the Morea; 44 miles E.N.E. of Chiarenza.

VESTMENT. See VESTURE.

VESTRY, VESTIARIA, a room adjoining to a church, where the priests' vestments, and the sacred utensils, are kept, and parochial assemblies are held.

Hence the term vestry is applied to the parochial assembly itself. On the Sunday before a vestry is to meet, public notice ought to be given, either in the church, after divine service is ended, or else at the church door, as the parishioners come out, both of the calling of the said meeting, and also the time and place of assembling it, and sometimes of the business for which it is convened. And it is usual, for half an hour before it begins, to give notice, by tolling one of the church bells. Anciently, at the common law, every parishioner who paid to the church rates, or foot and lot, and no other person, had a right to come to these meetings, the minister excepted, who is responsible to the bishop, whether he be rector or vicar, for his attendance, and who presides in every parish meeting. Out-dwellers also, occupying land in the parish, have a vote in the vestry, as well as the inhabitants; and when they are met, the major part present will bind the whole parish. The power of adjourning the vestry is not in the minister or any other person as *chairman*, nor in the churchwardens, but in the whole assembly, to be decided by a majority of votes. Every vestry act, in order to prevent disputes, should be entered

in the parish-book of accounts, and every man's hand consenting to it be set thereto. Burn's Eccl. Law, art. *Vestry*.

VESTRY-Men, a select number of the principal persons of every parish within the city of London, and elsewhere; who yearly choose parish-officers, and take care of its concerns.

They are thus called, because they usually meet in the vestry of the church.

By these select vestries, the parishioners have in some places lost not only their right to concur in the public management as often as they would attend, but also the right of electing the managers. And yet such a custom of the government of parishes hath been adjudged a good custom, as the churchwardens accounting to them has been adjudged a good account. In some parishes, these select vestries have been thought oppressive and injurious, and great struggles have been made to fet them aside. Prescription and constant immemorial usage seem to be the basis and only support of these select vestries. In the act of the 10 Ann. c. 11. for building fifty new churches, the commissioners are empowered to appoint a convenient number of sufficient inhabitants to be vestry-men; and from time to time, upon the death or removal, or other voidance, of any such vestryman, the rest, or majority of them, may choose another. In the several private acts for building particular churches, sometimes the minister, churchwardens, overseers of the poor and others, who have served or paid fines for being excluded from serving these offices; sometimes the minister, churchwardens, overseers of the poor, and all who pay to the poor rate; sometimes only all who pay a certain sum to the poor rate; sometimes all who rent houses of so much a year, are appointed to be vestry-men within such parishes, and no other persons.

VESTRY-Clerk, an officer chosen by the vestry, who keeps the parish accounts, and who has the custody of all books and papers relating to them. The beadle is also chosen by the vestry; and his business is to attend the vestry to give notice to the parishioners when and where it is to meet, and to execute its orders as their messenger or servant.

VESTURE, VESTMENT, a garment or clothing.

In our law-books, it is also used metaphorically; as in *vestura terre*, i. e. *segetes quibus terra vestitur*; the corn with which the earth is clothed, or covered.

VESTURE of an *Acre of Land*, is the produce on it; or the wood, corn, &c. growing on it. It shall be enquired how much the vesture of an acre of ground, and how much the land, &c. 4 Ed. I. 14 Ed. III. &c.

VESTURE, *Vestura*, also signifies a possession, or seisin.

In which sense it is borrowed from the feudists; with whom *investitura* signifies a delivery of possession by a spear, or staff; and *vestura*, the possession itself. See INVESTITURE.

VESUBIA, in *Geography*, a river of France, which runs into the Var; 8 miles N. of Nice.

VESUBIANI, in *Ancient Geography*, a people belonging to Italy, though they were inhabitants of Liguria.

VESULIO, in *Geography*, a mountain of France, in the department of the Stura. It is a part of the Alps.

VESULUS MONS, *Mount Viso*, in *Ancient Geography*, a mountain of Gallia Transpadana, in which was the source of the Padus or Po.

VESUNI, a people of Africa, in Mauritania Tingitana. Pliny.

VESUNNA, afterwards *Petrocorii*, the capital of the Petrocorii, according to Ptolemy. The vestiges of the ancient town, still subsisting at Perigucux, are called *La Visone*.

VESUVIAN, in *Mineralogy*, (*Idocrase*, Häüy,) a mineral originally found in the vicinity of Vesuvius, and classed by some mineralogists with the garnet family, of which it forms a distinct species. It is generally crystallized in four-sided prisms, the edges of which are truncated, forming prisms with eight, fourteen, or sixteen sides, differently terminated by low planes. The sides of the crystals are streaked longitudinally; the terminating planes are smooth. The crystals are generally middle-sized; they occur in groups, or lining cavities of other minerals. Vesuvian sometimes occurs massive. The colour of this mineral is either a liver-brown or reddish-brown, or blackish or yellowish-green. The lustre of the crystals is splendid or vitreous. The fracture is small-grained and uneven. It is more or less translucent. It is sufficiently hard to scratch glass, but is brittle. Vesuvian melts before the blow-pipe into a yellowish translucent glass. The specific gravity varies from 3.35 to 3.42.

The analysis of Vesuvian gives its constituent parts as under:

	From Vesuvius.	From Siberia.
Silex - -	35.5	42
Lime - -	33	34
Alumine - -	22.25	16.25
Oxyd of iron - -	7.5	5.5
Manganese - -	0.25	
Lofs - -	1.5	2.25
	100	100

Vesuvian has been found in various parts of Europe as well as near Vesuvius: the opinions respecting its formation will be referred to under *VOLCANIC PRODUCTS*.

VESUVIANÆ AQUÆ, in *Ancient Geography*, the name given by Tacitus to a small river of Campania, which watered the town of Neapolis.

VESUVIUS, in *Geography*, a celebrated volcanic mountain in Italy, situated in the kingdom of Naples, about six miles S.E. of the capital. Vesuvius appears an isolated mountain, standing in the middle of a plain, but is considered as connected with the Apennines. The base of the mountain is about 40 miles in circumference; the height is flated at from 3700 to 3900 English feet. Vesuvius has two summits; the most northern is called Somma, the other is properly called Vesuvius. Somma is supposed, with much reason, to have been part of the cone of a larger volcano, in which the present volcanic cone of Vesuvius was formed. "It is impossible," says Sir James Hall, "to see the mountain of Somma, which in the form of a crescent embraces Vesuvius, without being convinced that it is a fragment of a larger volcano, nearly concentric with the present cone; which in some great eruption has destroyed all but this fragment. In our own times, an event of no small magnitude has taken place in the same spot: the inner cone of Vesuvius having undergone so great a change during the eruption in 1794, that it now bears no resemblance to what it was in 1785." *Transactions of the Royal Society of Edinburgh*, vol. vii.

From the building of Rome to the year 79 of the Christian era, a period of seven centuries, Vesuvius appears to have been in a state of profound repose, as no mention is made of any eruption during the whole of that time; and the ancient writers who refer to this mountain always speak of its extraordinary beauty and fertility. There were, however, certain appearances near the summit which left no doubt of its prior volcanic state, and the cities in its vicinity were paved with the lavas of ancient eruptions.

Vol. XXXVII.

Vitruvius, who flourished in the reign of Augustus, says (lib. ii. cap. 6.) "that Vesuvius had formerly been burning, and had covered all the adjacent country with its fires." Diodorus Siculus, who wrote at the latter end of the same reign, refers to a tradition of a volcanic eruption of Vesuvius seen by Hercules. Strabo, a contemporary writer, describing this mountain, says, "here rises Vesuvius, inhabited through all its delicious fields, the summit alone excepted, which spreads into a barren plain, displaying ashes and caverns formed of burnt rock;" whence it may be conjectured, that this summit was formerly in a state of conflagration, and presented fiery craters, which became extinguished when the materials were exhausted. Silius Italicus, in the time of Nero, says, "Vesuvius, by its fires, had formerly caused great ravages both on the land and at sea."

The first great eruption on authentic record took place in the reign of Titus, on the 24th of August, A.D. 79; and on the same the towns of Herculaneum, Pompeii, and Stabie were buried under showers of volcanic sand, stones, and scorizæ. Such was the immense quantity of volcanic sand (called ashes) thrown out during this eruption, that the whole country was involved in pitchy darkness; and according to Dion, the ashes fell in Egypt, Syria, and various parts of Asia Minor. The particulars of this eruption are described in a letter from the younger Pliny to Tacitus: his uncle, the elder Pliny the naturalist, lost his life by this event. He had the command of the Roman fleet on the coast of Campania, and wishing to succour those persons who might desire to escape by sea, and also to observe this grand phenomenon more nearly, he left the cape of Misenum, and approached the side of the bay nearest to Vesuvius. He landed and advanced towards it, but was involved in whirlwinds of sulphureous vapour, in which he expired.

After this period, Vesuvius continued a burning mountain for nearly a thousand years, having eruptions of lava at intervals. The fire then appeared to become entirely extinct, and continued so from the beginning of the 12th century to the beginning of the 16th, a period of about 400 years. Woods were growing on the sides of the crater, and pools of water were collected in its centre. Since the eruption of 1506, it has remained burning to the present time, having violent eruptions of lava and ashes at intervals. These have been more frequent during the last century and the beginning of the present, than at any former period. Of twenty-nine eruptions which took place from the time of Titus to 1800, fourteen occurred in the last century: several have taken place since the commencement of the present century, and the volcano is at this time (1817) in a state of activity.

The eruptions of Vesuvius are always preceded by earthquakes more or less violent and extensive, and by a succession of subterranean explosions, growing louder before the stones or lava are ejected. Sir William Hamilton, the English ambassador to the court of Naples from the year 1766 to the latter end of the century, has given several interesting descriptions of the eruptions that took place under his own observation, which are published in the *Transactions of the Royal Society*. From 1769 to 1779 there were nine eruptions, many of them considerable. Most of the eruptions of Vesuvius take place from the crater at the summit, but the eruption of 1794, which destroyed Torre del Greco, a city containing 10,000 inhabitants, flowed from a large opening made near the bottom of the cone.

The volcanic products of Vesuvius differ considerably from those of *Ætna*, and still more from those of the volcanoes in the Lipari islands, more immediately in its vicinity. White pumice and obsidian, a volcanic glass, have not been

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found

found among the lavas of Vefuvius; but they contain imbedded crystals of leucite, vefuvian, and fonnite, which are almost peculiar to this volcano. The lavas of Vefuvius, besides iron, contain also copper, and some of them are said to contain a portion of gold, silver, and other metals. See *VOLCANIC Products*.

Breislak, an Italian geologist, has given an account of the present state of Vefuvius, and an interesting description of the very remarkable eruption of 1794; the most important particulars of which we shall select. This eruption was so great as to change the very form of Vefuvius, as we have before observed.

"The present cone of Vefuvius is truncated, so as to form an inclined plane, sloping from the N.E. to the S.W. The circumference of the summit, which forms the brim of the cauldron, is about 3000 feet; and at the bottom is distinguished an oblong plain, the greatest diameter of which is from E. to W. Having since ascended several times to the top of the cone, I perceived that its depth had gradually diminished, and that the bottom of the crater became higher daily, owing to the different matter which falls down, especially from the almost perpendicular sides on the E. and N. One can at this time easily scan the extent and depth of its mouth, but occasionally it is much encumbered, and sometimes totally clogged. In 1755, the bottom of the funnel rose so considerably, that it presented a vast plain only twenty-three feet beneath the brim, and in the middle of this plain was another cone from eighty to ninety feet high, with a small crater, from which the eruptions proceeded.

"Braccini has left us a curious description of the state of Vefuvius, after a long period of rest, and before the grand eruption of 1631. The whole of it, or at least the greater part of it, had become accessible. Having himself descended into the crater, he says, he found it covered with plants and trees, and that a road down it was practicable for the space of a mile; at this depth a very deep cavern was seen, which having passed, the way was again open for two miles by a very steep but at the same time very safe road, owing to the trees growing near to each other. At length a large plain presented itself, surrounded by a number of grottoes and caverns, which might be entered, but which the party were deterred from on account of their darkness. This plain, which was not accessible otherwise than by a very rapid slope, nearly three miles in length, must assuredly have been much beneath the level of the sea.

"When the volcano is at rest, vapours are seen to arise from the cauldron's brim, or from the interior of its sides, which are very perceptible.

"When the mouth of Vefuvius is observed from any distance, and during the prevalence of moisture in the atmosphere, a mass of vapour seems to rise from it which mingles with the clouds.

"The western portion of Somma must be considered as connected with the cone of Vefuvius by a hill of smaller eminence, denominated Monte Cantaroni, on which is the hermitage del Salvatore. This hill is intersected by three valleys, that deserve to be examined with attention, on account of the quantity of primitive substances which the volcano has thrown thither during old eruptions. The northern valley is that termed La Fossa di Pharaoe, near the plain, and Vallone della Vetranà, in its more elevated part, where the current of lava flowed in 1785. This vale, hollowed by rains, is the only interval between mount Somma and mount Cantaroni. South of this vale are two others, nearly parallel, the first called Rio Cupo, the second Fossa Grande, which, taking a direction from east to west, emerge in the plain of

St. Jorio. Its northern side, nearly perpendicular, rises to a considerable height above the valley, and being composed of cemented fragments of porous lava, called capillo, of masses of spongy lava, and other substances of an inadhesive quality, is subject frequently to crumble and fall in large quantities. Along the whole extent of the southern side, at its upper part, is seen an ancient current of lava, which at first sight appears to be several strata of lava imposed one on the other, but which a little attention shews is but one current, in which horizontal chafms have been occasioned by refrigeration, and into which the wind has since introduced a slight quantity of vegetable earth. This lava is hard and compact; it contains but few fragments of augite or pyroxene, and seems to be an assemblage of leucites, the superficial crystalline lustre of which having been impaired by decomposition, makes it resemble variolite in its exterior. Many detached masses of this current have fallen to the bottom of the valley. Each fall of matter brings down calcareous stones, mica, and mixtures of feldspar and vefuvian. The lava of 1767, which threatened the villages of La Barra and St. Jorio, discharged itself into this valley, which it filled to a certain height, and afterwards flowed further, spreading itself to the plain. As it is already covered by the crumbly fragments from the flank, in order to examine it, the enquirer must repair to the plain of St. Jorio, in the neighbourhood of the chapel of St. Vito. Its grain is crystallized but fine, and oftentimes so close as to be nearly equal to petroflex, or horn-stone. It contains many small crystals of pyroxene and fragments of leucite, which is rarely found in its perfect form of crystallization.

"The lava of La Scala passes beneath the garden of La Favorita. It is of the colour of ashes, whitish, and of a crystallized grain. It contains many crystals of pyroxene, few of leucite, and small pieces of feldspar, in groups in its cavities. This lava, where it is heven on the sea-shore near La Cavalleria, is worthy of attention. Under an uniform bed, from fifteen to twenty feet in thickness, the lava is found divided into strata of from three to four feet: these divisions are formed by parallel and horizontal lines; and where these are dug down to, the lava is found to have separated itself spontaneously into beds. Below them are large prisms, commonly hexagonal, which are disjoined with great ease: in some places these prisms, instead of the lower, are found in the upper part of the current.

"The same tendency to a basaltic conformation, which is noticed in the lava of La Scala, is observed again in the neighbouring current of Calaturo. This, after passing through a defile below Vallenga, spreads to a broad front on reaching the sea. What most deserves observation in the lava here are the small crystallizations it presents, which seem to be the olive of Werner. It is moreover of a deeper colour than the lava of Scala, more porous, and like that contains many crystals of augite and fragments of feldspar.

"Next to this lava is found that of the eruption of 1794. Of the different eruptions of Vefuvius, this is the most recent, and was one of the most considerable.

"Vefuvius had continued tranquil for a long time. On the 12th of June, 1794, towards eleven in the evening, a very violent shock of an earthquake was felt, which induced many of the inhabitants of Naples to leave their houses for the night. The tranquillity of the mountain did not, however, appear disturbed, either on the 13th, 14th, or 15th, nor did it exhibit any symptom of an approaching eruption; but towards nine in the evening of the last day many symptoms were manifested. The houses about the mountain experienced violent shocks, which gradually increased in force: a very powerful one was felt at ten o'clock in Naples and its

its environs. At this instant, on the western base of the cone, at the spot called La Pedamentina, and from the midst of ancient torrents, a new mouth disgorged a stream of lava. This opening was 2375 feet in length, and 237 in breadth. Scarcely had the stream of lava begun to flow, before four conical hills, each having its small crater, (the third alone excepted, which had two distinct mouths,) arose out of the stream itself. From these different mouths stones were darted into the air with great noise, and in a state so highly ignited, that they resembled real flames; the explosions indeed were so quickly repeated, that they seemed but one, and formed a continued sheet of fire in the air, which received no other interruption than what was occasioned by the inferiority of force of some of the ejections. They sometimes vomited substances, I may say, in a fluid state, for they expanded in the air like a soft paste, so that one may imagine they were either a part of the running lava, or masses of old lava fused and projected. Some of these hills were contiguous one to the other; and it seems as if the force by which they were produced had met with obstruction to the disgorgement of the substances at one point, and consequently effected several issues in the same line. The lava flowed in one body for some time, and at intervals flashes of light arose from the surface of it, produced by jets of hydrogenous gas, which disengaged itself from the lava, precisely in the same manner as the gases expand from the surface of a fluid. Its first direction was towards Portici and Refina, so that the inhabitants of Torre del Greco already bewailed the fate of their neighbours, and began their thanksgivings to the Almighty for their escape. Collected together in the church, they were still singing hymns of joy, and expressing their gratitude, when a voice announced to them the fatal news of their altered destiny. The stream of lava, on flowing down a declivity it met in its way, divided itself into three branches; one, bearing towards Sta Maria de Pugliano, traversed a space of 2063 feet; another, directing its course towards Refina, flowed to the distance of 3181 feet; while the remainder of the stream, falling into the valley of Malomo, flowed towards La Torre. On reaching the chapel of Bolzano, it formed a branch towards the south-east, which terminated in the territory of Aniello Tirone, after having run the length of 1490 feet; the residue of the lava pursuing its course flowed upon Torre, presenting a front from 1200 to 1500 feet in breadth, and filling several deep ravines.

"On reaching the first houses of the town, the stream divided according to the different slopes of the streets, and the degrees of opposition presented by the buildings. An idea may easily be formed of the accidents consequent on such a flood of fire; accidents which bear relation to the site of the manufactories, the thickness of their walls, and the manner in which they were assailed by the lava. Had not the mass of the stream suffered a diminution from the different divergencies noticed, not a single house would have been left standing in Torre del Greco. The lava, after a serpentine course through the town, at length reached the sea-shore. The contact with the water diminished the speed of its course: still the current flowed into the sea in a body 1127 feet in breadth, and advanced into it a distance of 362 feet. Its entrance into the sea was not marked by any singular phenomenon; it began to issue from the volcano at ten at night, and reached the sea-shore by four in the morning; continuing a very slow progressive movement into the sea throughout the whole of the 16th, and the following night. The main stream, from the point where it issued from the volcano to that at which it stopped in the sea, measured 12,961 feet. Its breadth varied greatly; in some places it

scarcely exceeded 322 feet, but in the plain it spread to 1111; and at a medium, without risk of any great error, it may be computed to have been 725 feet broad. In thickness also it differed according to the depth of the hollows it filled; in the plain it was constantly from twenty-four to thirty-two feet thick: and if its mean thickness be reckoned at the latter number of feet, it may possibly be near the truth. According to these data, the mass of molten matter is 1,869,627 cubic fathoms. During the eruption the convulsion of the mountain was so great, that even the houses in Naples were shaken by it. Still it was not constantly alike. At the beginning the trembling was continual, and accompanied by a hollow noise, similar to that occasioned by a river falling into a subterranean cavern. The lava, at the time of its being disgorged, from the impetuous and uninterrupted manner in which it was ejected, by striking against the walls of the vent, occasioned a continual oscillation of the mountain. Towards the middle of the night this vibratory motion ceased, and was succeeded by distinct shocks. The fluid mass, diminished in quantity, now pressed less violently against the walls of the aperture, and no longer issued in a continual and gushing stream, but only at intervals, when the interior fermentation elevated the boiling matter above the mouth. About four in the morning the shocks began to be less numerous, and the intervals between them rendered their force and duration more perceptible. One might compare them to the thunder heard in Italy during storms in summer, the loudest claps of which are succeeded by rumbling sounds, which gradually die away.

"While I was making my observations on this grand eruption at the foot of Vesuvius, its summit was tranquil, and no phenomena were visible about its crater. I passed the night at sea, between Calaitro and La Torre, to have a nearer view of this great operation of nature, and to prove the truth of the opinion generally received, that great eruptions are accompanied by extraordinary phenomena in the sea. A more grand spectacle there could not be. On one of those serene and brilliant nights, known only in the delightful climate of Naples, a majestic stream of fire, 11,868 feet in length, and 1483 in breadth, was seen at the foot of Vesuvius; its reflected surface formed in the atmosphere a broad and brilliant aurora borealis, regularly spread and terminated at its upper part by a thick and dark border of smoke, which, dilating itself in the air, covered the disc of the moon, the shining silvery light of which was enfeebled and obscured. The sea again reflected the illuminated sky, the surface of it corresponding with this portion of the atmosphere appearing as red as fire. At the source of this river of fire, inflamed matter was incessantly spouted out to a prodigious elevation, which, as it diverged on all sides, resembled an immense fire-work. On the sea-shore, finally, the mournful spectacle of the conflagration of La Torre completed the picture. The vast clouds of thick black smoke which rose from the town, the flames which occasionally crowned the summits of the houses, the ruins of the buildings, the noise of the falling palaces and houses, the rumbling of the volcano,—these were the principal incidents of this horrible, yet sublime scene. The ruins of Pompeii, buried beneath heaps of droffes and powders, did not certainly present a spectacle near so striking. To these objects, so powerfully calculated to fix the senses, was added another, which forcibly touched the heart: this was a doleful group of fifteen thousand persons, bewailing the destruction of their city and property, who had had but a moment's notice to flee and abandon their homes for ever, and were reduced to become wanderers, and dependent on the world for refuge.

"About dawn, the fummit of Vesuvius ceased to be visible: it was covered with a thick cloud, frequently furrowed with lightning. This cloud gradually spread itself, and in a little time overshadowed the gulf, the city of Naples, and its vicinage. It was formed of a large quantity of that fine sand called ashes, and prevented all light of the fire of the volcano. The fun, as it appeared above the horizon, presented a still more dismal picture. From the abundance of ashes in the air, it seemed more pale than during the strongest eclipse; and a black scarf appeared to be spread over the whole of the gulf and the country. At the extremity of the horizon, towards the west, the day was more clear, while the light at Naples was fainter than twilight; and, with Pliny the younger, one might have said, "*Jam dies alibi illic nox omnibus nigrior denique.*"

"During this mournful night the air was perfectly unagitated, and the sea calm: it was not disturbed even in the slightest degree, at least in the gulf of Naples. The slightest action of the volcano on it would have been perceptible at the base of the mountain, and I was within a distinct view of this part of the sea; but its influence on that element was absolutely null.

"While one current of lava flowed over the western flank of Vesuvius, spreading ruin and desolation; another fell down its eastern slope, from an opening of inferior height, and a greater distance from the fummit. This current was not visible at Naples: all that was perceived of it was a great light in the atmosphere, produced by reflection from the rolling fire. At first it took an eastern direction, turned afterwards to the south, and descended to the spot called Cognolo. There it fortunately found the valley of Sorienta, 65 feet wide, 121 deep, and 1627 long. This valley the lava filled; but as the volcano still continued to emit fresh matter, the current afterwards spread into the plain of Forte, near to Pozzelle, where it divided into three branches: one proceeded towards Bosco, another towards Mauro, and the third to the plain of Mulara. The length of this current of lava was not less than an Italian mile; but as it flowed constantly over old lavas, it did but little harm, merely laying waste and occupying a small extent of vineyard. From the spot where it diverged from its first direction, it projected a small branch in a continued line: falling to this point over a very rapid slope, the speed with which it flowed must have been considerable; and a portion of its mass preserving its first impulse, naturally fell in this small stream, in which were four mouths in the shape of an inverted cone, the base of which is in the surface of the lava. This stream terminates in a small and regular hill of a conical figure, on the fummit of which are two mouths in form of inverted cones. The dimensions of this second current are nearly half those of the first; consequently the mass of the whole is adequate to 2,804,440 cubic fathoms.

"The coincidence and perfect resemblance of these two currents of lava sufficiently prove that they had but one common origin, and but one cauldron in which the matter was fused of which they were composed. How great then must that recipient be in which such an enormous mass could be contained! And what powerful exertion of strength must have been required to break through the mountain in such opposite directions! The lava agitated by the expansion of elastic fluids made its first efforts to liberate itself on the eastern flank, and found a passage; but the resistance it met with from the mountain no doubt occasioned its reflux or rebound against its opposite flank.

"The western current, taking its departure from a more elevated mouth, more quickly terminated its course; but the cauldron chiefly emptied itself by the eastern opening.

The lava issued from it very slowly, compared with the celerity with which that flowed which proceeded from the eastern mouth, because it was no longer driven forward, or compressed by the total mass, which was already greatly diminished.

"On the morning of the 16th, the lava ceased to flow over the western side, and the mouth of the volcano began to resume activity. The whole of its cone was covered with a very thick rain of ashes or powders, which totally hid it from sight, so that nothing could be distinguished on Vesuvius, which was wholly inaccessible. In this state it continued four days, during which many shocks of earthquakes were felt, and loud claps of thunder were heard. Thunders raged in every part of the adjacent country, and the flashes of lightning by which they were accompanied at intervals, for an instant allowed a view of the mountain through the darkness in which it was involved by the rain of powders. This darkness was so prodigiously great, that at Caserto, and other places ten or twelve miles from Vesuvius, it was impossible to walk the streets at mid-day without torches, and that circumstance was renewed which is related by Pliny on the occasion of the eruption in the time of Titus, "*faces multe, varique lumina solvebant obscuritatem.*" It is utterly impossible to determine with precision the quantity of ashes or powders that fell in the course of these days, as it was different in different places, according to the direction of the wind; it is, however, computed, on the base of observations at different places, that fourteen inches and six lines in depth fell on an area, the radius of which is three miles, the fummit of Vesuvius being the centre."

It would be erroneous to conclude, that all this mass of matter proceeded from the entrails of the mountain, the greater part was the offspring of the ruins of the crater, which during the three last days fell into the abyss. For, after the rain of volcanic sand had ceased, and the mountain became visible, its appearance excited much surprise, the fummit had fallen, and its mouth was considerably enlarged.

Incessant rains followed this eruption, which continued to the 3d of July. Whenever a cloud appeared above the horizon, it seemed attracted by the volcano, and scarcely did it reach its fummit, ere immense streams were visible, precipitating themselves with horrible roarings to the base of the mountain. These impetuous torrents of water, mingled with volcanic powders, overturned the bridges, harrowed up the roads, tore up the trees, and utterly devastated the fields of one of the most rich and flourishing countries in the world. Mephitic vapours were also exhaled, which destroyed all other vegetation, except the olive and the pear-trees, which retained their verdure and strength. It is remarkable, that during the whole of this eruption the barometer at Naples was not sensibly affected, and exhibited no change, although the temperature and moisture of the atmosphere experienced considerable variation.

Though the quantity of matter thrown out of Vesuvius, during any single eruption, is not so great as from *Ætna*, Vesuvius being of diminutive size, compared with the latter mountain; yet the magnitude of some of the stones ejected is truly surprising, and the quantity prodigious. According to Sir William Hamilton, during the eruption of 1779, the town of Ottocano, at the foot of Somma, was half buried under the showers of sand and fragments of volcanic matter. A stone, measuring one hundred and eight feet in circumference and seventeen feet in height, was thrown a quarter of a mile clear of the mouth of the volcano. One of ninety-two feet in circumference was thrown much farther,

ther, and lay in the valley between Vefuvius and the Hermitage. From the fragments which furrounded this mafs, it appeared to have been much larger when in the air. For further obfervations on the volcanic phenomena of Vefuvius and the adjacent country, fee VOLCANO.

VETAS, a town of South America, in New Grenada; 15 miles E.S.E. of Pamplona.

VETAVELUM, a town of Hindooftan, in the Carnatic; 12 miles N. of Tricalore.

VETCH, in *Botany*, a word of one common origin with VICIA; fee that article, as well as LATHYRUS, OROBUS, and ASTRAGALUS.

VETCH, in *Agriculture*, a well-known wild plant of the fodder kind, which in fome of its forts promifes, from the few trials that have yet been made with it, to be beneficial when cultivated in the field. In this view, it has been fuggested, that fome of the plants of this kind may be useful to the farmer either as affording a good full paturage for live-stock, or as fupplying large quantities of green food to be confumed in other ways; though nothing fatisfactory has hitherto been done in afcertaining how far they may be of fuperior utility in feeding or fattening, paturings, and being eaten green in the cut flate by animals, to fully juftify any decifion as to their particular merits in any of thefe modes of application. They are, however, in general, plants that are, in their nature, not only very productive as to the quantity of food, but from many trials, extremely nutritious and fattening in their properties. In addition too, they have moftly the very defirable quality of being fed upon by almoft all forts of live-stock with great avidity; and it is not by any means to be concluded in confequence of their appearing of a coarfe nature and quality, that they may not be of advantage even as pature herbage, as it is now well known that clofe, hard, judicious feeding or eating down is capable of bringing the coarfeft and rougheft kinds of herbage into a fine graffy flate of produce. Of thefe wild plants, that which is ufually known by the name of bufh vetch, is a fort which would feem capable of being introduced as a pature plant with confiderable benefit in different cafes. It is afferted by fome, that its roots fpread much in a lateral manner juft under the furface of the foil of the land, and fend forth numerous ftems or fprouts at the fpring of the year, clofe to each other, which, as they have a broad bufhy top, covered with many leaves, a clofe pile or furface grafs is formed without the affiftance of any other plant. It is a plant which is not found to rife to any great height of growth; but from its fpringing up rapidly, after being cut over or cropped and cut off by animals, it would feem not ill fited to the purpofe of paturage. On fuch lands as are of the more rich and fertile kind, it, however, grows to a good height for the production of hay; but as the ftalks rife fo clofely together, there is fome danger of its rotting at the bottom in moift rainy feafons. It affords great abundance of feed, but which is very liable to be deftroyed in the pod by infefts while in their vermicular or worm flate. It is contended by fome, that it would appear to fucceed beft in lands of the clayey kind, where it abounds in foliage pretty much, affording feeds very fimilar to thofe of the cultivated plants of this nature. It is ftated too in the Tranfactions of the Bath Society, that it has been found to fhoot earlier in the fpring than any other plant that is eaten by cattle, and to vegetate late in the autumn, continuing green all the winter. In good rich land, when cultivated in the drill manner, it may, in the fecond year, it is faid, be cut five times, producing at the rate of twenty-four tons the acre of green food, which would be nearly four and a half tons when dry and made into hay.

It is noticed, that the principal difficulty in introducing this plant into field culture, would arife from the feed being fo apt to be devoured by the larvæ of a fpecies of attelobas, as Mr. Swayne has fully fhewn.

Another fort of this wild plant which might be useful to the farmer in fomewhat the fame way, is that of the kind ufually called the tufted vetch, which, in confequence of its riling to a confiderable height in the ftem, and affording much foliage, is capable of yielding a large proportion of green fodder for cattle-flock; and from its being eafily cultivated, might alfo be made to afford a great deal of hay. It is therefore equally applicable in patures and meadows. Plott, in his Hiftory of Staffordshire, has indeed long fince remarked it to improve the condition of poor lean cattle, more than any other plant then known. There are probably fome other forts of thefe wild plants that might be ufefully grown in the field, if properly attended to by the farmer.

The cultivated plants of this nature are confidered under their proper heads. See TARE.

VETCH, *Axe*, *Securidaca*. See CORONILLA.

VETCH, *Bitter* or *Pea*. See OROBUS.

VETCH, *Bitter*, and *Corn Vetch*. See ERVUM.

VETCH, *Bindweed-leaved*. See LATHYRUS.

VETCH, *Chickling*. See LATHYRUS.

VETCH, *Grafs*. See GRASS.

VETCH, *Crimfon-grafs*. See LATHYRUS.

VETCH, *Hatchet*, *Securidaca*. See CORONILLA.

VETCH, *Chufus's Foreign Hatchet*. See BISERRULA.

VETCH, *Horse-Shoe*. See HIPPOCREPIS.

VETCH, *Kidney*. See ANTHYLIS.

This is a plant of the weed kind, and is common in lands of the chalky and calcareous forts, of which fheep are very fond. It affords a yellow dye.

VETCH, *Liquorice*, or *Wild Liquorice*. See ASTRAGALUS.

VETCH, *Knobbed-rooted Liquorice*. See GLYCINE.

VETCH, *Milk*. See ASTRAGALUS.

VETCH, *Baglard Milk*. See PHACA.

VETCH, *Venetian*. See OROBUS.

VETCHLING, in *Botany*, is the Englifh name of *Lathyrus Aphaca*, expreffive of its diminutive fize. The fame appellation is fometimes given, though improperly, to one or two of the fmalleft fpecies of *Vicia*.

VETCHLING, *Meadow*, in *Agriculture*, a wild plant common in meadow lands, for the cultivation of which a premium has been offered. It bears a large number of fucculent leaves, and feems well fited as an addition to the meadow graffes. As it makes good hay, it is probably the moft useful in mixture with graffes for this purpofe; for though cattle and horfes eat it, they do not feed upon it with avidity. It is very prevalent in fome diftricts.

VETCHLING, *Yellow*. See APIACA.

The feeds of this, and of all the other fpecies of vetchling, are nutritious, either eaten in broth, or made into bread. Withering.

VETERAN, VETERANUS, in the *Roman Militia*, a foldier who was grown old in the fervice; or who had made a certain number of campaigns; and, on that account, was entitled to certain benefits and privileges.

Thefe privileges confifted in being abfolved from the military oath; in being exempted from all the functions of a foldier; and in enjoying a certain falary or appointment, &c.

The time of fervice fixed by the Roman laws was from feventeen to forty-fix years; and among the Athenians forty years. The ufe of the term veteran was not introduced

duced till about the close of the republic; but its origin may be traced to the first distribution which Servius Tullius made of the Roman people into classes and centuries; under which the *centuria seniorum*, or old soldiers, were appointed to guard the city. They were afterwards employed to guard the camp, whilst the *centuria juniorum* fought in the field of battle. After they had served some years, they were called *veteres*, in contradistinction to the *novitii* or *titones*. In process of time, those who had served a certain number of campaigns were called veterans, and were exempt from the obligation of military service, except on urgent occasions. See EVOCATI.

The rewards conferred on veterans were at first very inconsiderable, *e. gr.* a few acres of land in a foreign country, where they established colonies; but at length they became immense. Tiberius Gracchus distributed among them the treasures of Attalus, who had made the Roman people his heirs. Augustus also bestowed upon them pecuniary recompense, and almost all his successors augmented their privileges.

In France, the term veteran is still retained for such officers as have held their post twenty years, and who enjoy certain of the honours and privileges affixed thereto, even after they have laid them down.

A veteran counsellor has a voice and seat at audiences, though not at processions by writing. A veteran secretary of the king acquires the privilege, &c. of nobility, to himself, and his children.

VETERINARIA, *MULO-MEDICINA*, or medicine applied to the diseases of cattle. Whence,
VETERINARIUS, a farrier, or horse-leech.

VETERINARY, a term applied to and signifying that part or department of cattle-medicine, which relates to the treatment and cure of morbid animals of the domestic kind.

Veterinary College, an institution first established, in this country, in the year 1792, at St. Pancras, in the vicinity of the metropolis. It is stated in "Boardman's Dictionary of the Veterinary Art," that the public are indebted for this truly national foundation to the humanity, discernment, and patriotic exertions of a country agricultural society, that of Odiham, in Hampshire; and that the first professor of it was a Frenchman of the name of St. Bel, who had previously distinguished himself as a veterinary anatomist and writer in this country, by dissecting and describing different parts of the famous race-horse Eclipse, so much known and admired for his swiftness.

It is added, that the college is supported by public subscription; that the annual contribution is two guineas, but the payment of twenty guineas at one time constitutes a subscriber for life. In some recent instances, too, the institution has shared, it is said, the bounty of parliament; an important favour having resulted to the nation from the appointment of veterinary surgeons to the different regiments of British cavalry, in consequence of it.

The different views and objects of the college or establishment appear in the statement, printed by the authority of the governors, and given below.

It is said, that the grand object is the improvement of veterinary knowledge, in order to remedy and obviate the ignorance and incompetency of farriers, so long and so universally complained of. For this end, a range of stables, a forge, a theatre for dissections and lectures, with other necessary buildings, have been erected; and a gentleman, properly qualified for the purpose, has been appointed professor, with other requisite officers.

The anatomical structure of quadrupeds and other ani-

mals, such as horses, cattle, sheep, dogs, and others, the diseases to which they are subject, and the remedies proper to be applied, are investigated and regularly taught; by which means, enlightened practitioners of liberal education, whose whole study has been directed and devoted to the veterinary art in all its branches, may be gradually prepared, provided, and dispersed over the whole kingdom, on whose skill and experience confidence may be securely placed.

That the pupils to the college, in addition to the lectures and instructions of the professor, and the practice of the stables, at the present enjoy, in consequence of the great liberality of some of the most eminent of the faculty of medicine in London, the advantage of free admission to their medical and anatomical lectures. These pupils, previous to leaving the college, are strictly examined by a medical committee, from whom they receive a proper certificate; and several, examined and approved, have, it is said, already left the college, and are at this time practising in various parts of the country with great success.

That subscribers have the privilege of sending their diseased animals to the college, without further expence than that of their daily food; and that these, in general, form a sufficient number of objects for the practice of the professor and pupils to be tried and exercised upon. That on fixed days, the professor prescribes for animals belonging to subscribers, who find it inconvenient to spare them from home, provided the necessary medicines be furnished and compounded at the college. Subscribers' horses are there also shod at the ordinary price, and new improved modes of shoeing practised in different cases.

And that his royal highness the commander-in-chief having been pleased to appoint a board of general officers to take into consideration the objects of this institution, they have reported the continual loss of cavalry to have been very heavy, in consequence of the almost total ignorance of those who have hitherto had the veterinary department in the army. This report his majesty has approved; and henceforward, to qualify for the military service, a veterinary surgeon must be provided with a regular diploma from the college. A number of gentlemen, subscribers to the institution, attend once a fortnight, for the purpose of inspecting the discipline of the stables, and seeing that the regulations are duly complied with.

These form the most material objects and regulations of the establishment; from which it is evident, that it is capable of being of great use and advantage, if properly directed, and confined to the points which it has principally in view.

VETERNA, in *Geography*, a town of European Turkey, in Bulgaria; 9 miles S.W. of Driftra.

VETERNITZA, a river of Servia, which rises in the Karadagh mountain, and runs into the Morava.

VETERNUS is used, by some physicians, for a lethargy, or other drowsy disease.

VETERSEN, in *Geography*, a town of the duchy of Holstein; 15 miles N.W. of Hamburg.

VETIL, *NEDER*, a town of Sweden, in the province of Wafa; 16 miles E. of Jacobstadt.

VETIL, *OFER*, a town of Sweden, in the province of Wafa; 32 miles E.S.E. of Jacobstadt.

VETINA, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Italy, in Magna Græcia, supposed to lie between Sybaris and Metapontum; but its exact situation is not known.

VETITUM NAMIUM, in *Law*, imports a forbidden distress. See *NAMIUM*.

VETITZA, in *Geography*, a river of Walachia, which runs into the Kotmana, 10 miles N. of Rusei.

VETLIANSKOI, a fort of Russia, on the Volga; 32 miles S.E. of Tchernoiyar.

VETLUGA, a river of Russia, which runs into the Volga, near Kozmodemiansk, in the government of Kazan. —Also, a town of Russia, in the government of Koltrom, on a river of the same name; 140 miles E. of Koltrom. N. lat. 58°. E. long. 45° 44'.

VETO, in *Roman Antiquity*, was the solemn word used by the tribunes of the people, when they inhibited any decree of the senate, or law proposed to the people, or any act of other magistrates. See *INTERCESSION*.

VETOLA, in *Ornithology*, a name used by the Venetians, and from them by many others, for a water-bird of the scolopax kind, called by Aldrovand the *totano*, and by Gefner the *fedoa secunda*. In the Linnæan system it is the *scolopax limosa*.

It usually weighs about nine ounces; its beak is shaped like that of the woodcock, and is red all over, except at the end, where it is blackish; its neck is grey; its belly and breast white; its head of a brownish-grey, and its back brown; but its rump has a white ring on it; its tail is composed of black and white feathers. Ray's *Ornithology*, p. 216.

VETRALLA, in *Geography*, a town of the Papedom, in the Patrimonio; 9 miles S. of Viterbo.

VETSCHAU, a town of Lusatia; 28 miles S.W. of Guben. N. lat. 51° 47'. E. long. 14°.

VETTICUTTY, a town of Hindoostan, in the Carnatic; 22 miles W.N.W. of Trichinopoly.

VETTINGEN, a town and abbey of Switzerland, in the county of Baden; 2 miles S. of Baden.

VETTONA, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Italy, in Umbria.

VETTONES, a people of Hispania, in Lusitania, who extended themselves from the south towards the north, in the eastern part.

VETTONIANA, a town of Vindelicia. Itin. Anton.

VETTONICA, in *Botany*, the ancient way of spelling the word *betonica*, the name of a plant, called in English *betony*.

It is called *vettonica* by Pliny, who says it obtained that name from a people of Italy so called, among whose woods it grew.

If any thing certainly can be judged of the betonica of the ancients, it is that it was our *feratula*.

VETTORI, PIETRO, (Lat. *VICTORIUS*), in *Biography*, a descendant of a noble family at Florence, was born in 1499. Educated at his native city and at Pisa, he visited Spain, and returned to Italy with a collection of ancient inscriptions. At Rome he complimented Clement VII. on his accession to the pontificate; and settling at Florence, joined the party opposed to the house of Medici, and supported it with his eloquence and arms. Upon the assassination of Alessandro di Medici in 1537, he withdrew to Rome. In the following year, duke Cosmo appointed him public professor of Greek and Latin eloquence at Florence, and he sustained this office with distinguished reputation for many years. He was much esteemed by several popes, and Marcellus II. drew him to Rome; but upon the death of this pontiff, he resumed the chair at Florence, and held it nearly to the close of his life. He died in 1585, regretted and eulogized by the learned, on account of his virtuous and amiable manners, as well as his extensive erudition. Vettori took great pains in improving the editions of the ancient Greek and Latin writers. Of the latter we may mention Cicero, Terence, Varro, and Sallust; and of the former, Euripides, Porphyry, Demetrius Phalereus, Plato,

Xenophon, Dion. Halicarn., Aristotle, Æschylus, and Clemens Alexandrinus. His commentaries upon the rhetoric, poetics, ethics, and politics of Aristotle, and upon the elocution of Demetrius Phalereus, are much valued. He was also the author of many Italian and Latin letters, and of some poems, of an elegant Latin tract on the culture of the olive, and of other pieces in MS. Tiraboschi. Gen. Biog.

VETULA, in *Ancient Mythology*, a goddess who presided over pleasures.

VETULONIA, or *VETULONIENSES*, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Italy, in Etruria, situated towards the west, on the sea-coast. It was one of the cities of the Etruscans, and described by Silius Italicus as one of the most pleasant of their cities; but it was destroyed at the commencement of Rome.

VETULONIUM, a town of Italy, in the interior of Etruria, according to Ptolemy; called *Vetulonia* by Silius Italicus.

VETUSSALINA, or *VETUSALINÆ*, a town of Valeria Ripensis, situated, according to Anton. Itin., on the route from Taurunum in the Gauls, pursuing the shore of Pannonia, between Anamascia and Campona.

VEVAY, in *Geography*, the ancient *Vibiscum*, a town of Switzerland, in the canton of Bern, and the principal town of the bailliage, situated near the lake of Geneva. This town is clean and well-built, stands on a small plain at the foot of the mountains, on the margin of the water, and is one of the few places in the canton of Bern which carry on any trade. The chief manufacture is that of hats, and the trade in cheese is considerable. The borders of this part of the lake are much more contralled, wild, and picturesque, than those about Geneva; the mountains of the Vallais and Savoy projecting boldly into the water, and forming a semicircular chain inclosing the lake, except where they are divided by the Rhone, a few leagues from Vevay. This town was taken from the house of Savoy in the year 1474, but soon after restored. In 1536 it was again taken, and from that time has been attached to Bern. It has a college for the instruction of youth, and two churches, one for the French, and the other for the German language. Vevay was distinguished as the residence of Edmund Ludlow, the famous parliamentary general; and here he found an asylum from the attempts of his enemies, under the protection of Bern. Here he was interred, and his monument is a plain grave-stone of black marble, on which is a Latin inscription. Over the door of the house which he inhabited is still preserved, from respect to his memory, the following uncouth motto:

“Omne solum forti patria est, quia patris.”

Vevay is 10 miles E. of Lausanne. N. lat. 46° 30'. E. long. 6° 48'.

VEULLES, a town of France, in the department of the Lower Seine; 9 miles N.E. of Caux.

VEURDE, LA, a town of France, in the department of the Allier; 13 miles N.W. of Moulins.

VEUVEY, a town of France, in the department of the Côte d'Or; 12 miles N.W. of Beaune.

VEVALA, in *Ancient Geography*, an estuary of Britain, which is probably the bay at the mouth of the river Brent, in Somersetshire.

VEXES. See *NE injuste vexes*.

VEXILLARIJ, among the Romans, were veteran soldiers, the same with those the old Romans called *striarii*. There were six hundred of them in every legion.

VEXILLUM, a pair of colours belonging to each century

tury of a Roman legion, for the preservation of which, ten of the best soldiers in the century were allotted; and all those, in the different centuries of a legion, (ten centuries composing a cohort, and ten cohorts constituting a legion,) formed a very choice body of men, which was called the vexillation of that legion, and was sometimes separated from it, and sent upon particular services. The vexillation of a legion was equal in number of men to a cohort, and had an equal proportion allotted to it in the execution of all public works.

VEXILLUM, in *Botany*. See **STANDARD** and **PAPILIONACEOUS**.

VEXIN, in *Geography*, before the revolution a country of France, situated along the river Epte, which divided it into two parts, called "Vexin François," and "Vexin Normand." The principal towns of the former are Pontoise, Chaumont, and Magny, included in the department of the Oise. The capital of the latter was Gisors, in the department of the Eure.

VEOXE, a small island of Denmark, near the north coast of the island of Laland. N. lat. $54^{\circ} 58'$. E. long. $11^{\circ} 41'$.

VEYNE, a town of France, in the department of the Higher Alps; 12 miles W. of Gap.

VEZ DE MABAN, a town of Spain, in the province of Leon; 8 miles N. of Toro.

VEZEDERINA, a town of European Turkey, in Bulgaria; 36 miles S.E. of Viddin.

VEZELAY, a town of France, in the department of the Yonne. Theodore Beza was a native of Vezelay; 7 miles W. of Avallon.

VEZELIZE, a town of France, and principal place of a district, in the department of the Meurthe; 12 miles S. of Nancy. N. lat. $48^{\circ} 30'$. E. long. $6^{\circ} 11'$.

VEZENOBRE, a town of France, in the department of the Gard; 6 miles S.S.E. of Alais.

VEZERE, LE, a river of France, which runs into the Dordogne, at Limeuil.

VEZINES, a town of France, in the department of the Yonne; 4 miles N. of Tonnerre.

VEZINS, a town of France, in the department of the Mayne and Loire; 7 miles N.E. of Collet.—Also, a town of France, in the department of the Aveyron; 6 miles S.W. of Severac le Château.

VEZIRKAR, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Natolia; 25 miles S.E. of Iznik.

VEZOUZE, a river of France, which runs into the Meurthe, about 3 miles below Luneville.

VEZZANO PIETROSO, a town of the island of Corsica; 13 miles S.E. of Corte.

UFALE, a town of the state of Georgia, on the Oak-fulkee. N. lat. $32^{\circ} 55'$. W. long. $85^{\circ} 57'$.

UFENS, or **OUFENS**, in *Ancient Geography*, a river of Italy, in New Latium, east of the Pontine marsh, which discharged itself into the sea; mentioned by Virgil and Silius Italicus.—Also, a river of Gallia Cispadana, mentioned by Livy.

UFFENHEIM, in *Geography*, a town of Germany, in the principality of Anspach; 18 miles S.S.E. of Wurzburg. N. lat. $49^{\circ} 37'$. E. long. $10^{\circ} 19'$.

UFFINIAC, a town of France, in the department of the North Coasts; 3 miles S.E. of S. Briec.

UFFUGUM, in *Ancient Geography*, a pretty considerable town of Italy, in Brutium. Livy.

UFHOLZ, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Upper Rhine; 17 miles S.S.W. of Colmar.

UFNAU, an island of Switzerland, in the lake of Zurich; about a mile in circumference.

UFTER GEFFEN, a mountain of Switzerland, in the canton of Bern; 23 miles S. of Thun.

UFVERSO, a small island in the Baltic, east of Aland. N. lat. $60^{\circ} 7'$. E. long. $20^{\circ} 20'$.

UGAB, a very ancient instrument of the Hebrews, mentioned by Moses before the deluge. Many wild conjectures have been formed concerning this instrument. It has been construed into an organ by some, who did not recollect that organ was the general name for instruments of all kinds; and it is very improbable that a machine, so complicated as a modern organ of the most simple kind, should have been invented before the deluge. Don Calmet, whose ideas concerning Hebrew instruments are not always happy, thinks the ugab was only a syrinx, similar to Pan's pipe; for all the descriptions tell us that the ugab was a wind-instrument with many pipes. See **SYRINX**.

UGARA, in *Geography*, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in the government of Sivas; 7 miles W. of Tocat.

UGENA, in *Botany, so named by Cavanilles, *lc. Plant. v. 6. 73. t. 594, 595*, is the same genus of *Filices*, which Willdenow, in his *Sp. Pl. v. 77*, has called *Hydroglossum*, from *ὕδωρ*, water, and *γλῶσσα*, a tongue, alluding to its damp place of growth, and the tongue-like shape of the fructifying parts of the frond. Cavanilles meant to commemorate an excellent Spanish draughtsman, employed to delineate the new plants of the Madrid garden. Whether Willdenow's authority may restore *Hydroglossum*, we cannot here venture to foretell; but the genus in question is established by Swartz under the name of *LYGODIUM* (see that article); and Mr. Brown has sanctioned this last appellation, both in his *Prodr. Nov. Holl. v. 1. 162*, and in *Ait. Hort. Kew. v. 5. 497*, which we presume will decide the question.*

UGENTO, in *Geography*, a town of Naples, in the province of Otranto; 16 miles S.W. of Otranto. N. lat. $40^{\circ} 12'$. E. long. $77^{\circ} 8'$.

UGERNUM, in *Ancient Geography*, or, as Strabo has it, *Gernum*, a place which lay on the way from Nîmes to Aquæ Sextiz, or Aix.

UGEST, in *Geography*, a town of the duchy of Warlaw, in the palatinate of Rawa; 6 miles S.E. of Rawa.

UGGADE, in *Ancient Geography*, a place marked in the Itinerary of Antonine between Rotomagus and Mediolanum Aulercorum, which is Evreux.

UGGER-ZEHM, in *Geography*, a town of the duchy of Courland, in the gulf of Riga; 33 miles E.N.E. of Goldingen.

UGGIATE, a town of Italy, in the department of the Lario; 5 miles W. of Como.

UGGIONE, or **OGGIONE**, MARCO DA, in *Biography*, was a native of Oggione, in the Milanese, and was born about the year 1480. He was one of the most able scholars of Lionardo da Vinci. Avoiding the minute elaborate finish of his master's smaller works, which was imitated by his fellow pupils generally, and attaching himself to the study of the great principles of the art, he became a skilful painter in fresco. He must have been greatly aided in his progress, by having copied the most renowned and the greatest of Da Vinci's works, the Last Supper, painted in the refectory of the Dominican convent at Milan. Uggione's copy is of the same size as the original, near 30 feet long, and was painted on canvas for the refectory of the Carthusians at Pavia, where it remained till the revolution, when it was removed and sold to a rich grocer at Milan; and is lately brought to this country for public exhibition, and for sale. Lanzi says of it, "that in measure it com-

penfates for the lofs of the original," and is juftified by the merit of the work. The characters of the heads appear to have been well rendered, except that of the Saviour. Thofe of St. John, St. Simon, and St. James, are excellently wrought, the former efpecially: indeed it appears fo diftinctly more complete than any other in colour and character, that one might think the great matter's hand had been employed upon it. The hands, however, are ill drawn, and tamely executed; and the feet much too large, and out of keeping. The draperies alfo are laboured, and a part is cut off the top of the picture, which injures the perpective of the room in which the figures are feated.

His freſco pictures in the church of La Pace at Milan ftill preferve their lines and colours unimpaired: fome of them are in the body of the church itſelf; but the Crucifixion, his moſt copious compoſition, is in the refectory; a work, Mr. Fufeli has obſerved, "which furprizes by its variety and ſpirit: few Lombards have reached that degree of expreſſion which ſtrikes here, for the art of its compoſition, and the fancy of its draperies." Of his oil pictures, two of the moſt eſteemed are at Milan, one at St. Paolo in Comito, the other in St. Eufemia; but they are inferior to his freſcoes. He died in 1530, aged about 50.

UGGLIBO, in *Geography*, a town of Sweden, in Geftricia, on a lake; 16 miles N.W. of Gefic.

UGH, a town of Hungary, near the Theiſſe; 32 miles N. of Zegedin.

UGHELLI, FERDINANDO, in *Biography*, an eccleſiaſtical hiſtorian, was born of a good family at Florence in 1595; in his youth entered into the Ciftercian order, and finiſhed his ſtudies at Rome. After having paſſed through various offices in different monaſteries, he was elected abbot of St. Vincent, &c. at Rome, theologian to cardinal Carlo de Medici, and conſultant of the congregation of the Index. He was alſo domeſtic prelate to pope Alexander VII., who gave him a penſion, augmented by Clement IX. He declined accepting any biſhopric, though ſeveral were offered him, becauſe he preferred purſuing his ſtudies at Rome. Having undertaken to give a ſeries of the biſhops of all the churches in Italy, with an illuſtration of each church, deduced from documents in their reſpective archives, he employed ſeveral perſons to aſſiſt him; and the work was printed at Rome in 9 vols., from 1642 to 1648, under the title of "Italia ſacra, five de Episcopis Italiae et Inſularum adjacentium, reſuſque aliis præclare geſtiſ, deducta ſerie ad noſtram uſque Ætatem, Opus ſingulare." A new edition of this work was begun at Venice in 1717, and completed in 1733, in 10 vols. folio, with conſiderable additions. Ughelli alſo made additions to the lives of the popes by Ciacomius, and published eulogies of the cardinals of the Ciftercian order, and thoſe of the Colonna family, and genealogies of the Marſciano and Capicucchi families. He died at Rome in 1670, at the age of 75. Moreri. Gen. Biog.

UGIA, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Hiſpania, in the interior of Betica, belonging to the Turdetani, according to Ptolemy; marked in the Itin. Anton. between Aſta and Orippe.

UGIE, in *Geography*, a river of Scotland, which runs into the German ſea, about a mile N. of Peterhead. N. lat. 57° 27'. W. long. 1° 47'.

UGINE, a town of France, in the department of Mont Blanc; 20 miles E.S.E. of Chambray.

UGLIANI, a town of France, in the department of the Dora; 16 miles E.S.E. of Aofta.

UGLIANO, a ſmall rocky iſland in the Adriatic, near the coaſt of Dalmatia, about 3 miles W. from Zara. The Vol. XXXVII.

inhabitants ſuffer conſiderably from the want of freſh water. Illyrian ſnails, eſteemed by the Romans as one of the moſt delicate luxuries of their table, abound here. N. lat. 40° 18'. E. long. 15° 16'.

UGLICH, a town of Ruſſia, in the government of Jaroflav, on the Volga. The principal trade is in leather and ſoap; 60 miles W. of Jaroflav. N. lat. 57° 30'. E. long. 38° 22'.

UGLUM, a town of Sweden, in Weſt Gothland; 16 miles S. of Uddevalla.

UGOD, a town of Hungary; 14 miles N.W. of Stuhl Weißenburg.

UGOGNA, or VOGOGNA, a town of Italy, in the department of the Gogna, on the river Toſa; 15 miles N.W. of Arona.

UGONE, MATTIA, in *Biography*, was a native of Breſcia at the commencement of the 16th century, a doctor of laws, and biſhop of Famagotta, in the iſland of Cyprus. His principal performance is a treatiſe on councils, entitled "Synodia Ugonia," approved by a bull of Paul III. in 1543, and printed at Venice in 1565. Dupin pronounces it one of the beſt and ſulleſt treatiſes written on that ſubject in the 16th century. This writer maintains, that a council is ſuperior to the pope, and may depoſe him, not only for hereſy and ſchiſm, but for any notorious crime, perſiſted in after admonition; and that, in matters of faith, and ſuch as concern the ſtate of the church, or its head, the judgment of the council is to be preferred to that of the pope. He died in 1616. Dupin. Gen. Biog.

UGROČZ, in *Geography*, a town and caſtle of Hungary; 16 miles N. of Popoltzan.

UGUALE, Ital. in *Muſic*, equal; as, *à parti uguali*, two vocal or instrumental parts, of equal conſequence.

UHERCE, in *Geography*, a town of Auſtrian Poland, in Galicia; 64 miles S.W. of Lemberg.

UHLERSDORF, a town of Saxony, in the circle of Neuſtadt; 5 miles S.W. of Weyda.

UHLFELD, a town of Germany, in the principality of Bayreuth; 19 miles N.W. of Nuremberg.

UHRTSCHUTA, a town of Moravia, in the circle of Olmutz; 10 miles S.W. of Olmutz. N. lat. 49° 23'. E. long. 17°.

ŪI, a river of Ruſſia, which runs into the Irtiſch, near Malanova, in the government of Tobolſk.

Vi et Armis, q. d. *by force and arms*, a law-term uſed in an indictment; to denote the forcible and violent commiſſion of any crime.

Vi Laica Removenda, in *Law*, a writ lying where debate being between two parſons, or proviſors, for a church, one of them makes a forcible entry into it, with a number of laymen, and holds the other out.

VIA, Way. See WAY, and ROAD.

VIA Lactea, in *Aſtronomy*, the milky way, or galaxy; which ſee.

VIA Militaris, in our *Law-Books*, is uſed for a highway. "Quæ publica dici poterit, et ducit ad mare, et ad portum, et quandoque ad mercata." Bracton, lib. iv. c. 16.

VIA Militaris, in *Roman Hiſtory*. See MILITARY Ways, and WAY.

VIA Regia, the *King's Highway*, is defined in Leg. Henry I. to be "that which is always open, and which nobody may ſhut by any means, as leading to a city, port, or town."

Its breadth the ſame laws preſcribe to be ſuch, as that two carts may paſs each other, and ſixteen horſemen armed may go abreast. See HIGHWAY.

Via Solis, the *Sun's Way*, in *Astronomy*, is used, among some astronomers, for the ecliptic line; so called, because the sun never goes out of it.

Via Turrita Obica, in *Ancient Geography*, a place of Africa, in the eastern part of Mauritania Cæsarientis, situated on the sea-coast, some miles W. of Icosium, in which are the remains of some Roman walls and cisterns.

Via, Ulla, a river of Hispania Citerior, which ran from the N.E. to the S.W., passed by Iria Flavia, and discharged itself into the sea.

Via Appia. See *APPIAN Way*, and *VIA ROMANA*.

Via Domitiana, took its name from Domitian, by whose orders it was executed. It detached itself from the Appian way at a small distance from Sinuessa, on the spot now called Mont-Dragone. This way opened under a triumphal arch, which was richly ornamented with marbles and metals, and passed along the sea by Vulturum, Litemum, Cumæ, and Bayæ to Puteoli.

Via Curia, a Roman way marked by Dionysius of Halicarnassus in the Sabine territory, on which were the following towns, viz. Curfula, 80 stadia from Reatè, and Iffa near Curfulin. Some have represented this as the same with the Latin way.

Via Quinta, which, according to Dion. Hal., belonged to the Sabines. Holstenius suggests that it was the same with the *Via Salaria*. Dion. Halic. places upon this way Palatium, 25 stadia from Reatè; Trebula, 60 stadia from Palatium; Vespola, 60 stadia from Trebula; Sima, 40 stadia from Vespola; Mephyle, 30 stadia from Suna; and Orvinium, 40 stadia from Mephyle.

VIA ROMANA, or *Roman Ways*, were public roads on which the ancient Romans impressed marks of grandeur and celebrity, as well as of utility, that have not been altogether effaced during an interval of more than 2000 years. In the construction of these roads they began with making a deep excavation, on each side of which they erected walls, and on these walls formed a parapet. The space between the walls was filled with layers of different materials, one of which was mortar made of the volcanic produce called puzzolano. Above these they placed the hardest stones which they could procure, and which they fastened together by an intermediate cement; and the salient angles were so constructed as to form a large mass. The elevated parapet served not only to give solidity to the way, but to afford a convenient seat for those who travelled on foot; and at certain intervals they placed stones of a greater height, which served for the convenience of horsemen. On these ways they had temples and monuments, which contributed to their ornament; and the distances were marked on columns of stone. Originally they marked the distance of any place from a column in the city of Rome; but in process of time they noted the distance from the capital of the province, or from any other town which they selected for this purpose. The first of these Roman ways was the *Appian way*, which commenced at the gate of Rome bearing this denomination, and took a S.S.E. direction. To the right commenced the *Via Ardeatina*, which proceeded from the south as far as Ardea, almost perpendicularly to the meridian. Within the compass of Rome, at the foot of mount Cælius, and to the left of the Appian way, commenced the *Via Latina*, the direction of which was to the S.E. At seven miles and a half commenced, to the left of the Latin way, the *Via Tusculana*. To the E. commenced the way, which, in the city, bore the name of *Via Sacra*. From this way, in the interior of the city, proceeded the *Via Campana* towards the S.E. The *Via Labicana* has an almost S.E. direction. Towards the E. is the *Via Prænestina*. To

the left of this way, about the fifth mile from Rome, is the *Via Collatina*. Towards the N.E. the first way is the *Via Tiburtina*, passing, as its name indicates, to the Tiber. The second is the *Via Nomentana*, proceeding towards the N.E. to the tenth mile, and then turning directly northwards to Nomentum. The third is the *Via Salaria*, which is detached to the Colline gate from the left of the Nomentane way, and proceeding directly towards the N. as far as the eighth mile, rejoins the same way at Eretum. It is called *Salaria*, from the salt which the Romans used to bring to Rome along this way from the sea. It was through the gate *Salaria* that the Gauls entered Rome, under the command of their leader Brennus, when that city was first taken by them. Towards the N.W. the first way is the *Via Lata*, which formerly turning by the Capitoline mount, passed by the ancient triumphal gate. This way afterwards assumed the name of *Flaminia*. The second is the *Via Claudia*, which advanced towards the N.W.; and at the sixth mile proceeded the third way in this direction, or the *Via Cassia*, which proceeded to Veii. The fourth way is the *Via Triumphalis*, which at the ninth mile joined the *Claudian way*. The fifth bore the name of *Via Cornelia*, which proceeded by the W. $\frac{1}{2}$ N. to the tenth mile; and the sixth was the *Via Aurelia*, which left Rome at the gate of Janiculum, and proceeded a little towards the S.W., but changing its direction towards the N.W. it gained the sea-coast, along which it pursued its course.

Towards the S.W. the first way was the *Via Portuensis*, so called, as well as the gate by which it left the city, from their leading to the place called Portuensis, now called by corruption "Villa Portefe." It passed by the S.E. and joined the route which followed the windings of the Tiber under the name of *Via Littoralis*, which last advanced to the "Portus Augusti." The second was the *Via Ufrensia*, which passed N.W. of the Circus Maximus, and crossing the Almo at the gates of Rome, it turned to the S.W. towards Ostia. The third way commenced five miles and a half on this way towards the left, under the name of *Via Laurentina*, which proceeded to the S. as far as Laurentum. We have above enumerated twenty-one ways or roads, which separating at the centre of Rome extended more or less to different parts of Italy. Bergier, to whom we are indebted for this detail on the Roman roads, proceeds, after having surveyed them at and near Rome, to trace their length and direction in various parts of Italy.

The military ways proceeding immediately from the gates of Rome, according to the table of Peutinger, and recorded in history, are eleven, agreeably to the following arrangement: viz. *Via Flaminia, Salaria, Nomentana, Tiburtina, Prænestina, Labicana, Latina, Appia, Hostiensis, Aurelia, and Triumphalis*.

The construction of the Flaminian road is ascribed by some authors to Flaminius, who was killed at the battle of the lake of Thrasymene, under the consulate of Lucius Veturius and Caius Lutatius, in the year of Rome 533; but Strabo ascribes this work to the son of this Flaminius, and he says expressly that he formed two grand roads in Italy, one from Rome to Ariminum (Rimini), called *Via Flaminia*; and another from Ariminum to Bononia (Bologna), and to Aquileia, which was denominated *Via Æmilia*. The distance from Rome to Rimini, according to the Itinerary of Antonine, was 222 Roman miles; but according to the table of Peutinger, 194 miles. History records nine military ways which parted from the *Via Flaminia*; and of all these ways, that called *Via Æmilia* was the most ancient, the most known, and the grandest of all; its length surpassed that of the Flaminian way, and

it was equally ancient. As to its antiquity, Strabo says that it was made at the same time with the Flaminian way, and Palladio ranks it among the three most renowned and most excellent, viz. *Via Appia*, *Via Flaminia*, and *Via Emilia*. This latter extended from Ariminum to Bononia, and thence to Aquileia, a distance, according to Antonine's Itinerary, of 485 miles, and according to the table of Peutinger of 527 miles. The poet Martial, speaking of this famous way, and of one of the cities which he found upon it, (lib. iii. ep. 4.) says,

"Romam vade, liber, si veneris undè requiret,
Emilize dicas de regione viae,
Siquis in terris, qua finis in urbe rogabit,
Corneli referas me licet esse fero."

The second branch of the Flaminian way is that called *Cassian*. It commenced at pons Milvius (or Ponte Mole), built upon the Tiber, two miles from Rome. From thence it took its direction by the town of Sutri.

The third branch, which detached itself from the Flaminian way, was the Claudian way, of which Ovid (l. i. de Ponto) says,

"Nec quos pomiferis positos in collibus hortos
Spectat Flaminiz Claudia juncta via."

According to the Itinerary, the distance from Lucca to Rome was 239 miles, and according to the chart of Peutinger 145 miles.

Besides these, the Annienne, Augustan, Cimine, Amennienne, Sempronian, and Poethuman, commencing at different parts of the Flaminian way, extended themselves across the different regions of Italy, between the city of Rome and the Po. Of all these ways, that called the Annienne is known by an ancient inscription found in the ruins of the town of Axuma. The Cimine way was between a mountain and the lake of its name near Viterbo. Virgil thus speaks of it, (*Æn.* vii.)

"Cimini cum monte Lucum, Lucosque Capenos."

The Amennienne way took its name from the town of Amelia, near Spoleto. The Sempronian way had its name from the town of Forum Sempronii, whence it extended as far as Fulginea or Fulcinium in Umbria. The Poethuman passed into Gaul, called by the Romans Togata; and Tacitus thus speaks of it: "Sistere tertiam legionem in ipso viae Poethumiz aggere tubet."

The *Via Salaria* commenced at the Colline gate, and extended towards the N. across the country of the Sabines, receiving the Nomentane way at the village of Herculum, eighteen miles from Rome, on the bank of the Tiber. Its route, indicated by the Itinerary from Eretum to Hadria, was 166 miles, and according to Peutinger's table 168 miles. Near this way were built the temples of Ericina and Venus Verticordia, and also several magnificent tombs. From the *Via Salaria* branched out two other ways, viz. the Quinctian and the Junian.

The Nomentane way took its origin at the Viminal gate, and extended N.E. as far as Nomentum, a town of the Sabines, in ancient Latium. Ovid thus speaks of it, (*Fast.* l. iv.)

"Hæc mihi Nomento Romam cum luce redirem
Obstitit in media Caudia Turba via."

Two miles from the city, on the Nomentane way, was a temple of Bacchus, which afterwards became the tomb of the family of the Constantines. On this way were also several temples and sepulchres.

It has been said by some authors, that the *Porta Tiburtina* and the *Porta Gabina* or *Gabiosa* were the same, and also the *Via Tiburtina* and *Via Gabina* or *Gabiosa*. Others have maintained that they were different, issuing from the same gate; the Gabiana being, more to the east than the Tiburtina; the former taking its course to the right, towards the Prænentine way, and the latter to the left, towards the N.E., passing by delightful places near the Tiber. From the Esquiline gate proceeded the two grand roads, called Prænentina and Lavicana. The Prænentine, according to Bergier, commenced at Rome, not far from the Forum; and at Anagnia, joined the *Via Latina*. The Lavicana also commenced in Rome; and having passed between two aqueducts, joined the Latin way at Anagnia. Strabo does not conduct the Lavicana so far; and the table of Peutinger terminates it at Lanuvium, twenty-nine miles from Anagnia. The *Via Latina* commenced at the gate of this name, and proceeded between the W. and the S. to join the grand Appian way, nineteen miles from Capua. The Appian, Latin, and Valerian ways were the most considerable in Latium: the Valerian way, upon leaving Rome, proceeded towards the left, the Appian towards the right, and the Latin way between the two. We may here observe, that there were two ways under the name of Valerian, the ancient and the new. The Itinerary mentions one, and Strabo the other. The Latin way was called by the ancients the Aufonian way; accordingly Martial has given it these two names. On this way was found the temple of female Fortune, with her statue, which married women only were allowed to touch without committing sacrilege. Of the *Appian* way we have given a brief account under that article: and for a farther account of other ways, we refer to the preceding part of this article; our limits allowing of no farther enlargement. The Romans extended their ways through the whole extent of their empire, and it would fill a volume to trace them in Europe, Asia, and Africa. The Itinerary of Antonine, and the table of Peutinger, will afford the curious in this research great assistance. For an account of the Roman roads in Britain, see WAY.

In connection with the Roman roads, it may not be improper to enumerate, as briefly as possible, the gates of Rome. When Rome was founded, it comprehended only mount Palatine and the neighbouring valley, where was the Forum; and it had only three gates. When the Sabines were admitted by Romulus into a participation of the freedom of the city, it was enlarged, and the Capitol inclosed; and for admission on the side of the Capitol, a fourth gate was added. The first gate had the name of *porta Munitionis*, from the bellows of the horned beasts which were sent through it to the adjoining pastures; the next called *Romula*, from the name of the city; and the third *Janualis*, from the god Janus, who inhabited this quarter. The fourth had the name of *porta Carmentalis*, from Carmenta, wife of Evander, who had his abode in that quarter, at the foot of the Capitol: which last gate is mentioned by Solinus, Plutarch (Life of Camillus), and Virgil (*Æneid.* viii.). In subsequent ages Rome was several times enlarged, and it became necessary to construct new gates; the four first serving merely for the fortrefs and the inclosure of the city. Numa, the successor of Romulus, added to the city a part of the Quirinal mount; and as the inhabitants multiplied, Tullus Hostilius joined to it mount Cælius; Ancus Marcius, the Janiculum; Servius Tullius, the rest of the Quirinal and the Viminalis. A long time afterwards, Sylla, Julius Cæsar, Augustus, and Tiberius, enlarged the compass of the city, so as to include a variety of magnificent edifices.

edifices. Nero having set fire to it, added to its former grandeur; Trajan also augmented it, as did also Aurelian, who inclosed the Campus Martius; and, finally, Constantine the Great enlarged it on the side of the Viminal and Tiburtine gates. Authors have differed as to the number of gates which belonged to the city of Rome. Pliny, in his time, reckoned twenty-four; but Procopius states them at fourteen, besides those less considerable gates, which he calls portulæ. In order to reconcile these discordant statements, it has been said that Rome had fourteen royal and principal gates, which might be denominated imperial and military, and to which all the military ways of Italy were directed; and besides these it had, in Pliny's time, ten others of inferior importance. The first fourteen, with their ancient and modern names, were the following, viz. *P. Flamentana*, afterward *Flaminia*, now the gate of the people, or del Popolo, from a church built near it by pope Pafcal II., dedicated to the Virgin Mary, under the appellation of Sta. Maria del Popolo:—*Collatina*, so called because it led to a town of that name in the country of the Sabines, not far from Rome, since *Pinciana*:—*Agonenfis*, bearing that name from the Agonalia celebrated just without it; since *Quirinalis*, from a chapel sacred to Romulus (Quirinus), which stood near it; also *Collatina*, or *Collina*, from its situation at the junction of the hills Quirinalis and Viminalis; and last of all, *Salaria*:—*Viminalis*, so called on account of the offers that grew near it, and because it was situated on the declivity of mount Viminalis; called also *Nomentana*, or *Numentana*, because the road through it led to Numentum; and now the gate of St. Agatha, or St. Agnes:—*Gabiosa*, so named from its leading to a road called Gabina; called by St. Gregory *Metroni*:—*Esquilina*, originally so called from its situation on mount Esquiline; *Taurina*, from the head of an ox engraved upon it; *Tiburina*, from its leading to Tibur, now Tivoli; *Libitenfis*, on account of the dead bodies that used to be carried through it to be interred in the Campus Esquilinus, the burying place of the common people; *Laticana* and *Prænestina*, because the roads passing through it led to these places; now, as some say, the gate of St. Lawrence, to whose magnificent church it leads; but others ascribe the name of St. Lawrence to the *Gabiosa*, and say this is the Porta major or greater gate; hence it is said that this name, as well as that of *Sancti Crucis*, or of the *Holy Cross*, is applied to *P. Navia*, so called, says Varro, from the *memoribus* or woods that formerly stood near it, or from an adjacent wood belonging to one Nævius; and it is observed that the Claudian aqueduct runs close by it:—*Calimontana*, so denominated from its situation on mount Cælius; since *Afinaria*, so called either from a road of that name to which it led, or from gardens, called the Afinarian, situated near it, or from Afinius Pollio or Afinius Gallus, consuls under Augustus, who built or repaired it; its oldest name was *Querquetulana*, under which name it is mentioned by Cicero; now *St. John's* gate, because it leads to St. John Lateran:—*Ferentina*, a name derived from Ferentinum, a place on the Latin way; since *Latina*, from its leading to Latium, now the Campagna di Roma; near it is now a chapel dedicated to *St. John the apostle*, from whom the gate is at present called:—*Capena*, so called from Capua, an old city of Italy, the way to which led through this gate; since *Appiana*, from its leading to the Appian way; or *Triumphalis*, from some triumphs in which the procession passed through it; it was also, as some say, called *Foninalis*, from the aqueducts which were raised over it; now the gate of *St. Sebastian*, from a church dedicated to that saint, which stands near it:—*Trigemina*, anciently so named from the three Horatii,

who went out at this gate to fight the Curiatii; called also *Appia*, from its being near the Appian aqueduct; *Foninalis*, from its being near a number of springs; and *Ostiensis*, on account of the road to Ostium, which began there; now the gate of *St. Paul*, from a noble church dedicated to that apostle, to which it leads, without the walls:—*Navalis*, so called from its being near the river; and *Portuensis*, from its leading to the city of this name:—*Janiculensis*, named probably from a bridge of that name which led to this gate; sometimes called *Trajana*, as having been repaired by the emperor Trajan; and *Aureliana*, from the emperor Aurelian, who either built or repaired it; now *St. Pancras's* gate:—*Foninalis*, called also *Septimiana*, from the emperor Septimius Severus, who built it, and whose baths are just without this gate; it was repaired by pope Alexander VI.:—and *Aurelia*, near the gate of Adrian. The other ten gates were of less importance; they were called *Portulæ* by Procopius, but there is a confusion in their names, which are as follow, compared with those of the other class: viz. *Querquetula*, or *Querquetulana*, on mount Viminal:—*Piculiaris*:—*Catularia*:—*Minutia*:—*Mugiona*:—*Sanqualis*:—*Nævia*:—*Rauduscula*, or *Raudusculana*:—*Lavernalis*:—and *Libitenfis*. Besides these twenty-four gates, there is yet one which served for an entrance into the city of Rome, on the side of mount Vatican, and on this side of the Tiber, not comprehended under those which we have already recounted. It is the most celebrated of all, and bore the name of *P. triumphalis*, ascribed by some to *Capena*, already mentioned.

VIA, in *Geography*, a town of Persia, in the province of Segeftan; 15 miles S.E. of Ferah.

VIA REGGIA, a sea-port town of the state of Lucca, and the only port of the republic; 20 miles W. of Lucca.

VIACHA, a town of Peru, in the diocese of La Paz; 8 miles S.W. of La Paz.

VIACIENSES, or VIATIENSES, in *Ancient Geography*, a people of Hispania Citerior, comprehended under the general name of Oretani.

VIADANA, LODOVICO, in *Biography*, the inventor of the expedient of expressing chords by figures in accompaniment or thorough-bass, which the Italians call *basso continuo*, was born at Lodi, in the Milanese, the latter end of the sixteenth century. His first preferment was that of maestro di cappella of the cathedral of Fano, and the second that of Mantua. He was one of the most distinguished ecclesiastical composers of his time. The indication of chords by figures in accompanying on keyed instruments, lutes, harps, and, in recitatives, even violoncellos, has been doubted, as several instances of the minute beginnings of this expedient have been observed previous to the time of Viadana; but he was, doubtless, the first who drew up general rules for expressing harmony by figures over the bass in 1615. Draudius, in an ample list of his ecclesiastical compositions, which were very numerous, tells us of one that authenticates his claim to this invention, which was a collection of all his choral pieces, of one, two, three, and four parts; "with a continued and general bass, adapted to the organ according to a new invention, and useful for every finger as well as organist; to which are added short rules and explanations for accompanying a general bass, according to the new method." Viadana was therefore the first who composed an organ bass different from the voice-part, in the execution of which the new invented figures enabled the performer to give the fingers the whole harmony of the several parts of a full composition, without seeing the score.

As the construction of perpetual fugue, or canon, required more meditation and science than any other species

of composition, there were several musicians during the seventeenth century, who, from an ambition to excel in such difficult undertakings, seem to have devoted as great a portion of their lives to these labours as holy men ever did to severe acts of piety and devotion, in order to be canonized.

Though the learned and elaborate style in which both the music of the church and chamber continued to be cultivated at this period, till near the middle of the seventeenth century; yet a revolution in favour of melody and expression was preparing, even in sacred music, by the success of dramatic composition, consisting of recitation and melodies for a single voice, which now began to be preferred to music of many parts, in which canons, fugues, and full harmony, were the productions which chiefly employed the master's study and hearer's attention. And this rendered the art of accompaniment or thorough-bass more necessary. See CHORDS, ACCOMPANIMENT, and THOROUGH-BASS.

VIADANA, in *Geography*, a town of Italy, in the department of the Mincio, on the Po; 23 miles S.S.W. of Mantua.

VIADUS, or VIADRUS, in *Ancient Geography*, a river of Germany, which had its source in Suevia, and discharged itself into the Suevian sea, or Codanus Sinus. This river is called *Guttalus* by Pliny.

VIE PRIMÆ, the first passages; a technical term for the stomach and intestines.

In this sense we say, an obstruction in the primæ viæ. Purging and emetic medicines operate chiefly on the primæ viæ. And sudorifics, alteratives, cardiacs, &c. suspend their action till after they have passed the primæ viæ.

VIAL, or PHIAL, a small and thin glass bottle. See PHIAL.

VIALA du Tarn, *Le*, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Aveyron, near the Tarn; 9 miles S.W. of Milhaud.

VIALES, in *Mythology*, a name given, among the Romans, to the gods who had the care and guard of the roads and highways. Such were Mercury and Hercules.

The Dii Viales, according to Labeo, were of the number of those gods called Dii Animales; who were supposed to be the souls of men, changed into gods: these were of two kinds; viz. the Viales and Penates.

The Viales were the same with those otherwise called Lares; at least, some of the Lares were denominated Viales; viz. such of them as had the more immediate superintendency of the roads.

Hence the two names are sometimes joined, and those highway-deities are called Lares Viales; witness that inscription in Gruter:

FORTUNAE
REDUCI LARI
VIALI ROMÆ
ÆTERNÆ
Q. ANIUS AELIA
NUS—VE. PROC.
AUG.
IONI.

VIAMON, in *Geography*, a town of Brazil, in the jurisdiction of Rio de Janeiro.

VIANA, in *Geography*, the name of a town of Norica. Pliny.

VIANA, in *Geography*, a mountain of Portugal, in the province of Alentejo; 3 miles S. of Evora.—Also, a town of Portugal, in the province of Alentejo; 12 miles S. of Evora.—Also, a town of Spain, in Galicia; 30 miles E.S.E. of

Orense.—Also, a town of Spain, in Navarre, on the Ebro; 16 miles S.W. of ERELLA.

VIANA de Foz de Lima, a sea-port of Portugal, in the province of Entre Duero e Minho, situated on the N. side of the Lima, near its mouth, containing two parishes, an hospital, seven convents, and about 7000 inhabitants; the harbour is choked up, and only capable of receiving small vessels; 9 miles W.S.W. of Ponte de Lima. N. lat. 41° 41'. W. long. 8° 26'.

VIANDEN, or WYANDEN, a town of France, in the department of the Forests, late the duchy of Luxemburg, called by the Germans Vyenthal, situated on the river Uren, which divides it into New and Old Town, in the midst of rocks and mountains. In the Old Town is a castle, situated on a rock of prodigious height, where a garrison was kept. Vianden is a very ancient and illustrious comté, which comprehends forty villages and hamlets, that belonged to the house of Nassau. The inhabitants carry on a considerable trade in manufacturing cloth and the tanning of leather; 18 miles N.N.E. of Luxemburg.

UJANDINSKOE YASASCHNOE, a town of Russia, in the government of Irkutsk, on the Indigirda; 148 miles N.N.E. of Zakhverfk. N. lat. 68° 40'. E. long. 132° 14'.

VIANEN, or VYANEN, a town of Holland, situated on the S. side of the Leck; 7 miles S. of Utrecht.

VIANINA, a town of the duchy of Piacenza; 20 miles S. of Piacenza.

VIANO, a town of the duchy of Piacenza; 13 miles S. of Piacenza.

VIANOS, a town of Spain, in New Castile; 3 miles S. of Alcazar.

VIAREDEN, a town of Brandenburg, in the Ucker Mark; 1 mile N. of Schwedt.

VIAS, a town of France, in the department of the Herault; 6 miles N.W. of Agde.

VIASDUM, a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Rawa; 16 miles W. of Rawa.

VIAT. See VIEST.

VIATICUM, among the ancient Romans, was the allowance or appointment which the republic gave to such of its officers as were sent into the provinces to exercise any office, or to perform any service or commission; as also to the officers of the army, and even the soldiers, &c.

Tacitus makes mention of it, *Annal. lib. i. c. 37. Viatum amicorum, ipsiusque Caesaris*; meaning the appointments which the republic paid to Germanicus and his officers.

This viaticum, however, did not consist altogether in money: the ring given to the magistrates and officers sent into the provinces was part of it; so were the clothes, baggage, tents, and the rest of the equipage.

Some have also given the name of viaticum to the piece of gold, silver, or copper, which the ancients used to put into the mouths of the dead, to pay Charon for their passage.

In the Romish church, viaticum is still the allowance made a religious, to defray the expences of a journey, mission, &c.

VIATICUM is also used for the communion, or eucharist, which is given to the people in the pangs of death, or who are about to make the voyage of the other world.

The viaticum is not to be given to persons executed in course of justice.

VIATKA, in *Geography*, a town of Russia, and capital of the government of Viatskoe: the environs of this city abound in excellent pasture for sheep, of which great numbers were sent hither from Germany, and a woollen manu-

manufacture was established by the great Peter. Some tanners likewise were brought by him from England, to teach the art of tanning leather; 624 miles E. of Peterburg. N. lat. $58^{\circ} 25'$. E. long. $50^{\circ} 22'$.—Alfo, a river of Ruffia, which paffes by Viatka, Orlov, Kotelnitch, &c. and runs into the Kama, 40 miles E. of Kazan.

VIATOR, in *Antiquity*, an officer of juftice among the Romans. The term, originally, had no other fignification than that of a public melfenger, or fervant, fent to advertife the fenators and magiftrates when afsemblies were to be held, where their prefence was required.

Hence, becaufe, in the firft ages of that empire, the Roman magiftrates lived moftly at their country houfes; thefe officers being obliged to be frequently upon the road, were called *viatores*, *travellers*; from *via*, *highway*.

In procefs of time, the name *viator* became common to all officers of the magiftrates, liitors, accenfi, fcribes, ftatores, and criers; either by reafon thefe names and offices were confounded in one; or becaufe *viator* was a general name, and the reft particular ones, fpecifying the particular functions they difcharged, as A. Gellius feems to infinuate, when he fays, that the member of the company of viatores who binds a criminal condemned to be whipped, was called *liitor*.

Be this as it will, the names *liitor* and *viator* are often ufed indifferently for each other; and we as often meet with *Send to feek*, or *advertife him by a liitor*, as by a *viator*.

None but the confuls, pretors, tribunes, and ædiles, had a right to have viatores. They were not to be Roman citizens, and yet they were required to be free.

VIATORE, in *Geography*, a town of Hindooftan, in the country of the Nays; 25 miles N.E. of Tellichery.

VIATSKOE, a government of Ruffia, bounded on the N. by the government of Volodga, on the E. by Permifkoe, on the S. by Uphinkoe and Kazanfkoe, and on the W. by Koftromfkoe; 260 miles long, and from 80 to 180 broad. N. lat. $55^{\circ} 40'$ to $60^{\circ} 25'$. E. long. 46° to 54° .

VIAZMA, a town of Ruffia, in the government of Smolenfk. This town is fituated on an eminence, and covers a great extent of ground; it is irregularly built, chiefly of wooden houfes, a few only of the more modern being of brick. It contains more than twenty churches, a great number for the town, which is far from being populous; 76 miles E.N.E. of Smolenfk. N. lat. $55^{\circ} 20'$. E. long. $24^{\circ} 26'$.

VIASNIKI, a town of Ruffia, in the government of Vladimir, on the Kiazma; 52 miles E. of Vladimir. N. lat. $56^{\circ} 10'$. E. long. $41^{\circ} 50'$.

VIATOVSKOI, a town of Ruffia, in the government of Upha, on the Ural; 36 miles E.S.E. of Orenburg.

VIBANTANARIUM, or **VIBANTAVARIUM**, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of European Sarmatia. Strabo and Ptolemy.

VIBELLI, a people of Italy, in Liguria. Pliny.

VIBEX is fometimes ufed, by *Physicians*, for a black and blue fpot on the fkin, occafioned by an afflux or extravafation of blood.

VIBI FORUM, in *Ancient Geography*, a place of Italy, in Gallia Cifalpina.

VIBINUM, a place of Italy, in Apulia, making a part of Magna Græcia.

VIBISCUS, a town of Gallia Celtica, or the Lyonnefe, among the Helvetians. Anton. Itin.

VIBO, **VIBONA**, or **Vinoba**, a town of Italy, in Brutium, upon the route from Rome to Colonne, by the Apian way, between Ad Turres and Nicotera. Cicero calls it Vibo.

VIBORG, or **WIBORÖ**, in *Geography*, a city of Denmark, capital of a diocefe, and all North Jutland, fituated near the centre of the province, on a lake, called Afmild, which abounds in fifh. It is one of the moft ancient towns of the kingdom, and was formerly large and rich, containing, prior to the reformation, twelve churches and fix convents. At prefent it is about two miles in circumference, and contains three parifh churches. It is ftill the refidence of a governor, and the fee of a bifhop; and a provincial court is held here every month for all North Jutland. In 1528, the reformation firft began in this town; 186 miles N. of Hamburgh. N. lat. $36^{\circ} 32'$. E. long. $9^{\circ} 18'$.

VIBORG, or **Wyborg**, a fea-port town of Ruffia, and capital of a government, to which it gives name, in the gulf of Finland; the fee of a bifhop. This town was built in the year 1293, and was heretofore the capital of Carelia. It was founded by Birger Jahl as a military hold, that fhould enable him to check the increafing power of the republic of Novgorod, fo famous in thofe days. Peter the Great having taken this town by capitulation in the year 1710, improved its fortifications, which have ever fince been kept in tolerable good condition, fo that Viborg was looked on as the bulwark of Ruffia againft Sweden. They are now, however, in a fomething dilapidated ftate, and not regarded as of much ufe. The principal exports are planks, tallow, pitch, and tar, for which the Englifh are the greateft customers: their imports are moftly purchafed from France and Holland, and are chiefly wine, fices, and falt; 360 miles S.W. of Archangel. N. lat. $60^{\circ} 50'$. E. long. $28^{\circ} 50'$.

VIBORGIA, in *Botany*, erroneoufly written *Wiborgia*, received its name in honour of Mr. Eric Viborg, a learned and acute Danifh botanift, author of feveral botanical and economical treatifes in his own language, publifhed eighteen or twenty years ago at Copenhagen.—Thunb. Prodr. n. 45. Willd. Sp. Pl. v. 3. 919.—Clafs and order, *Didymelia Decandria*. Nat. Ord. *Papilionaceæ*, Linn. *Liguminoſæ*, Juft.

Efl. Ch. Stamens all connected. Calyx five-toothed, with rounded interftices. Legume turgid, furrowed, winged.

1. *V. obcordata*. Thunb. Prodr. 121. Willd. n. 1.—Leaflets fmooth, obtufe. Branches elongated, lax.—A ſhrub, found at the Cape of Good Hope.

2. *V. fuſca*. Thunb. ibid. Willd. n. 2.—Leaflets fmooth, pointed. Branches wand-like, erect.—A ſhrub, from the fame country.

3. *V. ſericæa*. Thunb. ibid. Willd. n. 3.—Leaves downy, as well as the wand-like branches.—This is alfo a Cape ſhrub. We have feen none of the ſpecies. The genus feems well defined, though we lament the meagrenefs of its hiſtory.

VIBORSKOI, in *Geography*, a government of Ruffia, of which Viborg is the capital; bounded on the N. and W. by Finland, on the S. by the gulf of Finland and the government of Peterburg, and on the E. by lake Ladoga and the government of Olonetz; its form is very irregular. Its extent from N. to S. about 152 miles, where longeſt, in other places ſcarcely 60; its breadth from 60 to 100. N. lat. $60^{\circ} 15'$ to $62^{\circ} 40'$. E. long. 26° to 32° .

VIBRAIS, or **VIBRAYE**, a town of France, in the department of the Sarte; 9 miles N. of St. Calais.

VIBRANT, or **VIBRION**, in *Natural Hiſtory*, the name of a clafs of flies, commonly known by the name of the *ichneumons*.

The word is derived from the Latin *vibro*, to *ſhake* or *quiver*, and is applied to theſe flies, from the continual vibrating motion obſerved in their antennæ.

VIBRATION, in *Mechanics*, a regular, reciprocal motion

VIBRATION.

tion of a body, e. g. a pendulum; which, being suspended at freedom, (twings, or vibrates, first this way, then that. For the bob being raised, falls again by its gravity; and with the velocity thus acquired, rises to the same height on the other side; whence its gravity makes it fall again: and thus its vibrations are continued.

Mechanical authors, in lieu of vibration, frequently use the term *oscillation*; which see.

The vibrations of the same pendulum are all isochronal; that is, they are performed in equal time, at least in the same climate: for, towards the equator, they are found somewhat slower. See PENDULUM.

A pendulum 3 feet $3\frac{7}{8}$ inches, according to Huygens, or 39.25 inches, according to sir J. Moor and lord Brouncker, vibrates seconds, or makes 3600 vibrations in an hour.

The vibrations of a longer pendulum take up more time than those of a shorter one, in a subduplicate ratio of the lengths. Thus, a pendulum three feet long will make ten vibrations, while another nine inches long makes twenty. For 10 is the half of 20, and 3 feet, or 36 inches, are the square of 6 inches; which is double of 3, whose square is 9; so that 10 is to 20 in a subduplicate ratio of 36 to 9.

The same thing is meant when we say, that the number of vibrations of pendulums, in a given time, is in a reciprocal subduplicate ratio of their lengths.

The following table shews the number of vibrations in a minute, corresponding to pendulums of different lengths, expressed in inches.

Length.	Vibrations.	Length.	Vibrations.	Length.	Vibrations.
4	187	10	118	35	63
5	167	12	107	40	59
6	153	15	97	50	53
7	142	20	84	60	47
8	132	25	75		
9	125	30	68		

M. Mouton, a priest of Lyons, wrote an express treatise to shew, that, by means of the number of vibrations of a given pendulum, in a certain time, one might establish an universal measure throughout the whole world; and fix the several measures in use among us, in such manner, as that they might be recovered again, if at any time they should chance to be lost, as is the case of most of the ancient measures; which we now only know by conjecture. See *UNIVERSAL MEASURE AND STANDARD*.

The vibrations of a *stretched chord*, or *string*, arise from its elasticity; which power being of the same kind with that of gravity, the vibrations of a chord follow the same laws as those of pendulums: consequently, the vibrations of the same chord equally stretched, though they be unequal in length, are equidurnal, or are performed in equal times; and the squares of the times of the vibrations are among themselves, inversely, as the powers by which they are equally bent and inflected. (See CHORD and STRING.) On this subject, see Young's *Philos.* vol. ii. p. 546.

The sounding body in action quits its tranquil state by flight, but sensible and frequent undulations, each of which is called a *vibration*. These vibrations, communicated to the air, convey to the ear, by that vehicle, the sensation of sound; and this sound is grave or acute, in proportion as the vibrations are more or less frequent in the same time. See SOUND.

The vibrations of a *string* (which see), too, are proportionable to the powers by which it is bent; these follow the same laws as those of the chord, or pendulum; and, conse-

quently, are equidurnal; which is the foundation of spring watches.

For Pythagoras's account of the doctrine of vibrations, see PYTHAGORAS.

VIBRATIONS are also used in *Physics*, &c. for divers other regular alternate motions. Sensation is supposed to be performed by means of the vibratory motion of the contents of the nerves, begun by external objects, and propagated to the brain.

This doctrine has been particularly illustrated by Dr. Hartley, and extended farther by him than by any other writer, in establishing a new theory of our mental operations. The doctrine of vibrations, and its use in explaining our sensations, are comprised by this writer in the following propositions: that the whole medullary substance of the brain, spinal marrow, and the nerves proceeding from them, is the immediate instrument of sensation and motion; that this white medullary substance of the brain is also the immediate instrument by which ideas are presented to the mind; or, in other words, whatever changes are made in this substance, corresponding changes are made in our ideas, and *vice versa*: that the sensations remain in the mind for a short time after the sensible objects are removed; that external objects impressed upon the senses occasion, first in the nerves on which they are impressed, and then in the brain, vibrations of the small, and, as one may say, infinitesimal, medullary particles: that these vibrations are excited, propagated, and kept up, partly by the ether, i. e. by a very subtle and elastic fluid, and partly by the uniformity, continuity, softness, and active powers of the medullary substance of the brain, spinal marrow, and nerves; which Dr. Hartley supposes are rather solid capillaments, according to sir Isaac Newton, than small tubuli, according to Boerhaave: and that the phenomena of sensible pleasure and pain, and also those of sleep, appear to be very suitable to the doctrine of vibrations. Hence he proceeds to establish the agreement of the doctrine of vibrations with the phenomena of ideas. Sensations, he says, by being often repeated, leave certain vestiges, types, or images of themselves, which may be called simple ideas of sensation; because the most vivid of these ideas are those where the corresponding sensations are most vigorously impressed, or most frequently renewed; whereas, if the sensation be faint or uncommon, the generated idea is also faint in proportion, and, in extreme cases, evanescent and imperceptible. The exact observance of the order of place in visible ideas, and of the order of time in audible ones, may likewise serve to shew, that these ideas are copies and offsprings of the impressions made on the eye and ear, in which the same orders were observed respectively: and though it happens that trains of visible and audible ideas are presented in fallies of the fancy, and in dreams, in which the order of time and place is different from that of any former impressions; yet the small component parts of these trains are copies of former impressions; and reasons may be given of the varieties of their compositions. Sensory vibrations, by being often repeated, beget, in the medullary substance of the brain, a disposition to diminutive vibrations, which may be also called *vibratuncles* and miniatures corresponding to themselves respectively: so that if it be allowed that original impressed vibratory motions leave a tendency to miniature ones of the same kind, place, and line of direction, this author infers, that sensations must beget ideas, not only in the senses of sight and hearing, where the ideas are sufficiently vivid and distinct, but in the three others, since their sensations are also conveyed to the mind by means of vibratory motions.

Any sensations, says Dr. Hartley, by being associated with one

one another a sufficient number of times, get such a power over the corresponding ideas, that any one of the sensations, when impressed alone, shall be able to excite in the mind the ideas of the rest: and any vibrations, by being associated together a sufficient number of times, get such a power over the corresponding miniature vibrations, that any of those vibrations, when impressed alone, shall be able to excite the miniature of the rest. Hence he argues, that simple ideas will run into complex ones, by means of association, and that when this is the case, we are to suppose, that the miniature vibrations corresponding to those simple ideas run, in like manner, into a complex miniature vibration, corresponding to the resulting complex idea; some of which complex vibrations, attending upon complex ideas, may be as vivid as any of the sensory vibrations excited by the direct action of objects. See ASSOCIATION and MENTAL PHILOSOPHY.

Dr. Hartley also applies the doctrine of vibrations to the explication of muscular motion, which, he thinks, is performed in the same general manner as sensation, and the perception of ideas. For a particular account of his theory, and the manner in which it is largely illustrated, and the arguments by which it is supported, we must refer to his *Observations on Man*, vol. i. passim.

The several forts and rays of light fr Isaac Newton conceives to make vibrations in the ether of several magnitudes or velocities; which, according to those magnitudes or velocities, excite sensations of several colours; much after the same manner as vibrations of air, according to their several magnitudes or velocities, excite sensations of several sounds. See COLOUR and SOUND.

Heat, according to the same author, is only an accident of light, occasioned by the rays putting a fine, a subtle, ethereal medium, which pervades all bodies, into a vibrative motion, which gives us that sensation. See ÆTHER and HEAT.

From the vibrations or pulses of the same medium, he accounts for the alternate fits of easy reflection and easy transmission of the rays. See REFLECTION and UNDULATION. See also LIGHT.

In the Philosophical Transactions, it is observed that the butterfly, into which the silk-worm is transformed, makes one hundred and thirty vibrations, or motions of its wings, in one coition.

VIBRATIUNCLES. See VIBRATIONS, *supra*.

VIBRATO, in Geography, a river of Naples, which runs into the Adriatic, 2 miles N.N.E. of Giulia Nova.

VIBRISSÆ, a word used by medical writers to express the hairs in the nostrils.

VIBURNUM, in Botany, reckoned by Linnæus, *Phil. Bot.* 174, among the Latin names whose origin cannot be ascertained, is traced by Vaillant, Ainsworth, and Martyn to the verb *vico*, to bind; which is perfectly consistent with Virgil's expression of *lenta viburna*, but does not decide the old doubt, whether the poet meant our *Viburnum*, or any shrub of the willow or osier kind. Matthioli has led modern botanists to apply this name to the genus before us, one of whose species, *V. Lantana*, he conceives to be Virgil's plant, on account of its great pliability and humble flexible growth, well contrasted with the tall and upright cypress. —Linn. Gen. 147. Schreb. 107. Willd. Sp. Pl. v. 1. 1486. Mart. Mill. Dict. v. 4. Sm. Fl. Brit. 334. Prodr. Fl. Græc. Sibth. v. 1. 206. Ait. Hort. Kew. v. 2. 166. Pursh 201. Juss. 213. Tourn. t. 377. Lamarck Illustr. t. 211. Gært. t. 27. (Opulus; Tourn. t. 376. Tinus; Tourn. t. 377.)—Class and order, *Pentandria Trigynia*. Nat. Ord. *Dumoseæ*, Linn. *Caprifolia*, Juss.

Gen. Ch. Cal. Perianth superior, very small, in five

deep permanent segments. Cor. of one petal, bell-shaped, cut half way down into five obtuse, reflexed or spreading segments. Stam. Filaments five, awl-shaped, the length of the corolla; anthers roundish. Pist. Germen inferior, roundish, crowned with a turbinate gland; styles scarcely any; stigmas three. Peric. Berry roundish, of one cell. Seed solitary, roundish, bony.

Eff. Ch. Calyx superior, deeply five-cleft. Corolla in five segments. Berry with a solitary seed.

Viburnum is technically distinguished from *Sambucus*, (see that article,) by having one seed instead of three. The stem is shrubby, scarcely arborescent, with tough and pliant branches. Leaves simple, opposite, stalked, mostly elliptical, undivided, except in the *Opulus* of Tournefort and its nearest allies. Flowers generally terminal, cymose, copious, whitish. Berry red, blue, or black; in some cases eatable. The plants are hardy, natives of Europe, America, or Japan.

1. *V. Tinus*. Common *Laurus-Tinus*. Linn. Sp. Pl. 383. Willd. n. 1. Ait. n. 1. Curt. Mag. t. 38. (Tinus, n. 1, 2, and 3; Clus. Hist. v. 1. 49. *Laurus Tinus*; Ger. Em. 1409.)—Leaves ovate, entire; their veins furnished with axillary tufts of hair underneath. Cymes smooth.—Native of Spain, Portugal, and Italy, especially about the coasts of the Mediterranean. In our gardens it is a valuable evergreen, thriving best near the sea, seldom injured, except by very hard and lasting frosts, which sometimes destroy it nearly to the root. In a pure air it flowers all winter long, even when partially covered with snow; but in close or smoky situations, the plant is easily killed, and never blossoms. The berries are seldom perfected but in a greenhouse. At Vienna this shrub, like the *Prunus Lauro-cerasus*, is always treated as a greenhouse plant. We have lately seen what is now become the English name, affectedly accented *Lauristinus*. But it is a compound word, meaning *Laurus*, which is called *Tinus*; and Ovid teaches us that the first syllable of *TINUS* is long; see that article. The species before us is very bushy, spreading widely, seldom above five feet high; the twigs smooth, dark red; angular when young. Leaves two or three inches long, acute, veiny; dark shining green above; paler beneath, with glandular hairs at the origin of each large vein. Flowers tinged with red. Berries blue, like burnt steel, very beautiful. The leaves are occasionally more or less hairy, whence Clusius and Aiton distinguish three or four varieties.

2. *V. tinoides*. Mexican *Laurus-Tinus*. Linn. Suppl. 184. Willd. n. 2.—Leaves elliptical, entire; the origin of their veins slightly hairy underneath. Cymes and young branches hairy.—Sent by Mutis from Mexico. Like the preceding, but the leaves have shorter footstalks, and are elliptical rather than ovate; the young branches, and all the flower-stalks, are clothed with bristly hairs.

3. *V. villosum*. Downy Jamaica *Viburnum*. Swartz Ind. Occ. 564. Willd. n. 3.—Leaves ovate, acute, entire; hoary and downy beneath.—Gathered by Maffon and Swartz on hills in the southern part of Jamaica, flowering in autumn. A shrub about six or eight feet high, with a grey bark. The young branches, like the footstalks, cymes, and backs of the leaves, are clothed with soft, itarry, hoary pubescence, particles of which are also scattered over the green upper surface of each leaf. Flowers white.

4. *V. scandens*. Climbing *Viburnum*. Lian. Suppl. 184. Willd. n. 4. (V. virens; Thunb. Jap. 123.)—Stem twining. Leaves lanceolate, serrated. Cymes lax. Styles twice as long as the calyx. Outer flowers radiant.—Native of Japan. A slender climbing shrub, with short, leafy, opposite branches. Leaves two inches long, thin, tapering at each

VIBURNUM.

each end, bright green, smooth. *Cymes* slender, hairy, of three unequal branches. *Flowers* white; a few of them imperfect, with large, dilated, unequal, radiant *calyx-leaves* instead of *petals*, as in the Guelder-rose, &c. Thunberg describes ten *stamens*, but this is an accident, or error, his own specimen before us having but five. The three elongated *styles*, with club-shaped *stigmas*, are remarkable. Nothing is known respecting the fruit. The *germen* is turbinate, encircled with the *calyx*, as in *Hydrangea*.

5. *V. nudum*. Smooth Oval-leaved Viburnum. Linn. Sp. Pl. 383. Willd. n. 5. Ait. n. 2. Pursh n. 4. (V. foliis ovato-lanceolatis integerrimis; subtus venosis; Mill. Ic. 183. t. 274.)—Leaves elliptical, bluntish, somewhat revolute, nearly entire, very smooth, as well as the cymes, branches, and footstalks.—Native of North America, in swamps, particularly on a sandy soil, from Canada to Georgia, flowering in May and June. Every part is very smooth. *Leaves* three or four inches long; evergreen in the southern states of North America, but not in our gardens. The *cymes* are large, on long terminal stalks. *Flowers* copious, white. *Berries* black.

6. *V. obovatum*. Smooth Obovate Viburnum. Walt. Carol. 116. Poiret in Lam. Dict. v. 8. 658. Pursh n. 5.—Leaves obovate, obtuse, smooth, entire or somewhat notched. *Cymes* sessile. *Berries* roundish-ovate.—In shady woods of Carolina and Georgia, flowering in May and June. *Pursh*. *Flowers* white, small. *Berries* blackish. This is supposed to be *V. cassinoides* of Michaux, *Boreoal. Amer. v. 1*, 179, though not that of Linnaeus.

7. *V. prunifolium*. Plum-leaved Viburnum. Linn. Sp. Pl. 383. Willd. n. 6. Ait. n. 3. Pursh n. 1. (V. Lentago; Moench Hort. Weissenf. 140. t. 8. Mespilus prunifolia virginiana; Pluk. Phyt. t. 46. f. 2.)—Smooth, with wide-spreading branches. *Leaves* roundish-obovate, finely serrated. Footstalks even. *Cymes* sessile. *Berries* roundish.—Common in hedges and fields, from New England to Carolina, flowering in May and June. A hardy shrub, cultivated by Miller. The *leaves* are scarcely an inch and a half long, full an inch broad, minutely and sharply serrated. *Flowers* white. *Berries* dark blue.

8. *V. pyriforme*. Sharp-leaved Viburnum. Poiret in Lam. Dict. v. 8. 653. Pursh n. 2.)—Smooth. *Leaves* ovate, pointed, serrated. *Cymes* somewhat stalked. *Berries* elliptic-oblong.—On the banks of rivers, in Pennsylvania, New Jersey, &c. flowering in May and June. Resembles the former, but is not so straggling in its growth. *Berries* black. *Pursh*. Our wild Pennsylvanian specimen has copiously serrated *leaves*, two inches and a half long, with taper entire points. The fruit seems rather obovate. This may perhaps be *V. arboreum*, Muhlenb. Catal. 32. n. 12, our specimen having been sent by that excellent botanist, without a name, and formerly referred by us to *prunifolium*, to which it is certainly near akin.

9. *V. dauricum*. Siberian Viburnum. Pallas Ross. v. 1. p. 2. 30. Willd. n. 7. Ait. n. 4. (Lonicera mongolica; Pall. Ross. v. 1. p. 1. 59. L. daurica; ibid. t. 38. L. n. 8; Gmel. Sib. v. 3. 135. t. 25.)—Leaves ovate, serrated, dotted and hairy. *Cymes* of few flowers.—Found in the fissures of rocks, in various parts of Siberia. The late Mr. Bell, to whom our English gardens are so much indebted for plants from that country, introduced this in 1785. It flowers in June and July, but is not ornamental. The *leaves* are an inch and a quarter long, about half as broad. *Flowers* white, very few in each *cyme*, compared with most of the species. *Corolla* with an elongated tube. In his first account of this plant, above cited, Pallas attributes five, six, or seven seeds to the fruit; in the second he says one of his

pupils imposed upon him with a wrong specimen, and that the real fruit of this shrub is an oval berry, red at first, then black, like *V. Lantana*, but more oblong, with a solitary, compressed, ribbed seed. He gives figures of these parts, with the leaf of a smaller variety, in his tab. 58. fig. F, G; which he calls tab. 7. Pallas further remarks, that the feathered pubescence of this species is stellated, and that a portion of such is found on the *flower-stalks*; all which brings it nearer to the *Lantana*, a circumstance hardly to be divined from his figure.

10. *V. dentatum*. Shining Tooth-leaved Viburnum. Linn. Sp. Pl. 384. Willd. n. 8. Ait. n. 5, a. Pursh n. 9. Jacq. Hort. Vind. v. 1. 13. t. 36.—Leaves roundish-ovate, acute, furrowed and somewhat plaited, strongly toothed, nearly smooth on both sides. *Cymes* stalked. *Berries* almost globular.—In mountainous woods frequent, from New York to Carolina, flowering in June and July, and known by the name of Arrow-wood. *Berries* dark blue. *Pursh*. The *leaves* of this species are three inches long, and nearly as broad, somewhat heart-shaped at the base; besprinkled on the upper side with fine, simple, distant hairs; paler and smoother beneath. They are strongly ribbed. *Flowers* rather small, hairy in the middle. *Calyx* white as well as the *petals*.

11. *V. pubescens*. Downy Tooth-leaved Viburnum. Pursh n. 10. (V. dentatum β ; Ait. n. 5. Willd. n. 8.)—Leaves ovate, pointed, furrowed and somewhat plaited, strongly serrated; soft and downy beneath. *Cymes* stalked. *Berries* oblong.—In the lower parts of Virginia and Carolina, flowering in June. The whole of the shrub smaller than the preceding. *Pursh*. We have a specimen of this from the Paris garden, marked *V. dentatum longifolium*, Juss. The *leaves* are downy on both sides, but particularly soft at the back; their form oblong-ovate; length two or two and a half inches; margin sharply serrated; transverse veins numerous, divided. *Flowers* much like the last.

12. *V. plicatum*. Plaited Japanese Guelder-rose. Thunb. Tr. of Linn. Soc. v. 2. 332. Willd. n. 9. (V. dentatum; Thunb. Jap. 122, excluding the reference to Linnaeus. Fundan, vulgò Te Mariqua; Kämpf. Am. Exot. 854.)—"Leaves ovate, obtuse, with tooth-like serratures, plaited."—Found by Thunberg near Fammamoto, in Fokona, and other parts of Japan, flowering in April and May. The *flowers* are radiated, like our Guelder-rose; but the *leaves*, as Kämpfer observes, are rounder than in that species, with crowded ribs, and a serrated margin. Thunberg says the *leaves* are plaited, especially before they fully expand; their form rounder, and their teeth finer, than in the true *V. dentatum*, n. 10.

13. *V. erosum*. Jagged Japanese Viburnum. Thunb. Jap. 124. Willd. n. 10.—Leaves obovate, pointed, sharply notched, nearly smooth. Footstalks downy, as well as the cymes.—Native of Japan. *Branches* grey, somewhat spreading, smooth, except when young. Footstalks slender, near an inch in length; Thunberg calls them very short; we suspect he wrote *petiolus* for *pedunculus*, (the common flower-stalk,) which is very short, and downy like the cymes, (not *panicle* nor *umbel*), which it supports. The *flowers* are numerous and crowded, but not radiated. *Leaves* pliant, strongly veined, two or three inches long, dilated upwards.

14. *V. Lantana*. Mealy Guelder-rose; or Way-faring Tree. Linn. Sp. Pl. 384. Willd. n. 11. Fl. Brit. n. 1. Engl. Bot. t. 331. Jacq. Austr. t. 341. (Viburnum; Matth. Valgr. v. 1. 194. Camer. Epit. 122. Lantana, five Viburnum; Ger. Em. 1490.)—Leaves heart-shaped, sharply serrated, veiny; downy beneath, with starry hairs. *Cymes* stalked, downy.—Native of hedges and thickets, in the more temperate

temperate parts of Europe, on a chalky or marly soil, flowering in May, and not rare in various parts of England, especially Oxfordshire. It has justly been described by Ray, as of a taller stature in the northern counties than in the south. In general it is a tufted bush, with round, pliant, mealy twigs. (See the explanation of the generic name.) All the *stalks*, the backs of the elliptic-heart-shaped *veiny leaves*, and in some measure their upper surface, are clothed with dense, hoary, starry hairs, often loaded with dust from the road, which scarcely adds to the powdery aspect of the plant. *Flowers* white, in large, rather convex, stalked *cymes*. *Stigmas* sessile, very short and thick. *Berries* roundish, abrupt, compressed; when young red on the outermost side, yellow on the other; finally quite black, mealy and astringent, with a large, flat, furrowed *seed*. The *foliage* turns in autumn to a dark red.

14. *V. grandifolium*. Large-leaved, or American, Wayfaring Tree. (*V. Lantana* β , *grandifolium*; Ait. ed. 1. v. 1. 372. ed. 2. n. 6, β , by mistake called *grandiflorum*. Willd. n. 11, β . *V. Lantanoïdes*; Michaux Boreal-Amer. v. 1. 179. Pursh n. 11.)—Leaves roundish-heart-shaped, abruptly pointed, unequally and obtusely serrated; their ribs and stalks downy, with starry hairs. *Cymes* quite sessile. *Berries* ovate.—In shady woods, on high mountains, from Canada to Virginia, principally in the forests called Beech-woods, flowering in June and July. Known by the name of *Hobble-bush*. *Berries* red; but when ripe, black. *Pursh*. Of more humble growth than the last, with more trailing branches, and larger greener leaves. Michaux has well separated it from the European *Lantana*, but we cannot adopt his barbarously-formed specific name, though too many such illiterate deformities are unaccountably introduced daily by more classical writers. The error of *grandiflorum*, for *grandifolium*, is one of those very few which escaped the late supremely accurate Dryander. It were an injury to his memory not thus to correct him.

15. *V. tomentosum*. Downy Japanese Viburnum. Thunb. Jap. 123. Willd. n. 12. (Sijo, vulgò Adfai, &c.; Kämpf. Am. Exot. 854.)—"Leaves ovate, pointed, serrated, veiny; downy beneath. *Cymes* lateral."—Observed by Thunberg, in various woods between Miaco and Jedo, as well as cultivated, in Japan, flowering in April and May. The branches are round, smooth, reddish, divaricated, subdivided. Leaves ovate, (not heart-shaped,) ribbed; the upper ones most downy beneath. The youngest branches, and all the stalks, are downy. *Cymes* axillary, at the extremities of the small branches. *Flowers* radiant. Thunberg. Kämpfer says the flowers are blue, composing a large dense ball, the outer ones largest.

16. *V. birtum*. Hairy Japanese Viburnum. Thunb. Jap. 124. Willd. n. 13.—"Leaves ovate, serrated, villous. Footstalks hairy."—Native of Japan. Stem ascending in a zigzag manner, round, smooth; its branches alternate, round, smooth at the base, hairy at the extremity. Leaves opposite, resembling those of a nettle, acute, deeply and equally serrated, an inch long, veiny; the veins clothed with white close hairs. Footstalks and flower-stalks covered with horizontally spreading hairs. Flowers minute, not radiant. Stigma two-lobed. Thunberg.

17. *V. acerifolium*. Maple-leaved Viburnum. Linn. Sp. Pl. 384. Willd. n. 14. Ait. n. 7. Pursh n. 12. Venten. Jard. de Cels, t. 72.—Leaves three-lobed, pointed, sharply serrated; downy beneath. Footstalks hairy, without glands.—In rocky mountainous situations, from New England to Carolina, flowering in May and June. Berries black. Pursh. The branches are round, finely downy, with starry hairs. Such are found also on the footstalks, but in-

termixed with simple much coarser ones. The leaves are rather acutely lobed, and strongly serrated, very much resembling those of the Common Vine. Stipules fetaceous, in pairs on the base of each footstalk. Cyme of many downy branches, on a long terminal common stalk. Flowers not radiant. This appears by the manuscripts of the celebrated Peter Collinson, to have been imported by him in 1736.

18. *V. orientale*. Oriental Guelder-rose. Pallas Ross. v. 1. p. 2. 31. t. 58. f. H. Willd. n. 15. Opulus orientalis, folio amplissimo tridentato; Tourn. Cor. 42.—Leaves three-lobed, pointed, coarsely and rather bluntly toothed. Footstalks smooth, without glands.—Native of rather alpine situations in Imiretta. Pallas. Differs from the last, to which it is very nearly akin, in having leaves strongly toothed, not serrated, and an oval seed, with three ribs and two furrows at each side, as in *V. Lantana*, instead of the heart-shaped seed of the *acerifolium*. Willdenow. Berries red. Pallas.

19. *V. Opulus*. Common Guelder-rose, Water Elder, or Snow-ball Tree. Linn. Sp. Pl. 384. Willd. n. 16. Fl. Brit. n. 2. Engl. Bot. t. 332. Fl. Den. t. 661. (Sambucus aquatilis five palustris; Ger. Em. 1424. S. aquatica; Camer. Epit. 977.)—Leaves three-lobed, sharply toothed. Footstalks smooth, furnished with glands. Cymes radiant.—Native of watery thickets and hedges throughout Europe, flowering in June. A small bushy tree, smooth in all its parts, only the backs of the leaves being occasionally downy. Their three lobes are unequally toothed or serrated. The footstalks bear, towards the top, several cup-like glands, and towards the base, a pair or two of linear stipules. Cymes large, smooth, stalked, of numerous white flowers, the marginal ones abortive, dilated and radiant. Berries oval, drooping, scarlet, very succulent, not eatable. Seed heart-shaped. A variety with globose cymes, composed entirely of radiant flowers, is commonly cultivated in gardens and shrubberies, as a companion to the lilac and laburnum. The foliage turns in autumn to a beautiful pink or crimson, as in many genera of trees and shrubs that are principally American.

20. *V. molle*. Soft-leaved American Guelder-rose. Michaux Boreal-Amer. v. 1. 180. Pursh n. 13. ("V. alnifolium; Marsh. Arb. 162.")—"Leaves roundish-heart-shaped, plaited, furrowed, toothed; downy beneath. Footstalks slightly glandular. Cymes radiant. Berry oblong-ovate."—In hedges in Kentucky, near Danville, as well as in Tennessee and Upper Carolina, flowering in June and July. Berries red. This species resembles the following. Pursh. The leaves are undivided, not three-lobed. The flowers are radiant. The bark falls off every year in thin shreds. Michaux.

21. *V. Oxycoccus*. Cranberry Guelder-rose. Pursh n. 14. (V. Opulus β ; Ait. n. 8. Michaux Boreal-Amer. v. 1. 180. "V. trilobum; Marsh. Arb. 162.")—Leaves three-lobed, acute at the base, three-ribbed; lobes divaricated, elongated, pointed, sparingly toothed. Footstalks furnished with glands. Cymes radiant.—In swamps and shady woods of Canada, and on the mountains of New York and New Jersey, flowering in July. Berries red, of an agreeable acid, resembling that of Cranberries, *Vaccinium macrocarpon*, for which they are a very good substitute. Pursh. We have never examined this species, though it probably may be found in the London nurseries. If the fruit answers to the above character, and is plentiful, it would be worth cultivating for the table. The twigs are described of a shining red.

22. *V. edule*. Smaller Eatable Guelder-rose. Pursh n. 15.

VIBURNUM.

n. 15. (V. Opulus; Michaux Boreal.-Amer. v. 1. 180.)
—Leaves three-lobed, bluntish at the base, three-ribbed; lobes very short, serrated with minute pointed teeth. Footstalks furnished with glands. Cymes radiant.—On the banks of rivers, from Canada to New York, flowering in July. A smaller and more upright shrub than the preceding species. Berries of the same colour and size, but, when completely ripe, more agreeable to eat. Pursh.

23. V. dilatatum. Spreading Japanese Viburnum. Thunb. Jap. 124. Willd. n. 17.—Leaves obovate, pointed, unequally toothed, villous. Cymes axillary.—Gathered by Thunberg in Japan. Stem shrubby, erect, somewhat angular, grey, villous. Leaves two inches long, stalked, ribbed, jagged at the margin, villous on both sides; the lower ones smaller. Footstalks round, villous, three-quarters of an inch long. Cyme axillary, repeatedly compound, four-cleft and three-forked, very widely spreading, with downy stalks. Flowers not radiant. Thunberg. The learned author uses the terms *panicle*, *umbel*, and *cyme* indifferently in his descriptions of this genus; but from what we have seen, even of his own species, we, without scruple, substitute the latter throughout.

24. V. macrophyllum. Large-leaved Japanese Viburnum. Thunb. Jap. 125. Willd. n. 18.—Leaves obovate, pointed, toothed, smooth. Cymes radiant, terminal.—Native of Japan. The whole plant is smooth. Stem and branches round. Leaves ribbed, paler beneath, four inches in breadth, and somewhat more in length. Footstalks one-third the length of the leaves. Thunb.

25. V. cuspidatum. Pointed-leaved Japanese Viburnum. Thunb. Jap. 125. Willd. n. 19.—Leaves ovate, pointed, serrated, villous. Cymes radiant.—From the same country as the two last. Leaves equally and acutely serrated, of the size of the preceding species, clothed with scattered hairs. Cymes terminal, repeatedly compound. Thunb.

26. V. Lentago. Pear-leaved Viburnum. Linn. Sp. Pl. 384. Willd. n. 20. Ait. n. 9. Pursh n. 3.—Leaves smooth, broad-ovate, pointed, finely and sharply serrated. Footstalks bordered, crisp. Cymes sessile.—Frequent in hedges, and on the borders of woods, from New England to Carolina, flowering in July. More inclined to grow to a tree than any of the rest of the American species. Berries black. Pursh. Cultivated in England, by Mr. James Gordon, in 1761. Aiton. The leaves are three inches long, and nearly half as broad, rather coriaceous, very smooth, with many transverse ribs. Footstalks channelled, with a curled dilated border at each side. Buds large, ovate, with a long point. We never saw the flowers.

27. V. squamatum. Scaly Viburnum. Willd. Enum. 327. (V. nudum; var. squamatum; Muhlenb. Catal. 32.)
—Leaves oblong, bluntly and finely serrated. Footstalks and flower-stalks clothed with scaly pubescence.—Native of Pennsylvania. A hardy shrub in the open air at Berlin. Leaves two inches long, with a very short point; their base somewhat contracted; their edges unequally, distantly, bluntly, and very slightly serrated; smooth, except the under side of the younger ones, which is besprinkled with small, brown, very distant, scales. Footstalks, as well as the long lanceolate buds, thickly covered with minute, brown, hairy scales. Cyme terminal, as in V. nudum, n. 5, which the present species greatly resembles; but it is distinguished by the scales of all the stalks, and the finely-serrated, less coriaceous, leaves, which are neither shining nor revolute. Willdenow.

28. V. cassinoides. Thick-leaved Viburnum. Linn. Sp. Pl. 384. Willd. n. 21. Ait. n. 10. Pursh n. 6.—Leaves ovato-lanceolate, acute at each end, smooth, crenate, slightly

revolute. Footstalks keeled, without glands.—In swamps from New York to Carolina, flowering in June and July. Berries blueish-black. Pursh. The whole plant is smooth. Leaves two inches long, more or less, and one broad, coriaceous; paler beneath; the transverse ribs scarcely visible. Footstalks angular, gibbous at the base, but not decurrent. Cymes terminal, on short stalks.

29. V. levigatum. Caffiberry Viburnum, or Paraguay Tea. Ait. n. 12. Willd. n. 23. Pursh n. 7. (Cassine Paragua; Linn. Mant. 220. C. foliis ovato-lanceolatis ferratis oppositis deciduis, floribus corymbosis; Mill. Ic. 55. t. 83. f. 1. C. verze perquam similis arbutuula, phyllocefoliis antagonists; Pluk. Mant. 40. Hortul. Angl. 16. t. 20.)—Leaves lanceolate, smooth, unequally serrated; entire at the base. Branches two-edged.—Found near the sea-coast, in Virginia and Carolina, flowering in June and July. Berries black. Pursh. The smooth wand-like branches are marked at each side with a narrow prominent line, running down from the insertion of the footstalks, which are rather short and thick, carinated, bordered, and somewhat crisp. Leaves scarcely two inches long, bluntish. Cymes at the ends of short lateral branches. Flowers white, not radiant. Berries globular, red.

30. V. nitidum. Shining Narrow-leaved Viburnum. Ait. n. 11. Willd. n. 22. Pursh n. 8.—“Leaves linear-lanceolate, very smooth, entire, or slightly serrated; shining above. Branches quadrangular.”—In sandy barren woods of Carolina and Georgia. A low shrub, with small leaves. Pursh. Mr. Aiton speaks of it as hardy, flowering in May and June; cultivated in 1758, by Mr. Christopher Gray, who had at that time, and long before, a well-furnished nursery-ground at Fulham.

VIBURNUM, in Gardening, contains plants of the deciduous and evergreen flowering kind, among which the species cultivated are, the plant mealy or wayfaring tree (V. lantana); the water elder or guelder rose (V. opulus); the pear-leaved viburnum (V. lentago); the thick-leaved viburnum (V. cassinoides); the shining-leaved viburnum (V. nitidum); the caffiberry bush (V. levigatum); the oval-leaved viburnum (V. nudum); the plum-leaved viburnum (V. prunifolium); the tooth-leaved viburnum (V. dentatum); and the laurustinus, or laurultine (V. tinus).

The first is a thickly-branched shrub, the flowers of which are whitish, in large terminating, solitary, many-flowered cymes. It is sometimes known by the name of plant mealy tree; and according to Withering, the bark of the root is used to make bird-lime.

There is a variety in North America with larger leaves, of a bright green; and with variegated leaves in nurseries.

The second sort is a small bushy tree, with numerous white flowers, smooth in all its parts, and very much branched.

There is an American variety, which is a shrub, that has the twigs of a shining-red colour, and which rises eight or ten feet high, with many fine-branches, covered with a smooth purple bark; the leaves cordate-ovate, ending in acute points, deeply serrate, having many strong veins, and standing upon very long slender footstalks.

There is also another beautiful variety common in plantations, under the name of guelder-rose, bearing large round bunches of abortive flowers only, which rises to the height of eighteen or twenty feet, if permitted to stand: the stem becomes large; the branches grow irregular, and are covered with a grey bark: the leaves are divided into three or four lobes, somewhat like those of the maple; they are about three inches long, and two and a half broad, jagged on their edges, and of a light green colour: the

flowers come out in a large corymb, are very white, and being all neuters, are barren: from their extreme whiteness, and swelling out into a globular form, some country people have given this shrub the name of *snow-ball tree*. It is also sometimes called *elder rose*, and *rose elder*.

In the seventh sort there are varieties with deciduous and evergreen leaves.

The eighth sort has a woody stalk ten or twelve feet high, and is commonly called *black haw* in North America.

The ninth has the stalks soft, pithy, and branching, with white flowers.

There are varieties with the leaves smooth on both sides, and with the leaves downy underneath, and drawn out to a point.

In the tenth sort there are several varieties; as the smaller hairy-leaved, in which the umbels (cymes) of flowers are smaller, and appear in autumn, continuing all the winter. The plants are much harder than in the original sort.

The shining-leaved, in which the stalks rise higher, and the branches are much stronger: the bark is smoother, and turns of a purplish colour: the leaves are larger, of a thicker consistence, and of a lucid green colour: the umbels (cymes) are much larger, and so are the flowers; these seldom appear till the spring, and when the winters are sharp, the flowers are killed, and never open unless they are sheltered.

There is a sub-variety of this with variegated leaves, with gold-striped and silver-striped; in which the branches are warted, the younger ones four-cornered; the leaves opposite, ovate, on short petioles, rigid, shining, perennial; the younger ones hirsute, with short ferruginous villous hairs: flowers in crowded cymes, with little bractæes between them: the corolla white; and the berries, when ripe, blue.

The common, with narrower leaves, hairy only on the edge and veins underneath: the fruit smaller.

And the upright *laurustinus*.

Method of Culture.—These plants may some of them be increased by seeds, most of them by layers, many by cuttings, and a few by suckers.

The seeds in the deciduous kinds should be sown in the autumn or spring in beds of light fine mould, being well covered in. The plants appear in the first or second year; and when they are of a twelvemonth's growth, they should be planted out in nursery rows, to be continued till of proper growth to plant out in the shrubberies or other parts of pleasure grounds, as from two to five feet.

In the *laurustinus* kinds, the seeds, after being mixed with mould in the autumn, soon after they become ripe, and exposed to the air and rain in the winter, should in the spring be sown on a gentle hot-bed, or in pots plunged into it; the plants being continued in the bed till the autumn, when they should be removed and managed as in the layer method. The plants raised in this way are said to be harder than those raised from layers.

The first sort is tedious in being raised from seeds.

In the layer, which is the most expeditious mode of raising most of these plants, the young lower branches should be laid down in the autumn or spring, being pegged down in the usual manner in the earth, when they mostly become well rooted in a twelvemonth, and may then be taken off and planted out where they are to remain, or in the nursery; and sometimes, in some of the kinds, a few are put in pots.

The best season for removing the tenth sort is in the early autumn, that they may be well rooted before the winter sets in.

The first sort succeeds best by layers put down in the autumn; and the striped variety may be increased by budding it upon the plain sort.

The cuttings may be made in the autumn from the strong young shoots being planted in a moist border in rows, when in the following summer many of them will be rooted, and form little plants. Most of the deciduous sorts may be raised in this way.

The suckers should be taken up in the autumn or spring with root-fibres, and be planted out in nursery rows to have a proper growth. The guelder-rose may be readily increased in this way, and sometimes the *laurustinus*.

The fourth sort is rather tender in winter while in its young growth, as well as the sixth, and should have protection in that season. A plant or two should be constantly laid in pots under shelter. This last sort is easily increased by layers.

These plants afford much variety and effect in shrubbery and other parts of pleasure-grounds, when planted out in a mixed order. The evergreen sort are often used to cover disagreeable objects. The flowering evergreens are likewise often set out in pots. They are sometimes trained to a single stem, to the height of one or two feet, being encouraged to branch out into a close bushy round head. They should all mostly be permitted to take on their own natural growths, except the occasional retrenching of their lower straggling branches, and pruning the long shoots from their heads.

VIBURNUM-Galls, in *Natural History*, the name of a species of galls, or small protuberances, frequently found on the leaves of the *viburnum*. These are of a very singular nature, and seem to be composed of a different substance from that of the leaf. They appear in form of brown circular spots, of which there are sometimes forty or more on one leaf: they are about the fifteenth of an inch in diameter, and rise a little above the surface of the leaf, as well on the under as the upper side; each of them has also a small prominence in the centre, on each side of the leaf, looking like a nipple standing on the breast.

These are found in great plenty in the months of June, July, and August, and, when opened, each contains one insect, which is a small worm of a white colour, with six legs, and two hooks of a brown colour at the head.

M. Reaumur found that these worms became, in time, a very small species of beetle. They were of a cinnamon colour, and had conic and granulated antennæ of a beautiful figure. Reaumur's Hist. Insects, vol. vi. p. 209.

VIC, in *Geography*, a town of France, and seat of a tribunal, in the department of the Meurthe; 15 miles E. of Nancy.—Also, a town of France, in the department of the Vienne, on the Gartempe; 18 miles N. of Montmorillon.

Vic, or *Vieg*, a town of France, in the department of the Indre; 18 miles N. of Châteauroux.

Vic. See *Vique*.

Vic Bigorre, a town of France, and principal place of a district, in the department of the Upper Pyrénées; 18 miles E. of Pau. N. lat. 43° 22'. E. long. 8'.

Vic en Carladès, or *Vic sur la Cère*, a town of France, in the department of the Cantal, situated at the foot of the Cantal, with a medicinal spring; 21 miles W.S.W. of St. Flour.

Vic le Comte, a town of France, in the department of the Puy de Dôme. About half a league from the town is a medicinal spring; 6 miles S.W. of Billom.

Vic Dèssès, a town of France, in the department of the Ariège; 6 miles S.W. of Tarascon.

Vic Fexenjac, a town of France, in the department of the Gers; 12 miles S. of Condom.

VICAR, *VICARIUS*, a person appointed as deputy of another,

VICAR.

another, to perform his functions in his absence, and under his authority.

The word is formed from *vicarius, qui alterius vices gerit*. The pope pretends to be vicar of Jesus Christ on earth. He has under him a *grand vicar*, who is a cardinal; and whose jurisdiction extends over all priests, both secular and regular; and even, in many cases, over laymen.

Apostolical vicars are those who perform the functions of the pope in churches or provinces which he has committed to their direction.

Among the ancient Romans, *vicarius*, vicar, was a legatus, or a lieutenant, sent into the provinces where there was no governor; so that the vicarii were properly the emperor's vicars, not those of governors. Cod. de Offic. Vicar.

Italy, in the time of the eastern empire, was governed by two vicarii: the one *vicar of Italy*, who resided at Milan; the other *vicar of the city*, who resided at Rome.

Cujas observed, that the word vicar was sometimes, though rarely, attributed to the lieutenant-generals of provinces, or governors of Roman provinces.

VICAR, in the *Canon Law*, denotes a priest of a parish, the predial tithes of which are impropriated or appropriated; that is, belong either to a chapter, religious house, &c. or to a layman, who receives them, and only allows the vicar the smaller tithes, or a convenient salary, anciently called *portio congrua*.

He is thus called, *quasi vice fungens rectoris*, as serving for, or in lieu of, rector, who would be entitled to the great tithes.

Hence, the part or portion of the parsonage allotted to the vicar, for his maintenance and support, or the promotion or living which he has under the parson, is called a *vicarage*. This part or portion is, in some places, an annual sum of money certain; but in most places, it is a part of the tithes in kind, which most commonly is the small tithes; and in some places he has a part of the great tithes, and also of the glebe.

The stipend of vicars was formerly at the discretion of the appropriators; but, on account of their neglect, it was enacted by 15 Rich. II. c. 6. that in all appropriations of churches, the diocesan bishop should ordain (in proportion to the value of the church) a competent sum to be distributed among the poor parishioners annually, and that the vicarage should be sufficiently endowed. However, the vicar was liable to be removed at the pleasure of the appropriator; and, therefore, by 4 Hen. IV. c. 12. it is ordained, that the vicar shall be a secular person, not a member of any religious house; that he shall be vicar perpetual, not removable at the caprice of the monastery; and that he shall be canonically instituted and inducted, and be sufficiently endowed, at the discretion of the ordinary, for these three express purposes, to do divine service, to inform the people, and to keep hospitality. Institution and induction seem to be the specific difference between a vicar and a perpetual curate; both can only be in a church that was appropriated. But this must be understood, only where the curacy is parochial; for as to curates of chapels, there seems to be no similitude between them and curates of parishes. In appropriated churches, where no vicar has been endowed, the officiating minister is appointed by the appropriator or impropriator, and is called perpetual curate. The endowments in consequence of these statutes have usually been by a portion of the glebe, or land belonging to the parsonage, and a particular share of the tithes, called small or vicarial tithes; which see. Some, however, were more liberally, and some more scantily endowed; and hence many things,

as wood in particular, is in some countries a rectorial, and in some a vicarial title. The distinction therefore of a parson and vicar is this: that the parson has generally the whole of all the ecclesiastical dues in his parish; but a vicar has generally an appropriator over him, entitled to the best part of the profits, to whom he is in effect a perpetual curate, with a standing salary. Though in some places the vicarage has been considerably augmented by a large share of the great tithes; which augmentations were greatly assisted by the statute 29 Car. II. c. 8. enacted in favour of poor vicars and curates, which rendered such temporary augmentations (when made by the appropriators) perpetual. See AUGMENTATION. Blackst. Comm. book i.

A vicar who has a part of the great tithes, and also of the glebe, is called a *vicar endowed*.

These vicars were anciently called *perpetui vicarii*; because not appointed by the impropriator, and licensed by the bishop to read service; but presented by the patron, and canonical institution given them by the hands of the ordinary; and so having constant succession, or corporations, and never dying.

The act of endowment by the bishop might be made either in the act of appropriation, or by a subsequent act or separate instrument. Upon the making of an appropriation, an annual pension was reserved to the bishop and his successors, commonly called an indemnity, and payable by the body to whom the appropriation was made. See APPROPRIATION AND IMPROPRIATION.

A vicarage by endowment becomes a benefice distinct from the parsonage. As the vicar is endowed with separate revenues, and is now enabled by the law to recover his temporal rights without aid of parson or patron; so hath he the whole cure of souls transferred to him, by institution from the bishop. It is true, in some places, both the parson and the vicar do receive institution from the bishop to the same church as it is in the case of secures; the original of which was thus: The rector (with proper consent) had a power to entitle a vicar in his church to officiate under him; and this was often done; and by this means two persons were instituted to the same church, and both to the cure of souls, and both did actually officiate. So that however the rectors of secures, by having been long excused from residence, are in the common opinion discharged from the cure of souls (which is the reason of the name); and however the cure is said in the law-books to be in them *habitualiter* only; yet in strictness of law, and with regard to their original institution, the cure is in them *actualiter*, as much as it is in the vicar. Gibb. 719. Cro. Jac. 518. 1 Sid. 426.

The parson, by making the endowment, acquires the patronage of the vicarage. For in order to the appropriation of a parsonage, the inheritance of the advowson was to be transferred to the corporation to which the church was to be appropriated; and then, the vicarage being derived out of the parsonage, the parson of common right must be patron thereof. So that if the parson makes a lease of the parsonage (without making a special reservation to himself of the right of presenting to the vicarage), the patronage of the vicarage passeth as incident to it. (2 Roll. Abr. 59.) But it was held in the 21 Jac. that the parishioners may prescribe for the choice of a vicar. And before that, in the 16 Ja. it was declared by the court, that though the advowson of the vicarage of common right is appendant to the rectory, yet it may be appendant to a manor; as having been reserved specially upon the appropriation. Gibb. 719. Moore, 894. 2 Roll. Rep. 304.

Sometimes, upon appropriation, the right of presenting the

the vicar was given to the bishop, probably to induce his consent : as appeareth from divers instances.

There were no vicarages at common law ; or, in other words, no tithes or profits of any kind do *de jure* belong to the vicar, but by endowment or prescription ; which cannot be presumed, but must be shewn on the part of the vicar. For which reason, the payment of tithes to the parson is *prima facie* a discharge against the vicar. Gibl. 719. Palm. 113. Yelv. 86. 4 Mod. 184.

The first endowment of the vicars cannot be prescribed against by the parson. Which original endowments therefore being of such authority as no time can destroy ; and such causes between parson and vicar as relate to them, or depend on them, being also cognizable in the spiritual court : it were much to be wished, says Dr. Gibson, for the sake of the poor vicars, that diligent search were made after them in the ecclesiastical offices, and other repositories of records ; in order to bring to light as many as can possibly be found. Especially, since it hath been also adjudged, that if a vicar hath used time out of mind, or for a long time, to take particular tithes or profits, he shall not lose them, because the original endowment is produced and they are not there : but inasmuch as every bishop had an indisputable right to augment vicarages as there was occasion, and thus, whether such right was reserved in the endowment or not ; the law will presume, that this addition was made by way of augmentation. Gibl. 720.

The loss of the original endowment is supplied by prescription ; that is, if the vicar hath enjoyed this or that particular tithe by constant usage, the law will presume that he was legally endowed with it ; by the same reason that it presumes some tithes might be added, by way of augmentation, which were not in the original endowment. Gibl. 720. 2 Keb. 729. Hardr. 328.

It is said that all compositions for the endowments of vicarages shall be expounded by the judges of the common law ; and if the spiritual court meddle with that matter, they are to be prohibited. Watf. c. 39. Lit. Rep. 263.

But where the dispute is between rector and vicar, being both spiritual persons, it seemeth that the proper cognizance of the cause belongeth to the ecclesiastical judge. 2 Brownl. 36. See, however, Moore, 457.

But the courts of equity frequently determine upon the interpretation of endowments.

The canonists mention four species of vicars : some *perpetui* ; others, appointed for a certain time, and on some special occasion, called *mercenarii* : others, called *speciales*, appointed not for the whole cure, but for some certain place, article, or act : others, *generales*, neither perpetual, nor appointed for any certain act, but for all things in the general.

VICAR-GENERAL was a title given by Henry VIII. to Thomas Cromwell, earl of Essex ; with full power to oversee the clergy, and regulate all matters relating to church-affairs.

VICAR-GENERAL is now the title of an office, which, as well as that of official principal, are united in the chancellor of the diocese. The proper work of an official is to hear causes between party and party, concerning wills, legacies, marriages, and the like ; which are matters of temporal cognizance, but have been granted to the ecclesiastical courts by the concessions of princes : whereas that of a vicar-general is the exercise and administration of jurisdiction purely spiritual, by the authority and under the direction of the bishop, as visitation, correction of manners, granting institutions, and the like, with a general inspection of men and things, in order to the preservation of discipline and good government in the church. These two offices have been

ordinarily granted together ; but Dr. Gibson wishes they might be still kept separate ; the office of vicar-general to be vested in the hands of some grave and prudent clergyman, usually resident within the diocese ; and that of official (as being conversant about temporal matters) in the hands of a layman, well skilled in the civil law.

VICARDI, the name of an office in the island of Candia. The word is probably a corruption of the Latin *vicarii*. The vicardi is the governor of a village, and is sometimes the parish priest ; his office is to levy the public taxes, and to send offenders to the cadic. This office is always appointed yearly. Pococke's Egypt, vol. ii. part ii. p. 12.

VICARELLO, in *Geography*, a town of the Popedom, in the Patrimonio, near the lake of Bracciano, celebrated for its baths ; 3 miles N.W. of Bracciano.

VICARIO *deliberando occasione cujusdam recognitionis*, &c. in *Lava*, an ancient writ that lies for a spiritual person imprisoned.

VICARO, in *Geography*, a town of Naples, in Capitanata ; 9 miles S.E. of Volturara.

VICE, VITIUM, in *Ethics*, is ordinarily defined an elective habit, deviating either in excess, or defect, from the just medium in which virtue is placed.

It is called a *habit*, to distinguish it from *sin*, which is only an act : hence, a *sin* is looked upon as something transient ; and a *vice*, as something permanent.

In the common use of the terms vice and sin, there is no ground for this subtle distinction. Vice, as opposed to virtue, is better defined the disagreement of the actions of any intelligent being with the nature, circumstances, and relation of things ; hence called the moral unfitness of such actions. See VIRTUE.

Some authors distinguish three states of vice : the first *incontinentia*, of incontinence, in which a person sees and approves the good, but is hurried to evil by the violence of his passions. The second *intemperantia*, of intemperance ; in which even the judgment is depraved and perverted ; the third *feritas*, of obduracy ; in which the person is totally immersed in vice, without any sense or feeling of it.

The state of incontinency is considered as infirmity, in which the person feels the sharpest stings of conscience : that of intemperance, as malice, in which the remorse is not so lively. In that of obduracy there is none.

VICE, in *Smithery*, and other arts employed in metals, is a machine, or instrument, serving to hold fast any thing they are at work upon, whether it be to be filed, bent, or rivetted, &c.

The parts of the vice are, the *face*, or *plane*, which is its uppermost part ; the *chaps*, which are cut with a bastard-cut, and well tempered ; the *screw-pin*, cut with a square, strong worm ; the *nut*, or *screw-box*, which has a square worm, and is braised into the round box ; the *spring*, which throws the chaps open ; and the *foot*, on which the whole is mounted.

VICE, *Hand*, is a small kind of vice, serving to hold the less works in, that require often turning about.

Of this there are two kinds, the *broad chapt hand-vice*, which is that commonly used ; and the *square-nosed hand-vice*, seldom used but for filing small round work.

VICE is also a machine used by the glaziers, to turn, or draw lead into flat rods, with grooves on each side, proper to receive the edges of the glais.

This machine consists of two iron chaps, or cheeks, joined with two cross iron pieces. In the space between the chaps are two steel wheels, and their spindles, or axes, passed through the middle, each of which has its nut or pinion with teeth, that catch into each other ; and to the lowest is fitted a handle, by which the machine is turned.

There are some of these vices double, and that will draw two leads at once: these have three wheels. Some glaziers will turn lead of different sizes in the same vice; by changing their cheeks for each size.

With another pair of spindles, whose nuts almost meet, they turn lead for *tiers*; which, when it comes out of the vice, is almost cut asunder, in two thicknesses, easily to be parted. Before the invention of this vice, they used a plane: accordingly, in all the ancient windows, we find the lead planed and grooved that way.

VICE is also used in the composition of divers words, to denote the relation of something that comes instead, or in the place, of another.

In this sense the word is Latin, *vice*, stead, place, turn, &c.

VICE-Admiral. See ADMIRAL.

VICE-Chamberlain, called also, in ancient statutes, *under-chamberlain*, is an officer in the court, next under the lord-chamberlain; and who, in his absence, has command and controul of all officers belonging to that part of the household called the *chamber* above stairs.

VICE-Chancellor of an university is an eminent member, chosen annually to manage affairs in the absence of the chancellor.

VICE-Comer, in Law. See VISCOUNT.

VICE-Comitem, *Accedas ad*. See ACCEDAS.

VICE-Comitis, *Respectu habendo computi*. See RESPECTU.

VICE-Consul, an officer who discharges the duty of a consul, under his orders or during his absence.

VICE-Doge is a counsellor of Venice, who represents the doge when sick, or absent; that the signory may never be without a chief.

The vice-doge never takes the ducal chair, nor bears the horn, nor is addressed under the title of *serenissimo*: yet the foreign ambassadors, speaking to the college, use the common apostrophe of *serenissimo principe*; and he performs all the offices of doge, and gives answers to ambassadors, without moving his cap.

VICE-Dominus, a viscount, sheriff, or vidame.

VICE-Dominus Abbatie, or *Ecclesie*, in the *Civil* and *Canon Law*, an advocate, or protector, of an abbey or church. See ADVOCATE.

VICE-Dominus Episcopi, in the *Canon Law*, is the commissary or vicar-general of a bishop.

VICE-Gerent, *Vicgerens*, a vicar, deputy, or lieutenant.

VICE-Legat, an officer whom the pope sends to Avignon, and some other cities, to perform the office of a spiritual and temporal governor, at a time when there is no legate, or cardinal, to command there.

All the Gaul Narbonneise, as Dauphiné, Provence, &c. has recourse to the vice-legate of Avignon, for all ecclesiastical dispatches; in like manner as the other provinces address themselves to Rome. See LEGATE.

VICE-Roy, a governor of a kingdom, who commands therein in the name and stead of a king, with full and sovereign authority.

Thus, when Naples and Sicily were subject to Spain, vice-roys were sent thither; and the name is now given to those who govern in Mexico and Peru.

The lord-lieutenant of Ireland is also sometimes called the vice-roy.

VICE-Versa, a Latin phrase, frequently retained in English writings; signifying as much as *on the contrary*.

Thus, as the sun mounts higher and higher above the horizon, insensible perspiration increases; and, *vice versa*, as he descends lower, it diminishes.

VICIGRAD, or VISSEGRAD, in *Geography*, a town of

Hungary, near the Danube, with a castle, formerly the residence of the kings of Hungary. It was enlarged, and magnificently fitted up by Charles I., who, in 1310, ordered the royal crown to be deposited here. In this castle likewise he entertained John, king of Bohemia, and his son Casimir, king of Poland, and Nemagna, king of Bosnia and Servia. After the death of Louis II. it was taken by the Turks, since which it has been neglected; 9 miles S.S.E. of Gran.

VICENNALIS, in *Antiquity*, something of twenty years, or that returns after twenty years.

Among the Romans, *vicennalia* particularly denoted the funeral feasts, held on the twentieth day after a person's decease.

VICENNALIA, or *Vicennales Ludi*, were also games, feasts, and rejoicings, held every twentieth year of the reign of a prince.

On medals we frequently meet with *vicennalia vota*; the vows put up on that occasion for the safety of the emperor and the enlargement of the empire.

These are expressed by *VOT. X. & XX*, in the medals of Tacitus, Gallienus, and Probus; *VOT. X. M. XX*, in those of Valerius Maximianus and Galerius Maximianus; *VOT. X. MUL. XX*, in those of Constantine, Valentinian, and Valens; *VOT. X. MULT. XX*, in those of Dioclesian, Constantine, Julian, Valentinian, Theodosius, Arcadius, Honorius; *VOTIS X. MULT. XX*, in those of Julian, Valentinian, Gratian; *VOT. X. SIC. XX*, in those of Valerius Constantius; *VOT. XII. FEL. XX*, in the younger Licinius; *VOT. XV. FEL. XX*, in Constantine.

VICENTE, or VINCENT, *St.*, in *Geography*, a province of Brasil, containing the noted republic of *St. Paul* (which see); and as this is the first province in which the Portuguese established themselves, so it was one of the most fertile, till the discovery of the mines diverted the channels of commerce. It is now chiefly remarkable for hams, esteemed equal to any in Europe; and, if Eistalla may be credited, for tanned hides of large swine.

VICENTIA, VICENZA, in *Antient Geography*, a town of Italy, in Venetia, upon the Medoacus Minor (the Barchiglione). Of its foundation nothing is known; but it appears to have been a Roman colony, and municipal. The partisans of Vespasian took possession of it, A.D. 69. Tacitus, *Hist. l. iii. c. 8*.

VICENTIN, in *Geography*, a country of Italy, bounded on the north by the Tyrolense, on the east by the Trevisan and the Paduan, on the south by the Paduan, and on the west by the Veronese and Tyrolense; about 45 miles in length, and from 10 to 24 in breadth. This territory was formerly a part of Lombardy. It is partly hilly, and partly flat; but in general uncommonly pleasant and fertile. The plains abound in all kinds of corn, fruit, and mulberry-trees; and the mountainous parts afford good pastures, and most excellent wine, called "vino santo." The breeding of cattle is so very considerable here, that the country of Vicenza is proverbially called the shambles of Venice. The sheep are in tolerable plenty, and the wool is excellent. The culture of silk is so important, that it produces annually upwards of 200,000 pounds of that article; there are also silver and iron mines, medicinal springs, paper, and saw-mills, which are abundantly provided with timber from the forests. Fish and venison are in abundance. The hill Summano is celebrated on account of the great variety of salubrious herbs which grow there; and on the other hills petrified shells and fish are found, some of which differ entirely from those that live in the Adriatic sea. The larger rivers and rivulets are the Astico, Agno or Gua, the Temonchio,

monchio, the Cerifon, and Tergola, all which run into the river Baghiglione, and difcharge themselves afterwards into the Po. The territory of Vicenza belonged formerly to ancient Venetia, and in the fequel raifed itfelf to the rank of one of the thirty duchies of Lombardy, and was incorporated by Charlemagne with the Marca Trevifana. In the progrefs of time, the country of Vicenza affumed again a republican form; and in the 13th century, fell under the dominion of the tyrant Ezzelin. After his death, it came under the government of Padua, from which it was taken by the family of Scala, who were again difpoffeffed of it by John Galeazzo Visconti, duke of Milan. It did not, however, remain long in his hands; for in the year 1404, it refcued itfelf from the government of Milan, and fubmitted voluntarily to the republic of Venice. In the year 1796, it became part of the Auftrian monarchy, in virtue of the peace of Campo Formio. This province comprehends one city, 13 fmall towns and boroughs, and upwards of 300 villages. The whole population amounts, according to the laft enumeration made by the French, to 286,000 fouls.

VICENTINO, DON NICOLÒ, in *Biography*, published at Rome, 1555, a work in quarto, entitled "L'Antica Mufica ridotta alla moderna Prattica," or "Ancient Mufic reduced to modern Practice," with precepts and examples for the three genera and their fpecies; to which is added, an account of a new instrument for the moft perfect performance of mufic, together with many mufical fecrets.

During the 16th century, and a great part of the next, many of the moft eminent mufical theorifts of Italy employed their time in fubtle divifions of the fcale, and vifionary purfuits after the ancient Greek genera; nor was this rage wholly confined to theorifts, but extended itfelf to practical muficians, ambitious of aftonifhing the world by their deep fcience and fuperior penetration, though they might have employed their time more profitably to themfelves, and the art they profefled, in exploring the latent refources of harmonic combinations and effects in compofition, or in refining the tone, heightening the expreffion, and extending the powers of execution, upon fome particular instrument. Thefe vain inquiries certainly impeded the progrefs of modern mufic; for hardly a fingle tract or treatife was prefented to the public, that was not crowded with circles, fegments of circles, diagrams, divifions, fubdivifions, commas, modes, genera, fpecies, and technical terms, drawn from Greek writers, and the now unintelligible and ufelefs jargon of Boethius.

Vicentino, by the title of *Don* prefixed to his name, feems to have been an ecclefiaftic of the Benediftine order. He was a practical mufician, and appears to have known his bufinefs. In his treatife he has explained the difficulties in the mufic of his time, with fuch clearnefs, as would have been ufeful to the ftudent, and honourable to himfelf, if he had not fplit upon enharmonic rocks, and chromatic quickfands. He gives a circumftantial account of a difpute between him and another mufician at Rome, Vincentio Lufitanio, who maintained that modern mufic was entirely diatonic; while Vicentino was of opinion, that the prefent mufic was a mixture of all the three ancient genera, diatonic, chromatic, and enharmonic. This difpute having produced a wager of two gold crowns, the fubject was difcuffed in the pope's chapel, before judges appointed by the difputants, and determined againft Vicentino; whether juftly or unjuftly, depends upon the precise fenfe affigned to the term *chromatic* by the feveral difputants.

What ufe was made of the enharmonic genus in the mufic of the 16th century, we know not; but whenever other founds are ufed than thofe of the fcale, ftrictly diatonic, by

introducing F, C, or G fsharp, or any flat, except that of B, which the Greeks themfelves allowed in the fynememon tetrachord, and the moft fcrupulous writers upon canto-fermo, in the modes of the church, the diatonic is mixed with the chromatic; and to this licence the firft contrapuntifts were reduced, at a cadence in D and A minor, as well as G major.

Though Vicentino loft his wager by the decifion of the judges againft him, he recovered his honour fome time after, by his antagonift, Lufitanio, recanting, and coming over to his opinion. According to Kircher, Vicentino was the firft who imagined that the proportions or ratios of the ancient diatonic genus were inadmiſſible in our counterpoint; and tried in his work to eftablifh the tetrachord to confift of a major, femitone, and two tones, one major and one minor; which forms the diatonic fyn-tonas of Ptolemy, which Zarlino has propagated, and which is now in general ufe.

VICENZA, in *Geography*, a city of Italy, and capital of the Vicentin, fituated at the union of two fmall rivers, in a plain, between two hills. The celebrated architect, Andrea Palladio, was born and lived here. Among the buildings are feen feveral regular ftately palaces, and other elegant edifices, particularly the council-houfe, the grandeur of which is heightened by two very lofty columns, with St. Mark's winged lion on one of them, and on the other the image of our Saviour. The Monte della Pietà is a ftately fabric, and has a very fine library. Of the churches, which are 57 in number, 14 are parochial, and 20 conventual, with feveral good hospitals. The cathedral ftrikes the eye with nothing particular. The great altar of the Dominican church is a moft auguft piece of Palladio's architecture, as is alfo the beautiful convenient theatre in the building where the Academia Olympicorum meets. The feats are difpofed in the manner of the ancient amphitheatre, and the perſpective is furprifingly beautiful, chiefly by reafon of the many ftatues of Roman emperors, and fome philoſophers. This academy is a fociety of men of learning, who meet at ftated times, for the improvement of the Italian language. By the fame ſkilful architect is likewife the copy of the triumphal arch of the Campo Martio, without the city, erected for the embellifhment of the public walk. The church della Madonna di Monte, on a mountain, without the city, is much frequented by pilgrims, and poſſeſſes a fine front-piece, with a convent built clofe by. The Scaligeri were once for a confiderable time lords of this city; afterwards it paſſed through feveral hands, and, in 1304, fubmitted to the republic of Venice; 35 miles W. of Venice. N. lat. 45° 31'. E. long. 11° 22'.

VICES, a term ufed by the dealers in horſes to exprefs certain faulty habits or cuſtoms in that creature, which render him troubleſome to the rider, and are never to be worn off, but by attention to the regular methods.

The following are the tricks generally underſtood as vices by dealers, and their methods of preventing, correcting, and curing them.

1. If a horſe carry his head or neck awry, ſtrike him twice or thrice with the ſpur on the contrary ſide; but if he be very ſtiff-necked on the right ſide, and very plying or bending on the left, the rider is to hold the right rein ſhorter than the other, and give him fudden checks every time he inclines that way, having a ſharp wire faſtened in the reins, that ſtriking in his neck, he may be compelled to hold it ſtraight; but in this, care muſt be always taken to check him upwards, for otherwiſe he will get a habit of ducking his head, which will prove very troubleſome.

2. If a horſe is apt to ſhake his head and ears upon the leaſt occaſion, or move his ears when he is going to kick or bite,

bite, or cast his rider; the way of curing this is to strike him on the head with a wand, as soon as he shews the first attempt to it; and, at the instant of striking him, he is to be checked with the bridle, and struck with the spur on the contrary side: this will put him out of his pace, and he is then to be stopped, that he may have leisure to understand the rider's meaning. Every time that he starts or winces, which are signals that he is going to bite, or to strike with his heels, the same is to be done, and he will, by degrees, be broke of these habits.

3. If a horse is subject to ducking down his head frequently, the rider must, every time he is guilty of it, check him suddenly with his bridle, and at the same time strike him with the spurs, in order to make him sensible of his fault. If he be standing, he is thus to be made to bring his head in the right place as he stands; and when he does so, he is to be cherished, that he may understand the rider's meaning, which, in time, he will certainly do.

4. If a horse be skittish, and apt to start, so that the rider is never free from danger while on his back, the cause of the malady is first to be carefully inquired into: if it be found to proceed from a weak sight, which represents objects to him other than they really are; the method of curing him is, every time he does it, to give him leisure to view the things, and see what they really are; he must have time to view them well, and then be rid gently up to them. If, on the contrary, his skittishness depends on his being naturally fearful, and alarmed at every noise, he is to be cured of it by the inuring of him to loud noises of many kinds, as firing of guns, drums, trumpets, and the like; and he will, in time, come to take delight in that of which he was before afraid.

5. If a horse be restive, and refuse to go forward, the rider is to pull him backwards, and this will often occasion his going forward: this is using his own fault as a means of reclaiming him. The rider is first cautiously to find whether this vice proceeds from real stubbornness, or from faintness: if from the latter, there is no remedy but rest; but if actual stubbornness be the fault, the whip and spur, well employed, and persisted in, will at length be found a certain cure.

6. If a horse rear up an end; that is, if he rises so high before as to endanger his coming over the rider, the horseman must give him the bridle, and bear forwards with his whole weight. As he is going down, he should have the spur given him very roundly; but this must by no means be done as he is rising, for then it will make him rise higher, and probably come over.

7. If a horse be subject to lie down in the water, or upon the ground, there is no better remedy than a pair of sharp spurs resolutely applied. But there is more caution to be used in the application of them, for bad horsemen generally are the occasion of the faults in horses, by correcting them out of due time.

The proper moment of spurring is just when he is going to lie down; but when this has diverted him from the thought of it, he is not immediately to be spurred again. For the doing this frightens the creature, and puts him into confusion to that degree, that he at length becomes restive, and thus one fault is only changed for another, and that perhaps a worse.

8. If a horse be apt to run away, very cautious means must be used to break him of it. The rider must be gentle, both with a slack curb, and keeping an easy bridle-hand. He is first to be walked without stopping him; but only staying him, by degrees, with a steady, not a violent hand, and always cherishing him when he obeys: when he is thus well manageable in his walk, he is to be put to

his trot, and finally to his gallop; and from these he is to be brought into a walk again, always by degrees, and staying him with a steady hand. By using this method from time to time, with judgment and patience, it is probable he may at length be cured.

9. If a horse is apt to fly out violently, it is certain, that the more the bridle-rein is pulled, and the more he is hurt by tugging the curb, the faster he will run: the best method is therefore, if there be field-room enough, to let him go, as soon as he is going, by slackening the bridle, and giving him the spur continually and sharply, till he slacken of his own accord. Thus, by degrees, he will find that himself is the sufferer by all his flights, and he will then leave them off, though he could be never broke of them any way else.

10. Some horses will not endure the spurs when they are given them, nor ever go forwards; but faltering themselves to them, they will strike out and go back; and if they are pressed more hard, they will fall to italing without ever going out of the place. If the horse who has this vice be a gelding, it will prove very difficult to cure him of it. A stone-horse, or mare, are much easier cured; but even these will be trying at it again afterwards; and if they ever get the better of their rider, they will not fail to keep it up in this particular.

Every horse, of whatever kind, that has this fault of cleaving to the spurs, as the jockeys call it, and not going forwards with them, is to be rejected, in the buying for any gentleman's riding, for it is a sign of a restive nature, and is a fault generally accompanied with many others.

VICESIMATIO, in *Roman Antiquity*. See DECIMATION.

VICH, in *Geography*, a river of Russia, which runs into the Ob, N. lat. 61° 20'. E. long. 76° 14'.

VICHERÉY, a town of France, in the department of the Volges; 9 miles E. of Neuchâteau.

VICHNOU, or VISNE, in *Mythology*, a deity in the East Indies, of whom the Brahmans have a tradition, that he was metamorphosed into a tortoise; and they explain this fable by saying, that by the fall of a mountain the world began to stagger and to sink down gradually towards the abyss, where it would have perished, if their beneficent god had not transformed himself into a tortoise to bear it up. See VISHNU.

VICHY, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Allier, on the Allier; near it are some medicinal springs; 3 miles S.W. of Cusset.

VICIA, in *Botany*, the Vetch, an old Latin name, is by some etymologists derived from *vincio*, to bind together, as the various species of this genus twine, with their tendrils, round other plants. De Theis traces this word to its Celtic synonym, *Gwiz*, whence also, according to him, comes the modern Greek name of the vetch, *βίαιον* or *βίχα*.—Linn. Gen. 376. Schreb. 497. Willd. Sp. Pl. v. 3. 1093. Mart. Mill. Dict. v. 4. Sm. Fl. Brit. 768. Prodr. Fl. Græc. Sibth. v. 2. 69. Ait. Hort. Kew. v. 4. 310. Pursh 471. Juss. 360. Tourn. t. 221. Lamarck Illust. t. 634. Gærtn. t. 151. (Faba; Tourn. t. 212.)—Class and order, *Dialdelphia Decandria*. Nat. Ord. *Papilionaceæ*, Linn. *Leguminosæ*, Juss.

Gen. Ch. Cal. Perianth inferior, of one leaf, tubular, erect, cloven half way down into five acute segments; the upper ones shortest, converging; all of equal breadth. Cor. papilionaceous. Standard oval, with a broad oblong claw; its summit emarginate with a small point; the sides reflexed; the back marked with a longitudinal, compressed, elevated line. Wings two, oblong, erect, half-heartshaped, shorter than the standard, with oblong claws. Keel shorter than

the wings, half-orbicular, compressed, with a divided oblong claw. *Stam.* Filaments in two sets, one simple, the other in nine divisions; anthers erect, roundish, with four furrows. A nectariferous gland, short and pointed, arises from the receptacle, between the compound filament and the germen. *Pist.* Germen linear, compressed, long; style shorter, thread-shaped, bent upwards at a right angle; stigma obtuse, transversely bearded underneath. *Peric.* Legume long, coriaceous, of one cell and two valves, terminating in a point. *Seeds* several, roundish.

Obs. *Faba* of Tournefort has oval compressed seeds. *Vicia* of that author and Rivinus has roundish seeds.

Ess. Ch. Stigma transversely bearded on the under side.

An extensive genus of herbaceous, perennial or annual plants, climbing by means of tendrils, which terminate the common footstalk of their abruptly pinnated leaves. It is nearly akin to *LATHYRUS*, (see that article,) differing essentially in the *stigma*, and in a generally more slender habit, with smaller, more oblong, flowers. The species are mostly natives of Europe, a few of Barbary, and North America, scarcely any occurring in tropical climates. The flowers are axillary: either racemose on a longish common stalk; or nearly sessile, solitary or two or three together; their colour crimson, purplish, or pale yellowish, rarely white or blue.

Sect. 1. Flower-stalks elongated.

1. *V. pififormis.* Pea Vetch. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1034. Willd. n. 1. Ait. n. 1. Jacq. Austr. t. 364. (*Pisum sylvestricum*; Clus. Hist. v. 2. 229. *P. perenne* sylvestre; Ger. Em. 1220. *Cracca flore ochroleuco*; Rivin. Tetrap. Irr. t. 52.)—Stalks many-flowered. Leaflets ovate; the lower pair close to the stem.—Native of woods in Hungary, Austria, Germany, Switzerland, and near Constantinople; a hardy perennial, flowering in July and August in our botanic gardens. The stem is angular and striated, branched, climbing to the height of several feet. Leaves of three or four pair of not quite opposite, broad, blunt, smooth leaflets, about an inch long, all on very short partial stalks, attached to a straight footstalk from three to five inches in length, which ends in a branched tendril; the lowest pair largest, and close to the stipulas, which are ovate, acute, with an awl-shaped descending lobe. Flower-stalks half as long as the leaves, each bearing a dense cluster of numerous, oblong, pale-yellowish flowers, all drooping one way. Legume an inch and half long, near half an inch broad, smooth, veiny, of a rusty brown.

2. *V. caroliniana.* Carolina Vetch. Walt. Carol. 182. Willd. n. 2. Pursh n. 5. (*V. parviflora*; Michaux Boreali-Amer. v. 2. 69.)—Stalks with many distant flowers. Leaflets numerous, elliptic-lanceolate, nearly smooth. Stipulas ovato-lanceolate, entire. Stem smooth.—Native of mountians in North America, from Pennsylvania to Carolina, flowering in July and August. Resembles *V. Cracca*, but the flowers are white, with a black-tipped standard, and a great deal smaller. *Pursh.* The stem is angular, furrowed. Leaflets eight or ten, not quite opposite. Stipulas small. Clusters three inches or more in length, of above twenty flowers, hanging all one way. *Walters, Willdenow.*

3. *V. pontica.* Euxine Vetch. Willd. n. 3. (*V. multiflora* f. *spicata*, floribus albidis, calyce purpureo; Tourn. Cor. 27.)—Stalks with many crowded flowers. Leaflets numerous, lanceolate. Stipulas lanceolate-sword-shaped, entire. Stem downy.—Native of the country near the Euxine sea. Stem angular and furrowed. Tendrils of the leaves three-cleft. Leaflets from twenty to twenty-seven, elliptic-lanceolate, an inch or more in length, bearing, on the under side especially, many scattered close-pressed hairs. Stipulas almost

half an inch long, hairy, ribbed. Clusters six inches, the lower ones a foot, in length. Flowers drooping, crowded, the size of *V. Cracca*. *Willdenow.*

4. *V. dumetorum.* Great Wood Vetch. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1035. Willd. n. 4. Ait. n. 2. (*V. n. 427*; Hall. Hist. v. 1. 185. *Cracca sylvatica*; Rivin. Tetrap. Irr. t. 51.)—Stalks many-flowered. Leaflets reflexed, ovate, pointed. Stipulas somewhat toothed.—Native of France, Switzerland, Germany, and the neighbourhood of Constantinople; a hardy perennial, flowering in May or June, but seldom cultivated here, except for curiosity. The leaflets are smaller, more numerous, and more alternate than in the first species, the lower one only situated near the base of their common footstalk. Flowers fewer, and much larger, purple, not yellow. Legumes lanceolate, tapering at each end.

5. *V. sylvatica.* Common Wood Vetch. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1035. Willd. n. 5. Fl. Brit. n. 1. Engl. Bot. t. 79. Fl. Dan. t. 277. (*V. n. 426*; Hall. Hist. v. 1. 185. t. 12. f. 22. *V. multiflora maxima* perennis, tetro odore, floribus alben- tibus, lineis ceruleis striatis; Pluk. Phyt. t. 71. f. 1.)—Stalks many-flowered, longer than the leaves. Leaflets numerous, elliptical. Stipulas lunate, with capillary teeth.—Native of rather mountainous woods and thickets, in Sweden, Germany, France, and England, flowering in July and August. An elegant plant, with a branching perennial root. The stems are much branched, climbing over bushes, which they decorate with long-stalked clusters of white flowers, delicately striated with purplish-blue. The leaflets are feath- ered, smooth, blunt, or emarginate, with a small point; their length from a quarter to half an inch. Legume lanceo- late, pointed, smooth, with about four seeds. This species is well worthy of a place in gardens and shrubberies. In the north of England it often makes a beautiful appearance in hedges and mountain thickets, flowering copiously for several weeks.

6. *V. americana.* American Wood Vetch. Muhlenb. Cat. 65. Willd. n. 6. Pursh n. 3.—Stalks with several flowers, shorter than the leaves. Leaflets elliptic-lanceo- late, obtuse, smooth. Stipulas half-arrow-shaped, deeply toothed.—Discovered in Pennsylvania, by the late Rev. Dr. Muhlenberg, from whom we have a specimen. It flowers in May, and is perennial. Pursh compares this species with *V. sylvatica*, as to the size of its flowers and general re- semblance. But the leaflets are rather larger, somewhat toothed. Stipulas with deep, but not capillary segments. Flowers much fewer, their common stalks never longer than the leaves.

7. *V. grandiflora.* Large-flowered Vetch.—Stalks with several flowers, shorter than the leaves. Leaflets ovate, smooth. Stipulas lunate, with sharp teeth. Calyx-teeth taper-pointed.—Gathered by Mr. Menzies, at the upper edge of the forest, on the mountain called *Moona-rooa*, in Owhyhee, which is 6000 feet high. This magnificent species is much larger than any of the preceding. Its leaflets, near an inch and half long, are the shape of *V. dumetorum*, but twice as large. Flowers pale purple, full thrice the size of *dumetorum*; their standard and other petals all strongly re- curved. Calyx half as long as the corolla, with long, very finely pointed, teeth. The clusters are lax, with slender, somewhat downy, partial stalks, three-quarters of an inch in length. We have not seen the legume.

8. *V. variegata.* Part-coloured Oriental Vetch. Willd. n. 7. Prodr. Fl. Græc. n. 1700. (*V. orientalis* multiflora argentea, flore variegato; Tourn. Cor. 27.)—Stalks with many imbricated flowers. Leaflets elliptical, villous. Sti- pulas deeply divided at the base, ovato-lanceolate.—Native of

of the Levant. *Tournefort*. Found by Dr. Sibthorp in the Peloponnese. His specimens answer well to Willdenow's description, except that the *leaves*, though clothed with shining hairs, are scarcely "whitish, or silvery." The *stems* are about a foot high, square, striated, villous. *Leaflets* from fourteen to twenty, obtuse; those of the lower *leaves* obovate, emarginate, pointed, crowded. *Tendrils* short, cloven. *Common stalk* dilated, semi-cylindrical. *Stipulas* pointed. *Clusters* rather longer than the leaves. *Flowers* the size of *V. sativa*, turned all one way.

9. *V. caffubica*. Caffubian Vetch. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1035. Willd. n. 8. Ait. n. 4. (V. Gerardi; Jacq. Austr. t. 229. V. pedunculis multifloris, petiolis polyphyllis, foliis villosis, stipulis apiculatis integris appendiculatis; Gerard Gallopr. 497. t. 19, excellent. V. multiflora caffubica frutescens, lentis filiqua; Pluk. Phyt. t. 72. f. 2.)—Stalks many-flowered, shorter than the leaves. *Leaflets* elliptic-oblong, slightly downy. *Stipulas* lanceolate, entire, with a divaricated awl-shaped spur at the base.—Native of mountainous woods and meadows, in Provence, Pomerania, and Austria. Perennial, flowering in June, and ripening seed in August. This, it seems, has been formerly confounded with *V. sylvatica*, but the *stems* are only about eighteen inches high, erect, not climbing. The whole of the herbage is somewhat downy. *Leaflets* very numerous, opposite or alternate, obtuse or emarginate. *Stipulas* narrow, with a capillary point. *Flowers* light purple, from six to twenty, drooping, the size and shape of *V. sylvatica*. *Legumes* ovate, hardly an inch long, likewise resembling those of the *sylvatica*. The name *caffubica*, taken from a province of Pomerania, is extremely exceptional, for a plant found in so many different countries.

10. *V. atropurpurea*. Dark-purple Vetch. Desfont. Atlant. v. 2. 164. Willd. n. 9.—Stalks many-flowered, shorter than the leaves. *Calyx*-teeth bristle-shaped, very villous. *Leaflets* lanceolate, villous. *Stipulas* half-arrow-shaped, deeply toothed. *Legume* hairy.—Native of the isles of Hyeres, and of Algiers. Annual. The whole plant is villous. *Stem* square, striated. *Leaflets* from eight to twelve, bluntnish, pointed. *Stipulas* ovate, with deep, linear-lanceolate, pointed teeth. *Calyx* clothed with long spreading hairs. *Corolla* of a deep blood-red. *Legume* covered with short reddish hairs. Very different from the following species. *Willdenow*.

11. *V. villosa*. Villous Vetch. Roth Germ. v. 2. part 2. 182. Hott. Syn. 399. Willd. n. 10.—"Stalks longer than the leaves, with many imbricated flowers. *Leaflets* oblong-ovate, villous. *Stipulas* half-arrow-shaped, ovate; bluntly toothed at the base."—Native of Germany, Austria, and Hungary. Resembles *V. cracca*, but the root is annual; *flowers* larger; *stem* weaker; *herbage* more villous; *legumes* twice as broad, and half as long again, as in that species, with *seeds* twice as large, grey covered with footy powder, not black and smooth. *Roth*.

12. *V. polyphylla*. Many-leaved Vetch. Desfont. Atlant. v. 2. 162. Willd. n. 11. Sm. Fl. Græc. Sibth. t. 699, unpublished. (V. orientalis multiflora incana, angustifolium folio; Tourn. Cor. 27. Buxb. Cent. 5. 46. f. 35.)—Stalks longer than the leaves, many-flowered. *Leaflets* linear-lanceolate, acute, downy. *Stipulas* half-hastate, lanceolate, entire.—Native of Hungary, Greece, mount Hymettus, and Barbary. Perennial. *Stems* branched, angular, climbing, clothed, like the rest of the herbage, with soft silky hairs. *Leaflets* very numerous, near an inch long. *Stalks* rather longer than the leaves, each bearing a cluster of larger, less numerous and crowded *flowers*, than in the following. *Calyx*-teeth very unequal. *Standard* sky-blue, with purple

veins. *Wings* and *keel* white; the latter tipped with violet. *Legume* oblong, smooth.

13. *V. cracca*. Tufted Vetch. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1035. Willd. n. 12. Fl. Br. n. 2. Engl. Bot. t. 1168. Pursh n. 4. Curt. Lond. fasc. 5. t. 54. Mart. Ruft. t. 117. Fl. Dan. t. 804. (Cracca; Rivin. Tetrar. Irr. t. 50.)—Stalks the length of the leaves, with many imbricated flowers. *Leaflets* lanceolate, bluntnish, downy. *Stipulas* half-arrow-shaped, mostly entire. Found in thickets, hedges, and fields throughout Europe, as well as in North America, flowering in July and August, when the dense clusters of numerous blue *flowers* make a handsome appearance. The *petals* are all blue; *flowers* more crowded; *leaflets* shorter and rather blunter than in the last. In the *stipulas* we find no permanent difference, the lower lobe being more or less divaricated or deflexed. Curtis justly remarked that the *stigma* is hairy all round.

14. *V. tenuifolia*. Slender-leaved Vetch. Roth Germ. v. 2. pt. 2. 183. Willd. n. 13. Ait. n. 6. Donn Cant. ed. 5. 176.—"Stalks longer than the leaves, with many imbricated flowers. *Leaflets* linear, three-ribbed, smoothish. *Stipulas* linear, entire."—Native of sandy hillocks in Germany, as well as in Tauris. Said to be very like the preceding; but of a more humble and upright growth. The lower *stipulas* only are half-hastate; the upper ones simple and linear. *Flowers* fewer in each cluster, always violet-coloured. *Legumes* about half as large. *Roth*.

15. *V. onobrychioides*. Saint-foin Vetch. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1036. Willd. n. 14. Ait. n. 7. Allion. Pedem. v. 1. 325. t. 42. f. 1. (V. onobrychidis flore; Bauh. Prodr. 149.)—Stalks longer than the leaves, with many diftant flowers. *Leaflets* linear, rather abrupt, smooth. *Stipulas* lanceolate, deeply toothed at the base.—Native of Switzerland, Italy, the south of France, Greece, Cyprus, and the Archipelago, flowering in summer. The root is annual. *Herb* branched, climbing, with the habit of *V. cracca*, but smooth, and much more variable in size, as well as in the breadth of the *leaflets*, which are moreover sometimes acute, sometimes obtuse or abrupt, always tipped with a bristly point. *Flowers* thrice as large as in *Cracca*, fewer and more remote, parti-coloured with crimson and white. *Legume* an inch and half long, lanceolate, pointed, with many small seeds.

16. *V. biennis*. Biennial Vetch. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1036. Willd. n. 15. Ait. n. 8. (V. n. 9; Gmel. Sib. v. 4. 10. t. 2.)—Stalks much longer than the leaves, with many scattered flowers. *Leaflets* elliptic-lanceolate, smooth. Common footstalks angular, furrowed. *Stipulas* half-arrow-shaped, stalked.—Native of Siberia. A tall, smooth, biennial plant. *Leaflets* ribbed, an inch and quarter or inch and half long. *Flowers* half the size of the last, whitish, with a blue standard.

17. *V. altissima*. Tall Vetch. Desfont. Atlant. v. 2. 163. Willd. n. 16.—"Stalks many-flowered. *Leaflets* about twelve, elliptical, abrupt, smooth. *Stipulas* toothed."—Native of Barbary, in hedges near Arzeau. Akin to the foregoing, but the abrupt *leaflets*, and toothed *stipulas*, distinguish it. *Desfontaines*. We would observe that nothing is more variable than the termination of the *leaflets* in this tribe; yet we do not dispute the distinctness of the present species. The *herb* is perennial, perfectly smooth throughout, six feet high. *Flower-stalks* longer than the leaves, angular. *Flowers* numerous, pale blue, scarcely larger than in *V. sepium*; see the second section.

18. *V. bryonia*. Blue Sicilian Vetch.—Stalks as long as the leaves, about three-flowered. *Leaflets* elliptical, obtuse, hairy. *Stipulas* lunate, deeply toothed. *Legume* oblong,

reticulated, smooth.—Native of Sicily, from whence it was sent us by the baron Bivona Bernardi. Akin to several of the foregoing, but decidedly distinct. *Root* perennial. *Stems* several, climbing, eighteen inches or more in height, sharply angular, hairy like the rest of the herbage. *Leaflets* half or three quarters of an inch long, pale green, rather silky. *Flowers* two, three, or four on each stalk, light purplish-blue, much shorter than those of *V. Cracca*. *Calyx-teeth* all remarkably long, tapering, finely fringed. *Legume* an inch and quarter long, half an inch broad, flat, with four or five seeds.

19. *V. nissifoliana*. Red Oriental Vetch. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1036. Willd. n. 17. Ait. n. 9.—Stalks shorter than the leaves, with few flowers. *Leaflets* elliptic-oblong, obtuse, downy. *Stipulas* lanceolate, entire. *Legumes* compressed, ovate-oblong, silky.—Native of the Levant. A hardy annual, said to have been first introduced at Kew, in 1773, by the celebrated earl of Bute. The whole plant is downy, or somewhat silky. *Leaflets* an inch long, tapering at the base into little partial stalks. *Stipulas* narrow, undivided. *Flowers* five or six, dark purple, the size of the last. *Calyx-teeth* long and slender, but not quite so long in proportion to the tube as in that species. *Legume* above an inch long, flat, very silky, with four or five large prominent seeds. Linnæus cultivated this species at Upsal. We have never observed it in any collection here.

20. *V. benghalensis*. Bengal Vetch. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1036. Willd. n. 18. Ait. n. 10. (*V. benghalensis*, *hirsuta* et *incana*, *siliquis pisi*; Herm. Lugd.-Bat. 623. t. 625. *Cracca benghalensis*; Rivin. Tetrap. Irr. t. 50.)—Stalks shorter than the leaves, about three-flowered. *Leaflets* elliptic-oblong, obtuse, downy. *Stipulas* lanceolate, entire. *Legume* turgid, oblong, silky.—Native of Bengal, from whence Sir Joseph Banks procured seeds for the Kew garden, in 1792. An annual stove-plant, flowering in June and July. This is nearly related to the last, in general habit, pubescence, *stipulas*, and *calyx*; but the *flowers* are scarcely more than three; their *petals* longer, said to be of a very deep scarlet, at least their upper half, the *keel* tipped with black. We have not seen them, except dried. The *legume* differs essentially from the foregoing, having concave valves, like a *Pisum*, with five large round seeds.

21. *V. capensis*. Hoary Syrian Vetch. Billard. Syr. fasc. 1. 17. t. 7. Willd. n. 19. Ait. n. 11.—Stalks many-flowered, about the length of the leaves, which scarcely bear tendrils. *Leaflets* elliptic-lanceolate, downy. *Stipulas* half-arrow-shaped. *Legume* turgid, oblong, silky.—Gathered by La Billardiere, towards the summit of mount Lebanon, and by Sibthorp in Greece. Sir Joseph Banks sent seeds to Kew in 1800. If this and the two preceding exist at present, in any garden, they ought to be figured in one, not both, of our periodical works. The present is marked as a hardy annual, flowering in July and August. The whole *herb* is hoary with soft down. *Stem* erect, a foot or more in height, square, striated. *Lower leaves* numerous pinnate, with an odd leaflet, in whose place the upper ones have only a short straight point, or abortive tendril. *Flowers* blue, full as large as the last, and more numerous. *Legume* swelling as in that, downy, but with fewer seeds.

22. *V. capensis*. Cape Vetch. Berg. Cap. 215. Willd. n. 20. Thunb. Prodr. 125.—Stalks elongated, many-flowered. *Leaves* pinnate with an odd leaflet, without tendrils; silky beneath. *Stipulas* lanceolate, undivided.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope. Perennial. *Stem* a span high, erect, angular, smooth; branched at the base; the *branches* short, procumbent. *Leaflets* about twenty-one, linear, abrupt with a point, or slightly emarginate; smooth above;

scarcely half so long as the finger-nail. *Stipulas* membranous, ovate or lanceolate, simple and entire. *Clusters* roundish, hairy, rather dense, on long stalks. *Calyx-teeth* lanceolate, acute, nearly equal. *Bergius*. Linnæus has made a manuscript note in this author's book, saying "this plant resembles *Hippocrepis comosa*, but it has a *racemus*, not an *umbella*. It cannot be a *Vicia*, because of the odd leaflet."—The last remark is invalidated by *V. capensis*, n. 21. We have seen no specimen, on which to found any opinion.

23. *V. pellucida*. Transparent Vetch. Jacq. Hort. Schoenbr. v. 2. 50. t. 222. Willd. n. 21.—Stalks shorter than the leaves, with several flowers. *Leaves* pinnate with an odd leaflet, without tendrils, downy. *Stipulas* lanceolate, undivided. *Legume* falcate, many-seeded.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope. Jacquin's figure answers so well to the remark of Linnæus under the last species, that we are much inclined to think the present is the very same plant. Willdenow indeed, who had seen a dried specimen of the former, thought them distinct; but he indicates no material difference. The *flowers* of Jacquin's plant have a roundish, elegantly striated, *standard*, with purple *wings* and *keel*. The *legume* is compressed, curved, near two inches long, with ten or more seeds, separated by transverse strictures. *Bergius* has not described the fruit of this plant.

24. *V. fruticosa*. Willd. n. 22. (*Lathyrus tomentosus*; Cavan. Ic. v. 1. 58. t. 84. *Orobis tomentosus*; Desfont. Tabl. 224.)—Stalks shorter than the leaves, two-flowered. *Leaves* abruptly pinnate, without tendrils, downy. *Stipulas* awl-shaped, undivided. *Legume* straight, downy, many-seeded.—Found on hills near Huanuco, in Peru. A shrub, flowering in the Madrid garden from July to November. The *stem* is two feet high, with numerous, drooping, downy, round *branches*. *Leaflets* about twenty pair, elliptical, uniform, entire, a quarter of an inch long, without an odd one, or any terminal point. *Flowers* yellow, in shape and size not unlike the last, nor is the *legume* very dissimilar, except being straight, and gradually dilated upwards.—We feel little confidence as to the genus of this plant, but a certain resemblance to the two last, notwithstanding the want of an odd leaflet, induces us to retain it here. Perhaps they might all three, if all distinct, be removed from *Vicia*, and on more complete examination and comparison, might form a genus.

25. *V. biflora*. Two-flowered Sharp-leaved Vetch. Desfont. Atlant. v. 2. 166. t. 197. Willd. n. 24. Ait. n. 13.—Stalks two-flowered, shorter than the leaves. *Leaflets* linear, tapering at each end. *Tendrils* divided. *Stipulas* half-arrow-shaped.—Native of Algiers. A hardy annual, sent to Kew, by M. Thouin, in 1801, flowering from June to August. The *stem* is slender, angular, procumbent. *Leaflets* eight or ten, alternate, very narrow. *Stipulas* minute, occasionally toothed. *Stalks* slender, bearing one or two rather large, oblong, blue *flowers*, and tipped with a small point. *Calyx-teeth* rather short. *Corolla* most like *V. benghalensis*, or *biennis*, in shape and dimensions.

26. *V. ciliaris*. Fringed Vetch. Sm. Prodr. Fl. Græc. Sibth. n. 1706. Fl. Græc. t. 700, unpublished.—Stalks single-flowered, pointed, as long as the leaves. *Leaflets* emarginate. *Stipulas* many setaceous segments.—Gathered by Dr. Sibthorp in Asia Minor, probably near Smyrna. We know not whether the *root* be annual or perennial. The *stems* are weak, climbing, two or three feet long, branched, angular. *Leaflets* about seven pair, half an inch long, smooth. *Tendrils* many-cleft. *Stipulas* lunate, very remarkable for their numerous, spreading, almost capillary, segments. *Point of the flower-stalk* elongated three-quarters of an inch beyond the *flower*, which is therefore lateral,

lateral, about the size of the last, pale blue streaked with purple. *Legume* an inch long, elliptical, acute, compressed, with two seeds.

27. *V. graminea*. Grass-leaved Vetch.—Stalks about four-flowered, shorter than the leaves. Leaflets linear, pointed, smooth. Stipulas ovate, entire, slightly half-arrow-shaped.—Gathered by Commerçon, at Buenos Ayres. We do not find any account of this species, a specimen of which was given by Thouin to the younger Linnæus. The whole herb is nearly or quite smooth. Stem two feet or more in height, slender, angular, furrowed, scarcely branched. Leaves remote, each of three pair of very narrow leaflets, above an inch long, with a simple or divided tendril at the end of their common stalk. Flowers very small, pale, apparently tinged with purple. Calyx a little downy, the teeth shorter than the tube. Legume smooth, compressed, not an inch in length, elliptic-oblong, with an oblique incurved point, and six or seven small round seeds.

28. *V. longifolia*. Long-leaved Vetch. Poirét in Lam. Dict. v. 15.—Stalks much longer than the leaves, with many distant flowers. Leaflets numerous, linear, elongated, smooth. Stipulas lanceolate, half-arrow-shaped, entire.—Gathered in Syria, by La Billardiére. Stems straight, angular, striated, stiff, smooth, branched. Leaflets from sixteen to twenty, alternate, distant, very narrow, an inch and a half long, ribbed, entire. Stipulas narrow and acute. Tendrils in two or three divisions. Flowers yellowish-white, drooping, in very loose clusters. Legume not observed. Poirét.

29. *V. oroboides*. Four-leaved Vetch. Wulf. in Jacq. Coll. v. 4. 323. Willd. n. 25. Hofst. Syn. 399. (*Orobis pannonicus quartus*; Clus. Hist. v. 2. 231.)—Stalks about four-flowered, shorter than the leaves. Leaflets two pair, ovate, pointed, without a tendril. Stipulas half-arrow-shaped, toothed at the side.—Found by Wulfen, in the mountainous woods of Carinthia and Carniola, flowering in May and June. We have specimens from Jacquin. The root is perennial, tuberous. Stems erect, a foot and half high, simple, leafy, angular, strongly furrowed, smooth. Leaves of two pair of large, smooth, reticulated leaflets, an inch, or such and half, long, with a small awl-shaped stipuleous point in the place of a tendril. Clusius's figure erroneously represents an odd leaflet here and there. Flowers an inch long, yellow, with a purplish calyx, about four together, in short, lax, axillary clusters.

For *V. Ervilia*, Willd. n. 23. see *ERVILIA* and *ERVUM*. We are now convinced that this plant is an *Ervum*.

SECT. 2. *Flowers axillary, nearly sessile*.

30. *V. sativa*. Common Vetch. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1037. Willd. n. 26. Fl. Brit. n. 3. Engl. Bot. t. 334. Pursh n. 2? Mart. Rust. t. 116. Fl. Dan. t. 522. (Vicia; Rivin. Tetrap. Irr. t. 54. Ger. Em. 1227. Lob. Ic. v. 2. 75. Camer. Epit. 320.)

β. Fl. Brit. *V. angustifolia*; Willd. n. 28. Rivin. Tetrap. Irr. t. 55. (*V. lathyroides*; Hudf. 318, α. Dickf. H. Sicc. fasc. 4. 12. *V. sylvestris*, five Cracca major; Ger. Em. 1227. *V. globosa*; Retz. Obf. fasc. 3. 39? Willd. n. 27?)

γ. Fl. Brit. (*V. sylvestris*, flore ruberrimo, siliqua longa nigra; Raii Syn. 321. (*V. angustifolia*; Sibth. Oxon. 224. *V. folio angustiore*, flore rubro; Dill. Giff. append. 47.)

Legumes sessile, solitary or in pairs, nearly erect. Lower leaves with abrupt leaflets. Stipulas toothed, marked with a dark depression.—Native of cultivated ground, and grassy pastures, throughout Europe, flowering in May and June. A very variable annual plant, more or less hairy, distinguished by a brown or blackish depressed

mark on each stipula, which is visible in all the supposed varieties; but we are not sure that those varieties may not be specifically distinct; at least our γ, which is characterized by its long, cylindrical, black legumes, and very elegant crimson solitary flowers. The leaflets of *V. sativa*, usually from four to six pair, vary much in breadth; those of the lower leaves are shorter, abrupt, or even inversely heart-shaped; the rest lanceolate or linear; all tipped with a bristle. Tendril of the common stalk long and branched. Flowers variously shaded with red and blue. Legume compressed, rough, or a little downy, with many globose, or slightly lenticular, very smooth seeds. The use of this plant for fodder is well known. The seeds are the favourite food of pigeons.

31. *V. amphicarpa*. Subterranean Vetch. Dorthes in Journ. de Phys. v. 35. 131. Willd. n. 29. (*Aracus impositus*; Clus. Exot. 87. t. 88.)—Legumes solitary, sessile; the lower ones subterranean, ovate. Leaflets linear, abrupt, three pair. Stipulas half-arrow-shaped, toothed.—Native of Provence. Root annual. Stems a span long, diffuse, angular. Leaves slightly hairy, with more or less of a tendril. Flowers crimson, most like *V. sativa* γ. Legume lanceolate, acute, above an inch long, with many seeds. Such is the ordinary fructification; but several flowers are produced from subterranean leafless stalks. These are very small, consisting of a closed colourless calyx, in which, when examined against the light with a magnifying glass, stamens may distinctly be seen. Each of these flowers produces an oval-pointed legume, with one very perfect seed. *Orobis fasciatis*, Venten. Jard. de Cels, t. 94, may possibly be this plant, though the author did not observe its two-fold fructification. Many persons have taken the present *Vicia* for *Lathyrus amphicarpos*, which exhibits a similar phenomenon, but is widely distinct in other respects.

32. *V. pusilla*. Small American Vetch. Muhlenb. Cat. 65. Willd. n. 30. Pursh n. 1.—Stalks solitary, capillary, single-flowered. Legumes oblong, smooth. Leaflets about six, linear-lanceolate, bluntish. Stipulas half-arrow-shaped, entire.—Found by the Rev. Mr. Muhlenberg, in Pennsylvania, and New Jersey. Mr. Pursh says, it grows in low grassy grounds, from Pennsylvania to Virginia, flowering in July and August. The flowers are exceedingly small, white, with a tinge of red. Pursh. Root annual. Stem four or five inches high, ascending. Tendril of the lower leaves simple, of the upper divided, and very long. Legume small. Willdenow.

33. *V. lathyroides*. Spring Vetch. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1037. Willd. n. 31. Fl. Brit. n. 4. Engl. Bot. t. 30. Jacq. Misc. Austr. v. 2. 299. t. 18. Fl. Dan. t. 58. Hudf. 319, γ. (*V. minima*; Rivin. Tetrap. Irr. t. 55. *Ervum solonense*; Linn. Sp. Pl. 1040.)—Legumes sessile, solitary, smooth. Leaflets about six; the lower ones abrupt. Stipulas half-arrow-shaped, nearly entire. Seeds cubical, tuberculated. Native of France, Britain, Norway, and the Levant. With us it grows in fallow fields, or grassy pastures, on a gravelly or chalky soil, flowering in April and May; at which time of the year it may always be found in Hyde-park, near Kenington gardens. The root is annual, though beset with red fleshy tubercles. Herb downy, or rather silky. Stems procumbent, spreading, from three to six inches long. Tendrils simple, generally very short, or wanting. Leaflets mostly inversely heart-shaped; those about the top of the stem more oblong and narrower. Stipulas not marked, and seldom toothed. Flowers small, bluish. Legume erect, very smooth, by which, and especially the cubical rough seeds, this long-obscure species is at any time to be known from all the varieties of *V. sativa*. Sometimes the flowers

are white, or striated. The *tendrils* are never divided, nor the *leaflets* more than fix.

34. *V. lutea*. Rough-podded Yellow Vetch. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1037. Willd. n. 32. Fl. Brit. n. 5. Engl. Bot. t. 481. (V. flore ochroleuco, filiquis hirsutis propendentibus; Morif. fect. 2. t. 21.)—Legumes foliary, nearly sessile, reflexed, hairy. Stems diffuse. Stipulas coloured. Standard smooth.—Native of the pebbly sea-shores of the south and east of England, as well as of France, Spain, Italy, Barbary, Greece, and the Levant, flowering in July and August. The root is perennial and creeping, much divided. Stems diffuse, not much branched, smooth, angular, striated, from one to two feet long. Leaflets numerous, elliptic-oblong, hairy beneath; sometimes abrupt. Tendrils much branched. Stipulas triangular, brown or reddish. Flowers long, pale yellow, streaked or stained with grey or purple. Legumes ovate, pointed, an inch and half long, rough with hairs springing from small tubercles. Seeds from five to eight. Some of the flowers and legumes are often subterraneous, as in *V. amphicarpa*, n. 31.

35. *V. hybrida*. Hairy-flowered Yellow Vetch. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1037. Willd. n. 33. Fl. Brit. n. 6. Engl. Bot. t. 482. Jacq. Austr. t. 146.—Legumes foliary, nearly sessile, reflexed, hairy. Standard villous. Leaflets emarginate.—Native of bushy places in Austria, the south of France, and of England. Found chiefly in Somersetshire, about Glastenbury, flowering in June. This is nearly related to the last, but the stems are taller and more upright. Leaflets generally more obtuse than in *lutea*, though variable, as in that and other *Vicia*. Stipulas always entirely green. Back of the standard clothed with yellow silky hairs. We presume not to say how far this is really a distinct species, though we have little faith in its being, as the name indicates, a mile production.

36. *V. melanops*. Black-eyed Yellow Vetch. Sm. Prodr. Fl. Græc. Sibth. n. 1711. Fl. Græc. t. 701, unpubl.—Legumes foliary, reflexed, linear, smooth. Stems diffuse. Stipulas marked. Wings of the corolla depressed, incumbent.—Found by Dr. Sibthorp in Laconia. The root seems perennial. Herb very like the last, but rather smoother, and the legumes differ essentially in their long narrow figure, and smooth surface. Flowers of a dull greenish-yellow; their wings, which converge horizontally, tipped with a very dark brown, almost black.

37. *V. pannonica*. Hungarian Yellowish Vetch. Jacq. Austr. t. 34. Willd. n. 34. Ait. n. 19. (V. sylvestris albo flore; Clus. Hist. v. 2. 235.)—Legumes stalked, about three together, hairy as well as the standard. Stipulas marked. Native of meadows in Austria and Hungary. Annual. Said to have been cultivated in the Oxford garden, in 1658. We have a specimen from Jacquin's own herbarium, by which this species appears to be very like *V. hybrida*, especially in its hairy standard; but the flowers are paler, and grow two or three together. The calyx is reddish. Legumes dark brown when ripe, hairy, and shaped like *V. lutea* and *hybrida*. Willdenow speaks of a variety with violet-coloured flowers, the *Vicioides uncinata*, Moench. Method. 136, which may be a distinct species, as the colour is not altered by culture. We have no knowledge of any such plant.

38. *V. levigata*. Smooth-podded Sea Vetch. Fl. Brit. n. 7. Engl. Bot. t. 483. Willd. n. 35. Ait. n. 18. (V. hybrida; Hudf. 319.)—Legumes sessile, foliary, reflexed, ovate, smooth. Stems nearly upright. Leaflets elliptical, very smooth.—Found on the stony sea-beach at Weymouth, Dorsetshire, flowering in July and August. We have never met with a specimen from any other country,

yet there is no doubt of the species being perfectly distinct. The root is perennial, with many fleshy knobs. Whole plant entirely smooth, especially the legume, which differs in that respect from *V. lutea*, *hybrida*, and *pannonica*, with all which it agrees in shape. The seeds are rarely more than five. The stems are from six to twelve inches long, much less spreading than those of *lutea*. Leaflets elliptic-lanceolate, hardly ever abrupt or emarginate. Tendrils branched. Stipulas green, or pale brown. Calyx-teeth nearly equal. Flowers the size of *V. lutea*, varying between pale purplish-blue and yellow. Both Hudson and Lightfoot knew this species well, but could not agree about its synonyms.

39. *V. jordida*. Dingy Vetch. "Waldst. et Kitaib. Hung." Willd. n. 36.—Legumes nearly sessile, in pairs, reflexed, linear-oblong, reflexed at the point, smoothish. Leaflets obovate-oblong, emarginate. Stipulas marked.—Native of meadows in Hungary. Communicated by M. Thouin to the writer of this. It flowered in Mr. Mackie's garden, near Norwich, in 1813. The root is annual. Plant totally distinct from the last, notwithstanding Willdenow's doubts, being larger, with emarginate leaflets, seldom quite smooth: twin flowers of a dull or dirty yellow; but particularly a much longer, linear, not ovate, legume, which, though not hairy, is somewhat roughish to the touch, and curved upwards, not downwards, at the point.

40. *V. peregrina*. Broad-podded Vetch. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1038. Willd. n. 37. Ait. n. 20. (V. peregrina, angustifolius foliis, filiqua latâ glabrâ; Pluk. Phyt. t. 233. f. 6.)—Legumes foliary, on short stalks, reflexed, ovate, smooth. Leaflets linear, very narrow, smooth, abrupt, emarginate.—Native of the south of France, from whence Linnaeus received specimens in the herbarium of Sauvages. Dr. Sibthorp found it in Caria. M. Thouin sent seeds to Kew garden, in 1779. The plant is annual, flowering in July, of a slender smooth habit. Leaflets extremely narrow in a wild state, with two divaricated terminal points; in a luxuriant cultivated specimen they are rather wider, and more obtuse, but scarcely exceeding an inch in length; they are from seven to ten, scattered, on a stalk ending in a divided tendril. Flowers stalked, pendulous, of a reddish-purple, shorter and thicker than several of the preceding, and more like those of *Orobus tuberosus*. Legume shaped like *V. lutea*, *hybrida*, &c. with a deflexed point, but longer, flatter, and quite smooth. Seeds six in our specimens. A very distinct species, little known to modern botanists, of which a good figure is wanted.

41. *V. monantha*. Single-flowered Spur-stalked Vetch. Retz. Obs. falc. 3. 39. Willd. n. 38. Ait. n. 21. (V. calcareata; Desfont. Atlant. v. 2. 166; Willdenow.)—Stalks much shorter than the leaves, spurred under the solitary flower. Leaflets lanceolate, obtuse. Stipulas divided. Legumes smooth, drooping.—Native of Barbary. A hardy annual, flowering in July and August. Herb smooth. Stem angular, decumbent, two feet long. Leaflets twelve or thirteen, gradually decreasing, obtuse with a point. Flower the size of *V. sativa*, red with blueish veins. Seeds six or seven. Retz. The description of Desfontaines answers very well to this, except that he speaks of the leaves as slightly villous, and of the flowers as pale blue, half the size of *sativa*, to which species nevertheless he thinks his plant related; but the stipulas are not marked.

42. *V. sepium*. Common Bush Vetch. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1038. Willd. n. 39. Fl. Brit. n. 8. Engl. Bot. t. 1515. Fl. Dan. t. 699. Rivin. Tetrap. Irr. t. 56. (V. maxima dumetorum; Ger. Em. 1227. Aphac; Fuchs. Hist. 110.)—Stalks about four-flowered, much shorter than the upright smooth legumes. Leaflets numerous, ovate, obtuse,

tuse, gradually smaller upwards.—Common in hedges and bushy places throughout Europe, flowering with us in May and June. The root is perennial, somewhat creeping. Stems about two feet high, weak, but little branched, furrowed, clinging to other plants by the tendrils of their leaves. The whole herb is clothed with scattered short hairs. Leaflets twelve to fifteen, of a dull greyish-green; the lowest an inch in length, the uppermost half as much. Stipulas ovate, acute, marked with a brown depression; the lower ones generally half-arrowshaped. Flowers crowded, dull purplish-blue, rather short and thick. Legumes nearly erect when ripe, linear-lanceolate, an inch and a half long, blackish, minutely dotted, not hairy. Seeds about six or eight globular, smooth.

43. *V. bithynica*. Rough-podded Purple Vetch. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1038. Willd. n. 40. Fl. Brit. n. 9. Engl. Bot. t. 1842. Jacq. Hort. Vind. v. 2. t. 147. Allion. Pedem. v. 1. 325. t. 26. f. 2. (Cracca floribus albis, foliis circa caulem denticulatis; Buxb. Cent. 3. 25. t. 45. f. 2.)—Legumes stalked, foliary, erect, rough. Leaflets two pair, elliptic-lanceolate, or nearly linear. Stipulas toothed.—Native of Greece, Italy and Bavaria, in cultivated fields; as well as of bushy places in Yorkshire and Worcestershire, and of fields, or rocky situations, near the coast of Hampshire, Dorsetshire, and Devonshire, flowering from May to October. The root is perennial, branching, with many small fleshy knobs. Stems angular, trailing or climbing, two feet long, smooth. Leaflets from one to two inches long, varying from a line to one-third of an inch in breadth, acute; rather hairy underneath. Stipulas large, half-arrowshaped, very deeply, but variously, toothed. Flower-stalks various in length, from half an inch to an inch and a half, hairy as well as the long-toothed calyx. Flowers nearly as large as *V. lutea*, purple, occasionally white. Legume oblong-lanceolate, an inch and half long, half an inch broad, reticulated, rough with tawny hairs. Seeds five or six, speckled. The keel and wings of the flower, pure white, tipped or tinged with blue or violet, when fresh, turn greenish or brownish twelve hours after gathering.

44. *V. platycarpus*. Flat-podded Vetch. "Roth. Abhandl. 10. t. 1." Willd. n. 41. Ait. n. 24. (Aracus fabaceus, et Fabia Kayrina, cui femina minora; Bauh. Hist. v. 2. 286.)—"Legumes foliary, nearly sessile, compressed, somewhat inflated. Leaflets ovate, toothed at the end. Stipulas with fringe-like teeth."—Native of Germany. Annual. Cultivated in Chelsea garden in 1723, flowering in July and August. Aiton. Stem a foot and half high, thick, angular, hollow, a little hairy. Leaflets four, like those of *V. Faba*, hairy, dark green, with a long branching tendril. Stipulas broad. Flowers purple. Legumes large, longish, hairy. Seeds the size of peas, of a strong disagreeable taste and smell; black when ripe. Bauhin.

45. *V. narbonensis*. Broad-leaved Narbonne Vetch. Linn. Sp. Pl. ed. 1. 737. Willd. n. 42. Ait. n. 25. "Roth. Abhandl. 10. t. 2." Rivin. Tetrap. Irr. t. 57. (Faba sylvestris; Matth. Valgr. v. 1. 381. Ger. Em. 1209.)—Legumes about three together, nearly sessile, compressed. Leaflets ovate, obtuse, entire. Stipulas fringed; toothed at the base.—Native of the south of Europe. Annual. The size of the last. Leaflets one or two pair, with a divided tendril, obtuse, quite entire, an inch and a half long, one broad, hairy at the rib and margin. Flowers foliary; in a cultivated state two or three, dark purple. Germen fringed. Legume oblong, rather hairy. Seeds globose.

46. *V. Faba*. Common Garden Bean. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1039. Willd. n. 43. Ait. n. 26. (Faba; Matth. Valgr. v. 1. 380. Rivin. Tetrap. Irr. t. 23. F. major, hortensis;

Ger. Em. 1209.)—Stalks with several flowers, very short. Legumes ascending, tumid, coriaceous. Leaflets elliptical, acute, entire. Tendril abortive. Stipulas half-arrowshaped, toothed at the base.—Native of the borders of Persia, near the Caspian sea, according to Lerche. Commonly cultivated throughout Europe, for the food of men and horses; there being many varieties, differing in the size, roundness or flatness, as well as quality, of the seeds. Annual, flowering in June and July. The stem is from three to five feet high. Leaflets smooth, larger, more acute at each end, and more alternate than in the two last. Flowers from six to ten or more, on a short racemose stalk, deliciously fragrant, white, with a broad black velvet-like spot on each wing. Calyx whitish, with ovate taper teeth. Legume large, thick, oblong, pulpy within while unripe, containing four or five seeds.

The *Faba minor* five equina; Bauh. Pin. 338. F. minor; Rivin. Tetrap. Irr. t. 24; is the variety called the Horse Bean, known by its small pod and roundish seeds. Of this also cultivators observe many subordinate varieties, and perhaps *V. narbonensis* is often confounded among them.

47. *V. ferratifolia*. Saw-leaved Vetch. Murr. in Linn. Syst. Veg. ed. 14. 665. Jacq. Austr. append. t. 8. Willd. n. 44. Ait. n. 27. (V. narbonensis; Sm. Prodr. Fl. Græc. Sibth. n. 1715. V. supina, latissimo folio ferrato; Tourn. Inst. 397. Aracus fabaceus ferratus; Bauh. Hist. v. 2. 287.)—Legumes about three together, nearly sessile, fringed. Leaflets elliptical, obtuse, serrated throughout, as well as the stipulas.—Native of Hungary, Greece, and the island of Cyprus, in moist cultivated ground. A hardy annual with us, flowering in June and July. This is nearly related to the two last, and still more perhaps to *V. platycarpus*; but differs from all in the copious sharp serratures of the leaflets, which are usually four pair, with a branched tendril. Stipulas broad, sharply and copiously toothed. Flowers three or four, on a very short stalk, dark purple. Legume compressed, with seven or eight globular seeds.

We believe the Linnæan synonyms, as here arranged, are correct; and yet Linnæus, like other botanists from time to time, certainly confounded these four last species more or less together. His specimen marked *narbonensis*, from the Upsal garden, answers to the character of *platycarpus*, the leaflets being toothed towards the extremity. Hence, in the second edition of Sp. Pl. he altered the specific character, to stipulisque denticulatis. But this is not an original specimen, answering to the first edition of Sp. Pl. which latter we take as the most certain authority; and it is in this case consonant with the sentiments of all authors, as above quoted. The plant of the Prodr. Fl. Græc. therefore, by mistake called there *narbonensis*, is really *ferratifolia*, with which its synonyms agree. Possibly *platycarpus* may be a variety of *ferratifolia*; but for want of an authentic specimen, from some author who has written upon it, we decline any decision upon that point. These two, and the real *narbonensis*, agree in hairiness; the blunt rounded shape of their leaflets; the presence of tendrils; the dark purple of their flowers; and the strong bristly fringe of their germens and legumas; in all which points they differ from *V. Faba*.

VICIA, in Gardening, furnishes plants of the biennial, perennial, and annual hardy kinds, among which the species cultivated are, the common vetch or tare (*V. sativa*); the Narbonne vetch or tare (*V. narbonensis*); the many-flowered Siberian vetch (*V. biennis*); the wood many-flowered vetch (*V. fylvatica*); the tufted vetch (*V. cracca*); the Cassubian ligneous vetch (*V. cassubica*); and the common bean (*V. faba*.)

The first fort does not rise to any great height, but is a plant that varies with common purple flowers; with white flowers. And there is the early summer vetch; the black-seeded vetch; and the white-seeded vetch.

It is the fort which is commonly cultivated in the field for the purpose of green fodder, &c. as well as the production of feed. Sometimes also in pleasure-grounds, &c. as a low climbing plant. See *TARE*.

The second has long climbing stalks, with dark purple flowers.

The third fort also rises to some height, with numerous light blue flowers coming from the sides of the branches.

The fourth rises with climbing stalks to the height of five or six feet, having many pale blue flowers. It is a twining plant among trees or bushes.

The fifth has the same fort of stalks and flowers.

The sixth fort has lower trailing woody stalks, and pale blue flowers.

The last fort has an annual root, with an upright stalk from two to three or four feet in height in the larger garden varieties.

There are several varieties of garden beans; as the Mazagan bean, which is the first and best fort of early beans at present known. It is brought from a settlement of the Portuguese on the coast of Africa, just without the straits of Gibraltar, and is smaller than those of the horse-bean kind.

The early Portugal or Lisbon bean, which is the next, and appears to be the Mazagan fort faved in Portugal, as it is very like those which are the first year faved in this country. It is the most common fort used by the gardeners for their first crop, but they are not near so well tasted as the real Mazagan.

The small Spanish bean, which comes in soon after the Portugal fort, and is rather a sweeter bean.

And of the small early varieties, there is one which is chiefly planted for curiosity. It is a dwarf, six or ten inches in height, with branches spreading like a fan, and flowers succeeded by small pods, both in clusters; whence it is called the dwarf fan or cluster bean.

Further also of the middle-sized later beans, a fort now very commonly cultivated is the long-podded bean, a yard or more in height, a great bearer, the pods long and narrow, closely filled with oblong middle-sized seeds. Of this there are several sub-varieties, as the early, the tall, the Turkey, &c.

The broad Spanish, which is a little later than the other, but comes in before the common forts, and is a good bearer.

The white-blossomed bean, which has none of the black mark on the wings. The seed is semi-transparent, and having less of the peculiar bean flavour, when young, than any of the others, is by many in much esteem. It bears abundance of smallish, long, narrow pods, and the seeds are almost black when ripe.

And there is a red-blossomed bean, with smallish pods and seeds, but which is not near so palatable as that with white blossoms.

There are also some other varieties, as the Mumford, the green Venetian, &c.

In the large late kinds, the Sandwich bean, which comes soon after the Spanish, and is almost as large as the Windsor bean, but, being hardier, is commonly sown a month sooner. It is a plentiful bearer, but not very delicate for the table.

The Toker bean, which comes about the same time with the Sandwich, and is a great bearer.

The white and black blossom beans, which are also by some much esteemed; the beans of the former, when boiled,

are almost as green as peas; and being a tolerable sweet bean renders it more valuable. These forts are very apt to degenerate, if their seeds are not faved with great care.

The Windsor bean is allowed to be the best of all the forts for the table: when these are planted on a good soil, and are allowed sufficient room, their seeds will be very large, and in great plenty; and, when they are gathered young, are the sweetest and best tasted of all the forts; but these should be carefully faved, by pulling out such of the plants as are not perfectly right, and afterward by sorting out all the good from the bad beans.

This fort of bean is seldom planted before Christmas, because it will not bear the frost so well as many of the other forts; so it is generally planted for the main crop, to come in in June and July.

Method of Culture in the Vetch Kind.—All the forts of vetches may be propagated by sowing the seeds in the autumnal or spring seasons, but chiefly in the latter, and mostly where the plants are to remain and grow, as in the large open flower borders, in those of the shrubberies and pleasure-grounds, as well as in the woody walks, wilderness parts, and in the thickets; or in any other place where they are to run and climb up any fort of wood. They should be sown in patches near to shrubs or bushes on which they may climb, and sometimes in the open spaces, to climb upon sticks set for the purpose.

Method of Culture in the Bean Kind.—These crops are raised with much facility by sowing them at different times from October to March, or later. The small forts are mostly used for the earliest crops, and the first two or three of the above forts are the most proper for the purpose; but the Mazagan kind is the earliest of all, and most proper to plant for the first crop, and the Portugal and small Spanish bean next, all of which should be planted early on warm south borders, or other sheltered sunny exposures, under or near walls, pales, or hedges, or other warm defended quarters, every month from October till the beginning of February; in order that if the first planting should fail by inclement weather in winter, the others may succeed; and if all the crops should survive the frost, they will succeed one another regularly in bearing. The planting should be performed in rows, ranging south and north, two feet and half asunder, an inch and half deep, and two or three inches apart in each row. They may also be planted in one row lengthways close along under a south wall, &c.

The dwarf bean is not proper to be planted for any general crop, only a few for variety; for which purpose it may be put in in autumn or winter; or in any of the spring or summer months till June or July, in rows two feet asunder, or in patches about the borders.

Of the middle-sized forts, the long-pods, broad Spanish, and white-blossomed bean are the best for general culture; though some of all the others may be planted occasionally; and the season for these forts being put in, is for the first crop in November or December, on a broad warm border, or in any of the most sheltered kitchen-garden quarters, in rows two feet and a half or a yard asunder, three inches distance in the row, and two or three inches deep; repeating the planting every month till March, in the open quarters.

Of the large kind, the Sandwich and Toker bean, being generally more plentiful bearers, and of somewhat less succulent growth than the Windsor, are rather harder to resist the frost, and may be planted earlier, as before Christmas for the first crop; and any time after till May, if required; and of the Windsor, a small or moderate crop may be planted in December, in open mild weather, and a dry soil; in a larger supply in January; and a first full crop in February; and

and thence in full supplies, of these or any of the other larger sort, every three or four weeks, till the end of April, for the main crops; continuing planting them till the end of May, to have succellions as long in the season as possible. These should constantly be planted in open exposures, in rows a yard asunder, or three feet and a half for the large Windsor fort; four or five inches asunder in each row, and three deep.

They succeed in any common soil, but where the land is manured for them it is the best.

The general method of planting them is by the dibble, or in drills; for early planting in dry ground, a shallow drill may be first made, then planting the beans in a row along the bottom, allowing from two to four or five inches distance in the row, according to the size or growth of the different varieties, and from one and a half to three inches deep in the small and large beans; and when the plants are come up about three inches high, they should be earthed up on each side of the row with a drawing hoe, keeping them clear from weeds by occasional hoeing in dry weather; and after having advanced nearly to full growth, and in bloom, it is proper to top the plants in general, which throws all the nourishment to the embryo pods, and greatly promotes their setting, and forwards their growth; and in the latter crops prevents their being so much annoyed with the small black fly.

As the use of garden beans is very considerable for some length of time, a pretty large portion of kitchen-garden ground should be allowed for the different crops each year, in order to have a proper succession. They succeed well, as has been seen, in any common soil, but the best where manure is employed, and in free open situations, where they are not injured by the shade or droppings of trees, selecting the driest and warmest places for the early crops, and the strongest moist ground for the late ones.

In gathering the crops, avoid pulling up the stems, especially when the land is moist.

The plants of the vetch kind are, for the most part, introduced for the purpose of variety and ornament in their climbing growth and the curious appearance of the flowers.

VICINAGE, and **VICINITUM**, a neighbourhood. See **VENUE**.

VICINAGE, *Common per Cause de*. See **COMMON**.

VICIOLA, in *Geography*, a river of Naples, which runs into the Trontino, at Teramo.

VICIOSAS, a cluster of small islands, near the coast of Honduras. N. lat. $15^{\circ} 12'$. W. long. $83^{\circ} 4'$.

VICIS at *Veneti Mundandis*, in *Laws*, a writ lying against a mayor, bailiff, &c. for not taking care that the streets be well cleaned.

VICISSITUDE, **VICISSITUDO**, the succeeding of one thing after another. As, the vicissitude of seasons, fortune, &c.

VICK, in *Geography*, a town of Sweden, in West Gothland; 37 miles N. of Uddevalla.

VICKERYVANDY, a town of Hindoostan, in the Carnatic; 18 miles W.N.W. of Pondicherry.

VICO, **ENEAS**, in *Biography*, a native of Parma in the 16th century, was one of the first persons who illustrated the medallist science. By profession he was an engraver of copper; and at his death in Ferrara, among other remains, he left copper-plates of all the coins in Europe, with their weight, standard, and value. See *ITALIAN School of Engraving*.

Vico, in *Geography*, a town of Naples, in Principato Citra, the see of a bishop, suffragan of Sorrento; near the sea. Its situation is delightful, on the brow of a hill,

backed by an amphitheatre of mountains. 'The strata' of these eminences incline contrary ways to one central point, as if there had originally existed a similar mass in the centre, torn asunder and swallowed up by one of those shocks which must have often overturned this unfavourable country. Charles II. and Joan I. raised Vico out of obscurity, on account of the charms of its situation. In 1694, it was almost destroyed by an earthquake; 3 miles E.N.E. of Sorrento.—**Alfo**, a town of Naples, in Capitanata; 10 miles W. of Vieste.—**Alfo**, a town of Corsica, in which is the cathedral of the bishop of Sagona; 30 miles S. of Calvi. N. lat. $43^{\circ} 3'$. E. long. $8^{\circ} 56'$.—**Alfo**, a village of Dalmatia, near the river Norin, in a marshy spot, where the ancient Narona once stood. The inhabitants, who go often to cut reeds in the marsh, say that the vestiges of that large city may still be seen under water. It must have been extended over the plain a great way, and undoubtedly above three miles in length, at the foot of the hills. The ancient roads are now under water, and the present passage over a very steep and craggy hill, on which, probably before the Roman times, the fortifications were erected. Along the path are to be seen traces of ancient inscriptions on the rock. A poor hamlet now occupies the spot where temples and palaces of the conquering Romans once stood; and grand vestiges still remain of baths, aqueducts, walls, and noble edifices; even the wretched cottages of the Morlack inhabitants are all built of fine ancient hewn stone; 5 miles N.W. of Citluc.

Vico di Pantano, a town of Naples, in Lavora; 12 miles S.W. of Capua.

VICOMAGISTER, among the *Romans*, an officer whose business it was to take care of the streets, that nothing might obstruct, or render them any wise inconvenient.

VICOUNTIEL. See **VICOUNTIEL**.

VICOVARO, in *Geography*, a town of the Popedom, in the Sabina, on the Teveroni; 20 miles E.N.E. of Rome.

VICOUNT, **VICE-COMES**, in our *Laws*, signifies the same with sheriff; between which two words there seems to be no other difference, but that the one came from our conquerors, the Normans; and the other from our ancestors, the Saxons.

VICOUNT, or *Vicount*, is also used for a degree of nobility, next below a count or earl, and above a baron.

Camden observes, that this is an ancient name or office, but a new one of dignity never heard of among us till Henry VIth's days, who, in his eighteenth year, created, in parliament, John lord Beaumont, *vicount Beaumont*: but it is much more ancient in other countries.

Du-Cange, indeed, will have the dignity to have had its first rise in England; but it is much more probable it was first brought over hither by the Normans.

The privileges of a vicount are, that he may have a cover of assay held under his cup when he drinks, and may have a travers in his own house. And a vicounts may have her gown borne up by a man, out of the presence of her superiors; and, in their presence, by a woman.

VICOUNTIELS, **VICONTIELS**, *Viccomitalia*, in our *Laws*, denote things belonging to the sheriff; particularly certain farms, for which the sheriff pays a rent to the king, and makes what profits he can of them.

VICOUNTIEL, *Writs*, are such as are triable in the county or sheriff's court, and which are not returned to any superior court, till finally executed by him. Of which kind are divers writs of nuisance, the writ of **ADMEASUREMENT of Pasture**, &c. which see.

VICOUNTIEL or *Vicontiel Jurisdiction*, is that jurisdiction belonging

belonging to the officers of a county; as sheriffs, coroners, escheators, &c.

VICQ, in *Geography*. See VIC and VIO.

VICQ-D'AZYR, FELIX, in *Biography*, was born at Valognes, in Normandy, in 1748, and distinguished himself both as a physician and a man of letters. Settling at Paris in 1765, he pursued with diligence every branch of study connected with medicine, and paid particular attention to the physiological part of anatomy. In 1773 he commenced a course of lectures on human and comparative anatomy, in which pursuit he was very popular; but he was interrupted by a spitting of blood, which made it necessary for him to return to his native place. Here he applied to the anatomical examination of fishes, the result of which he communicated to the Academy of Sciences, which associated him as a member. When a murrain appeared among the cattle in Languedoc in 1775, Vicq-d'Azyr was commissioned by the minister Turgot to discover means for restraining it, which charge he executed with success. A medical society was formed at Paris about this time, which he zealously promoted, and of which he was secretary. He also, in connection with this society, performed the office of eulogist, very much to his own reputation, and to the honour of many considerable persons, whose talents and services he commemorated. In his private character he exhibited, with gentle manners, a very considerable degree of ardour and sensibility; so that he is represented as a warm friend and philanthropical citizen. He obtained both fame and fortune, employing the latter liberally in collecting a costly apparatus and a well-chosen library. Agitated and exhausted by the disastrous effects of the revolution, he died in June 1794, at the age of forty-six. His "Eloges Historiques" were collected and published, with notes, and a memoir on the author, by J. L. Moreau, three vols. 8vo. 1805. His other writings were communicated to the Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences and of the Medical Society. *Nouv. Dict. Hist.*

VICTIM, VICTIMA, so called, either because *vincta percussa cadebat*, or because *vincta ad aras ducebatur*, a bloody sacrifice, offered to some deity, of a living thing; either a human person, or a beast, which is slain to appease his wrath, or to obtain some favour. See SACRIFICE.

It is not certain who was the first person that introduced bloody sacrifices among the Pagans. If the authority of Ovid be at all regarded, he alleges that the fow was the first animated victim which was offered to Ceres, on account of the ravages which that animal makes in the field. (*Fast. l. i.*) From Homer we learn, that the use of such sacrifices was common in the time of the Trojan war. Whenever they were introduced, it is certain that they were very ancient in the Pagan world. It may be observed, however, that when victims of this kind were offered, they blended with them herbs, salt and meal. Pliny informs us, that Numa prohibited the Romans from using bloody victims, or any other sacrifice, besides those in which they employed fruits, salt, and corn. Dion. Halic. ascribes this prohibition to Romulus; and he adds, that this usage subsisted in his time, although they had superadded to it that of bloody sacrifices. At length, however, superstition prevailed to such a degree, that they offered to their deities human victims; and this barbarous custom, the origin of which is not satisfactorily ascertained, was propagated to almost every known nation. These horrid sacrifices, prescribed even by the oracles of the gods, were known in the days of Moses, and constituted a part of those abominations with which this legislator reproached the Amorites. The Moabites sacrificed their children to Moloch, and burned them in the cavity of

the statue of that god. According to Dionysius of Halicarnassus, they offered men in sacrifice to Saturn, not only at Tyre and Carthage, but even in Greece and Italy. The Gauls, if we may believe Diodorus Siculus, sacrificed to their gods their prisoners of war; those of Tauris, all the strangers who landed upon their coasts: the inhabitants of Pella sacrificed a man to Peleus. Those of Temessia, as Pausanias has it, offered every year a young virgin to the Genius of one of Ulysses' associates, whom they had stoned; and Aristomenes, the Messenian, sacrificed three hundred men at one time. Strabo mentions those abominable sacrifices offered by the ancient Germans. Athanasius gives the same account of the Phenicians and Cretans; and Tertullian of the Scythians and Africans. In the Iliad of Homer we see twelve Trojans sacrificed by Achilles to the manes of Patroclus. In fine, Porphyry gives a long detail of all the places where, in old times, they offered up human sacrifices; among which he enumerates Rhodes, the island of Cyprus, Arabia, Athens, &c.

From all these testimonies put together, and from several others, which it is needless to quote, it follows, that the Phenicians, the Egyptians, Arabians, Canaanites, the inhabitants of Tyre and Carthage, those of Athens and Lacedæmon, the Ionians, all Greece, the Romans and Scythians, the Albanians, the Allemans, the Angles, the Spaniards, and the Gauls, were equally guilty of this horrid superstition.

For the public sacrifices there were authorized ministers or priests who made a choice of victims; and several names were given to these victims from some circumstances that attended the oblations. Such as were offered up the day before the solemnity, were called "*præcidaneæ hostiæ*;" as the fow, sacrificed to Ceres before harvest, was called "*præcidanea porca*." Again, they gave the name of "*succidaneæ hostiæ*" to such sacrifices as they offered up, when the former ones had been neglected; and thus it was they atoned for the omission. There were others named "*eximie hostiæ*;" meaning not that these victims had any peculiar excellence, as the word properly signifies, but that they were separated from the flock in order to be sacrificed, "*eximabantur grege*." The ewes that had two lambs, which they sacrificed with the mother, were termed "*ambigæ oves*," and the victims whose entrails were adherent, "*harungæ*" or "*harugæ*;" such as were consumed, "*prodigæ*;" and such as had two teeth higher than the rest, "*bidentes*."

Of whatever nature the victims were, great care was to be taken in the choice of them; and the same blemishes, that excluded them from sacrifices among the Jews, rendered them also imperfect among the Pagans; whence it would seem that they borrowed several rites from the Hebrews.

All sorts of victims were not offered indiscriminately to every divinity, or for every purpose. It was commonly a fow, big with young, that they offered to Cybele and to the goddess Tellus; the bull to Jupiter; to Juno, heifers, ewe-lambs, sheep; and at Corinth they sacrificed to her a she-goat. To Neptune, a bull and lambs, as appears from Homer; to Pluto, likewise, a bull; and to Proserpine a cow, both of them black: and when that goddess was taken for Hecate, they sacrificed to her a dog, an animal whose barking they thought drove away the apparitions sent by that goddess. The most acceptable victims to Ceres, were the boar and the fow: they made her likewise an offering of honey and of milk. To Venus the dove, the he-goat, the heifer, a white she-goat, &c.: to Bacchus, a he-goat. They sacrificed the cow and the bull to Hermione, as we learn from Ælian, who adds, that in these sacrifices, a bull, which

ten men had much ado to master, of his own accord followed an old priestess to the altar. To the Sun sometimes honey; but the Armenians and Massagetes sacrificed to him horses. To Apollo (for frequently he was distinguished from the Sun) they offered the ram, the she-goat, the ewe, and the he-goat; and when they confounded him with the Sun, a young bullock, with gilded horns, as an emblem of his beams: they offered to him likewise a raven. To Mars, the horse, the bull, the boar, and the ram. The Lusitanians sacrificed to him he-goats, she-goats, and sometimes their enemies; the Scythians offered to him asses; and the Carians, dogs. We learn from Homer, that the victims most grateful to Minerva were the bull and the lamb; or, according to Fulgentius Planciades, oxen which had never known the yoke. To Diana, stags, she-goats, more especially among the Athenians; and, in some places, cows. To the Dii Lares, a bullock, or an ewe-lamb, according to the ability of those who offered. To them they also sacrificed cocks and swallows, and the hog, whence they got the name of Grundiles.

In fine, every god had his favourite animal, tree, or plant. Among the animal kind, the lion was consecrated to Vulcan; the wolf to Apollo and Mars; the dog to the Lares and to Mars; the dragon to Bacchus and Minerva; the griffins to Apollo; the serpents to Esculapius; the stag to Hercules; the lamb to Juno; the horse to Mars; the heifer to Isis. Among the birds, the eagle was sacred to Jupiter: the peacock to Juno; the owl to Minerva; the vulture and the wood-pecker to Mars; the cock likewise to Mars, to Esculapius, Apollo, and Minerva; the dove and sparrow to Venus; the king's-fisher to Tethys; the phoenix to the Sun; and the cicada, a sort of flying insect, to Apollo. Among the fishes, which belonged all to Neptune, the concha marina, and the small fish named apua, which Festus says is produced by the rain, were acceptable to Venus, and the barbel to Diana. Among the trees and plants, the pine was consecrated to Cybele, for the sake of Atys; the beech to Jupiter; the oak, and its different species, to Rhea; the olive to Minerva; the laurel to Apollo, from his amour with Daphne; and the reed to Pan, from the story of Syriax: the lotos and the myrtle were likewise consecrated to Apollo and Venus; the cypress to Pluto; the narcissus and the maiden-hair, termed likewise capilli veneris, to Proserpine; the ash-tree and dog's-grass to Mars; purslane to Mercury; the myrtle and the poppy to Ceres; the vine, and its leaves, to Bacchus; the poplar to Hercules; dittany and the poppy to Lucina; garlic to the Dii Penates; the alder-tree, the cedar, the narcissus, and the juniper-tree, to the Furies; the palm to the Muses; the plane-tree to the Genii; the alder to the god Sylvanus; the pine to Pan, &c. The Greeks offered Iphigenia, at Aulis, for a victim to obtain a favourable wind.

As there were different sorts of victims, the mode of offering them was also different. Some were wholly burnt, and others consumed only in part: and it belonged to the diviners among the Greeks, and to the aruspices among the Romans, to order the time, form, and manner of the sacrifices. We may further remark with Lucian, that the sacrifices differed according to the quality of the persons. "The husbandman," says he, "offers up an ox; the shepherd, a lamb; the goat-herd, a goat: there are some who make only a simple offering of cakes or incense; and he that has nothing, makes his sacrifice by kissing his right hand."

Artificial or fabulous victim, denotes a victim made of baked pastes in the form of an animal, which was offered to

the gods, when they had no natural victims or no opportunity of offering them. Thus, according to Porphyry, Pythagoras offered a sacrifice of an ox in paste; Empedocles is also said by Athenæus to have done the same. Pythagoras derived the practice from Egypt, where it was very ancient, and where it was used in the time of Herodotus.

VICTIMARIUS, a minister, or servant of the priest, whose office was to bind the victims, and prepare the water, knife, cake, and other things, necessary for the sacrifice. See **SACRIFICI**.

To the victimarii it also belonged to knock down, and kill, the victims: in order to which, they stood close by the altar, naked to the waist, but crowned with laurel; and holding a hatchet or a knife up, asked the priest leave to strike; saying, *Agone? Shall I strike?* Whence they were called *agones*, and *culellarii*, or *cultuarii*.

When the victim was killed, they opened it; and, after viewing the entrails, took them away, washed the carcase, and sprinkled the flour on it, &c.

The same victimarii also lighted the fire in which books were condemned to be burnt. See Liv. lib. xl. cap. 29. and A. Gellius, lib. i. cap. 1. extr. 12.

VICTOIRE, or *Woody Island*, in *Geography*, a small island in the Chinese sea. N. lat. 1° 33'. E. long. 106° 18'.

VICTOPHALI, or **VICTOBALI**, in *Ancient Geography*, a people of Dacia, according to Eutropius and Ammianus Marcellinus. This country was subjugated by Trajan.

VICTOR I., pope, in *Biography*, succeeded Eleutherius in 192. During his pontificate several circumstances occurred which render it difficult to maintain his infallibility. He first appeared and afterwards anathematized the heretical doctrine taught at Rome by Theodotus of Byzantium concerning the person of Christ. He also recognized a prophetic spirit in Montanus; and gave to two of his female followers, Prisca and Maximilla, letters of peace to the churches of Asia and Phrygia, which he afterwards revoked. As his infallibility was impeached, his pontifical authority was also vigorously opposed in the controversy between the Eastern and Western churches concerning the celebration of Easter. The former had been accustomed to observe the rule established for the Jewish paschal, whereas the latter disapproved the observance of Easter on any day except Sunday, and they had, accordingly, adopted a different method of computation. The dispute was of no great importance, and had occasioned no discord and separation between these churches. But Victor arrogantly interposed, and enjoined the Asiatic prelates to observe the custom that prevailed among the Western Christians. These prelates resisted his mandate, and Victor menaced Polycrates, bishop of Ephesus, who took the lead on this occasion, with exclusion from his communion. The prelate convened a council of all the bishops of Asia Minor, and they were unanimous in their resolution not to abandon the ancient practice. The pope was exasperated, and declared the Asiatic prelates unworthy of the title of brethren, and excluded them from all fellowship with the church of Rome. But his violence was disapproved, and he was regarded as a disturber of the peace and union that subsisted among Christians. Irenæus, bishop of Lyons, remonstrated against his conduct in a letter written to him with a spirit of wisdom and moderation; and the Asiatics retained their custom till the Western practice was authoritatively established by the council of Nice. These proceedings sufficiently shew that the supremacy of the see of Rome was not acknowledged at this period. Victor, after a pontificate of ten years, closed his life towards the

end of the year 201, or the beginning of 202. None of his writings are extant, though, according to St. Jerom, he was the first ecclesiastical author who used the Latin language. His zeal for the church has caused him to be enrolled among the saints of the Roman calendar. Dupin. Bower.

VICTOR II., pope, was the successor of pope Leo IX., and elevated to the papal chair by the influence of Hildebrand, afterwards pope Gregory VII., and by the special appointment of Henry III., emperor of Germany. The person chosen was Gebhard, bishop of Eichstätt, a relation of the emperor, who against his own inclination was consecrated in April 1055, and assumed the name of *Victor*. Soon after his promotion he held a general council at Florence, for the correction of various abuses, and the condemnation of Berengarius's doctrine concerning the Eucharist. Hildebrand maintained his influence during this pontificate, and availed himself of an opportunity that offered for extending the civil authority of the papal see. This was the recognition of Henry III. as the only true emperor, against the claims of Ferdinand, king of Castile and Leon. The pope's requisition, though at first vigorously opposed in Spain, ultimately prevailed. In 1056 a council was held at Toulouse, which passed several canons against simony, and the incontinence of the clergy. Whilst this council was sitting, Victor was summoned by a special message from the emperor Henry to attend him in his last moments. The pope, in compliance with his dying intreaty, recognized his son, Henry IV., for his successor in the empire. After his return to Italy he held a council at Rome, and then retired to Tuscany, where he died in July 1057. A single letter of this pope remains; and superstition has recorded some miracles that were wrought during his pontificate. Dupin. Bower.

VICTOR III., pope, one of three persons named by Gregory VII. in 1085, when he was dying, and recommended to the cardinals as his successor. The person chosen was Desiderius, abbot of Monte Cassino, descended from the family of the dukes of Benevento, and born about 1027. He had embraced a monastic life in 1050, and was chosen abbot of Monte Cassino in 1058, and in the following year created cardinal. It was with great reluctance that he consented, in 1086, to accept the pontificate, and as soon as the attendant ceremonies were completed, he withdrew to his monastery. In the following year a council was held at Capua, which constrained him to accept the popehood in March 1087, and he was solemnly consecrated in the church of St. Peter by the name of Victor III. His election was contested by the antipope Guibert and his adherents; but he was zealously supported by the countsess Matilda, who by force of arms established him at Rome, though he was not long after obliged to withdraw to Monte Cassino. Here he engaged the Italian princes to form a league against the African Saracens. Soon afterwards he summoned a council at Benevento, at which Guibert was anathematized, and the decrees of Gregory against lay investitures and simony were renewed. During the session of this council he was taken ill, and after recommending Otho, bishop of Ostia, for his successor, he retired to Monte Cassino, and died in September 1087. Whilst he was abbot he wrote four books of dialogues on the miracles of St. Benedict, and the other monks of Monte Cassino, three of which are published in Mabillon's "Acta Sanctorum." Dupin. Bower.

VICTOR-AMADEUS II., duke of Savoy, and first king of Sardinia, was born in 1666, and succeeded his father,

Charles-Emanuel II., in 1675. In 1684 he married Anna-Maria of Orleans, daughter to the duke of Orleans, brother of Lewis XIV., by Henrietta-Anne of England, which marriage would have conveyed to the house of Savoy the next hereditary right to the British throne, after the house of Stuart, if it had not been set aside by its profession of the Roman Catholic religion. The first military transaction of this prince, which is not very honourable to his memory, was the expulsion, by much slaughter, of his Protestant subjects of the Vaudois. In 1687, however, he joined the grand alliance against France, in which treaty the restoration of the Vaudois was a secret article. Voltaire characterizes him as a wise, politic, courageous prince, understanding the art of war, and practising military discipline; but chargeable with faults, both as a sovereign and as a general. In the first war against France he was a severe sufferer; but in 1696 a treaty was concluded, by which all the places he had lost were restored, and a sum of money was granted to him by way of indemnification; and a contract of marriage was settled between his eldest daughter and the duke of Burgundy, heir apparent to the crown of France. The duke of Savoy then joined his troops to those of his new ally, and he soon after became generalissimo of Lewis XIV. Soon after these events, another connection was formed between the house of Bourbon and the duke of Savoy, by the marriage of Philip, duke of Anjou, grandson of Lewis XIV. called to the throne of Spain, to the duke's second daughter; and thus he had the rare fortune of seeing the two principal kingdoms of Europe occupied by his immediate descendants. Nevertheless, at the commencement of the succession-war, in 1702, the duke abandoned the interest of these courts, and entered into secret negotiations with the allied powers. The French court, having found that he had signed a treaty with the emperor, adopted hostile measures, and took from him a number of towns, and in 1706 laid siege to his capital, Turin, which he bravely resisted, until he was effectually succoured by prince Eugene, who attacked the French in their trenches, and raised the siege. The duke, having recovered the towns which he had lost, assisted the Imperialists in driving the French from Lombardy. The duke afterwards had some disagreement with the emperor, and remained inactive till the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713. In this general pacification, such was the high estimation in which he was held by all parties, that he was restored to the possession of the duchy of Savoy, the county of Nice, and all their dependencies. The king of France yielded to him two strong fortresses, and several valleys among the mountains; and the ridge of the Alps was made the boundary between France on one side, and Piedmont and Nice on the other. The emperor confirmed to him that part of Montserrat which had belonged to Mantua, with several provinces and territories in Italy; and his Catholic majesty resigned to him the kingdom of Sicily, which gave him the royal title; and it was moreover agreed, that in default of heirs to the king of Spain, that crown should pass to the house of Savoy, in preference to that of Bourbon. Victor-Amadeus and his spouse were crowned at Palermo, in the clove of that year, and the Spaniards evacuated Sicily; but some differences occurring between him and the court of Spain, it was required that he should send his eldest son to Spain, as a kind of hostage. Upon his non-compliance with this requisition, Alberoni, the prime minister of Spain, made preparations for conquering Sicily from Victor, and Sardinia from the emperor. France and England interposed in the dispute; and it was finally determined, that Victor should resign Sicily,

Sicily, and as an indemnity receive Sardinia, with the royal title annexed to it, which measure was accomplished in 1718, and the dukes of Savoy have thenceforth ranked among the monarchs of Europe as kings of Sardinia.

VICTOR-AMADEUS from this time devoted himself to the arts of peace; and after a reign of fifteen years, as duke and as king, abdicated his titles and government, in 1730, in favour of his son, Charles-Emanuel, contenting himself with an annual pension. But afterwards repenting of his conduct, and incited by an ambitious mistress, to whom he was privately married, he attempted to resume his royalty. The new king resisted his inclinations, and placed him under a degree of restraint, in which state he died, at the castle of Rivoli, near Turin, in 1732, in his 67th year. Mod. Un. Hist. Gen. Biog.

VICTOR, AURELIUS. See AURELIUS.

VICTOR, in *Geography*, a town of Peru, in the jurisdiction of Arequipa: 15 miles S. of Arequipa.

VICTORIA, VICENTE, in *Biography*, was a Spanish artist, a native of Valencia, and born in 1658. He went to Rome when young, and there became a scholar of Carlo Maratti, and distinguished himself sufficiently in historical painting to be taken into employment by the grand duke of Tuscany. His portrait is in the Florentine gallery. He painted several pictures for churches in his native country, and died at Rome in 1712.

VICTORIA, *Majcar*, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Africa, in the interior of Mauritania Cæsariensis, S.E. of Arfina: mentioned by Ptolemy.

VICTORIA, a town of ancient Britain, belonging to the Damni, which Camden supposes may be the ancient British town mentioned by Bede, called Caer-Guidi, and situated in Inch-Keith, a small island in the Firth of Forth. Baxter earnestly contends for Ardoah, in Strathearn, while Horsley prefers Abernethy. Its situation cannot be ascertained.

VICTORIA, in *Geography*, a town on the south-west coast of the island of Amboyna, situated in a large bay. N. lat. $3^{\circ} 42'$. E. long. $128^{\circ} 23'$.—Also, a small island in the Atlantic, near the coast of Brasil. S. lat. $23^{\circ} 40'$.—Also, a town of South America, in the province of Caraccas; six leagues E. from Tulmero, and on the road that leads to the city of Caraccas. It was founded by the missionaries, and composed solely of Indians, until industry fixed her seat in the valleys of Aragoa, and drew thither a number of whites, of whom part settled at Victoria. The lands in its vicinity were cultivated, and their produce placed decent houses in the room of Indian huts. A very handsome church, vying in beauty and size with the principal cathedrals in America, has lately been erected in this place, and the number of inhabitants of all colours is reckoned to amount to 7800.

VICTORIÆ MONS, in *Ancient Geography*, a mountain of Hispania Citerior, near the river Hebrus.

VICTORIÆ Julia *Brigenium Portus*, a port and town of Hispania Citerior, belonging to the Varduli.

VICTORIAN PERIOD, in *Chronology*. See PERIOD.

VICTORIATUS, among the *Romans*, a coin with Victory represented on one side, equal in value to half the denarius.

VICTORINUS, CAIUS, or FABIVS MARIUS, in *Biography*, an African philosopher, was a convert to Christianity, and flourished in the fourth century. He gained such a degree of reputation by teaching rhetoric at Rome, that a statue was erected in honour of him in one of the public places. He was led to the perusal of the Scriptures by the study of Plato's works, and thus convinced of their

truth, after some hesitation, he publicly declared himself a Christian, and was baptized in the presence of all the people. He was the author of several works, some of which are published in the *Bibliotheca Patrum*; but as they are of no great value, it is needless to enumerate them. The time of his death, though not precisely ascertained, is supposed to have been previous to the year 386. Dupin.

VICTORIOLA, in *Botany*, a name used by some authors for the hippoglossum, called in English the *Alexandria-laurel*, *horle-tongue*, or *double-tongue*.

VICTORIUS, in *Biography*. See VETTORI.

VICTORY, VICTORIA, the overthrow, or defeat, of an enemy, in war, combat, duel, or the like. See WAR, COMBAT, DUEL, CHAMPION, &c.

Among the Romans, crowns, triumphs, &c. were decreed to their generals, for the victories they gained.

VICTORY, *Adrian*, denotes the victory which Augustus, or rather his general, gained over Mark Antony after the capture of Actium; in commemoration of which he built the city of Nicopolis, and re-established with peculiar magnificence the Actian games.

VICTORY, *Games of*, were public games celebrated on account of a victory; they were called by the Greeks *ἐπιμνησθεις αἰώνος*, and in Latin inscriptions they are denominated *ludi victorie*. Of these, the Roman history recites those in honour of Augustus, after the battle of Actium; those of Septimius Severus, after the defeat of Pescennius Niger; those in honour of Lucius Verus and Marcus Aurelius, on their return from the expedition against the Parthians, recorded on the marble of Cyzicus, &c.

VICTORY, in *Mythology*, called *Nike* by the Greeks, was personified and made a deity both by the Greeks and Romans. According to Varro, she was the daughter of Cæum and Terra; but Hesiod makes her the daughter of Styx and Pallas. Temples, statues, and altars were consecrated to this deity. Sylla, according to Cicero, instituted games in honour of this goddess. At Athens there was a temple dedicated to Victory, in which was placed her statue without wings. The first temple built in honour of her by the Romans was during the Samnite war, under the consulate of L. Posthumus and M. Attilius Regulus. With them she was represented as a winged deity, sometimes almost in the attitude of flying, and with her robe carried back with the wind; holding a laurel crown in her hand, which was anciently the peculiar reward of successful generals and great conquerors. The Egyptians represented her under the figure of an eagle, a bird always victorious in its combats with other birds. The poets inform us that her wings were white, and her robe of the same colour. They sometimes describe her hovering between two armies engaged in battle, as doubtful which side she shall choose, and sometimes standing fixed by one she is resolved to favour, as she is often seen on the medals of the Roman emperors. This goddess is often represented in a chariot, drawn rapidly along by two horses. Pliny speaks of a picture of Victory in Rome, in which she was ascending to heaven, in a chariot with four horses, as she appears on the Antonine pillar, carrying thither some hero, and with a palm-branch in her hand. This, and the crown of laurel, were her general attributes; and a third was a trophy, and sometimes two, one on each side of her. Sometimes she is seen mounted on a globe, as she appears upon the medals of the emperors, because they reckoned themselves masters of the world. When a naval battle was designed, she was drawn mounted on the prow of a ship; and when she holds a bull by the muzzle, it points out the sacrifices that were offered after any advantages that were gained. It appears from the ancients that no bloody victim

victim was offered to her, but that her sacrifices were the fruits of the earth. She was called by various names; by the Egyptians, Nepthe; by the Sabines, Vacuna; by the Greeks, Apteros, without wings; by others, Vitula. Among her epithets were Eteralea, which Homer uses to denote that the inclined to both sides; that of Præpes and Volacris, to denote her swiftness; and that of Cæligena by Varro, because Victory comes from heaven. A Victory at Rome, whose wings were burnt by lightning, gave rise to the following epigram: "Rome, great queen of the world, thy glory shall never fade, since Victory, now stripped of her wings, can never fly away."

VICTORY, in *Geography*, a town of America, in the district of Vermont, and county of Essex, containing six inhabitants; 75 miles N. of Norwich.

VICTORY, *Cape*, the extreme N.W. point of the Straits of Magellan, at the opening to the South Pacific ocean. S. lat. 52° 15'. W. long. 76° 40'.

VICTUALLER, one that sells victuals; and we now call all common alehouse-keepers victuallers. See **ALEHOUSE**.

Vicuallers shall sell their victuals at reasonable prices, or forfeit double value; and victuallers, fishmongers, poulterers, &c. coming with their victuals to London, shall be under the regulation of the lord-mayor and aldermen; and sell their victuals at prices appointed by justices, &c. (23 & 31 Edw. III. c. 6. 7 Rich. II. 13 Rich. II.) If any victuallers, butchers, brewers, poulterers, cooks, &c. conspire and agree together not to sell their victuals, but at certain prices, they shall forfeit for the first offence 1*l.*, for the second 2*l.*, and for the third offence 4*l.* (2 & 3 Edw. VI. c. 15.) See **FORESTALLING**.

VICTUALLER, *Agent*. See **AGENT**.

VICTUALLING-OFFICE, an office formerly kept on Tower-Hill, now in Somerset-House and Deptford, for furnishing his majesty's navy with victuals.

It is managed by seven commissioners, who have their inferior officers, as secretaries, clerk, &c.; besides agents in divers parts of Great Britain, Ireland, &c.

VICTUS RATIO, among *Physicians*, a particular manner of living, for the preservation of health, and prevention of diseases.

VICUNNA, in *Zoology*, a name given to the *pacos*.

VICUS AQUARIUS, in *Ancient Geography*, a very considerable town of Hispania, in Lusitania, towards the north, in the country of the Vettones.

Vicus Augusti, *Kair-Wan*, a town of Africa, on a large plain, S. of Adrumetum, marked in the Itin. of Antonine between Aquiliane and Cloacaria.—Also, a town of Africa Propria, upon the route from Carthage to Sufetula, between Adrumetum and Aquæ Regiæ. Anton. Itin.

Vicus Badius, a place of Italy, on the route from Rome to Adria, between Palacrinum and Centefimum. Anton. Itin.

Vicus Cuminarius, a place of Hispania Citerior, belonging to the Carpetani, at a small distance upon the left of the Tagus. It is marked in the Itin. Anton. on the route from Emerita to Cæsar-Augusta, between Alces and Ticulice.

Vicus Judæorum, a place of Egypt, on the other side of the Nile, between Thou and Scenæ Veteranorum, according to the Itin. of Antonine.

Vicus Novus, *Vico*, a small place of Italy, in Campania, at some distance to the S.E. from Calatia and Capua.—Also, a place of Italy, in Umbria, on the route from Rome to Adria, between Eretum and Reate. Anton. Itin.

VID, in *Geography*, a river of Bulgaria, which runs into the Danube, 10 miles W. of Nicopoli.

VIDA, MARCO-GIROLAMO, in *Biography*, a modern Latin poet of reputation, was born at Cremona of parents nobly descended, but in humble condition. The date of his nativity is differently assigned; some fixing it in the year 1470, and others in 1490. His education was liberal at Padua and Bologna, in the latter of which cities two of his poems were published in 1504, under the name of Marc-Antonio, which he changed for Marco-Girolamo, when he took orders as a canon regular of Lateran. For assistance in the study of theology and philosophy, to which in early life he was devoted, he went to Rome in the latter years of Julius II. His poems were much applauded, and gave him rank among the principal geniuses of the age. He was indebted to the early patronage of Ghiberti, bishop of Verona, for an introduction to Leo X., who bestowed upon him both wealth and honours. Besides other benefices, he presented him to the priory of St. Silvestro, in Frascati, where he enjoyed a favourable opportunity for pursuing his studies, and especially the completion of his "Christiad," in which Leo had engaged him. Of his more considerable poems, his work entitled "De Arte Poetica" is supposed to have been first written; and the first known edition of it is dated in 1527. This was soon followed by his "Bombyx," or art of rearing silk-worms, and his "Scacchiae Ludus," or poem on the game of chess. Clement VII. became his second patron, and promoted him first to the office of apollitical protonotary, and in 1532 to the bishopric of Alba. After the death of this pope, he retired to his diocese, and established the character of a zealous and affectionate pastor; and when, in 1542, Alba was invested by the French, he contributed by his exhortations and example so to animate the citizens, as to preserve it from the enemy. His two books "De Republica" contain dialogues, which are the substance of a conversation that passed between him, and some cardinals and learned men, at the council of Trent. These dialogues are excellent, with respect to the correctness and elegance of their style, and evince that the author was no less extensively conversant with politics and philosophy than with polite literature. In 1551 Vida retired to Cremona, on account of the wars which desolated his diocese; however, he was not unmindful of his pastoral charge, but effectually interceded with Don Ferdinand Gonzaga, governor of Milan, and thus prevented his marching, as he threatened to do, to Alba, and putting all the inhabitants to the sword. In 1563 he was still at Cremona, but soon after removed to Alba, and died there in 1566. As a Latin poet, Vida acquired a very high reputation; to which he was justly entitled, partly on account of the subjects which he selected, and partly for the singular classic purity and dignity of his style, formed on the model of the most admired productions of antiquity. Virgil was the object of his admiration and imitation, whom he respected, and after whom he copied, as Cicero was the model of the prose Latin writers of that age. "Vida's works," says a judicious biographer, "do not so much give the impression of a writer of original and fervid genius, as of one possessing taste, elegance, and ingenuity." Besides the poems already mentioned, Vida was the author of Eclogues, of Sacred Hymns, and of other small pieces, which are marked with his purity of diction and classical refinement. The fame of this poet in England has been greatly promoted by the well-known lines in Pope's Essay on Criticism, which place him on a parallel with Raphael, and entitle Cremona to boast of him, as much as Mantua of Virgil; but this was the hyperbolic eulogy of a juvenile writer, which his maturer judgment would scarcely have

have confirmed. The candid Tiraboschi is contented with saying of him, that his qualities, if not sufficient to rank him in the number of first-rate poets, at least give him a title to be placed much above the vulgar tribe of old writers. Roscoe's *Life of Leo X.* Gen. Biog.

VIDAME, VICE-DOMINUS, was anciently used for the bishop's deputy in temporals; as *comes*, or *vice-comes*, was the king's.

The word, according to Nicod, comes from *vicarius*; or according to Pasquier, from *vice-dominus*; dom signifying *dominus*, or *lord*. See DOM.

The original institution of vidames was for the defence of the temporalities of bishoprics, while the bishops themselves were taken up in prayer and other spiritual functions. They also led the bishop's forces when they were obliged to go to war, either to defend their temporalities, or for the arrier-ban.

They also managed, and pleaded, their cause in courts of justice; distributed justice among their tenants; and prevented any body's pillaging, or damaging, the houses of deceased bishops, &c. In effect, they represented the bishop, considered as a temporal lord.

In some ancient charters, the vidames are called *advocates*, or *advocates*.

VIDAME continued to be a title of signory, or lordship; attributed to several gentlemen in France: as the vidame of Chartres, of Amiens, &c.

The ancient vidames, Pasquier says, were the bishops' temporal judges; and they had the same privileges as the viscounts.

By degrees, the vidames converted their office into a fee; and the bishops their vidames, or judges, into vassals; as kings did their counts, dukes, &c. Accordingly, the vidame of Chartres, &c. held lands of the bishops of those places. See VALVASOR.

VIDDIN, in *Geography*, a town of European Turkey, in Bulgaria, on the Danube, the see of a Greek archbishop; 356 miles N.W. of Constantinople. N. lat. 44° 25'. E. long. 22° 26'.

VIDE, in *Fr. Music*, is equivalent to *open*, in English: as *corde à vide*, an open string, on instruments with a neck, such as a violin or violoncello; or the sound produced by the whole length of a string from the nut to the bridge, without the pressure of a finger.

The sound of open strings is not only more grave or lower in tone than when pressed by the finger, but more sonorous and full; which arises from the softness of the finger which impedes its vibrations: on which account good players on the violin avoid using open strings as much as possible, in order to preserve an equality of tone. But to do this, the performer must know all the *sfists*, and be well acquainted with the finger-board. See SHIFT and FINGER-BOARD.

VIDEO, MONTE, in *Geography*. (See MONTEVIDEO.) This, says Mr. Mawe, is a tolerably well-built town, situated on a gentle elevation, at the extremity of a small peninsula, and is walled entirely round. Its population amounts to between 15,000 and 20,000 souls. The harbour is the best in the Rio de la Plata, and has a very soft bottom of deep mud, but cannot be called a good one for vessels above 300 or 400 tons. The houses are generally of one story, paved with brick, and furnished with few conveniences. In the square is a cathedral, and opposite to it an edifice, divided into a town-house, or *cabildo*, and a prison. The streets are unpaved, and the well that supplies the town with water is at the distance of two miles. Provisions are abundant and cheap, particularly beef. The inhabitants, especially

the Creolians, are humane and well-disposed, when not actuated by political or religious prejudices. Their habits, like those of their brethren in Old Spain, proceed from the opposite extremes of indolence and temperance. The ladies are generally affable and polite, and in their persons neat and clean. Abroad they usually appear in black, and always covered with a large veil, or mantle; and at mass they always appear in black silk, bordered with deep fringes. The chief trade of Monte-Video consists in hides, tallow, and dried beef; the two former being exported to Europe, and the latter to the West Indies, especially to the Havannah. Coarse copper from Chili, in square cakes, is sometimes shipped here, and an herb called "metta," from Paraguay, the infusion of which is used as tea in England. The climate is humid; in the winter months (June, July, and August) the weather is occasionally boisterous, and the air piercing. In summer, the serenity of the atmosphere is often interrupted by tremendous thunder-storms and lightning, and also deluges of rain, which sometimes destroy the harvest. The heat is troublesome, and the mosquitoes are peculiarly injurious. The town stands on a basis of granite: and the high mount on the opposite side of the bay, on which is a light-house, and which gives name to the town, is principally composed of clay-slate in laminae, perpendicular to the horizon. The vicinity of Monte-Video is agreeably diversified with low gently sloping hills, and long valleys watered by beautiful rivulets, but traces of cultivation are rarely observed.

VIDEROE, one of the Faroer islands. N. lat. 61° 59'. VIDICINORUM OPPIDUM, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Italy, in Picenum, destroyed by the Romans.

VIDIGAL, in *Geography*, a town of Portugal, in the province of Algarve; 18 miles N. of Sagres.

VIDIGUEIRA, a small market-town of Portugal, in Alentejo; 12 miles N.E. of Beja, and 5 leagues from Serpa, in a very charming country. On one side is a fertile plain, on the other, close to the town, rise mountains, intersected with valleys, that are adorned with quintas and orange-gardens, with a large Gothic church on the fore-ground. The place is small, having little more than 2000 inhabitants. Its oranges are small, but well-flavoured, and the best in the country, as is also the wine, from the neighbouring Villa de Trades, much celebrated at Lisbon.

VIDIMARUM, in *Botany*, the name of the tree which bears the febeffens, a medicinal plum, of Asia and Egypt.

VIDIMUS, in *Law*, the same with *innatesimus*; being letters patent of a charter of feoffment, or some other instrument, not of record.

VIDINI, in *Ancient Geography*, a people of European Sarmatia. Ammian. Marcell.

VIDOTARA, a bay on the northern side of Great Britain, near the mouth of the river which runs by Aire.

VIDOURLLE, in *Geography*, a river of France, which runs into the lake of Than, near Aignes Mortes.

VIDRA, a town of Spain, in Catalonia; 12 miles N. of Vique.

VIDROPUSK, a town of Russia, in the government of Tver; 12 miles N. of Torzok.

VIDRUS, in *Ancient Geography*, a river of Germany; its mouth, according to Ptolemy, being between Marmanis Portus and the mouth of the river Anafius.

VIDUA, a river on the northern coast of Hibernia. Ptol.

VIDUCASSES, the name of a people who occupied a part of that country which is now the diocese of Bayeux. The capital of these people was near the river Orne, a little above Caen, probably Vieux.

VIDUCHOVA, in *Geography*. See FIDDICHOW.

VIDUITATIS PROFESSIO, the making a solemn profession of living a chaste widow; a custom heretofore observed in England, and attended with divers ceremonies.

VIE. See CESTUE *qui Vie*.

VIE, in *Geography*, a river of France, in the department of the Vendée, which runs into the sea near St. Gilles.—Also, a river of France, in the department of the Calvados, which runs into the Dive, 3 miles N.W. of Creveœur.

VIECHTACH, a town of Bavaria; 13 miles S.E. of Cham.

VIEDAM, or VEDAM, the name of a sacred book of law and religion, written, according to M. de Sainte-Croix, by the Samaneans, in the Samscritan, or Shanscrit language, and held in great veneration by the Brahmans of Hindoostan, from a notion that Brahma, their legislator, received it from the Deity himself. See VEDA.

VIEDENBRUCK, or VIDENBRUGGE, in *Geography*. See WIEDENBRUCK.

VIEJO, one of the small Bahama islands.

VIELBRUN, or FELBRUN, a town of Germany, in the county of Wertheim; 17 miles W. of Wertheim.

VIELLA, a town of France, in the department of the Gers; 10 miles S.W. of Nogaro.—Also, a town of Spain, in the province of Catalonia; 38 miles W.N.W. of Urgel.

VIELLE, a musical instrument, often confounded with the *viola*, or *viol*. It is not, indeed, a bowed instrument, like the viol, but its tone is produced by the friction of a wheel, which performs the part of a bow. The strings are pressed on the wheel by the fingers, and sometimes by keys. It is at present a mere street instrument every where but at Paris, where it is much in use with other instruments at the Boulevards and Guinguettes; and even ladies sometimes condescend to learn to play upon it. Kircher gives it no better title than that of *lyra mendicorum*, the beggar's lyre. It is so loud in the open air, that it seems impossible to bear it in a room. The itinerant performers on this instrument are generally Savoyards.

The name of the instrument seems a corruption of *viola*, if it is not the eldest of the two. The Diét. Etymol. says; *Viole*, *Violon*, from the Spanish *biola* and *violone*. The Spaniards also say *biuela*, whence we (the French) have *Vielle*. It has a neck or finger-board fretted, and two strings, always sounding as drones, tuned fifths or eighths.

VIELLE, *La*, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Lower-Pyrénées; 21 miles N. of Pau.

VIELLE Ridee, the *Wrinkled old Woman's Shell*, in *Conchology*, a name given by the French authors to a species of chama of the mutilated kind, very much resembling the famous concha Veneris, but longer, and without that peculiarly-shaped oval aperture to which that shell owes its name.

It has several spines about the lips, as the concha Veneris has, but they are shorter, and more obtuse, than in that shell. The whole surface of this species is deeply and irregularly wrinkled. It is of a whitish colour, variegated with brown.

VIELLEUR, in *Natural History*, the name of a species of fly common in Surinam, and some other places. It is moderately large, though less so than the lantern-fly, so common in that place, and has a long head, and some other particulars, in which it resembles that creature. Mrs. Merian has given a figure of it, and reports it as the opinion of the natives, that it changes at length into a lantern-fly.

VIELMUR, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Tarn, on the Agout; 9 miles W. of Castres.

VIELSK, a town of Russia, in the government of Vologda, on the Vaga; 156 miles N.N.E. of Vologda. N. lat. 61° 40'. E. long. 41° 44'.

VIENENBURG, a town of Westphalia, in the bishopric of Hildesheim; 7 miles S. of Schladen.

VIENNA, or VIENNENSIS CIVITAS, in *Ancient Geography*, one of the most opulent towns of Gaul, and the capital of the Allobroges. This town enjoyed the rights of a Roman city, and the prerogative of furnishing subjects to the senate of Rome, granted to it, according to Tacitus, under the consulate of Rutilius, in the year of Rome 664. This place is mentioned by Strabo as the most considerable among the Allobroges. Mela ranks it among the most opulent in the Narbonnensis, and it is cited by Pliny under the denomination of a colony. By the first division of ancient Narbonnensis, Vienne became the metropolis of that district, which was distinguished by the name of the Viennois, and this province was formed at the beginning of the fourth century, since it is mentioned in the acts of the council of Arles, held A.D. 314. See VIENNE.

VIENNA, in *Geography*, a city and capital of Austria, the see of an archbishop, on the W. side of the Danube, on a fertile plain, where it receives a small river, called *Vien*, which passes through the city and suburbs; near the place where stood the ancient Vindobona. The situation is pleasant, for to the east and north the country around is entirely level, but to the west and south is seen a range of mountains, which are thickly planted with trees and vines; and the Danube, which is here very wide, divides itself in that part of the town into several arms, forming many islands, which are stocked with wood. The circumference of that which is properly the fortified city of Vienna is not large, and only contains about 60,000 souls; but the suburbs are therefore the more ample; and, according to the estimate of a late traveller, the city and the suburbs together contain 230,000 (others say 254,000) inhabitants, without including the garriſon. In 1795, the whole population of Vienna was computed at 231,105 inhabitants; of whom 1231 were ecclesiastics, 3253 nobility, 4256 public functionaries, and persons living upon their private fortune, and 7333 citizens belonging to the corporation. In the city itself there are numerous and beautiful palaces: but the streets are not spacious, and are, in part, crooked. The houses are generally of brick, covered with stucco. There is but one street in Vienna that can be called magnificent, and this is a continued line of splendid houses and palaces. It is called the "Nobles'-street." The suburbs are constructed on a better plan, and would be very elegant, if the houses were larger and richer in architectural ornaments. Most of the streets are regular, level and wide, but they are chiefly inhabited by manufacturers and workmen of various trades. Near the centre of the town is a bridge thrown across a deep low street, which admits of the passage of carriages, whilst the usual thoroughfare is below, resembling our canals over navigable rivers. Those people of fashion who have no country-seats, or who are prevented by their public employments from leaving Vienna, generally reside in the suburbs during summer. The second floor of all burghers' houses is allotted for the residence of the officers of the imperial court; and the owners can only purchase an exemption by paying a sum of money for the erection of barracks. It is divided into four quarters, which contain fifteen squares or public places; that of the court is large and beautiful; in it, between two fountains, is a superb monument, built by the emperor Leopold; in the high market-place is a marble monument, representing the marriage of Joseph and the Virgin, erected in the year 1732. Vienna contains fifty churches

VIENNA.

churches or chapels, and twenty-one convents. The chief edifices are the metropolitan church of St. Stephen, the imperial palace, library and arsenal, the house of assembly for the States of Lower Austria, the council-house, the university, and some monasteries. The metropolitan church is a dark Gothic building, richly adorned on the outside with sculpture, and within with thirty-eight altars, mostly of beautiful marble; a great number of relics, jewels, &c. and an ancient vault, in which the archdukes are interred. Here is a mausoleum of Frederic III. which cost 40,000 ducats, and a monument in honour of prince Eugene of Savoy. Near it is a palace of the archbishop. In a chapel belonging to the Capuchins, the princes of the royal family are buried, without pomp, with hardly their names over their tombs. The university of Vienna was instituted in the year 1365, from a college founded about a century before, and is divided into four faculties and four nations, Austrian, Saxon, Hungarian, and Rhenish. It has been much improved since the year 1752. The books in the library are not very numerous; it is open two or three hours morning and afternoon. The imperial library contains about 5000 or 6000 volumes, printed in the 15th century, rare manuscripts, and a very extensive and valuable collection of prints, and is well furnished with useful modern books. It is open three or four hours every morning to the public. The imperial cabinet is very rich in medals, and still more so in natural history. The Academy of Arts is divided into seven classes, each of which has its own professor. A taste for music is likewise very general; and the theatre at Vienna has been liberally encouraged. It must be acknowledged, however, that liberty does not flourish here. It is said that the list of prohibited books is scarcely exceeded by that of the Index Expurgatorius at Rome. Nevertheless it has an university, as we have already mentioned, and some considerable schools, principally with a view to commerce. Education needs or demands greater encouragement. The people are in general honest, and simple in their manners. Their ruling propensity is that for luxurious living, both as to food and drink. The women are handsome, and mild in their manners. They love dress, and are addicted to luxury. Music is the principal object of their attention. The Augarten and the Prater are the principal promenades. The police of Vienna is so well conducted, that the streets are remarkably quiet and orderly, so that as early as ten o'clock at night silence prevails. The suburbs are far larger than the city itself. They are adorned with a great number of spacious gardens, and many of the buildings occupy a large space of ground. They lie round it, but are removed to the distance of 500 or 600 common paces from the works of the fort. The line which incloses them and extends on both sides to Leopoldstadt, was, in the year 1794, thrown up against the Hungarian rebels, and afterwards lined with bricks, the gates and entries to it being always kept by regular guards. These suburbs stand for the most part under the jurisdiction of the town-council, to whom an appeal lies from the sentence of the judge and his assessors, with which each suburb is provided. Of them, Leopoldstadt is the largest and chiefest. It lies next the town, on an island in the Danube, being formerly called the Jews' town; but the emperor Leopold, in 1670, having driven that people from thence, it took its name from him. It contains one parish church, two cloisters, the old imperial favorite, a citadel, which, in 1683, was miserably laid waste by the Turks, and but a small part of it repaired; together with the adjoining extensive au-garden, and many considerable fine houses and gardens. On an island in the Danube, well planted with wood, is the Prater, or imperial park, and to the S. is the chapel of Herenhartz, much frequented in

Vol. XXXVII.

Lent for the sake of amusement as well as of devotion. In one of the suburbs is the palace of Belvedere, which formerly belonged to prince Eugene; and at the distance of a few miles stands Schombrun, another imperial palace. The garrison of Vienna consists of one regiment of foot. Provisions are brought to Vienna from the different parts of Austria, and other countries belonging to the emperor, in the greatest plenty and variety. The police pays particular attention to the supply of provisions, and often inspects the markets, and the weights and measures of the dealers. A modern traveller says, he has seen a score of wild hogs and a dozen stags in the game-market at the same time, and hares, literally, by cart-loads, with abundance of pheasants and partridges. Every kind of bird seems to be an article of food, and none rejected; hawks, jays, magpies, are brought to market, and even the bulfinch and robin are not spared. The lovers of geese are esteemed a great delicacy; and in the fish-market are found, with sturgeon, carp, pike, tench, and trout, tortoises, frogs, and snails. The manufactures of Vienna are numerous; that of cotton on the increase, that of silk much regarded, and embroidery encouraged. The people of Vienna, upon the whole industrious, excel in manufactures of steel, carriages of all sorts, silk, ribbands, harnesses, saddles, &c. The inland commerce, carried on by the Danube, is not inconsiderable. The people delight in the combats of wild beasts and of bulls. Vienna owes its first aggrandizement to Henry I. duke of Austria, who, about 1142, made it the place of his residence; it was then a town, and in 1158 was surrounded with walls. In 1198 it obtained its municipal privileges, and was better fortified. The mortality of this city is thought to be greater than that of any other place in Europe; and it is commonly said that one in twenty dies annually: a late traveller, Küttner, supposes the mortality much greater. Although Vienna be much exposed to the N. and E. winds, yet the southern hills serve as a fence against the rain, so that the traveller rather complains of dust than of moisture. The summer heats, on account of its situation in the midst of hills and mountains, which collect much snow and ice in winter, last only about two months, and in winter the cold is often very severe. The pleasantness of the environs is said to be much enhanced by the happy aspect of the Austrian peasantry of this city. The number of those who fall victims to pulmonary diseases is very large, and many have been carried away by the small-pox, the ravages of which, it is hoped, will be restrained by the introduction of the practice of inoculation for the cow-pox. The establishments for the relief of the sick are very numerous; such are the Great Hospital, which in 1796 received 11,860 patients; and within its walls is contained a pathological museum; the hospital for lying-in-women, which in the above-mentioned year received 1904 women; the lunatic hospital, which in the same year accommodated 261 insane persons; a military hospital; and an hospital for Jews, excellently managed. The suburbs of the town, according to a singular and useful institution founded by Leopold, are divided into eight districts, each of which has its physician, surgeon, and midwife, all paid by government, whose office it is to visit the poor at their own houses. In the year after its establishment this institution was extended to the whole city. Another institution has the charge of diseased children under ten years of age. In 1796 it was ordained, with a view to the public health, that no new-built house should be inhabited before the physician of the district had examined whether the walls were sufficiently dry; 175 miles S. of Prague. N. lat. 48° 13'. E. long. 16° 23'.

VIENNA, a port of entry and post-town of the eastern shore

shore of Maryland, in Dorchester county, on the W. side of Nanticoke river, about fifteen miles from its mouth. It contains about thirty houses, and carries on a brisk trade with the neighbouring sea-ports, in lumber, corn, wheat, &c.; 15 miles N.W. of Salisbury, and 120 from Washington.—Alfo, the capital of Greene county, Kentucky, on the N. side of Green river; about 158 miles W.S.W. of Lexington.—Alfo, a town of Kennebeck county, in the district of Maine, incorporated in 1802, including the late plantations of Goshen and Wyman: the number of inhabitants is 417.—Alfo, a post-town in Abbeville county, South Carolina; 651 miles from Washington.—Alfo, a town in Ohio county, Kentucky, containing 26 inhabitants.

VIENNE, a town of France, and principal place of a district, in the department of the Ière, situated on the left side of the Rhône, over which was formerly a stone-bridge, built in the year 1265, now destroyed. A Roman colony was established here, and called Vienna Allobrogum. In the fifth century it was taken by the Burgundians, and the kings made it their place of residence. In the ninth century it was the capital of the kingdom of Provence. It was afterwards erected into an archbishopric, and became the capital of a province called Viennois, in which state it remained till the revolution, when the archbishopric was suppressed. In 1311, a council was held here by order of pope Clement V. in which, among other matters, the suppression of the knights Templars was determined; 10 posts N. of Valence. N. lat. $45^{\circ} 32'$. E. long. $4^{\circ} 58'$.

VIENNE, a town of France, in the department of the Loir and Cher, on the south side of the Loire, opposite Blois.

VIENNE, a river of France, which rises about three miles E. of Tarnac, on the borders of the departments of the Creuze and the Creufe, passes by or near to Tarnac, Aimoutier, St. Leonard, Limoges, Aix, St. Julien, Chabanois, Confolent, St. Germain sur Vienne, Availle, Isle Jourdain, Lufac, Chavigny, Châtellerault, Isle Bouchard, Chinon, &c. and joins the Loire, in the department of the Indre and Loire, about five miles above Saumur.

VIENNE, one of the nine departments of the western region of France, formerly a part of Poitou, in $46^{\circ} 30'$ N. lat., bounded on the N. and N.E. by the department of the Indre and Loire, on the E. by the department of the Indre, on the S. by the departments of the Charente and Upper Vienne, and on the W. by the department of the Two Sevrès. The department of the Maine and Loire joins it a little to the N.W. The territorial extent of this department is 7340 kilometres, or 364 square leagues, and it contains 250,807 inhabitants. It is divided into 5 circles or districts, 31 cantons, and 344 communes. The circles are Loudun, comprehending 32,256 inhabitants; Châtellerault, 46,518; Montmorillon, 48,570; Civray, 38,971; and Poitiers, 84,492. Its capital is Poitiers. According to Haffenfratz, its extent in French leagues is 21 in length, and 13 in breadth; its circles are 6, its cantons 49, and its population 257,953. Its contributions in the 11th year of the French era amounted to 1,979,952 fr.; and its expences, administrative, judiciary, and for public instruction, to 280,570 fr. 35 cents. This department is diversified with hills, plains, heaths, and cultivated lands, yielding grain, wine, fruits, flax, and good pastures. It has considerable forests.

VIENNE, *Upper*, one of the nine departments of the upper region of France, formerly Limosin, in 46° N. lat., bounded on the N. by the departments of the Vienne and Indre, on the E. by the department of the Creufe, on the S.E. by the same department, on the S.W. by the

department of the Dordogne, and on the W. by the department of the Charente. The territorial extent of this department is $6002\frac{1}{2}$ kilometres, or 288 square leagues, and its population consists of 259,795 inhabitants. It is divided into 4 circles, 26 cantons, and 224 communes. Its circles are Bellac, including 85,388 inhabitants; Limoges, 92,637; St. Yrieux, 38,251; and Rochechouart, 43,519. Its capital is Limoges. According to Haffenfratz, it is in length 26 French leagues, and in breadth 12; its circles are 5, and cantons 40, and the number of its inhabitants 266,910. The contributions of this department, in the 11th year of the French era, amounted to 1,641,147 fr.; and its expences, administrative, judiciary, and for public instruction, were 241,803 fr. 33 cents. The soil of this department is, in general, of an indifferent quality; yielding rye, little wheat, and tolerable pastures. The hills are covered with chefnut-trees and woods. Here are mines of iron, lead, copper, coal, and quarries of marble.

VIENNE le Château, a town of France, in the department of the Marne; 6 miles N. of St. Menehould.

VIENS, a town of France, in the department of the Mouths of the Rhône; 3 miles E.N.E. of Apt.

VIEPREZ, a river of Poland, which rises 16 miles W. of Lublin, and runs into the Vistula near Stezicza, in the palatinate of Sandomirz.

VIEPRIE, a town of the Popedom, in the duchy of Spoleto; 5 miles N.E. of Todi.

VIERINGEN, or WIERINGEN, an island in the Zuyder See, of an oval form; about six miles in length, and, where widest, rather more than two in breadth; 6 miles S.E. from the Texel.

VIERRADEN, a town of Brandenburg, in the Ucker Mark, on the Welfe, near its union with the Oder; 24 miles S.E. of Prenzlau.

VIERUEDRUM, or VERVEDRUM, in *Ancient Geography*, a promontory of the ile of Albion, according to Ptolemy.

VIERZON, in *Geography*, a town of France, and principal place of a district, in the department of the Cher, near the conflux of the Eure and Cher; 11 posts S. of Orleans. N. lat. $47^{\circ} 13'$. E. long. $2^{\circ} 9'$.

VIESCAS, a town of Spain, in the kingdom of Aragon; 10 miles from Jaca.

VIESCHORN, a mountain of Switzerland, in the canton of Bern, and bailiwick of Grindelwald.

VIEST, or UJEST, or *Oyest*, a town of Silesia, in the principality of Oppeln; 14 miles W.N.W. of Gleiwitz.

VIESTI, a town of Naples, in Capitanata, on the coast of the Adriatic, the see of a bishop, suffragan of Manfredonia; 29 miles N.N.E. of Manfredonia. N. lat. $41^{\circ} 56'$. E. long. $33^{\circ} 52'$.

VIETA, FRANCIS, in *Biography*, a very eminent mathematician of the 16th century, was born at Fontenai, in Poitou, in the year 1540. Although he occupied the post of master of requests at Paris, and his time and attention were much engaged by the duties of his office, he was indefatigable in his application to mathematical studies; so that he is said to have remained in his apartment for three days, without either eating or sleeping. In his writings he manifests great originality of genius, as well as invention. For a brief account of his improvements in *algebra*, we refer to that article. On other branches of the mathematics, besides those that may be denominated analytical, he bestowed much attention and labour; and whilst he collected and detailed what others had done before him, he enlarged the boundaries of science, and made some important and useful additions

additions to the flock of knowledge which had been amassed by his predecessors. In this respect he was not a mere labourer, but original and ingenious in his communications. His treatise on "Angular Sections" is a performance which enabled him to resolve a curious problem, propounded by Adrian Romanus to mathematicians, and which amounted to an equation of the 45th degree. Romanus was so impressed by his sagacity, that he travelled from Wirtemberg in Franconia, where he resided, as far as France, in order to visit Vieta, and cultivate friendship with him. His "Apollonius Gallus," or reformation of Apollonius's tract on Tangencies, not to mention other pieces that may be found in his works, displays powers of invention, eminently adapted to the more sublime geometrical speculations. His tracts on trigonometry, plane and spherical, with the tables annexed to them, were important and valuable at the time when they were published, and without doubt led the way to farther modern improvements. We have no reason for believing that Vieta was irritable and querulous; but his disputes with Scaliger and Clavius, more especially with the latter, did him no honour. Scaliger pretended to quadrature the circle, an operation for which he was altogether incompetent, and Vieta evinced his incapacity. With Clavius he had a contest about the emendation of the Gregorian calendar, charging him with ignorance and error; whilst he himself committed mistakes, which Clavius detected. The loss of Vieta's "Harmonicon Celeste," entrusted with father Merenne, and surreptitiously taken from him, has been much deplored. Others of his works have also been lost, which has been probably owing to his causing few to be printed, and retaining them in his own custody, those excepted which he distributed among his friends and persons of science. Vieta was profoundly skilled in the art of deciphering, which he employed with advantage to his country. Vieta, notwithstanding the intemperance and assiduity of his application, passed his grand climacteric, and died at Paris in December, 1603. After his death, some of his MSS. were published by Alexander Anderfon, an ingenious Scots mathematician, a native of Aberdeen; and in 1646, Schooten gave an edition of all his works which he was able to collect. Montucla. Hutton.

VIETRI, in *Geography*, a town of Naples, in Principato Citra; 2 miles N.N.E. of Cangiano.—Also, a town of Naples, in Principato Citra. In 1694 it was destroyed by an earthquake; 2 miles W. of Salerno.

VIEUSSENS, RAYMOND, F.R.S., in *Biography*, was born at a village in Rovergue, and having commenced his education at Rhodéz, he pursued the study of physic at Montpellier, where he graduated. In 1671 he was chosen physician to the hospital of St. Eloy. The result of his anatomical researches in this situation was published under the title of "Neurology," and gained him great reputation. His name became known at court, and Mad. de Montpensier, in 1690, chose him as her physician. After her death he returned to Montpellier, and directing his attention to chemistry, he found an acid in the caput mortuum of human blood; and on this imagined discovery founded a theory, which he communicated to the different schools of medicine. In advanced life his writings were multiplied, without augmenting his reputation. He died in 1726. His most valuable work is his "Neurologia Universalis," Lyons, 1685, folio, which is commended by Haller, and which exhibits a more accurate dissection of the brain than that of any preceding writers. After his death appeared "Histoire des Maladies internes," 4to., containing many practical observations. Haller. Eloy.

VIEUSSEUXIA, in *Botany*, was so called by Dr.

Daniel de la Roche, in his inaugural dissertation, published at Leyden in 1766, in honour of his countryman and friend M. Vieusseux, an excellent botanist; of whom, however, we know not that the world has heard any thing further, or that he has written any thing relative to this science. The genus in question was thought, by its truly intelligent and ingenious author, to be intermediate between *Iris* and *Ferraria*. It has not been adopted by Thunberg, Ker, or any of our popular botanists, who have declined separating it from *Iris*, there appearing no distinctive character, except the filaments being united into a tube. The learned Decandolle, on the contrary, has adopted *Vieusseuxia*, in Ann. du Mus. v. 2. 141. t. 42. He is followed by Redouté, who figures the same species, *V. glaucopis*, in his *Liliacées*, v. 1. t. 42, and mentions seven species in all; as well as by Desfontaines, in his recently-published Tableau de l'Ecole de Botanique du Jardin du Roi, ed. 2. 37. Most, if not all, of the plants supposed to constitute the above genus, are, we believe, comprehended as varieties by Thunberg under his *Iris tricuifis*. See his dissertation on *Iris*, p. 15; also Willd. Sp. Pl. v. 1. 231.

VIEUX MAISONS, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Aisne; 6 miles W. of Montmirail.

VIEUX MARCHE, a town of France, in the department of the North Coast; 8 miles S. of Lannion.

VIEVY, a town of France, in the department of the Côte d'Or; 6 miles S. of Arnay le Duc.

VIEW, VISUS, in *Law*, the act of *viewing*, or *viewers*.

This is called by Bracton, "Res quasi sacra, quia solam personam regis respiciat, et introducta pro pace, et communi utilitate."

When a real action is brought, and the tenant knows not well what the land is, that the demandant asks; he may pray the view: which is, that the jury may *see* the land which is claimed.

This course of proceeding we received from the Normans, as appears by the Grand Customary. It is used in various cases; as in affize of rent-services, rent-charge, rent-sec; in a writ of nuisance; in a writ quo jure; in the writ de rationabilibus divisis, &c. See JURY.

VIEW of *Frank Pledge*, *Vifus Franci Plegii*, is the office which the sheriff in his county-court, or the bailiff in his hundred, performs; in looking to the king's peace, and seeing that every man be in some pledge. See COURT-LEET, and FRANK-PLEDGE.

VIEW, in matters of *Optics*, *Perspective*, &c. See VISION.

VIEW, *Point of*. See POINT.

VIEW, among *Hunters*, the track, or print of the feet, of a fallow deer on the ground.

VIEW a *Place*, *To*, in the *Military Art*, is to ride about it, before the laying of a siege, in order to observe the strength or weakness of its situation and fortification.

VIEWERS, or VEIORS, in *Law*. See VEIORS.

VIEYRA, ANTONY, in *Biography*, a Portuguese writer, was born at Lisbon in 1608, and in early life accompanied his father to the Brasils. His genius at the age of fourteen began to display itself to a degree that excited the astonishment of his tutors. In 1623 he entered into the society of Jesus, and having carefully read the scriptures, the works of the fathers, and the Summa Aquinatis, he composed some tracts, and gave lectures in the college of Bahia. At this time he was tutor to the son of the viceroy of Brasil, the marquis of Montalvan; and in 1641 accompanied him to Europe. At Lisbon he distinguished himself in the pulpit, and was appointed by John IV. preacher to the court. The king, discovering also his talents for public affairs, deputed him, in 1646, on important business to England,

England, Holland, and France, and also to the court of Rome. For the services rendered in these missions he was offered a bishopric, which he declined accepting, and requested only to be employed as a missionary among the savages in the forests of Maraganan. The king demurred against acceding to this proposal, but urged him to accept a bishopric, which he still refused; but with some other Jesuits he embarked in a ship, in order to proceed to Maraganan. Soon after his arrival there in 1653, he was sent to Portugal, in order to obtain an order from the king, that the Portuguese settled in the Brasils should treat the Indians with less cruelty. He succeeded in the object of his mission, but he was not allowed to return to America, though he went thither some time after; and in less than six years, in a district more than 600 miles in extent, he formed an establishment similar to that in Paraguay. There the Indians were instructed, and availing themselves of their knowledge, began to live like men, and to practise the virtues which Christianity taught them. The Portuguese residing in Brasil were alarmed, and could not bear that the Indians, whom they treated as slaves, should enjoy the blessings of liberty: they, therefore, seized Vieira and his attendants, and transported them to Portugal, under a charge of their joining the Dutch in forming a plan for expelling all the Portuguese from Brasil. Vieira and his associates were able to prove their innocence, and succeeded in obtaining the reinstatement of all their brethren in the colleges and other establishments of Maraganan. Vieira remained in Portugal, and, at the desire of the queen and ministers of state, drew up a remonstrance, which was presented to king Alphonso, respecting the irregularities and abuses that prevailed in the kingdom. The king's favourites were incensed, and, in 1663, those who were attached to the queen, and who wished to promote the welfare of the nation, were sent into banishment. Vieira was first conveyed to Oporto, and soon after to Coimbra; and for the more certain and speedy decision of his fate, he was committed into the hands of the inquisition. Many charges were alleged against him; however, in 1667, when the influence of the favourites terminated, he was freed from the inquisition, and sent to Lisbon. He was merely forbidden to preach; but this prohibition was revoked, when the queen, Maria Isabella of Savoy, and the infant Don Pedro, then regent of the kingdom, expressed a wish to hear him. In 1669 he was called to Rome, and preached before queen Christina of Sweden, who was so much pleased that she invited him to the conversaziones held in her palace, and requested him to become her confessor. But finding the air prejudicial to his health, he returned to Lisbon, after having obtained from pope Clement X. a letter of exculpation, freeing him from the jurisdiction of the inquisition, and rendering him immediately amenable to the college of cardinals. Vieira, upon the recovery of his health, set sail for Brasil; and being incapable, on account of his advanced age, of superintending the mission of Maraganan, of which he had been long superior general, he spent his time in revising his writings, and preparing for the termination of his life, which happened at Bahia in 1697, when he had attained nearly the 90th year of his age. His interment was conducted with great pomp, his coffin being borne to the grave by the viceroy and his son, and other persons of distinction. The Portuguese consider Vieira as the best writer their country ever produced. His works were published at Lisbon between 1679 and 1718, in 14 quarto volumes. *Gen. Biog.*

VIF, Fr., in *Musie*, lively. See VIVACE. This word, says Rousseau, implies a movement, gay, cheerful, and animated; and requires a bold execution, full of fire.

VIR, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Isere; 9 miles S. of Grenoble.

VIFALU, a town of Hungary; 16 miles S.S.E. of Ketskemet.

VIG, a lake of Russia, in the government of Olonetz. N. lat. $63^{\circ} 30'$. E. long. $34^{\circ} 14'$.—Also, a river of Russia, which passes through lake Vig, and runs into the White sea, 20 miles S. of Kemi.

VIGAN, LE, a town of France, in the department of the Lot; 17 miles N. of Cahors.—Also, a town of France, and principal place of a district, in the department of the Gard; 36 miles W.N.W. of Nîmes. N. lat. $43^{\circ} 59'$. E. long. $3^{\circ} 40'$.

VIGANONI, GIUSEPPE, in *Biography*, a tenor singer in the Italian opera, first arrived in England in 1782, as first man in the comic opera, in which part Lovatini had rendered us very difficult to be pleased. Trebbi, his immediate successor, was a very useful performer, as he occasionally had a part assigned him in the serious opera; but he excited no raptures in either serious or comic parts. And Jermoli and Tafca, his successors, were still less interesting. The fame might perhaps be said of Viganoni, with a small diminution of praise. His singing did not appear to us in a style of expression that was genuine Italian; it seemed to favour of German or French expression, or of both.

On his second arrival in London, he had less voice than when he came here first; but more knowledge of music, a greater variety of embellishments, and more use of the stage. His voice was never powerful, and now he had more falset than real notes in his scale; and such a rage for gracing and changing passages, that he scarcely ever let the audience hear a single passage as it was written by the composer. He certainly knew his business, and was a good musician; but his style of singing was what painters would call *maniére*: for with all his *riefforamenti*, or embellishments, of which he was so lavish, his performance seemed monotonous.

VIGASIO, in *Geography*, a town of Italy, in the Veronese; 10 miles S. of Verona.

VIGENNE, a river of France, which runs into the Saône, at Talmey.

VIGEOIS, a town of France, in the department of the Correze, on the Vezere; 4 miles S. of Uzerches.

VIGER, an island in the North sea, on the coast of Norway; 10 miles round. N. lat. $62^{\circ} 35'$. E. long. $6^{\circ} 30'$.

VIGESIMA, among the Romans, a tax of the twentieth part of the yearly incomes of all inheritances. It was first established by Augustus.

VIGESIMA was likewise a custom paid for slaves sold, as also for one made free.

VIGESIMARIUS, among the Romans, an officer who had the management of collecting the vigesima.

VIGEVANO, in *Geography*, a town of Italy, in the department of the Gogna, capital of a small district, in the principality of Piedmont, lying between the Novarese and the Lumelline, on the Tefin, the see of a bishop, suffragan of Milan; 13 miles S.E. of Novara. N. lat. $45^{\circ} 19'$. E. long. $8^{\circ} 53'$.

VIGGIANO, a town of the island of Corsica, in the district of Tallano.

VIGHIZZOLA, a town of Italy, in the Paduan, near a lake which abounds in fish, especially eels; 16 miles S. of Padua.

VIGIA, a town of Brasil, in the government of Para; 50 miles N.N.E. of Para.—Also, a rock near the south coast of Cuba. N. lat. $21^{\circ} 32'$. W. long. $84^{\circ} 32'$.—Also, a rock

a rock near the south coast of Cuba. N. lat. 20° 53'. W. long. 80° 55'.

VIGIL, or **EVE**, in *Church Chronology*, the day before any feast, &c.

Though the civil day begins at midnight, yet the ecclesiastical or scriptural day begins at six o'clock in the evening, and holds till six in the evening the ensuing day.

Hence, the collect for every Sunday and holiday, by order of the church, is to be read, at the preceding evening service, that is, at six o'clock the day before; from which time the religious day was supposed to begin.

And this first part of the holiday, from six o'clock the day before, was by the primitive Christians, spent in hymns, and other devotions; and, being often continued till late in the night, was called *vigil*.

These vigils came by degrees to be so enlarged, that, at last, all the day preceding the holiday was called by the name.

The origin of vigils is deduced by Forbes from a custom in the ancient church, for the people, both men and women, to meet together in the evening before Easter-day, and watch and pray, as expecting the coming of our Lord, who was to rise early in the morning. This practice, Tertullian observes, *ad uxorem*, afterwards got to other feasts, and saints' days. But abuses creeping in, they were forbidden by a council, in 1322, and, in lieu of them, fastings were instituted on the day before, though still called by the ancient name of vigils. See **WAKES**.

VIGIL. *Coma*. See **COMA**.

VIGILANTIUS, in *Biography*, an ecclesiastical of the fifth century, was born in Gaul, and removing to Spain, became a parish priest in the diocese of Barcelona. He is said to have written treatises on religious subjects in a polished style; but he incurred the censure of Dupin, because he exposed several superstitions of the time in which he lived. After his return from a voyage to Palestine and Egypt, he propagated opinions that were hostile to the corrupt state of Christianity at that period. He denied that the tombs and remains of the martyrs are entitled to any kind of adoration, and censured pilgrimages to holy places. He derided the miracles pretended to be wrought at the shrines of martyrs, and condemned the nocturnal assemblies held at such places. He affirmed that the practice of burning tapers by day-light at the tombs of holy persons was a superstition, borrowed from the Pagans; that prayers addressed to departed saints were of no avail; and he spoke with contempt of fastings and mortifications, the celibacy of the clergy, and the austerities of monastic life. He also asserted, that the voluntary poverty of those who distribute all their substance to the poor, and the practice of sending donations to Jerusalem for pious purposes, are in no respect acceptable to the Deity. These opinions were favourably received by several of the bishops in Gaul and Spain; but Jerom, the great advocate for monkish discipline, censured them with severity, and rancorously abused Vigilantius for adopting and propagating them. His opposition, and that of persons of similar sentiments prevailed, and prevented every kind of reform. The resentment and hostility of Jerom, to whom Vigilantius had been recommended by Paulinus, seem to have commenced with his declaring himself an enemy to superstition. Bayle. Dupin. Mofheim.

VIGILIA, in *Ancient Chronology*. See **WATCH**.

VIGILIA, that state of an animal which is opposite to sleep, and is popularly called *waking* or *watching*. See **SLEEP** and **WATCHING**.

VIGILIE, in *Antiquity*, denote the watches and guards among the Roman soldiers, who performed duty by night,

in contradistinction to the *excubie*, who kept guard by day, either in the camp, or at the gates and intrenchments: of these last there seem to have been assigned one company of foot and one troop of horse to each of the four gates every day; and it was a most unpardonable crime to desert their post, and to abandon their corps of guards. In the camp, there was allowed a whole manipulus to attend before the prætorium, and four soldiers to the tent of every tribune. The night-guards assigned to the general and tribunes were of the same nature as those in the day. But the proper vigils were four in every manipulus, keeping guard three hours, and then relieved by four others; so that there were four sets in the night, according to the four watches, which took their name from this custom. The night-guard was set by a tally or tessera, with a particular inscription given from one centurion to another through the army, till it came again to the tribune who first delivered it. Upon the receipt of this, the guard was immediately set. But because this regulation was not sufficient, they had the *circulio vigilum*, or a visiting of the watch, commonly performed about four times in the night by some of the horse. Upon extraordinary occasions, the tribunes and lieutenant-generals, and sometimes the general himself, made these circuits in person, and took a strict view of the watch in every part of the camp. Kennet's *Ant. Rom.* p. 206.

VIGILIE Florum, in *Botany*, a term used by Linnæus to express a peculiar faculty, belonging to the flowers of several plants, of opening and closing their petals at certain hours of the day. Previous to the explanation of this phenomenon, it is necessary to observe, that the flowers of most plants, after they are once opened, continue so night and day, until they drop off, or die away. Several others, which shut in the night-time, open in the morning sooner or later, according to their respective situation in the sun or shade, or as they are influenced by the manifest changes of the atmosphere. But the class of flowers, to which this article refers, open and shut regularly at certain hours, exclusive of any manifest changes in the atmosphere. This property is so evident in one of our common English plants, the *tragothon luteum*, that our country people have called it *John-go-to-bed-at-noon*. Linnæus's observations in the *Philosophia Botanica*, p. 273, extend to near fifty species, which are subject to this law: such are the male pimpernel, the blue-flowered pimpernel with narrow leaves, the little blue convolvulus or bindweed, the day-lily, the profliferous pink, the common purslain, the white-water-lily, the garden lettuce, the dandelion, the rough dandelion, several species of hawkweeds, wild fucerry, wild marygold, &c. See an account of this phenomenon by Dr. Pulteney, in *Phil. Trans.* vol. I. p. 506, &c. See also **SLEEP** of *Plants*.

VIGILIUM PREFECTUS. See **PREFECT**.

VIGILIUS, in *Biography*, a pope, was raised to the pontificate by the empress Theodora, when his predecessor Silverius did not answer her purpose, on certain stipulated conditions, to which a person like him, destitute of principle, could have no objection. He was, therefore, sent from Constantinople to Italy with a sum of gold, and an order to Belisarius, then master of Rome, to depose Silverius, and to elect Vigilius. Accordingly the measure was accomplished in November 537: Silverius was banished, and Vigilius, a Roman by birth of a noble family, was ordained to the see of Rome. Silverius appealed to the emperor Justinian, and obtained an order for a rehearing; but upon his return to Rome, he was banished to a distant island, in consequence of the intrigues of Vigilius, and there died in 538. After the death of Silverius, the church of Rome acknowledged Vigilius as lawful pope. Although he punctually

punctually fulfilled his engagements to the emperors, he wrote a letter to the emperor, in which he solemnly professed the orthodox faith; and in another letter to the patriarch of Constantinople, he commended him for his zeal in favour of the council of Chalcedon, which by his engagement to Theodora he condemned, and anathematized as heretics those persons whom he had lately admitted to his communion. The emperor Justinian, fond of exercising authority in matters of faith, was induced, in 542, to issue an edict, condemning the writings of certain prelates who were inclined to the Nestorian tenets, famous under the appellation of "The Three Chapters;" and his edict was received by almost all the Eastern bishops. Vigilius, at the head of those of the Western churches, refused to concur in what they conceived to be an assumption of authority in matters of faith, which belonged only to a general council. Upon this resistance, Vigilius was summoned by the emperor to repair to Constantinople. He left Rome amidst the curses of the people, who charged him with enormous crimes, and arrived at Constantinople in the beginning of the year 547. At first he declared against the imperial edict, and excluded from his communion the patriarch and all the bishops who had subscribed it. The emperor's measures, however, caused him to waver; and at a council held at Constantinople, he issued a decree, entitled "Judicatum," in which the "Three Chapters" were formally condemned. But when he found that this decree excited a great opposition on the part of the Western bishops, he got it revoked, under a pretence of referring the matter to a general council. Without stating the violence and coercion of the emperor on the one hand, or the resistance and tergiversation of the pope on the other, it will be sufficient to observe, that after Vigilius had a fourth time changed his declaration relating to the "Three Chapters," which he finally condemned by a solemn constitution, he was permitted to return to Rome, which had been in the mean time sacked by Totila, and recovered by Narses. But during his voyage he was seized with a fit of the stone, and obliged to land in Sicily, where he died in 555. A summary of the letters of this pope, still extant, is given by Dupin. Bower. Dupin. Mosheim.

VIGINTIVIRATE, a dignity among the ancient Romans, established by Cæsar.

This dignity comprehended four others; for of the vigintiviri, or twenty men which composed the company, there were three who sat and judged all criminal affairs; three others had the inspection of the coins and coinage; four took care of the streets of Rome; and the rest were judges of civil affairs.

VIGLES, in *Geography*, a town and castle of Hungary; 5 miles S.S.E. of Altsof.

VIGNACOURT, a town of France, in the department of the Somme; 9 miles N.W. of Amiens.

VIGNAIS, or **VINHAEIS**, a town of Portugal, in the province of Tra los Montes; 15 miles W. of Bragança.

VIGNE, **ANDREW DE LA**, in *Biography*, a French writer of the 15th century, bore arms under Charles VIII., and was secretary to his queen, Anne of Brittany. In conjunction with Jaligni, he composed a "History of Charles VIII.," folio, printed at the Louvre, under the care and with the notes of Denis Godefroy. He also wrote "Vergier d'Honneur," Paris, 1495, containing an exact account of the expedition of Charles VIII. against Naples, at which he was present. *Nouv. Dict. Hist.*

VIGNE, **ANNE DE LA**, a French poetess, was born in 1634 at Vernon-sur-Seine. Her talent for poetry appeared

so soon, that Pelisson said of her, she seemed to have been suckled by the Muses. Menage compliments her with having surpassed the ancients, and excited the jealousy of the moderns, by the beauty and sonorousness of her verse. She is said to have united the study of philosophy with that of polite literature, and her character is represented as no less estimable than her talents. Huet speaks highly of her cheerfulness and amenity, notwithstanding the feebleness of her constitution, and the pains she suffered. She closed life under the anguish of a calculous complaint in 1684, at the age of 50. Her principal pieces are an ode, entitled "Monseigneur le Dauphin au Roi," for which she received from a person unknown a lyre in gold enamelled, with a copy of verses in her praise; "Ode à Mademoiselle de Scudery;" "Reponne à Mademoiselle Descartes;" and several other "Pièces de Vers," collected in a small octavo. *Moréri. Huet. Gen. Biog.*

VIGNE, **PIERRE DELLE**, a celebrated minister of the emperor Frederic II., was born of mean parentage in Capua, at the end of the twelfth century; and having pursued his studies to good effect as a mendicant scholar at Bologna, he was introduced to Frederic II., and ingratiated himself with this prince to such a degree, that he gave him a lodging in his court, and the opportunity of further improvement. He became a proficient in civil and canon law, and acquired an elegant style of writing, so that he was advanced by the emperor to the posts of protonotary of his court, judge, and chancellor; and he became the confidant of all his designs. His ability and learning raised him to the highest reputation, and his influence in the court of Frederic was boundless. The emperor afforded him opportunity of amassing immense treasures, and employed him in a variety of the most important embassies, which our limits will not allow us to recount. But before the close of his life, he lost the emperor's attachment and confidence, for which various reasons, none of which are satisfactory, have been assigned. To the jealousy and envy of court attendants, the fall of favourites may often be justly ascribed. Whatever was the cause in this instance, Vigne suffered severely under his master's displeasure: he was deprived of sight, and shut up in prison; and sinking into despair, he put an end to his life. The time of his death is not known. The chronicle of Placentia dates his being blinded in 1248. Six books of letters remain, which Tiraboschi regards as one of the most valuable monuments of the 13th century. The last edition of them is that of Basil, in 1740. He also collected and arranged the laws of the kingdom of Sicily; and to him are attributed a work "Concerning the Imperial Authority," and a book "On Consolation," in imitation of that of Boethius. He also composed some Italian poems. *Gen. Biog.*

VIGNETTE, in the art of *Printing*, is a French word, now often used among English artists and writers, to denote the flourish or ornament placed at the beginning of a book, preface, or dedication. These vignettes or head-pieces are very various in their form and size. See the description of *PRINTING-Press*.

VIGNIER, **NICOLAS**, in *Biography*, an historian and chronologist, was born at Bar-sur-Seine in 1530, and brought up a Protestant. Having lost his property in the civil wars, he withdrew to Germany, and practised physic with reputation and advantage. Upon his return to France, he conformed to the established religion, and was appointed physician to the king, as well as historiographer-royal. One of the most curious of his works is his "Traité de l'Origine et Demeure des anciens Français," 1582, 4to., which was translated into Latin by Andrew du Chesne. His other works may be consulted with advantage by those who

who wish to acquaint themselves with French history. This writer died in 1595. Moreri.

VIGNIER, JEROM, grandson of the preceding, was born at Blois in 1606. He was the son of a Protestant minister, educated in that profession, and designed for the law; but in 1628 he abjured Calvinism, and entered into the congregation of the Oratory. He became superior of several houses in his society, and acquired high reputation for piety as well as for extensive erudition. He was more particularly conversant with the oriental and other languages, with medals and antiquities, and with the genealogy of the sovereign houses of Europe. He died at St. Magliore, in Paris, in 1661. His writings of various kinds were numerous. Moreri.

VIGNOLA, a name commonly given to JAMES BAROZZI, from the place of his birth, a small town in the duchy of Modena, an eminent architect, was born in 1507; and as he discovered an early inclination for the arts, he was sent for education to Bologna. From painting, to which he was first attached, he directed his attention to architecture. By various designs, upon the principles of Vitruvius, some of which he communicated to the historian Guicciardini, he acquired early reputation. With a view to further improvement he went to Rome, and was there admitted into the academy of design, newly founded, and employed by it in measuring the most celebrated remains of antiquity. The abbat Primaticcio, who was sent to Rome in 1537, by Francis I. of France, to procure designs of the ancient buildings and casts of statues, availed himself of the assistance of Vignola; and on his return, took him to France. After two years' residence in France, he returned to Bologna, and was employed in forming a plan for the façade of the church of St. Petronius, which, through the envy of his competitors, was not executed till some years afterwards. In and near this city he built some palaces, and constructed the canal of Naviglio, running thence to Ferrara. Unduly recompensed for this work, he went to Placentia, and planned a palace for the duke of Parma. After his return to Rome in 1550, he built several churches there; and by the interest of Vafari, pope Julius III. appointed him his architect. For him he built a villa, and near it the small church of St. Andrew, in form of an ancient temple; and by his command he brought the Acqua Vergine to Rome. After the death of Julius, he was employed by cardinal Alexander Farnese in the construction of his magnificent palace or castle of Caprarola; and he had also the charge of building the church belonging to the professed house of Jesuits at Rome, which is an edifice of extraordinary beauty and grandeur. It was raised only to the cornice before the death of Vignola, and finished by his disciple James della Porta. After the decease of Michael Angelo, Vignola was appointed to succeed him as architect of St. Peter's, in conjunction with Pirro Ligorio, a Neapolitan. This engagement and his advanced age obliged him to decline accepting an invitation from Philip II. to the court of Spain. He was consulted, however, with regard to the different plans given for the Escorial; and one which he furnished was highly approved, though not adopted. His other professional labours were interrupted by a commission from Gregory XIII. to settle the limits between the territories of the church and those of the duke of Tuscany; which commission he executed to the pope's satisfaction. Upon his return from this service, he was seized with a fever, of which he died in 1573, aged 66. His remains were solemnly interred in the church of Sta Maria della Rotunda, the ancient Pantheon. Vignola acquired reputation as an author no less than as a practical artist.

His "Rules for the five Orders of Architecture" were formed on the purest taste of antiquity, and have been always reckoned classical and original. This work has been often reprinted, and translated into almost all the European languages. The French translation, with the commentaries of Daviler, is most esteemed. Vignola also wrote a treatise on "Practical Perspective," which has passed through many editions. Tiraboschi. D'Argenville. Gen. Biog.

VIGNOLES, ALPHONSO DE, a learned Protestant minister, was born in 1649 at Aubais, in Languedoc, and received his education chiefly under domestic tutors; and for the study of theology he went to Saumur. He officiated as minister, first at Aubais, and then at Cailar. On the revocation of the edict of Nantes, in 1685, he removed to Brandenburg, and served several churches for 14 years. In 1701 he was elected a member of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Berlin; and in 1703, by the recommendation of Leibnitz, the king ordered him to quit his church, and reside at Berlin, that he might be thus more useful to the Academy. He preached, however, for some years at a church in the vicinity of Berlin. Upon the distribution of the members of the Academy into classes, Vignoles was placed first in that of historians, and afterwards in that of mathematicians. In 1727 he was chosen director of the Royal Academy, which post he occupied with distinguished reputation. He died in 1744, at the advanced age of 95. He contributed a variety of essays and dissertations on history, chronology, and antiquities, to the "Bibliothèque Germanique," the "Memoirs of the Berlin Academy," and the "Histoire Critique de la Republique des Lettres." His principal separate work, the result of labour and much erudition, was "Chronologie de l'Histoire sainte, et des Histoires étrangères qui la concernent, depuis la Sortie d'Egypte jusqu'à la Captivité de Babylon," Berlin, 1738, 2 vols. 4to. Moreri.

VIGNOLY, in *Geography*, a town of Naples, in Basilicata; 5 miles S.E. of Potenza.

VIGNORVY, a town of France, in the department of the Upper Marne; 10 miles S. of Joinville.

VIGNOT, a town of France, in the department of the Meuse, on the Meuse; 17 miles E. of Bar le Duc. N. lat. 48° 46'. E. long. 5° 41'.

VIGNUOLA, or VIGNOLA, a town of Italy, in the department of the Panaro; 15 miles S.E. of Modena.

VIGNY, a town of France, in the department of the Seine and Oise; 8 miles W. of Pontoise.

VIGO, GIOVANNI DA, in *Biography*, an eminent surgeon, born in Genoa, and in 1503 invited to Rome by pope Julius II. to be his first surgeon. He also received a considerable pension from the pope's nephew, cardinal della Rovere. His work, entitled, "Practica in Arte Chirurgica copiosa," first published at Rome in 1514, folio, became very popular, and was often reprinted. It is a very full compendium of the art of surgery, (as then known and practised), and contains also a system of anatomy and of materia medica, and was long regarded as a standard work. Another of his works, entitled "Chirurgia Compendiosa," 1517, is a kind of summary of the former, and some new observations. Haller. Eloy.

VIGO, in *Geography*, a sea-port town of Spain, in the province of Galicia, situated on a bay of the Atlantic, defended by a fort on an eminence, but not capable of great resistance. It has also an old castle, and stands in a very fruitful country. In 1589, Vigo was plundered by sir Francis Drake. In 1702, the English and Dutch fleets forced their passage in, and made themselves masters of the Spanish plate-fleet, when just returned from America. In

1719, the English again took possession of the place, but relinquished it after raising contributions; 12 miles N.N.W. of Tuy. N. lat. $42^{\circ} 14'$. W. long. $8^{\circ} 43'$.

VIGOER, a town of Norway, in the province of Bergen; 25 miles E. of Bergen.

VIGOLE, a town of the duchy of Piacenza; 15 miles S. of Piacenza.

VIGOLZANO, a town of the duchy of Piacenza; 8 miles S. of Piacenza.

VIGONE, a town of France, in the department of the Po; 14 miles S.S.W. of Turin.

VIGORETZKOI, a town of Russia, in the government of Olonetz; 20 miles E. of Povenetz.

VIGOROSO, or VIGOROSAMENTE, in the *Italian Music*, is used to direct a performer to sing or play with vigour, strength, and firmness.

VIGTEN, in *Geography*, an island in the North sea, near the coast of Norway. N. lat. $64^{\circ} 55'$. E. long. $11^{\circ} 10'$.

VIGULONE, a town of the duchy of Parma; 15 miles S.S.W. of Parma.

VIHELY, a town of Hungary; 10 miles N.E. of Patak.

VIHIERS, a town of France, and principal place of a district, in the department of the Mayne and Loire; 20 miles S. of Angers. N. lat. $47^{\circ} 9'$. W. long. $27'$.

VIJAR, a town of Spain, in the province of Grenada; 13 miles N.E. of Almeria.

VIJAYA, in *Hindoo Mythology*, is the name of a granddaughter of Brahma, her father being Dakshi. The name Vijaya, like Sarvajaya, means *victrious* or *all-conquering*, and is given to Parvati in some of her martial characters. In some books it is related, that in the process of churning the ocean, as described in our article KURMAVATARA, a flower or plant was produced, called Vijaya, or ever victorious, which Siva kept for his own use.

UIJBO, in *Geography*, a town of South America, in the jurisdiction of Guayaquil.

VIKA, a town of Sweden, in Dalecarlia; 6 miles S.E. of Fahlun.

VIKRAMA, or VIKRAMADITYA, in *Biography*, a celebrated astronomer and legislator of the Hindoos. The era named after him, corrupted into Bickermajit or Beekermajet, is in very extensive use in the East, both among Hindoos and Mahometans; though the latter, of course, generally among themselves adopt that of the Hegira. In the ninth volume of the Asiatic Researches is a learned essay by Mr. Wilford on the era named after this celebrated astronomer, who was a monarch also. His capital was *Ougein*, under which article we have given some account of that very interesting city, and some notice of its royal patron, and his era.

VILAINE, in *Geography*, a river of France, which rises near Ernée, in the department of the Mayenne, passes by Vitré, Châteaubourg, Rennes, Redon, Rieux, la Roche Bernard, &c. and runs into the Atlantic, 9 miles below the last town.

VILAINES, a town of France, in the department of the Côte d'Or; 8 miles S. of Châtillon sur Seine.

VILAR de Belle, a town of France, in the department of the Aude; 12 miles S. of Carcassonne.

VILASAR, a town of Spain, on the south coast of Catalonia; 2 miles W. of Matara.

VILASK, a town of Hungary; 8 miles N. of Libeten.

VILBEL, a town of Germany, in the county of Hanau-Munzenbourg, on the Nidda; 4 miles N. of Frankfort on the Maine.

VILBESTRE, a town of Spain, in the province of Leon; 43 miles S. of Salamanca.

VILCABAMBA, a town of Peru, in the diocese of Cusco; 60 miles N.N.W. of Cusco.—Also, a town of Peru; 70 miles S.S.E. of Cusco.—Also, a town of South America, in the province of Quito; 15 miles S. of Loxa.

VILCAS CUAMAN, or BILCAS, a town of Peru, and principal place of a jurisdiction of the same name, in the bishopric of Guamanga. The air is temperate, and the soil produces corn and fruit, and feeds abundance of cattle. The Indians are industrious, and employed in manufactures of different kinds of stuff.

VILEMERITZ, a town of Croatia; 6 miles S. of Sluin.

VILEPATY, a town of the island of Ceylon; 12 miles W.N.W. of Trinkamaly.

VILEVO, a town of Sclavonia; 34 miles N.W. of Efzek.

VILFA, in *Botany*, an arbitrary name of Adanson's, in his *Fam. des Plantes*, v. 2. 495, adopted by Mr. Kunth, in Humboldt's *Nov. Gen. et Sp. Pl.* v. 1. 137. We cannot account for this adoption, there being nothing to recommend the name. Happily the genus which it designates is Mr. Brown's SPOROBOLUS. See that article.

VILLILLA, in *Geography*, a town of Spain, in the province of Aragon, on the left side of the Ebro; 27 miles S.E. of Saragossa.

VILKIOT, a town of Sweden, in the province of Smaland; 23 miles N.W. of Calmar.

VILL, VILLA. See VILLAGE.

VILLA, a town of Etruria; 13 miles S.S.E. of Pontremoli.—Also, a town of South America, in the province of Paraguay; 90 miles E. of Assumption.—Also, a small island in the Atlantic, near the coast of Brasil. S. lat. $20^{\circ} 9'$.

VILLA, La, a town of New Grenada, on the Madalena; 16 miles N. of Neyba.—Also, a town of Mexico, in the province of Veragua, situated on the river Veragua, with a harbour fit to receive vessels of forty tons.

VILLA Bella, a town of Brasil, in the government of Matto Grosso.

VILLA Boa, a town of Brasil, and capital of the government of Goyas; 450 miles N.W. of Rio Janeiro. S. lat. 17° . W. long. $51^{\circ} 24'$.

VILLA Baim, a town of Portugal, in Alentejo; 4 miles S.W. of Elvas.

VILLA Bana, a town of Spain, in Guipuscoa, on the Orio; 6 miles from Tolosa.

VILLA do Carmo, a town of Brasil, in the government of Minas Geraes; 20 miles E.N.E. of Villa Rica. S. lat. $20^{\circ} 20'$. W. long. $44^{\circ} 30'$.

VILLA Cham, a town of Portugal, in the province of Beira; 11 miles E. of Coimbra.

VILLA Chan, a town of Portugal, in the province of Entre Duero e Minho; 5 miles N.W. of Barcelos.

VILLA Clara, a town of the island of Cuba; 20 miles N.W. of Spiritu Santo.

VILLA de Conde, a sea-port town of Portugal, in the province of Entre Duero e Minho, situated on the N. side of the river Ave; 9 miles E.S.E. of Barcelos. N. lat. $41^{\circ} 23'$. E. long. $8^{\circ} 21'$.

VILLA Diego, a town of Spain, in Old Castile, on the Pisuerga; 8 miles N.N.W. of Burgos.

VILLA Fallet, a town of France, in the department of the Stura; 5 miles N.N.W. of Coni.

VILLA Faustini, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Great Britain, in the fifth Iter of the route of Antonine, between

Columbia

Colonia or Colchester, and Icanos or Chesterford. This station is placed by Camden, Gale, and Baxter, at St. Edmund's Bury, in Suffolk; but Mr. Horsley prefers those copies of the Itinerary which have xxv for the numerals, and fixes it at Dunmow. Wherever it was situated, it probably derived its name from some great Roman called Paulinus having a country seat there.

VILLA Fernanda, in *Geography*, a town of Portugal, in Alentejo; 14 miles E. of Eltremoz.

VILLA Flor, a town of Portugal, in the province of Trallos Montes; 12 miles S.E. of Mirandela.—Also, a town of Portugal, in the province of Alentejo; 7 miles N.N.W. of O Crato.

Villa de Frades, a town of Portugal, in the province of Alentejo; 4 miles N. of Beja.

VILLA Franca, a town of Italy, in the department of the Benaco; 13 miles N. of Mantua.—Also, a town of Spain, in the province of Cordova; 13 miles N.E. of Cordova.—Also, a town of Spain, in Old Castile, on the Tormes; 25 miles S. of Avila.—Also, a town of Spain, in Old Castile; 9 miles S. of Frias.—Also, a town of Spain, in Old Castile; 10 miles E. of Burgos.—Also, a sea-port, and capital of St. Michael, one of the Azores islands. It is the most ancient town in the whole island; and so called from its being at first a free port. Before its harbour lies an island, about a mile in circumference, and towards the sea the town is defended by a fort and some other works. It consists of 1813 hearths, has two parish churches and two convents.—Also, a town of Spain, in the province of Leon; 12 miles N.W. of Ponferrada.—Also, a town of Spain, in the province of Leon; 35 miles W. of Astorga.—Also, a town of Italy, in the Trevisan; 14 miles W. of Treviso.—Also, a town of France, in the department of the Dora; 3 miles S.E. of Aosta.—Also, a town of France, in the department of the Po; 16 miles S.S.W. of Turin.—Also, a sea-port town of France, in the department of the Maritime Alps, late the county of Nice, with two castles. The harbour is sheltered by some lofty hills, founded in 1295 by Charles II. king of Naples, who was earl of Provence: the citadel was built by duke Emanuel Philibert; 3 miles E. of Nice.

VILLA Franca de Panader, a town of Spain, in Catalonia, and principal place of a vigueria; 20 miles S.W. of Barcelona.

VILLA Franca de Xira, a town of Portugal, in Estremadura, on the N. side of the Tagus; 15 miles N.E. of Lisbon.

VILLA Frechar, a town of Spain, in the province of Leon; 7 miles W.N.W. of Riofeco.

VILLA Gaba, a town of Brasil, in the government of St. Paul; 95 miles N.N.E. of St. Paul. S. lat. 22° 15'. W. long. 46° 6'.

VILLA Garcia, a town of Spain, in Estremadura; 4 miles N. of Llerena.

VILLA Haria, a town of Spain, in New Castile, on the left side of the Guadiana; 36 miles W. of Ciudad Real.

VILLA Hermosa, or *Dilla de Mofa*, a town of Mexico, in the province of Tabasco, on a river navigable by boats to Tabasco; chiefly inhabited by Indians; 56 miles S.W. of Tabasco. N. lat. 17° 40'. W. long. 94° 16'.

VILLA Hermosa, a town of Spain, in New Castile; 15 miles W.S.W. of Alcaraz.—Also, a town of Spain, in the province of Valencia; 24 miles N. of Segorbe.

VILLA de Horta, the chief town of Fayal, one of the Azores islands. It is situated in the bottom of the bay of Fayal, or De Horta, close to the edge of the sea, and is defended by two castles, one at each end of the town, and a wall of stone-work, extending along the sea-shore, from

the one to the other. But these works are in a state of decay, and seem more for show than strength. They brighten the prospect of the city, which makes a fine appearance from the road; and if we except the Jesuits' college, the monasteries, and churches, there is not another building that has any thing to recommend it, within or without. There is not a glass window in the place, except those of the churches, and in a country-house which lately belonged to the English consul; all the others being latticed, which to an Englishman has the aspect of prisons. This little city is crowded with religious buildings; it has three convents of men, and two of women, and eight churches. The Jesuits' college is a fine structure, and is seated on an eminence in the pleasantest part of the city. Since the expulsion of that order it is sinking into decay, and will probably soon be completely ruined. The Fayal wine, as it is called, is raised on the island Pico, and shipped abroad from De Horta, chiefly to America; from which circumstance it derives its name. Its bay or road of Fayal is situated at the E. end of the isle before the Villa de Horta, and facing the W. end of Pico. It is two miles broad, three-quarters of a mile deep, and has a semicircular form. N. lat. 38° 31' 55". W. long. 28° 38' 56".

VILLA d'Iglesias, or *Villa di Glesia*, a town of the island of Sardinia, and see of a bishop, in 1513 united to Cagliari; 36 miles S.W. of Cagliari. N. lat. 39° 28'. E. long. 8° 42'.

VILLA Imprenta, a town of Italy, in the department of the Mincio, on the Tione; 9 miles E. of Mantua.

VILLA Joiofa, or *Joyfa*, a town of Spain, in Valencia, on the coast of the Mediterranean; 18 miles N.N.E. of Alicante.

VILLA de Laguna, or *Lagoa*, a town of Brasil, in the jurisdiction of Rio de Janeiro.

VILLA Magna, or *Villa Privata*, in *Ancient Geography*, a place of Africa Propria, upon the route from Carthage to Alexandria, between Pontezita and Fifiida Vicus. Anton. Itin.

VILLA Magna, in *Geography*, a town of Naples, in Abruzzo Citra; 51 miles S.E. of Civita di Chieti.

VILLA Major, a town of Spain, in Galicia, on the coast of the Atlantic; 27 miles S.W. of St. Jago.—Also, a town of Spain, in Aragon; 12 miles S. of Saragossa.

VILLA Martin, a town of Spain, in Seville; 12 miles N.E. of Arcos.—Also, a town of Spain, in Leon; 22 miles E. of Leon.

VILLA Mayor, a town of Spain, in Leon; 30 miles S. of Leon.

VILLA de la Monclova, or *Le Coagula*, a town of New Mexico, in the province of New Leon.

VILLA Mofa. See *VILLA Hermosa*.

VILLA de Motta, a town of Istria; 3 miles S. of Capo d'Istria.

VILLA Nova, a town of France, in the department of the Sesia; 3 miles S. of Vercelli.—Also, a town of France, in the department of the Dora; 4 miles W. of Aosta.

VILLA Nova d'Alvio, a town of Portugal, in Alentejo; 18 miles N. of Beja.

VILLA Nova d'Anjos, a town of Portugal, in Estremadura; 5 miles S. of Montemor o Velho.

VILLA Nova d'Asiti, a town of France, in the department of the Tanaro, so called because it was built by the inhabitants of Asiti, from the ruins of some neighbouring villages; and when they understood the advantages of its situation, they surrounded it with walls, bastions, ramparts, deep fosses filled with water, half-moons, and other works.

It has besides two ancient towers, and two churches; 11 miles E. of Turin.

VILLA Nova de Barcarota, a town of Spain, in Estremadura; 27 miles S. of Badajoz.

VILLA Nova da Cerveira, a town of Portugal, on the S. side of the Minho, near its mouth, in the province of Entre Duero e Minho; 27 miles N.N.W. of Braga. N. lat. $41^{\circ} 55'$. W. long. $8^{\circ} 27'$.

VILLA Nova de Ficalho, a town of Portugal, in Alentejo, on the confines of Spain; 24 miles S.E. of Beja.

VILLA Nova de Fojosa, a town of Portugal, in the province of Beira; 12 miles S.E. of St. Joao da Pedreira.

VILLA Nova de Moya, a town of Spain, in Catalonia; 13 miles N.N.E. of Balaguer.

VILLA Nova de Milfontes, a town of Portugal, in Alentejo; 11 miles S. of Sines.

VILLA Nova de Moncarros, a town of Portugal, in the province of Beira; 16 miles W. of Montemor o Velho.

VILLA Nova de Portimao, a sea-port town on the S. coast of Portugal, and province of Algarve. It is a fortified town, built in the year 1463, and contains about 500 mostly small and poor houses, surrounded by a high wall, beyond which is a small suburb, and is garrisoned by two companies. The river of Villanova flows close to the walls, is here considerably broad (next to the Guadiana, which is the largest in Algarvia), and discharges itself half a league from thence between high downs into the sea. The bar is dangerous, and the sand-banks shifting, so that the harbour cannot be very important; 9 miles E.N.E. of Lagos. N. lat. $37^{\circ} 5'$. W. long. $8^{\circ} 28'$.

VILLA Nova de Porto, a town of Portugal, in the province of Entre Duero e Minho, on the left side of the Duero, opposite Oporto, built in the year 1255, and containing about 3000 inhabitants.

VILLA Nova del Principe, a town of Brasil, in the jurisdiction of Bahia. N. lat. $17^{\circ} 10'$. W. long. $42^{\circ} 34'$.

VILLA Nova del Rio, a town of Spain, in the province of Seville, near the Guadalquivir; 18 miles N.N.E. of Seville.

VILLA Nueva, a town of Spain, in Catalonia, on the coast of the Mediterranean. It has no harbour, but a good road; 24 miles W. of Barcelona.—Alfo, a town of Spain, in Asturia; 43 miles W. of Oviedo.

VILLA Nueva de Gallego, a town of Spain, in Aragon, on the Gallego; 6 miles from Saragossa.

VILLA Nueva de Jaro, a town of Spain, in the province of Cordova; 27 miles N.N.E. of Cordova.

VILLA Nueva de los Infantes, a town of Spain, in Galicia; 12 miles S. of Orense.

VILLA Nueva de la Serena, a town of Spain, in Estremadura; 63 miles N. of Seville.

VILLA Nuova, a town of Istria; 9 miles E.S.E. of Umago.—Alfo, a town of the island of Sardinia; 10 miles S. of Algeri.—Alfo, a town of Italy, in the department of the Upper Po; 18 miles E. of Cremona.—Alfo, a town of the Popedom, in the marquise of Ancona, on the coast of the Adriatic; 10 miles E. of Macerata.

VILLA Obleda, a town of Spain, in New Castile; 28 miles N. of Alcaraz.

VILLA Ombrosa, a town of Etruria; 14 miles E. of Florence.

VILLA del Ovo, a town of Brasil, in the jurisdiction of Matto Grosso.

VILLA do Ponte Trappa, a town of Portugal, in the province of Beira; 18 miles N.E. of Viseu.

VILLA del Principe, a town of the island of Cuba; 145 miles N.W. of St. Jago. N. lat. $21^{\circ} 17'$. W. long. $77^{\circ} 45'$.

VILLA do Principe, a town of Brasil, in the government of Minas Geraes; 360 miles N. of Rio Janeiro. This town is situated on the declivity of a lofty hill, the base of which is washed by a rivulet called Corvinha de quatro Vergtems. It was established as a comarca, or district, in the year 1730, when the gold-washings were most productive; though it dates its origin about fifteen years earlier, when the place was discovered by the Paulists, at the commencement of their migration from Villa Rica and the adjacent settlements. At present the town contains about 5000 inhabitants, most of whom are shop-keepers, and the rest artificers, farmers, miners, and labourers. As this town is situated very near the confines of the Diamond district, and on the high road leading to it, the passage of all persons thither is subject to the strictest regulations. The country round is very fine and open, being free from those impenetrable woods, which occur so frequently in other parts of the province. Its soil is in general very productive, and the climate mild and salubrious. N. lat. $17^{\circ} 6'$. W. long. $42^{\circ} 44'$.

VILLA Real, a town of Portugal, in the province of Algarve, built by Pombal, four leagues from Tavira. It is situated at the mouth of the Guadiana, which is here a broad and fine stream. It is built with perfect regularity, the streets in which are the handsomest houses being situated on the bank of the river, and the smaller houses at a greater distance. The pavement is good, and in the middle of the town is a handsome square, in which the town-house stands. But it is in a lamentable degree destitute of inhabitants, and without a company of soldiers, the place would be quite empty. Poverty every where appears, the adjacent country being very sandy, and the soil in many places consisting entirely of quicksand: the downs are planted with fig-trees. The entrance of the harbour is broad but not very deep. The town derives all its supplies, even of bread, from Ayamonte, the destruction of which was aimed at by the founder of this town.—Alfo, a town of Portugal, in the province of Tra los Montes, containing two churches, two hospitals, three convents, and about 2400 inhabitants; 9 miles N. of Lamego.—Alfo, a town of Spain, in the province of Valencia; 20 miles E. of Segorbe.—Alfo, a town of Spain, in Guipuscoa; 6 miles S.S.W. of Placentia.

VILLA Real de Conceição, a town of Brasil, in the government of Minas Geraes; 40 miles N.W. of Villa Rica.

VILLA del Rey, a town of Spain, in Estremadura, on the borders of Portugal, taken by the allies in the year 1706; 12 miles N. of Badajoz.—Alfo, a town of Spain, in Galicia; 22 miles S.E. of Orense.

VILLA de la Reyna, a town of Spain, in Estremadura; 12 miles E. of Llerena.

VILLA Rica, a town of Brasil, and capital of the jurisdiction of Minas Geraes; 150 miles N. of Rio Janeiro. S. lat. $20^{\circ} 25'$. W. long. $44^{\circ} 36'$. The town stands on a deep and lofty eminence, connected with others forming an immense chain, of which it is one of the highest. Most of the streets, irregular and badly paved, range in steps from the base to the summit, and are crossed by others which lead up the acclivity; but its environs exhibit few traces of cultivation. This town has been denominated the rich village; it is the capital of the province and the seat of its government, and has for many years been reputed the richest in Brasil, as it was the depository of all the gold found in the extensive surrounding district. This town is admirably supplied with water, which is conducted in a very convenient manner into almost every house; and in the streets are many fountains that are well constructed. One cistern contains water having a strong

strong taste of sulphate of iron, which the natives consider as serviceable in the cure of cutaneous diseases, and in which they often bathe.

The town is divided into two parishes, and contains a population of about 20,000 inhabitants, of whom there are more whites than blacks. The climate is delightful, and supposed to be equal to that of Naples; and though the latitude is only $20^{\circ} 3'$, yet on account of its elevated situation, the temperature of the air is generally moderate. The thermometer never exceeds 82° in the shade, and is rarely below 48° ; but its usual range is from 64° to 80° in summer; and from 48° to 70° in winter. The greatest heats prevail in January. Here are frequent showers of rain, and thunderstorms are common, but not violent. The fun is sometimes clouded by dews and mist so dense, as not to subside until the forenoon is far advanced. The gardens in the vicinity of the town are laid out with great taste, and present a curious spectacle, by their arrangement on the declivity of the mountain. They furnish an ample supply of vegetables of every kind, as artichokes, asparagus, spinach, cabbage, kidney-beans, and potatoes. The peach, which is the only exotic fruit hitherto introduced, flourishes in an astonishing degree.

The town is of considerable extent, but not so well peopled as when the mines were rich. The shop-keepers are a numerous class, and they are plentifully supplied with all sorts of English merchandize, except earthenware, hams, porter, and butter, which articles are dear. The market is ill supplied, notwithstanding the fertility of the surrounding district. Poultry might be had at a moderate price, from $3s. 6d.$ to $4s. 6d.$ per couple; beef was tolerable; pork very fine; but mutton utterly unknown. When Mr. Mawe visited this town in the year 1809, some of the inhabitants told him that it ought now to be termed "Villa Pobra," instead of "Villa Rica." Of above 2000 habitations which the town contained, a considerable proportion were untenanted, and the rents of the rest were continually lowering.

The mountain on which the town stands appeared to be eight or nine miles in length, narrow and almost insulated, being surrounded by deep ravines. It is composed of argillaceous schist in almost every gradation, migrating from the compact blue slate into micaceous schist. The first discovery of this once rich mountain was owing to the enterprising spirit of the Paulists, who, of all the colonies in Brazil, retained the largest portion of that ardent and indefatigable zeal for discovery which characterized the Lusitanians of former days. They penetrated from their capital, St. Paul's, through impervious woods, and disputed every inch of their progress with the barbarous Indians. Following the course of rivers, they occasionally found gold; till arriving at this mountain, its riches arrested their progress, and erecting temporary houses, they began their operations. They were soon joined by other adventurers from St. Paul's and other places. Their wealth proved the occasion of contests between the first settlers and new adventurers. When tranquility was re-established, a regular town began to be formed in 1711, and a code of laws enacted for the regulation of the mines. A fifth in weight of the gold-dust that was found was taken for the king, and the remainder purified, melted into ingots at the expence of government, then assayed, marked according to their value, and delivered to the owners, with a certificate to render them earnest: and for the convenience of trade, gold-dust was allowed to circulate for small payments. Smuggling, however, gained ground, and new regulations and provisions were adopted for restraining it. Villa Rica soon enjoyed a considerable

trade with Rio de Janeiro: the returns were negroes, iron, woollens, salt, provisions of various kinds, and wine, which then bore very high profits. About the year 1713, the royal fifth amounted to half a million sterling annually. Antonio Dias, the leader of the Paulists, who discovered this source of wealth, and became very rich, built a fine church, and at his death endowed it with considerable funds: it still bears his name: five or six others were begun and soon finished. The town also underwent many improvements; its streets were more regularly built, and the side of the mountain levelled for the site of new houses and gardens; reservoirs and fountains of water were constructed in different parts; and the mint and smelting-houses were enlarged. The number of inhabitants at this time amounted to 12,000, or upwards. Between the year 1730 and 1750, the mines were in the height of their prosperity; the king's fifth, as it is said, amounting to at least a million sterling.

At the present day, Villa Rica scarcely retains a shadow of its former splendour. Its inhabitants are unemployed, and the culture of the adjacent country neglected. Almost every trade is now occupied either by mulattoes or negroes, both of which classes seem superior in intellect to their masters, because they make a better use of it. However, the vicinity furnishes the means of acquiring wealth by its mines of gold, iron, and porcelain clay, &c. if the inhabitants had understanding or application to convert them into real value.

At the distance of eight miles from Villa Rica is Mariana, separated from it by a tremendous and almost impassable road, along a ridge of mountains. The Rio del Carmen runs through this town. This was made a bishop's see about the year 1715, and called Cidade de Mariana, in honour of the then reigning queen of Portugal. This is a small, neat, well-built town, containing from 6000 to 7000 inhabitants. It has a college for the education of young men designed for the church. This place has little trade, and depends chiefly on the mines and seams in its vicinity. Mawe's Travels.

VILLA Rica, a town of South America, in the province of Paraguay; 100 miles N.E. of Assumption.—Also, a town of Chili; 60 miles N.E. of Valdivia. S. lat. $38^{\circ} 50'$. W. long. $73^{\circ} 10'$.

VILLA Rodrigo, a town of Spain, in the province of Leon; 40 miles E. of Leon.

VILLA Rubia, a town of Spain, in New Castile; 6 miles E. of Ocana.

VILLA Rubia de los Ojos, a town of Spain, in New Castile; 12 miles N. of Calatrava.

VILLA de los Santos. See SANTOS.

VILLA de Sappra, a town of Italy, in Friuli; 15 miles W. of Gemona.

VILLA Savary, La, a town of France, in the department of the Aude; 14 miles W. of Carcassonne.

VILLA de Sul, a town of Portugal, in the province of Beira; 5 miles W. of Viseu.

VILLA del Valle, a town of South America, in the province of Chiquitos.

VILLA de Valle Fertile, a town of South America, in the province of Cuyo; 80 miles S.E. of Juan de la Frontera.

VILLA Vecchia, a town of the Ligurian Republic; 12 miles N. of Genoa.

VILLA Veja, a town of South America, in the government of Bahia, at first called St. Salvador.

VILLA de Rodao, a town of Portugal, in Estremadura; 17 miles S.S.W. of Castel Branco.

VILLA Vicento, a town of Spain, in the province of Leon; 30 miles S. of Leon.

VILLA Vicoça, or VILLA Vizoça, or VILLA Viciosa, a town of

of Portugal, in Alentejo, containing two parish churches, eight convents, and about 3700 inhabitants. In the neighbourhood is dug some beautiful green marble. Near it is a royal palace, with a park; 97 miles N.E. of Evora. N. lat. $38^{\circ} 39'$. W. long. $7^{\circ} 12'$.

VILLA *Viciosa*, a town of Spain, in the province of Cordova; 25 miles N.N.W. of Cordova.—Also, a town of South America, in the province of Quito; 10 miles S.E. of Quito.—Also, a sea-port town of Spain, in the province of Asturias, situated at the bottom of a bay of the Atlantic; 30 miles N.E. of Oviedo.

VILLA *Vieja*, a town of Spain, in Old Castile; 34 miles E. of Burgos.

VILLA *Regis*, or *Regia*, a title anciently given to those villages where the kings of England had a royal seat, and held the manor in their own demesne; having there commonly a free chapel exempt from the bishop's jurisdiction.

VILLABAR, in *Geography*, a town of Portugal, in the province of Tras os Montes; 15 miles S.E. of Miranda.

VILLACANAS, a town of Spain, in New Castile; 32 miles E.S.E. of Toledo.

VILLACASTIN, a town of Spain, in Old Castile; 18 miles W.S.W. of Segovia.

VILLACERF, a town of France, in the department of the Aude; 8 miles N.W. of Troyes.

VILLACH, a town of the duchy of Carinthia, on the right side of the Drave. Near the town are some medicinal baths; 18 miles W. of Clagenfurt. N. lat. $46^{\circ} 43'$. E. long. $13^{\circ} 39'$.

VILLACO, a town of the island of Corfica, in the district of Corte.

VILLACURI, a town of Peru, in the audience of Lima; 12 miles E.S.E. of Pisco.

VILLADA, a town of Spain, in the province of Leon; 27 miles N.W. of Palencia.

VILLÆ PREPOSITUS. See PREPOSITUS.

VILLAFILA, in *Geography*, a town of Spain, in the province of Leon; 20 miles N.E. of Zamora.

VILLAFELICHE, a town of Spain, in the kingdom of Aragon; 3 miles N. of Daroca.

VILLAFREDDA, a town of Naples, in Lavara; 9 miles N.N.W. of Sezza.

VILLAFRIA, a town of Spain, in Guipuzcoa; 12 miles E.S.E. of Trevigno.

VILLAGE, *Villa*, or *Vill*, an assemblage of houses, inhabited chiefly by peasants and farmers, having usually a church, but no market.

The word is French, torned of *vil*, or *vilis*, low, mean, contemptible: or rather, from the Latin *villa*, a country-house, or farm.

The want of a market distinguishes a *village* from a *town*, as the church does from a *green*, *street*, &c. Among our Saxon ancestors, *vill*, or *village*, was used in the sense of the Roman *villa*; viz. for a country farm, or seat, furnished with convenient outhouses, &c. for repositing the fruits thereof. Afterwards it came to be taken for a manor; and then for part of a parish, or the parish itself.

Hence, in several ancient law-books, *vill* and *parish* are the same thing: accordingly, Fortescue de Laudibus Leg. Ang. writes, "That the boundaries of villages are not by houses, streets, or walls; but by a large circuit of ground, within which may be divers hamlets, waters, woods, &c."

Fleta makes this difference between a *manſion*, a *village* and a *manor*; that a manſion may consist of one, or more houses; though there is only to be one dwelling-place, without any other very near it: for if other houses be conti-

guous, it is then a village. A manor may consist of one or more villages.

For the better government of villages, the lord of the soil has usually a power to hold a court-baron every three weeks.

The statute of Exeter, 14 Edw. I., makes frequent mention of entire-vills, demi-vills, and hamlets.

Entire-vills, fir H. Spelman conjectures to have consisted of ten freemen, or frank-pledges, demi-vills of five, and hamlets of less than five. See TOWN.

VILLAGE Bay, in *Geography*, a bay on the west coast of Africa. S. lat. $14^{\circ} 25'$.

VILLAGRA, a town of Spain, in the province of Leon; 17 miles N. of Rio Seco.

VILLAIN, or VILLEIN, *Villanus*, in our *Ancient Customs*, the same with *bondman*: called also, in *Domesday-book*, *seruus*, *slave*.

A villain was one who held lands in *villanage*, or on condition of rendering base services to his lord.

Under the Saxon government, there was, as fir William Temple speaks, a sort of people in condition of downright servitude, employed in the most servile works, and belonging, they, their children and effects, to the lord of the soil, like the rest of the cattle or flock upon it. These seem to have been those who held what was called the *folk-land*, from which they were removable at the lord's pleasure. On the arrival of the Normans here, it seems not improbable, that they, who were strangers to any other than the feudal state, might give some sparks of enfranchisement to such wretched persons as fell to their share, by admitting them, as well as others, to the oath of fealty, which conferred a right of protection, and raised the tenant to a kind of state superior to downright slavery, but inferior to every other condition. This they called *villanage*, and the tenants *villains*, either from the word *vilis*, or else, as fir Edward Coke tells us, *à villa*, because they lived chiefly in villages, and were employed in rustic works of the most fordid kind: hence they were also denominated *pagenſes* and *ruffici*. These villains, belonging principally to lords of manors, were either villains *regardant*, by the civilians called *glebe additi* or *ascriptitii*, that is, annexed to the manor or lord; or else they were *in groſſi*, or at large, that is, annexed to the person of the lord, and transferrable from one owner to another. They could not leave their lord without his permission; but if they ran away, or were purloined from him, might be claimed and recovered by action, like beasts or other chattels. They held indeed small portions of land by way of sustaining themselves and families; but it was at the mere will of the lord, who might dispossess them whenever he pleased; and it was upon villain services, that is, to carry out dung, to hedge and ditch the lord's demesnes, and any other the meanest offices; and their services were not only base, but uncertain both as to time and quantity. A villain could acquire no property either in lands or goods; but if he purchased either, the lord might enter upon them, oust the villain, and seize them to his own use, unless he contrived to dispose of them again before the lord had seized them; for the lord had then lost his opportunity. In many places also, a fine was payable to the lord, if the villain presumed to marry his daughter to any one without leave from the lord; and by the common law, the lord also might bring an action against the husband for damages in thus purloining his property. For the children of villains were also in the same state of bondage with their parents; whence they are called in Latin *naivi*, whence the female appellation of a villain, who was called a *neife*. In case of a marriage between a freeman and a neife, or a villain and a free-woman, the

the issue followed the condition of the father, being free if he was free, and villain if he was villain; but no bastard could be born a villain. The law, however, protected the persons of villains, as the king's subjects, against atrocious injuries of the lord; for he might not kill, or maim his villain; though he might beat him with impunity, since the villain had no action or remedy at law against his lord, but in case of the murder of his ancestor, or the maiming of his own person. Neives indeed had also an appeal of rape, in case the lord violated them by force.

Villains might be enfranchised by manumission. Hence, and by other means, they gained in process of time considerable ground on their lords; and in particular strengthened the tenure of their estates to that degree, that they came to have in them an interest in many places full as good, in others better than their lords. For the good-nature and benevolence of many lords of manors having, time out of mind, permitted their villains, and their children, to enjoy their possessions without interruption, in a regular course of descent, the common law gave them title to prescribe against their lords; and, on performance of the same services, to hold their lands, in spite of any determination of the lord's will. For though, in general, they are said to hold their estates at the will of the lord; yet it is such a will as is agreeable to the customs of the manor; which customs are preserved and evidenced by the rolls of the several courts-baron in which they are entered, or kept on foot by the constant immemorial usage of the several manors in which the lands lie. And, as such tenants had nothing to shew for their estates but these customs, and admissions in pursuance of them, entered on those rolls, or the copies of such entries witnessed by the steward, they now began to be called *tenants by copy of a court-roll*, and their tenure itself a *copyhold*. Copy-holders are, therefore, in truth no other but villains, who, by a long series of immemorial encroachments on the lord, have at last established a customary right to those estates, which were before held absolutely at the lord's will. These encroachments at length became so universal, that when tenure in villenage was virtually abolished (though copy-holds were reserved) by the statute of Charles II. there was hardly a *pure* villain left in the nation. To this purpose Sir Thomas Smith testifies, that in all his time (and he was secretary to Edward VI.) he never knew any villain in grofs throughout the realm; and the few villains regardant that were then remaining, were such only as had belonged to bishops, monasteries, and other ecclesiastical corporations, in the preceding times of popery. By several means, the generality of villains in the kingdom have long ago sprouted up into copy-holders; their persons being enfranchised by manumission, or long acquiescence; but their estates, in strictness, remaining subject to the same servile conditions and forfeitures as before; though, in general, the villain services are usually commuted for a small pecuniary quit-rent. Blackst. Com. book ii. See **VILLENAGE**.

VILLAIN ESTATE, or Condition, is contradicting to the free estate. See **BASE TENURE**, and **VILLENAGE**.

VILLENAGE. See **VILLENAGE**.

VILLAINIE, in *Geography*, a town of France, and principal place of a district, in the department of the Mayenne; 12 miles E.N.E. of Mayenne. N. lat. 48° 21'. W. long. 3° 11'.

VILLAINOUS JUDGMENT, is that which casts the reproach and stain of villany and shame on him against whom it is given. As that against a conspirator, &c. See **CONSPIRACY**.

Lambard calls it *villainous punishment*; and says, it may well be called *villainous*, in regard the judgment, in such

case, shall be like the ancient judgment in attain, viz. that the criminals shall not be of any credit afterwards: nor shall it be lawful for them, in perion, to approach the king's court: that their lands and goods shall be seized into the king's hands, their trees rooted up, their bodies imprisoned, &c.

This villainous judgment is now become obsolete; it not having been pronounced for some ages: but instead of it, the delinquents are usually sentenced to imprisonment, fine, and pillory.

VILLALAR, in *Geography*, a town of Spain, in the province of Leon; 12 miles N.N.W. of Rio Seco.

VILLALBA, a town of Spain, in *Extremadura*; 32 miles S.E. of Badajoz.—Also, a town of Spain, in *Galicia*; 18 miles S.W. of Mondonedo.

VILLALON, a town of Spain, in the province of Leon; 25 miles W.N.W. of Palencia.

VILLALPANDA, JOHN-BAPTIST, in *Biography*, a native of Cordova, entered the society of Jesus in 1571, and distinguished himself by a learned and diffuse commentary on the book of Ezekiel, in three vols. fol. Rome, 1596. It contains an elaborate description of the city and temple of Jerusalem. He also published, in 1598, "Explanatio Epistoliarum Sancti Pauli," under the name of Remi of Rheims, to whom he found it ascribed in a manuscript dated in 1067. This Jesuit died in 1608. Dupin.

VILLALPANDO, in *Geography*, a town of Spain, in the province of Leon; 33 miles S. of Leon.

VILLALTA, a town of Italy, in the country of Friuli; 5 miles W. of Udina.

VILLALVA, a town of Spain, in *Galicia*; 15 miles S. of Mondonedo.

VILLAMBEA, a town of Spain, in New Castile; 25 miles S.E.E. of Madrid.

VILLAMEA, a town of Portugal, in the province of Beira; 4 miles S. of Lamego.

VILLAMEDO, a town of Spain, in *Extremadura*; 12 miles W.S.W. of Talavera la Vieja.

VILLAMENA de la Jarra, a town of Spain, in the province of Cordova; 27 miles N.N.E. of Cordova.

VILLAMIEL, a town of Spain, in the province of Leon; 43 miles S. of Ciudad Rodrigo.

VILLANDRAUT, or **VILLANDRADE**, a town of France, in the department of the Gironde; 8 miles W.N.W. of Bazas.

VILLANDRY, a town of France, in the department of the Indre and Loire; 9 miles W.S.W. of Tours.

VILLANELLA, in *Italian Music*, rustic airs that were sung about the streets of Naples in the 16th century, in three and four parts, as serenades. They are sometimes called *villotte* and *villanese* alla *Napolitana*.

VILLANI, GIOVANNI, in *Biography*, a native of Florence, was old enough in 1300 to visit Rome at the jubilee, and is supposed to have afterwards travelled into France and Flanders. In 1316 and 1317 he was one of the magistrates called priors at Florence, and also in the latter year official of the mint, to whom was due an exact register, still extant, of all the money coined at Florence in and before his time. He served in the Florentine army in 1323, and in 1328 contrived means for relieving his poor countrymen at a period of distressing scarcity. On occasion of the failure of the company of Bonaccorsi, in which he had a share, in 1345, and to which he was not accessory, he was committed to the public prison, and his life was terminated by the plague, which severely visited Florence in 1348. Villani bears the character of one of the most polished writers of his age, and the most conversant in the history of his country. His

History

History records, in twelve books, the events occurring in Florence from its foundation till the year of his death, and comprehends also the principal changes that happened in the other Italian provinces. The early part of this History abounds with errors and fables; but in describing the occurrences of Tuscany in his own time, he is deemed a safe guide, allowing for his partiality to the Guelph interest, and for his unacknowledged extracts from the History of Ricordano Malaspini. This History, which has been always much esteemed, both for its matter and the elegance of its style, was first printed by the Giunti of Florence in 1537, and the latest of several editions of it was that of Milan, in the collection of Italian historians. It was continued after his death by his brother, MATTEO VILLANI, who brought it down to 1363, in which year, whilst he was writing the 11th book, he was carried off by the plague. His History is not held in equal estimation with that of his brother, its style being too diffuse; but he was contemporary with the events which he relates. Tiraboschi. Gen. Biog.

VILLANI, FILIPPO, son of Matteo, was educated for the law, and was for many years chancellor to the municipality of Perugia. But he chiefly devoted himself to literary pursuits, and in 1404 delivered lectures on the *Commedia* of Dante. He added forty-two chapters to his father's History of Florence, thus completing the 11th book. He also composed the "Lives of illustrious Florentines," originally written in Latin, but translated into Italian, and published in 1747 by Mazzuchelli, with copious annotations. The first book of this work treated of the origin and antiquities of Florence. Tiraboschi. Gen. Biog.

VILLANTERIA, in *Geography*, a town of Italy, in the department of the Upper Po; 9 miles S.W. of Lodi.

VILLAR, a town of France, in the department of Mont Blanc; 9 miles W. of Conflans.

VILLAR Mayor, a town of Portugal, in the province of Beira; 5 miles N. of Alfayates.

VILLAR de Canas, a town of Spain, in New Castile; 25 miles S. of Huete.

VILLAR de Toro, a town of Portugal, in the province of Beira; 10 miles N. of Alfayates.

VILLARA, a town of Spain, in the province of Biscay; 13 miles S. of Bilbao.

VILLARCAYO, a town of Spain, in Old Castile; 12 miles N. of Frias.

VILLARD de Lans, *Le*, a town of France, in the department of the Isère; 8 miles S.S.W. of Grenoble.

VILLARD St. Pancrace, a town of France, in the department of the Higher Alps; 3 miles S. of Briançon.

VILLAREJORUBIA, a town of Spain, in New Castile; 35 miles S.E. of Cuenca.

VILLARESIA, in *Botany*, a genus named after Matthew Villares, a Spanish botanist, in the Flora Peruviana, p. 28, according to De Theis. We have no account of its characters.

VILLARET, CLAUDE DE, in *Biography*, was born at Paris in 1715, and liberally educated, but prevented, by the pernicious influence of youthful passions, from duly availing himself of his acquisitions. After writing a novel and a piece for the theatre, he quitted Paris in 1748, and went upon the stage at Rouen, and other places. But renouncing this mode of life at Liege in 1756, he returned to Paris, and becoming first clerk in the chamber of accounts, he was reclaimed from his dissipated course, and made himself acquainted with those sources of French history to which his office gave him access. On the death of the abbé Velly in 1759, he was selected for continuing his History; and at the same time was made secretary to the peerage. His early

imprudence and his subsequent application to business terminated his life in 1766. His continuation of the "Histoire de France" commences in the 8th volume, with the reign of Philip VI. and concludes in the 17th volume: it abounds with interesting remarks and curious anecdotes, but the reader is diverted from the main object by prolixity of detail in prefaces and digressions. The style however is elegant and animated, but too rhetorical for the simplicity of history. Villaret was also the author of "Confidérations sur l'Art du Theatre," 1758; and "L'Esprit de Voltaire," 1759. Nouv. Dict. Hist.

VILLARIA, in *Botany*, was intended by Schreber to commemorate the excellent author of the "Histoire des Plantes de Dauphiné," M. Villars, formerly physician to the military hospital at Grenoble, who died professor of botany at Strasburgh, two or three years ago, where his bier was elegantly decorated with wreaths of his own *Rosa rubrifolia*; see ROSA, n. 44. He published there, in 1807, a "Catalogue Méthodique du Jardin de l'Ecole de Médecine de Strasbourg," in French, according to Jussieu's system, with a historical, critical and practical preface. Villars was an excellent and indefatigable observer of nature, well worthy of commemoration, which makes us regret our total want of information respecting his genus, except the generic characters given by Schreber. As this author did not live to write a work on the species of plants, and has left no account of the native country, number of species, nor any other circumstance in the history of his *Villaria*, the genus can never be properly adopted. We shall only here remark, that the name ought certainly to be VILLARSIA; see that article.—Clas and order, *Diocia Pentandria*. Nat. Ord. perhaps *Rhamni* or *Sapindi* of Jussieu.

Gen. Ch. Male, *Cal.* Perianth of one leaf, in five deep, spreading, roundish, obtuse, concave, coriaceous, nearly equal, segments, thinner at the margin, permanent; two of them interior. *Cor.* Petals five, oblong, obtuse, flat, spreading, coriaceous, thinner at the margin, twice the length of the calyx, permanent. *Stam.* Filaments five, awl-shaped, erect, half as long as the calyx; anthers roundish, two-lobed. *Pist.* Germen orbicular, depressed (we presume imperfect); style very short; stigma capitate.

Female, *Cal.* and *Cor.* as in the male. Nectary of five ovate, obtuse, erect, permanent leaves, alternate with the petals, and not so long. *Pist.* Germen turbinate, somewhat ovate; style very short, scarcely any; stigma capitate, slightly three-cleft. *Peric.* Berry nearly globular, pointed with the permanent style, three-celled. *Seeds* solitary.

Obs. This description is materially defective, inasmuch as there is no mention of the germen being inferior or superior, nor indeed any useful information with regard to the respective insertion of the parts; except the leaves of the nectary being alternate with the petals, which, if true, militates against our conjectures as to the natural order of this genus. Nevertheless, we shall attempt an essential character, in hopes that those who have access to the learned Schreber's herbarium, may discover, and communicate to the world, a complete history of the plant in question.

Ess. Ch. Male, Calyx in five deep segments. Corolla of five petals. Nectary none. Germen orbicular, imperfect.

Female, *Cal.* and *Pet.* like the male. Nectary of five leaves, alternate with the petals. Style one. Berry of three cells. Seeds solitary.

VILLARINO, in *Geography*, a town of Spain, in the province of Leon, on the E. side of the Duero, and confines of Portugal; 38 miles W. of Salamanca.

VILLARLUENGO, a town of Spain, in Aragon; 21 miles S.W. of Alcaniz.

VILLA-

VILLARROYA, a town of Spain, in the kingdom of Aragon; 15 miles N.W. of Calataud.

VILLARRAMIEL, a town of Spain, in the province of Leon; 16 miles W. of Palencia.

VILLARS, LOUIS-HECTOR, duke of, and marshal of France, in *Biography*, was born at Moulins, in Bourbonnais, in 1653, and commenced a military life in his youth. He served in Holland in 1672, signalized his courage at the siege of Maëtricht in 1673, and was wounded at the battle of Senef in 1674. We cannot follow him through all his gradations of advancement and displays of military talents; but we find, at the famous battle of Blenheim, that he was defined by Lewis XIV. to check the progress of Marlborough. With an inferior army he kept the victors at bay, so that the campaign of 1705 passed off without any further loss to France. After various other services, in which he distinguished himself, he was appointed to command in Flanders against the allies in 1709; and marching to the relief of Mons, he was attacked by Marlborough and Eugene at Malplaquet. The engagement was long and bloody, and though the French were driven from the field, the greatest loss of men was sustained by the victors. To a wound which compelled Villars to withdraw from the field, he attributed the loss of the battle. In reference to this gaffe (as some would be disposed to call it), Voltaire observes, "I know that the marshal himself was persuaded of it, but I also know, that few others were so." As a further reward for his services, he was made a peer of France, and lieutenant-general of the bishoprics of Metz and Verdun. Although France was relieved by the separation of England from the alliance in 1712, Eugene produced consternation at Paris by besieging Landrecy with a superior force. On this occasion, Villars attacked a part of the allied army at Denain, which he entirely broke up, and this success led to the recovery of all the places lost by the French in that quarter, at the restoration of their superiority. The peace of Utrecht followed; and the emperor having refused to be comprehended in it, marshal Villars and Eugene held conferences at Radstadt in 1714, for a treaty between their respective sovereigns, which they conducted with the frankness of military men, and soon brought to a conclusion. Villars, who had experienced the attacks of envy and jealousy at his own court, said to Eugene on this occasion: "Sir, we are not enemies; your enemies are at Vienna, and mine at Versailles."

After the death of Lewis XIV., Villars for some time maintained his credit at court; being made president of the council of war in 1715, and one of the council of regency in 1718. But when Lewis's system was in agitation, he thought it his duty to state to the regent the evils which, in his apprehension, would result from it; and he thus contributed to the discharge of that financier, and to the appointment of his successor. When the regency devolved upon the duke of Bourbon, Villars was always consulted, who was then at the height of his fortune:—a marshal of France, a duke and peer, governor of Provence, a grandee of Spain, a knight of the golden fleece, and a member of the council. What more was wanting to gratify ambition? When France was excluded from the treaty that was brought about by the intrigues of the principal courts of Europe between the emperor, Spain and England, a war broke out in 1733; and Villars, with the title of general of the camps and armies (dormant since Turenne), was sent, at the age of eighty, to command in the Milanese. But though he met with some success, age and infirmities would not allow him to make more than one campaign. On his return to France, he was seized with a disorder that termi-

nated his life at Turin. When his confessor observed to him, that God had favoured him with more time to prepare for death than marshal Berwick, who had just been killed by a cannon-ball at the siege of Philippsburg, "What! (said he) has he ended his life in that manner? I always said that he was more fortunate than I." He soon after expired, in June 1734, in the eighty-first year of his age.

The character of Villars is thus delineated by one of his biographers. "Marshal Villars was a true military genius, full of courage and confidence, who raised himself by persisting in always doing more than his duty. He was reproached with having less modesty than valour, and with speaking of himself as he had deserved that others should speak of him. Nor was he sparing of censures on others, and he employed rather defiance than conciliation towards his enemies. Though possessing integrity and lively parts, he was therefore never able to render himself popular, or to acquire friends. In action he was always present where the danger was greatest; and he held it as a maxim, 'that a general ought to expose himself as much as he exposes others.'" Villars was admitted into the French Academy in 1714. "Memoirs of the Marshal de Villars" were printed in Holland, in three vols. 1734-36, the first of which alone was written by himself. A more interesting publication appeared in 1784, entitled "La Vie du Maréchal de Villars, écrite par lui-même, et donnée au Public par M. Anquetil," four vols. 12mo. This work contains the letters, recollections, and journal of the marshal, properly arranged by the editor. Moreri. Gen. Biog.

VILLARS DE MONTFAUCON DE, a relation of the celebrated father Montfaucon, was educated for the church, and came from Toulouse to Paris in order to obtain distinction as a preacher. He was received into the best company, and made himself known by several works, especially by his "Comte de Gabalis, ou Entretiens sur les Sciences secretes," first printed at Paris in 1670. This work is a kind of jocular view of the Rosicrucian philosophy, rendered amusing as a romance. From this source Pope derived his machinery of the "Rape of the Lock." Villars, in consequence of this work, which was thought to contain heretical notions, was forbidden the pulpit. He added to it a second part, and it has been several times reprinted; the last time in 1742, two vols. 12mo. He was also the author of several other works. He was killed by a pistol-shot, by one of his relations, on the road from Paris to Lyons, in 1675, when he was about thirty-five years of age. Bayle. Moreri.

VILLARS, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Ain; 8 miles S.E. of St. Trivier.

VILLARSIA, in *Botany*, a genus more correctly named, as to its orthography, than VILLARIA, (see that article,) but with respect to its distinctive character, we fear, less certain. It consists of such species of the Linnean *Mentha*, as have the corolla only partially covered with hairs, and the margin of whose segments is thin, inflexed in the bud. The leaves moreover are simple, not ternate. Gmelin had long ago established this same genus, in the Petersburg Transactions for 1769, by the name of *Limnanthemum*; and Wiggers in his *Primitive Floræ Holstatiæ*, p. 20, published in 1780, by that of *Waldschmidtia*. Yet in spite of these prior claims, Ventenat, in his *Choix de Plantes*, t. 9, has followed a more recent authority, if it may so be called, in naming these plants *Villarsia*, and he is followed by Mr. Brown, in his *Prodr. Nov. Holl.* v. 1. 456. The authority to which we allude is that of another Gmelin, late professor at Gottingen, who in his compiled edition of Linnæus's *Système*, took upon him to bestow gratuitous appellations

appellations on numerous genera, which the modest unpretending Walter, in his *Flora Caroliniana*, had left for the future examination and decision of more experienced botanists. His *Anonymos*, n. 109, is the *Villarfa* of this professor Gmelin, in Linn. Syst. Nat. v. 2. 447; neither of these authors seeming to have the least idea of the plant being already described or named.—Notwithstanding what these writers have done, Mr. Dryander, in Ait. Hort. Kew. v. 1. 312, has followed the example of Linnaeus, Jussieu, Schreber, Willdenow, and the writer of this in his Fl. Brit. and English Botany, in keeping all the species, which constitute *Villarfa*, in the genus *MENYANTHES*; see that article. There we trust they may safely remain, and perhaps the above authorities may at least neutralize each other, with respect to botanical discrimination, as well as nomenclature. We must not omit that Mr. Pursh, in his *Flora Amer. Sept.* 139, has adopted the present *Villarfa*, but without throwing any new light upon its characters.

VILLARUM NOMINA. See NOMINA.

VILLASANDINO, in *Geography*, a town of Spain, in Old Castile; 20 miles N.W. of Burgos.

VILLASECA, a town of Spain, in Catalonia, on the coast of the Mediterranean; 6 miles W. of Tarragona.

VILLASIDRA, a town of the island of Sardinia; 10 miles N.E. of Villa d'Iglesiass.

VILLATTE, a town of France, in the department of the Creuse; 10 miles N.W. of Gueret.

VILLAVANEZ, a town of Spain, in the province of Leon; 12 miles S. of Palencia.

VILLAYER FERTANS, a town of France, in the department of the Doubs; 5 miles S.S.W. of Ornans.

VILLAZIM, a town of Portugal, in the province of Beira; 23 miles S.S.E. of Viseu.

VILLE, a town of France, in the department of the Lower Rhine; 8 miles N.W. of Schleiffatt.—Also, a town of France, in the department of the Marne; 9 miles S.W. of Rheims.—Also, a town of France, in the department of the Marne; 9 miles N.N.W. of St. Menchould.

VILLE aux Clères, *La*, a town of France, in the department of the Loire and Cher; 24 miles N.W. of Blois.

VILLE Comtal, a town of France, in the department of the Gers; 11 miles S.W. of Mirande.—Also, a town of France, in the department of the Aveyron; 18 miles W. of St. Genies de Rivedolt.

VILLE Franche; a town of France, and principal place of a district, in the department of the Aveyron; 24 miles W. of Rhodéz. N. lat. 44° 21'. E. long. 2° 7'.—Also, a town of France, in the department of the Lot and Garonne; 6 miles E. of Castel Jaloux.—Also, a town of France, and principal place of a district, in the department of the Upper Garonne, on the Garonne; 18 miles S.E. of Toulouse. N. lat. 43° 24'. E. long. 1° 49'.—Also, a town of France, and seat of a tribunal, in the department of the Rhône and Loire, on the right bank of the Rhône. It is surrounded with walls and ditches; 3½ posts N. of Lyons. N. lat. 46° 7'. E. long. 4° 48'.—Also, a town of France, in the department of the Allier; 15 miles S.W. of Moulins.—Also, a town of France, in the department of the Dordogne; 15 miles S.W. of Mucidan.

VILLE Franche d'Albigeois, a town of France, in the department of the Tarn; 8 miles E.S.E. of Alby.

VILLE Franche d'Astarac, a town of France, in the department of the Gers; 14 miles S. of Auch.

VILLE Franche de Comblans, a town of France, in the department of the Eastern Pyrenées; defended by a fort, erected in the reign of Louis XIV.; 27 miles W.S.W. of Perpignan.

VILLE Franche de Panat, a town of France, in the department of the Aveyron; 6 miles W. of Milhau.

VILLE Franche de Perigord, a town of France, in the department of the Dordogne; 36 miles S.S.E. of Périgueux.

VILLE sur Ilon, a town of France, in the department of the Vosges; 9 miles W. of Epinal.

VILLE en Tardenois, a town of France, in the department of the Marne; 10 miles S.W. of Rheims.

VILLE sur Tourbe, a town of France, in the department of the Marne; 8 miles N.N.W. of St. Menchould.

VILLE Vaucance, a town of France, in the department of the Ardèche; 14 miles N.N.W. of Tournon.

VILLE Vieu, *La*, a town of France, in the department of the Vienne; 8 miles S. of Poitiers.

VILLEBERNIER, a town of France, in the department of the Mayne and Loire; 3 miles E. of Saumur.

VILLEBOIS, a town of France, in the department of the Ain; 6 miles S. of St. Rambert.

VILLEBOURG, or VILLE BOUREAU, a town of France, in the department of the Indre and Loire; 18 miles N.N.W. of Tours.

VILLEBRUMIER, a town of France, in the department of the Upper Garonne; 15 miles S.E. of Castel Sarasin.

VILLECROSE, a town of France, in the department of the Var; 9 miles N.N.W. of Draguignan.

VILLEDEIU, a town of France, in the department of the Mayne and Loire; 9 miles N.W. of Chollet.—Also, a town of France, in the department of the Vienne; 12 miles S.E. of Poitiers.—Also, a town of France, in the department of the Loire and Cher; 18 miles W. of Vendôme.—Also, a town of France, in the department of the Channel; 8 miles N.E. of Avranches.

VILLEFAGNAN, a town of France, in the department of the Charente; 6 miles S.S.W. of Ruffec.

VILLEFLEUR, a town of France, in the department of the Lower Seine; 2 miles N. of Cany.

VILLEFORE; JOSEPH-FRANÇOIS-BOURGAIN DE, in *Biography*, was born of a noble family at Paris in 1652, and liberally educated. In 1706 he was admitted a member of the Academy of Inscriptions; but withdrew from it in 1708, because he did not choose to perform its burdensome exercises. He passed the remainder of his life in the cloister of the metropolitan church, and died in 1737, at the age of 85. His historical and biographical works, the latter being chiefly religious, were numerous. He also made several translations from St. Augustine, St. Bernard, and Cicero, which are faithful, and occasionally elegant. He was likewise the author of some smaller pieces in classical literature. Moreri.

VILLEFORT, in *Geography*, a town of France, and principal place of a district, in the department of the Lozère; 20 miles E. of Mende. N. lat. 44° 27'. E. long. 3° 59'.

VILLEHARDOUIN, GEOFFROI DE, in *Biography*, was marshal of Champagne, an office held by his father and his descendants. He took a principal part in the fourth crusade of 1193, which produced the capture of Constantinople by the French and Venetians in 1204; and of this expedition he wrote or dictated a narrative, which is curious and interesting. The best edition is that of Du-Cange, fol. 1657, with many notes. Moreri.

VILLEIN FLEECES, in our *Statutes*, are bad fleeces of wool, shorn from scabby sheep. 31 Edw. III. cap. 8.

VILLEJUIF, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of Paris; 3 miles S. of Paris.

VILLEL, a town of Spain, in New Castile; 17 miles N.N.W.

N.N.W. of Molina.—Also, a town of Spain, in New Castile; 15 miles S. of Molina.

VILLELOIN, or VILLELOUP, a town of France, in the department of the Indre and Loire; 9 miles E.N.E. of Loches.

VILLEMAUR, a town of France, in the department of the Aube; 14 miles W.S.W. of Troyes.

VILLEMONTAIS, a town of France, in the department of the Rhône and Loire; 8 miles S.W. of Roanne.

VILLEMUR, a town of France, in the department of the Upper Garonne; 17 miles N. of Toulouse.

VILLENA, a town of Spain, in the province of Murcia. In the neighbourhood is a morafs, from which their manufacture falt; 41 miles N.N.E. of Murcia. N. lat. $38^{\circ} 35'$. W. long. $1^{\circ} 2'$.

VILLENAGE, or VILLAINAGE, *Villania*, the quality or condition of a *villain*; which fee.

Villanage is more particularly ufed for a servile kind of tenure of lands or tenements; by which the tenant was bound to do all fuch fervices as the lord commanded, or were fit for a villain to perform: which Bracton expreffes by “*iciri non poterit vefpere, quale fervitium fieri debet manere.*”

Villanage is divided into that *by blood*, and that *by tenure*. Tenure, in villanage, could make no freeman a villain, unlefs it were continued time out of mind; nor could free land make a villain free.

Villanage is alfo divided, by Bracton, into *pure villanage*, where the fervices to be performed were bafe in their nature, and indeterminate and arbitrary as to the time and quantity, as above expreffed; from which ancient tenures have fprung our prefent copyhold tenures: and *focage or privileged villanage*, where the fervice was bafe in its nature, but reduced to a certainty: which was to carry the lord’s dung into his fields, to plow his ground on certain days, to fow and reap his corn, &c. and even to empty his jakes: as the inhabitants of Biſton were bound to do to the lord of Clunecastle, in Shropfhire; which was afterwards turned into a rent, now called *Biſton ſilver*; and the villainous fervice excuſed.

This laſt ſpecies of villanage, ſays Bracton, is ſuch as has been held of the kings of England from the Conqueſt downwards; that the tenants herein *villana faciunt ſervitia, ſed certa & determinata*; that they cannot alien or transfer their tenements by grant or feoffment, any more than pure villains can; but muſt ſurrender them to the lord or his ſteward, to be again granted out and held in villanage. From theſe circumſtances, ſays judge Blackſtone, we may collect, that what he thus deſcribes is no other than an exalted ſpecies of copyhold ſubſiſting at this day, *viz.* the tenure in *ancient demefne*: to which, as partaking of the benefeſ of villanage in the nature of its ſervices, and the freedom of focage in their certainty, he has given the compound name of *villanum focagium*. This ancient demefne, or domain, conſiſts of lands or manors, which, though now perhaps granted out to private ſubjects, were actually in the hands of the crown in the time of Edward the Confeſſor, or William the Conqueror; and fo appear to have been by the great ſurvey called Domeſday-book. Some of the tenants of theſe lands continued for a long time pure and abſolute villains, dependent on the will of the lord; and thoſe who ſucceeded them in their tenures now differ from common copyholders in a few points. Others were in a great meafure enfranchiſed by royal favour; being only bound in reſpect of their lands to perform ſome of the better ſort of villain ſervices, and thoſe determinate and certain; as, to plough the king’s land, to ſupply his court with proviſions, and the like; all of which are now changed into pecuniary rents;

VOL. XXXVII.

and in conſideration of theſe they had many privileges and immunities granted to them; as to try the right of their property in a peculiar court of their own, called a court of ancient demefne, by a peculiar proceſs, denominated a writ of *right cloſe*; not to pay toll or taxes; not to contribute to the expences of knights of the ſhire; not to be put on juries, and the like. Theſe tenants, though their tenure be abſolutely copyhold, have an intereſt equivalent to a freehold; for their ſervices were fixed, and they could not be compelled (like pure villains) to relinquish theſe tenements at the lord’s will, or to hold them againſt their own; and *ideo*, ſays Bracton, *dicuntur liberi*. Britton alſo, from this their freedom, calls them abſolutely *fokemans*, and their tenure, *fokemanries*. The ſame name is alſo given them in Fleta. Lands holden by this tenure are a ſpecies of copyhold, and as ſuch, preferred and exempted from the operation of the ſtatute of Charles II.; yet they differ from common copyholds, principally in the privileges before-mentioned: as alſo they differ from freeholds by one ſpecial mark and tincture of villanage, noted by Bracton, and remaining to this day, *viz.* that they cannot be conveyed from man to man by the general common law conveyances of feoffment, and the reſt; but muſt paſs by ſurrender to the lord or his ſteward, in the manner of common copyholds: yet with this difference, that, in the ſurrenders of theſe lands in ancient demefne, it is not uſed to ſay “to hold at the will of the lord” in their copies; but only “to hold according to the cuſtom of the manor.” Blackſtone’s Com. book ii. &c.

VILLENEUVE, in *Geography*, a town of Switzerland, in the canton of Berne, ſituated at the eaſtern extremity of the lake of Geneva, about three miles from the mouth of the Rhône; celebrated for its trout fiſhery; 15 miles E.S.E. of Lausanne. N. lat. $46^{\circ} 25'$. E. long. $6^{\circ} 46'$.—Alſo, a town of France, in the department of the Allier; 8 miles N.W. of Moulins.—Alſo, a town of France, in the department of the Tarn; 8 miles N.W. of Alby.—Alſo, a town of France, in the department of the Hérault, on the Grand Canal; 3 miles S.E. of Beziers.—Alſo, a town of France, in the department of the Aveyron; 6 miles N. of Villefranche.—Alſo, a town of France, in the department of the Seine and Oife; 9 miles S.E. of Paris.

VILLENEUVE D’AGEN, a town of France, and principal place of a diſtrict, in the department of the Lot and Garonne; 12 miles N. of Agen. N. lat. $44^{\circ} 24'$. E. long. $48'$.

VILLENEUVE l’Archêvêque, a town of France, in the department of the Yonne; 21 miles W.S.W. of Troyes.

VILLENEUVE lez Avignon, a town of France, in the department of the Gard, on the weſt ſide of the Rhône, oppoſite Avignon; 21 miles N.E. of Nîmes.

VILLENEUVE de Berg, a town of France, and ſeat of a tribunal, in the department of the Ardèche; 12 miles S. of Privas. N. lat. $44^{\circ} 32'$. E. long. $4^{\circ} 35'$.

VILLENEUVE la Garenne, a town of France, in the department of Paris; 3 miles N. of Paris.

VILLENEUVE la Guyard, a town of France, in the department of the Yonne; 15 miles N.N.W. of Sens.

VILLENEUVE de Marſan, a town of France, in the department of the Landes; 9 miles E. of Mont-de-Marſan.

VILLENEUVE le Roy, or *Villeneuve-sur-Yonne*, a town of France, in the department of the Yonne, on the Yonne; 2 poſts N.W. of Joigny.

VILLENEUVE St. George, a town of France, in the department of the Yonne, on the Yonne, oppoſite Villeneuve-le-Roy.

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VILLENOCÉ, a town of France, in the department of the Aube; 10 miles N.E. of Provins.

VILLENORE, a town of Hindoostan, in the Carnatic; 10 miles W. of Pondicherry.

VILLENOUVETTE, a town of France, in the department of the Hérault, on the Orb, anciently considerable, and surrounded with walls. It at one time contained three parishes, now only one; 3 miles N.W. of Beziers.

VILLENTOIS, a town of France, in the department of the Indre; 18 miles N.E. of Châtillon-sur-Indre.

VILLEPEYS, or **VILLEPAIS**, a town of France, in the department of the Var, on the coast of the bay of Frejus; 3 miles S.S.W. of Frejus.

VILLEPINTE, a town of France, in the department of the Aude; 6 miles S.E. of Castelnaudary.

VILLEPREUX, a town of France, in the department of the Seine and Oise; 5 miles W. of Versailles.

VILLEQUIER, a town of France, in the department of the Lower Seine, on the right bank of the Seine; 3 miles S.W. of Caudebec.

VILLEQUIERS, a town of France, in the department of the Cher; 18 miles E. of Bourges.

VILLEREAU, a town of France, in the department of the Lot and Garonne; 7 miles N. of Montflanquin.

VILLEREST, a town of France, in the department of the Rhône and Loire, on the Loire; 5 miles S. of Roanne.

VILLERS, a town of Brabant; 9 miles E. of Nivelles.

VILLERS Bocage, a town of France, in the department of the Somme; 7 miles N. of Amiens.

VILLERS le Bocage, a town of France, in the department of the Calvados; 12 miles S.W. of Caen.

VILLERS sous Chalamont, a town of France, in the department of the Doubs; 12 miles W. of Pontarlier.

VILLERS Colterets, a town of France, in the department of the Aisne; 12 miles S.W. of Soissons.

VILLERS Farlay, a town of France, in the department of the Jura; 6 miles N. of Arbois.

VILLERS la Montagne, a town of France, in the department of the Moselle; 3 miles S.E. of Longwy.

VILLERS sous Perny, a town of France, in the department of the Meurthe; 3 miles N.W. of Pont-à-Mousson.

VILLERSEYSEL, or **VILLERSACEY**, a town of France, in the department of the Upper Saône; 9 miles S. of Lure.

VILLESHEIM, a town of the duchy of Wurzburg; 5 miles S.E. of Kitzingen.

VILLETERTRE, a town of France, in the department of the Oise; 6 miles S.E. of Chaumont.

VILLETTE d'Anton, a town of France, in the department of the Hère, on the Rhône; 12 miles E. of Lyons.

VILLETTE d'Ilins, a town of France, in the department of the Hère; 10 miles N.N.E. of Vienne.

VILLEVIELLE, a town of France, in the department of the Higher Alps; 12 miles S.E. of Briançon.

VILLI, *Coarse Hair*, in *Anatomy*, is sometimes used in the same sense as fibres, or fibrille. See **FIBRE**.

VILLI, in *Botany*. See **VILLOUS**.

VILLIE, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Rhône and Loire; 12 miles N. of Villefranche.

VILLIERS, *George*, in *Biography*, the first duke of Buckingham, was descended from an ancient family in Leicestershire, and born at Brookby in that county, A.D. 1592. His attention was directed by his mother, who undertook the charge of his education, to ornamental rather than solid accomplishments, which were further improved by a resi-

dence of three years in France, whither he was sent at the age of eighteen. His graceful person and gay disposition recommended him at court, to which he was introduced by sir John Graham, a gentleman of the king's privy-chamber. In 1613, James I. conferred upon him the office of his cup-bearer. Upon the fall of the earl of Somerset, Villiers took his place in the affection and confidence of the king, who knighted him in 1615, and made him gentleman of the bed-chamber, with a pension of 1000*l.* a-year. He soon after became master of the horse, and in 1616 was honoured with the garter, created a baron and viscount, and in the following year advanced to the earldom of Buckingham, and admitted into the privy-council. After his return from Scotland, whither he accompanied the king in 1617, he was created a marquis, and promoted to the dignities of lord high-admiral of England, chief justice in eyre south of the Trent, master of the king's-bench office, steward of Westminster, and constable of Windsor Castle. He also employed his powerful interest with the king for the advancement of his family and connections. His character was that of an ardent friend and implacable enemy, insolent and arrogant to those who opposed him, and regardless of real merit in those whom he patronized. To his pusillanimous sovereign and to prince Charles he manifested his arrogant disposition; but in order to engage the prince's attachment, he proposed a visit of respect to his intended bride, the infanta of Spain. The king, at first averse from this journey, at length granted to his importunity a reluctant consent. His manners, however, disgusted the Spanish court, and he returned avowing his enmity to the prime minister Olivarez. Such was his powerful influence at home, that he was appointed lord warden of the Cinque Ports. By misrepresenting the negotiations with Spain relating to the proposed marriage, he inflamed the nation against the Spaniards, and became popular; and dreading the return of lord Bristol from his embassy, and a true statement of this business, he joined the opposers of the court and promoted popular measures. Upon the accession of Charles his influence was augmented, and he was sent to France, in order to conduct into England the royal bride, Henrietta-Maria. During his visit to France, he had the assurance to declare his affection for Anne of Austria, queen of Lewis XIII., and to prosecute his addresses; and with this view, he determined to pay her a private visit. The consequence would probably have been his assassination; but forewarned of his danger, he declined the execution of his purpose; swearing, at the same time, that he would see and speak with that lady in spite of the strength and power of France. To this circumstance lord Clarendon imputes his enmity against the French court, and his attempt to alienate the affection of Charles from his queen. At length, his inordinate use of the power with which he had been entrusted rendered him an object of national jealousy and abhorrence; and in May 1626, the earl of Bristol, who at his instigation had been committed to the Tower, and afterwards banished from the court, exhibited against him a charge of high-treason. He was also accused by the commons of high crimes and misdemeanours; but his master averted the stroke that was aimed against him by the dissolution of parliament. In the war now subsisting with Spain, he went to the Hague to concert a treaty with the States-general for the recovery of the Palatinate; but his conduct towards France soon produced a war with that country. At his solicitation, France was invaded in 1627 by an expedition under his command; and he landed on the isle of Rhé, whence he was obliged to withdraw with great loss. In order to recover his reputation after this disgrace, he advised the calling of a new parliament; which, so far from answering his purpose, charged him with being the author of

all the evils and dangers brought upon the king and kingdom, and drew up a remonstrance, containing a statement of the grievances of which he had been the cause. These proceedings were staid by a prorogation, and in the mean while he made an effort for recovering the good-will of the country, by fitting out an expedition for the relief of the Rochellers, then under close siege, in whose fate the zealous Protestants felt great interest. Whilst he was at Portsmouth, preparing for this expedition, Felton, who had served under him as a lieutenant in the army, moved by discontent and a fanatical spirit, gave him a stab, which proved almost instantly mortal, and of which he expired August 23, 1628, having just completed his 36th year. His tragical death, unpopular as he was, occasioned general commiseration. His public character has been sufficiently delineated in the preceding sketch of his conduct. Possessing some qualities that excite vulgar applause, a high spirit, personal courage, ready elocution and generosity, he had no other title to the appellation of a great man, which some have bestowed upon him, besides his advancement, by the erroneous judgment and partial favour of his sovereign, to place and power. He married lady Catharine Manners, daughter and sole heiress of Francis, earl of Rutland, by whom he left two sons and a daughter. In domestic life, he was an affectionate, though not a faithful husband, and kind to his family. With him, it is said, all-powerful favouritism at the English court terminated. Biog. Brit. Clarendon. Hume, &c. &c.

VILLIERS, GEORGE, second duke of Buckingham, was the son of the preceding, and born A.D. 1627, at Wallingford-House, Westminster. He and his brother Francis received the rudiments of education under the same tutors with the king's own children, and were both entered at Trinity college, Cambridge, and afterwards sent upon their foreign travels. Upon their return the civil war had commenced; and after having been presented to the king at Oxford, they engaged in military service under prince Rupert and lord Gerard. Upon this their estates were seized, but restored on account of their nonage. They afterwards renewed their travels in France and Italy. In 1648, when the king was prisoner in the Isle of Wight, they returned to England, and joined the earl of Holland, who was in arms in Surrey; but in an engagement with the parliamentary troops at Nonfuch, lord Francis, who fought valiantly, was slain. The duke escaped to St. Neot's, and surrounded by the enemy, made way with sword in hand through the guard, and joined prince Charles in the Downs. By adhering to the royal cause he forfeited his estates, which were then amongst the most considerable belonging to any English subject. Whilst he was abroad, his chief support was derived from a sale at Antwerp of his father's noble collection of pictures, which a faithful servant had secured. He attended the exiled Charles in Scotland, and accompanied him at the fatal battle of Worcester, when his escape was no less extraordinary than that of his master. He afterwards served as a volunteer in the French army, and occasionally visited the king's little court in Flanders. When the duke was informed that lord Fairfax had retired from the army and resided on part of his estate, which parliament had allotted to him, that he had acted generously with regard to other forfeitures, and that he had an only daughter, he determined to venture into England and try his fortune. He soon gained the affection of the daughter, and they were married in 1657, at his lordship's seat of Nun-Appleton, near York; and Cowley is said to have written an epithalamium on the occasion. He was seized, however, in 1658, and committed to the Tower, very much to the displeasure of his father-in-law. After the death of Cromwell, he was allowed to confine himself at Windor

Castle, and upon the abdication of Richard he obtained his liberty. The Restoration put him in possession of all his estates, and he lived in splendour and magnificence, indulging in a profusion of expence, which was very injurious to his fortune, and which was not counterbalanced by the pofts of a lord of the bed-chamber, lord-lieutenant of Yorkshire, and master of the horse, which the king assigned him. Reduced to desperate circumstances, or inclined to faction and intrigue, he was charged, as early as the year 1662, with treasonable designs; so that in 1666 it became necessary for him to abscond; and a proclamation was issued for apprehending him. However, he voluntarily surrendered himself, and contrived so to ingratiate himself with Charles, as to be restored to his place in the bed-chamber and in the council. Always an adversary to lord chancellor Clarendon, he used his influence to accelerate his fall. In 1668 he joined sir Orlando Bridgeman and sir Matthew Hale in the laudable scheme of relaxing the severities against the Non-conformists; but their plan for this purpose was defeated by the house of commons. Destitute of steady principle, the duke was selected, in 1670, to form one of the infamous party denominated the *Cabal*, (which see,) and he was deputed as ambassador to the court of France, in order to dissolve the triple alliance, concerted by Temple and De Witt; and being a favourite with the French king, he concurred in all the measures of that court. He was suspected, on account of his profligate character, with being accessory to the attempt made upon the life of the duke of Ormond, by Blood; and his cowardice was so contemptible, that he tamely bore from the duke's spirited son, lord Ossory, the imputation of this villainy, accompanied with a menace, in the royal presence. He was elected, however, in 1671, by court-interest, to the chancellorship of Cambridge; and in the same year was exhibited his comedy, called the "Rehearsal," which is said to have been a joint production. The satire levelled against Dryden, then made poet-laureat, was thought to be just, but illiberal; and it was retorted by the poet in the character of the duke, under the name of Zimri, in "Abalom and Achitophel."

In 1672, the duke was sent to France to concert measures for the war which was intended to ruin the Dutch commonwealth. In 1674, the conduct of the Cabal being attacked in the house of commons, a motion was made for his impeachment, and he was questioned at the bar of the house. The result of this business was, that the commons voted an address for his removal. But as he was directed and restrained in his conduct by no kind of principle, he joined the opposition to the court with the earl of Shaftesbury. In 1680, having sold Wallingford-House, he removed to the city, and there concurred in the politics of the opposition. Hume has delineated his character very justly, when he says of him, "the least interest could make him abandon his honour; the smallest pleasure could seduce him from his interest; the most frivolous caprice was sufficient to counterbalance his pleasure. By his want of secrecy and constancy, he destroyed his character in public life; by his contempt of order and economy, he dissipated his private fortune; by riot and debauchery he ruined his health; and he remained at last as incapable of doing hurt, as he had ever been little desirous of doing good to mankind." Such, notwithstanding this appropriate character, was his inconsistency, that in 1685 he published a popular work, containing some just and liberal sentiments, and entitled "A short Discourse upon the Reasonableness of Men's having a Religion, or Worship of God." Upon his retirement, in declining health, to his manor of Helmley, in Yorkshire, and whilst he was amusing himself with rural sports and company, he wrote a short essay, entitled "A Demonstration of the Deity." At length, in a

fox-chace, he caught cold, which brought on a fever, that confined him in a tenant's house at Kirkby-moor-side, where he was visited by some friends, and at their suggestion he received the sacrament according to the rite of the church of England. On the third day of his illness he died, in April 1688, in the 61st year of his age, and was interred in the family-vault at Westminster Abbey. He was an unfaithful husband, and had no issue by his wife. His amours were numerous; and of these, the principal was that with the countess of Shrewsbury, who held his horse while he killed her husband in a duel. His writings, consisting of essays, poems, &c. have been collected in 2 vols. 8vo. and have passed through four editions. He is said to have devoted himself to chemical, or rather alchemical pursuits, in which he was the dupe of interested and designing persons; and it is added, that he introduced the art of making crystal-glass from Venice. Biog. Brit. Hume.

VILLIERS DE L'ISLE ADAM, PHILIP DE, was a descendant of an ancient French family, born in 1464, and elected grand-master of the order of St. John of Jerusalem in 1521. In the year after his election, the island of Rhodes, where he resided, was invaded by 200,000 Turks, against whom he defended it with such vigour, that sultan Solymán came in person to superintend the attack; and after a siege of six months, in which the Turks are said to have lost 100,000 men, he found it necessary to surrender it. Solymán treated him with great respect, declaring to one of his officers, that it was not without regret he obliged this Christian to leave his house at his age. Abandoning Rhodes in 1523 with fifty vessels, his remaining knights, and about 4000 of the inhabitants, he arrived at Rome during the papacy of Clement VII.; who assigned to him for a present residence the town of Viterbo. In 1527 the emperor Charles V. offered the island of Malta, which in a general chapter it was determined to accept. He then went to Syracuse, and in 1530 received the donation by letters-patent of Malta, Gozo, and Tripoli in Barbary. In this year he fortified Malta; and from that period, the knights of St. John assumed the title of knights of Malta. After a life distinguished by piety, courage, and prudence, he died in 1534, at the age of 70. Upon his tomb was inscribed this appropriate eulogy, "Here reposes Virtue victorious over Fortune." Morel.

VILLIERS, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Côte d'Or; 6 miles N.N.W. of Châtillon-sur-Seine.—Also, a town of France, in the department of the Loire and Cher; 4 miles W. of Vendôme.—Also, a town of France, in the department of the Mayne; 6 miles N. of Château Contier.

VILLIERS en *Vecœur*, a town of France, in the department of the Eure; 15 miles E.S.E. of Evreux.

VILLIERS St. Benoît, a town of France, in the department of the Yonne; 15 miles W. of Auxerre.

VILLIMPENTA, a town of Italy, in the department of the Mincio; 10 miles E. of Mantua.

VILLINGEN, a town of the duchy of Baden, in the Brisgau. This place, by means of the mountains and narrow access leading to it, is extremely well secured, and also somewhat fortified by art. It has always served the Austrians as a magazine for these parts, as well for provisions as military stores. In it is an abbey of Benedictines; and its neighbourhood contains a good bath; 52 miles S.S.W. of Stuttgart. N. lat. 48° 4'. E. long. 8° 26'.

VILLOA, a town of the duchy of Piacenza; 10 miles S. of Piacenza.

VILLOISON, JOHN-BAPTIST GASPARD D'ANSE DE, in *Biography*, was the descendant of a family originally Spanish,

and born in 1750 at Corbelle-sur-Seine, and after receiving the rudiments of literature at several colleges, attended the Greek lectures of M. le Beau at Paris, and enjoyed the higher instruction in this department of M. Capperonier, Greek professor in the royal college of France. Such were his talents and application, that with these advantages he became acquainted, at the age of fifteen, with almost all the writers of antiquity in every class. In his researches among MSS. in the library of St. Germain-des-Prés, he found a Greek lexicon of Homer by Apollonius, which he published in 1773, with prolegomena and notes, that displayed a very surprising extent of erudition, considering his early age, and that introduced him, out of the usual form, into the Academy of Inscriptions and Belles Lettres. His next considerable undertaking was an edition of the *Pastoral of Longus*, which was published in 1778. In 1781 he obtained a mission, at the king's expence, to examine the library of St. Mark in Venice, where he found several inedited works of rhetoricians, philosophers, and grammarians, a collection of which he published in 2 vols. 4to. under the title of "*Anecdota Græca*." He also found a very valuable MS. of Homer's *Iliad*, with scholia by ancient grammarians, which he committed to the press in 1788, accompanied with learned prolegomena. About this time he received an invitation from the duke and duchess of Saxe-Weimar, to visit their court, the most literary in Germany; and here he collected various readings and emendations of the text of several Greek authors, which he printed at Zurich, under the title of "*Epistolæ Vimarïenses*." Another of his publications is that of a translation of part of the Old Testament, by a Jew of the ninth century, which he had found in the library of St. Mark; and of this he gave an edition, with notes, at Strasbourg in 1781. Soon after his return to Paris, and his marriage of an interesting young woman, he formed the purpose of searching for MSS. in the East, and in 1785 he visited Constantinople, and afterwards Smyrna, and several islands in the Archipelago, and Greece; and the result of his researches and observations was read before the Academy of Belles Lettres, on his return to Paris in 1787. At the commencement of the Revolution he retired to Orleans, for the pursuance of his literary plans; and the fruits of his consultations of ancient and modern authors were 15 large volumes in 4to. He also contemplated a larger work, which was a new edition of father Montfaucon's "*Paleographia Græca*." When the revolutionary tempest subsided, he returned to Paris, with literary treasure, in amassing which he had expended three-fourths of his moderate fortune; and he was therefore under a necessity of commencing a course of lectures in the Greek language, which proved unsuccessful. He therefore gladly accepted the professorship of modern Greek, which the government established, and discharged its duties till it was suppressed by Napoleon. From respect to his merit, a professorship of ancient and modern Greek was created for him alone in the college of France; but he was carried off by a lingering malady in April 1805, at the age of 55 years. In verbal knowledge Villon was deemed a profound scholar; but to the higher qualities of intellect he is said to have had no just pretensions. Gen. Biog.

VILLONA, in *Geography*, a town of Spain, in the province of Leon; 13 miles E. of Salamanca.

VILLOSLADA, a town of Spain, in Old Castile; 20 miles S.E. of Najera.

VILLOSUS, in *Botany and Vegetable Physiology*, expresses that kind of hairiness which is longish, soft, and shaggy, like wool, yet does not amount to the thick entangled coat of many plants, which is properly termed woolly,

woolly, as in *VERRASCUM*; see that article: see also *PURSCENCE* and *LEAF*.

VILLOUS, *VILLOSA*, is particularly applied to one of the coats or membranes of the stomach, called *crusta villosa*.

It takes its name from innumerable villi, or fine fibrillæ, with which its inner surface is covered.

VILLURBANNE, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Ière; 4 miles E. of Lyons.

VILMANSTRAND, or **WILMANSTRAND**, a town of Russia, in the government of Viborg, on the south coast of the lake Saima; 40 miles N.N.W. of Viborg. N. lat. 61° 20'. E. long. 27° 26'.

VILMAR, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Lower Rhine; 24 miles N. of Mentz.

VILMINOREU, a town of Italy, in the department of the Adda and Oglio; 28 miles N.E. of Bergamo.

VILMNITZ, a town of the island of Rugen; 7 miles S.E. of Bergen.

VILOVATOSTANOVITSCH, a fortress of Russia, in the government of Archangel, near the Frozen ocean; 180 miles E.S.E. of Kola. N. lat. 68° 50'. E. long. 40° 14'.

VILS, a river of Bavaria, which passes by Amberg, &c. and runs into the Nab, at Kalunz.—Also, a river of Wurttemberg, which rises near Wiesenstug, passes by Geitlingen, Coppingen, &c. and runs into the Neckar, 2 miles N. of Wendlingen.

VILS, or *Grot*, a river of Germany, which runs into the Danube at Villhofen.

VILS Biburg, a town of Bavaria; 8 miles S.E. of Landshut.

VILSECK, a town of Bavaria, on the Vils; 20 miles S.S.E. of Bayreuth. N. lat. 49° 36'. E. long. 11° 48'.

VILSEN, a town of Germany, in the county of Hoya; 5 miles W. of Hoya.

VILSHOFEN, a town of Bavaria, at the conflux of the Vils with the Danube; 11 miles W. of Passau. N. lat. 48° 29'. E. long. 13° 11'.

VILTRUM, a word used sometimes alone to express a filtre, instead of the word *filtrum*. But *viltrum* is more commonly joined with the word *philosophorum*, and then expresses the common alembic for distillation.

VILUI, in *Geography*, a river of Russia, which runs into the Lena, at Ust Viluiskoi. N. lat. 64°. E. long. 126° 14'.

VILUISKOI, *NIZNET*, a town of Russia, in the government of Irkutsk, on the Vilui. N. lat. 63° 45'. E. long. 122° 44'.

VILUISKOI, *Ust*, a town of Russia, in the government of Irkutsk, at the conflux of the Vilui and Lena; 128 miles N.W. of Yakutsk. N. lat. 63° 50'. E. long. 126° 14'.

VILUISKOI, *Verchnei*, a town of Russia, in the government of Irkutsk; 200 miles N. of Oleminsk. N. lat. 63° 44'. E. long. 120° 24'.

VILVORDE, or *VILLEFORTE*, a town of France, in the department of the Dyle, situated on the river Senne; 6 miles S. of Malines.

VIM, a river of Russia, which rises in the government of Archangel, and runs into the Vitcheгда, near Lialskoi, in the province of Ulting.

VIMERCATO, a town of Italy, in the department of the Olona; 13 miles N.N.E. of Milan.

VIMIEIRO, a town of Portugal, in the province of Alentejo; 10 miles W. of Estremoz.

VIMINACIUM, or **VIMINATIUM**, in *Ancient Geogra-*

phy, a town of Hispania Citerior, belonging to the Vaccei; marked in the Itin. Anton. between Palentia and Lacobriga.

VIMINALIS, in *Mythology*, an epithet of Jupiter.

VIMINARIA, in *Botany*, was so named by the writer of this article, from *vimen*, a slender rod, or twig, in allusion to the habit of the plant.—Sm. in Sims and Kon. Annals of Botany, v. 1. 507. Brown in Ait. Hort. Kew. v. 3. 13.—Clas and order, *Decandria Monogynia*. Nat. Ord. *Papilionacea*, Linn. *Leguminosæ*, Juss.

Gen. Ch. *Cal.* Perianth inferior, simple, of one leaf, bell-shaped, angular, with five short equal teeth, permanent. *Cor.* papilionaceous. Standard inversely heart-shaped, ascending, with a short claw. Wings oblong, obtuse, converging, shorter than the standard, each with a tooth at the base, on the lower side, and a short slender claw. Keel nearly equal to the wings, of two combined petals, with distinct claws, concave, with a blunt tooth at each side of the upper edge, at the base. *Stam.* Filaments ten, awl-shaped, distinct, rather ascending, the lower ones gradually longest, the upper one shortest; anthers roundish, two-lobed. *Pist.* Germen superior, oval, smooth; style capillary, ascending, as long as the stamens; stigma simple. *Peric.* Legume oval, half inverted by the calyx, acute, slightly compressed, smooth, coriaceous, of one cell, not bursting. *Seed* solitary, oval-kidney-shaped, without any appendage.

Ess. Ch. Calyx angular, simple, five-toothed. Corolla papilionaceous. Style capillary. Stigma simple, acute. Legume leathery, of one valve, not bursting, entirely filled with a single seed.

1. *V. denudata*. Leafless Rush-Broom. Sm. in Ann. of Bot. as above. Exot. Bot. v. 1. 51. t. 27. Tr. of Linn. Soc. v. 9. 261. Ait. n. 1. (Daviesia denudata; Venten. Choix de Plantes, t. 6. Sophora juncea; Schrad. Sert. Hannov. t. 3. Pultenaea juncea; Willd. Sp. Pl. v. 2. 506. Donn Cant. ed. 5. 101.)—The only known species, a native of New Holland and Van Diemen's island, said to have been introduced at Kew by Sir Joseph Banks, in 1789. It is a rather hardy greenhouse shrub, flowering in July. The *stem* is branched, round and smooth. *Leaves* only to be seen on the lower part of seedlings, or young plants, alternate, on long smooth stalks, ovate, entire, three-ribbed, smooth, either acute or emarginate; at first sometimes ternate. The *footstalks* on the greater part of the plant are leafless, cylindrical, smooth, with two or three minute scales at the point; the lower ones six inches, or more, in length; the upper gradually shorter. *Clusters* terminal, solitary, simple, of many pretty yellow flowers, the disk of whose standards is red. Each partial stalk has a small bractæ at the base.

VIMINATIUM LEGIO, in *Ancient Geography, a town of Higher Mæsia, on the banks of the Danube, marked in the Itin. Anton. on the route from Mount d'Or to Constantinople, between Municipium and Ideuminacum.*

VIMIOSO, in *Geography, a town of Portugal, in the province of Tra los Montes; 15 miles W.N.W. of Miranda de Duero. N. lat. 41° 29'. E. long. 6° 14'.*

VIMMALA, in *Natural History*, a name given by the people of the East Indies to a kind of pyrites, of a brassy appearance, and of a cubic figure.

They also give it in the same place to the pyrites general, when small, and of a simple internal structure.

VIMOUTIER, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Orne, on the Vic; 15 miles N.E. of Argentan.

VIMY, a town of France, in the department of the Straits of Calais; 5 miles N. of Arras.

VINA,

VINA, or **VENA**, in *Hindoo Mythology*, is the father of Prithu, who is fabled to have been an incarnation of the god Vishnu. Vina is the correct mode of writing the name of a musical instrument of the East, commonly called *Been*; under which word we have given a description, and referred to one of our plates for a representation of it.

VINAGO, in *Ornithology*, a name given by some authors to the wood-pigeon, from the colour of its breast, shoulders, and wings, resembling that of red wine. Its more usual name among authors is *oenos*.

VINALHAVEN, in *Geography*, a town of America, in the district of Maine and county of Hancock, containing 1052 inhabitants; 60 miles E.N.E. of Brunswick.

VINALIA, in *Antiquity*, a name common to two feasts among the ancient Romans; the one in honour of Jupiter, and the other of Venus.

The first was held on the 19th of August; and the second on the 1st of May. The Vinalia of the 19th of August were called *Vinalia rustica*; and were instituted on occasion of the war of the Latins against Mezentius; in the course of which war, that people vowed a libation to Jupiter of all the wine in the succeeding vintage.

On the same day likewise fell the dedication of a temple of Venus; whence some authors have fallen into a mistake, that these Vinalia were sacred to Venus. But Varro L.L.V. and Festus, in *verbo Rustica*, distinguish between the two ceremonies; and expressly assert the Vinalia to be a feast of Jupiter.

VINARA, in *Geography*, a town of South America, in the province of Tucuman; 56 miles N.N.W. of St. Yago del Estero.

VINAROS, a town of Spain, in the province of Valencia, on the coast of the Mediterranean; 5 miles N. of Peniscola.

VINATA, in *Hindoo Mythology*, is the parent of the eagle of the Indian Jove, called Garuda, or Superna. He is also parent of the Aurora of Eastern fable, who is called Aruna, the driver of the car of Phoebus, or Surya. Under SURYA we have spoken of Vinata as the paternal ancestor of Superna and Aruna, but it is rather an equivocal parentage, as Kasyapa is sometimes said to be their father, and Diti their mother. (See KASYAPA.) The name of Vinata, or Vinava, seldom occurs in Hindoo books; though that of Vinateya, as a name of Superna, marking his parentage, is not very uncommon.

VINATEYA, a name of the Hindoo mythological eagle, more commonly called *Superna*; which see, and **VINATA**.

VINAY, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Ilere; 4 miles S. of St. Marcelin.

VINAZA, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Africa Propria, upon the route from Tacapze to Grand Leptis, between Aurus and Thalamus. Anton. Itin.

VINCA, in *Botany*, originally *Pervinca*, whence its English and French names, Periwinkle and Pervenche, is not satisfactorily explained by any etymologist. The best derivation of the word may perhaps be from *vincio*, to bind or wrap up, because its long trailing or twining branches wind themselves round, and entangle, every other plant in their way.—Linn. Gen. 115. Schreb. 163. Willd. Sp. Pl. v. 1. 1232. Mart. Mill. Dict. v. 4. Sm. Fl. Brit. 269. Prodr. Fl. Græc. Sibth. v. 1. 164. Ait. Hort. Kew. v. 2. 66. Juss. 144. Lamarek Illustr. t. 172. Gertn. t. 117. (Pervinca); Tourn. t. 45.—Class and order, *Pentandria Monogynia*. Nat. Ord. *Contortæ*, Linn. *Apo-cineæ*, Juss.

Gen. Ch. Cal. Perianth inferior, of one leaf, in five

deep, erect, acute segments, permanent. Cor. of one petal, falver-shaped. Tube longer than the calyx; cylindrical in the lower part; dilated and grooved with five lines in the upper; five-angled at the mouth. Limb horizontal, in five deep equal segments, attached to the top of the tube, dilated outwards, obliquely lopped at the extremity, and slightly twisted. Stam. Filaments five, inserted into the tube, very short, inflexed and then bent backward; anthers membranous, obtuse, erect, incurved, bearing pollen at each margin. Pist. Germens two, roundish, at whose sides are two roundish bodies; style common to both germens, simple, cylindrical, the length of the stamens; stigma of two parts, the lower orbicular, flat, the upper capitate, concave. Peric. Follicles two, long, cylindrical, pointed, erect, each of one valve bursting lengthwise. Seeds numerous, oblong, cylindrical, furrowed, without down or wing.

Effl. Ch. Corolla of one petal, contorted, falver-shaped, inferior. Follicles two, erect. Seeds naked.

1. *V. minor*. Lesser Periwinkle. Linn. Sp. Pl. 304. Willd. n. 1. Fl. Brit. n. 1. Engl. Bot. t. 917. Curt. Lond. fasc. 3. t. 16. (*V. pervinca minor*; Ger. Em. 894. Clematis; Camer. Epit. 694, 695. Matth. Valgr. v. 2. 305.)—Stems procumbent. Leaves elliptic-lanceolate, smooth at the edges. Flowers stalked. Calyx-teeth lanceolate.—Found in bushy places, groves, and about hedges, in Germany, England, France, Switzerland, and various parts of Greece. There can be little doubt of this being the *κλινάριον* of Dioscorides, as all authors have thought. He speaks of it as a native of Egypt. Dr. Sibthorp met with it in Arcadia, as well as in the countries of Elis and Argolis. In England this pretty plant is seldom found wild, though in gardens and shrubberies nothing is more commonly planted, particularly the double-flowered purple, and the white-flowered variegated kinds. They are all perennial, flowering in May. The root creeps extensively. The stems, erect while in flower, become trailing, creeping very far, and are round, smooth, leafy. Leaves evergreen, opposite, stalked, entire, smooth, shining, about an inch long. Flowers axillary, solitary, alternate, stalked, erect, scentless, deep blue, white in the centre. We have never seen the fruit of this species.

2. *V. major*. Greater Periwinkle. Linn. Sp. Pl. 304. Willd. n. 2. Fl. Brit. n. 2. Engl. Bot. t. 514. Curt. Lond. fasc. 4. t. 19. (*Pervinca vulgaris*; Garidel Aix; t. 81. Clematis daphnoides major; Ger. Em. 894.)—Stems nearly erect. Leaves ovate, fringed. Flowers stalked. Calyx-teeth brittle-shaped, elongated.—Native of thickets and groves, in rather moist situations, in England, France, Spain, Switzerland, and Carniola, flowering in May, being less rare with us than the former, and no less commonly cultivated for ornament in extensive shrubberies, that will admit of its rambling mode of growth. There this species composes light, convex, evergreen tufts under trees and hedges. The leaves are thrice the size of *V. minor*, of a lighter green, and more ovate, or somewhat heart-shaped. Flowers larger, and rather more blue, with less of a violet tint. Seed-vessels an inch and a half long, recurved, pointed, with seldom more than two roughish seeds, one above the other.

3. *V. lutea*. Yellow Periwinkle. Linn. Sp. Pl. 304. Am. Acad. v. 4. 309, not 307. Willd. n. 3. ("Apocynum scandens, foliis folio, flore amplo plano; Catefb. Carol. v. 2. 53. t. 53.")—"Stem twining. Leaves oblong."—Native of Carolina. This has the habit of an *Echites*. We are quite unacquainted with the plant, nor did Linnaeus ever see a specimen.

4. *V. rofea*. Madagascar Periwinkle. Linn. Sp. Pl. 305. Willd. n. 4. Ait. n. 3. Curt. Mag. t. 248. (Vinea; Mill. Ic. 124. t. 186.)—Stem shrubby, erect. Flowers sessile, in pairs. Leaves elliptic-oblong.—Native of the East Indies. Cultivated here by Mr. Thomas Knowlton, before the year 1756. It is now become a very popular stove-plant, flowering most part of the year, and recommending itself to general admiration, by the beautiful colour of its ample blossoms, whose corolla is either of a bright rose-colour, or pure white, the centre always of a peculiarly rich crimfon, with a yellow eye. The stem is bushy, quite erect, about a yard high. Leaves entire, rather downy, two inches long, bluntish. This species is propagated easily, either by seed or by cuttings, but will not endure much cold or wet, though it requires a free air in summer.

5. *V. parviflora*. Small-flowered Periwinkle. Retz. Obs. fasc. 2. 14. Ait. n. 4. Willd. n. 5. (*V. pusilla*; Murray in Comm. Goett. for 1772. 66. t. 2. f. 1. Linn. Suppl. 166.)—Stem erect, herbaceous. Leaves lanceolate, acute.—Native of the East Indies. An Annual stove-plant, flowering in August, whose seeds were imported by Sir Joseph Banks in 1778. The stem is about a span high; slightly branched. Leaves as long as the last, being about two inches, but much narrower, and acute. Flowers solitary or in pairs, small, with not much pretension to beauty; their corolla white, with a yellow eye, not ill compared by Willdenow to *Litbofpermum officinale*.

VINCA, in Gardening, comprehends plants of the shrubby, evergreen, upright and trailing kinds, among which the species cultivated are, the small periwinkle (*V. minor*); the great periwinkle (*V. major*); and the Madagascar periwinkle (*V. rofea*).

The first has a perennial creeping root, and it varies in the colour of the flowers; with pale blue, with purple, and white, and with double flowers of these different colours; and the foliage is sometimes variegated either with white or yellow stripes.

The second fort is larger in all its parts than the preceding, having flowers of a purple-blueish colour. It varies with white flowers.

The third has an upright branching stem, three or four feet high, having a long succession of pale flesh-coloured flowers.

It varies with flowers with purple eyes.

Mahod of Culture.—These plants are all capable of being increased by layers, cuttings, and suckers.

In the first method, when the layers of the trailing branches are put down into the ground, they readily take root at almost any season. This is very much the case with the first fort, as almost every joint furnishes plants in the course of the summer ready to be put out in the autumn.

The cuttings may be made from the stalks and branches, and be planted in shady borders in the autumn or early spring, when they will become well rooted by the following autumn.

All the forts succeed in this way.

In the third fort, the cuttings should be made from the young shoots and be planted in pots, plunging them in a hot-bed, or the bark-bed, where they will become perfectly well rooted in the same year, and may be potted off separately, being placed in the stove, and shifted as may be necessary into large pots.

This fort may likewise be raised from seed, which should be sown in pots in the early spring filled with light rich earth, covering them well in, and plunging the pots in the hot-bed, or the bark-bed of the stove; and when the plants have a few inches growth, they should be pricked

out into separate pots, re-plunging them in a hot-bed, giving proper shade and water, managing them afterwards as the cuttings.

The suckers may be taken off with root-fibres in the autumn or spring, and planted where they are to grow.

The two first forts afford variety in the borders, clumps, &c. and they may be planted in thickets and wildernesses under trees with perfect success; while the last has a fine effect in stove collections as an elegant evergreen and flowering shrub.

VINCAC, in Geography, a town of France, in the department of the East Pyrenées; 4 miles E.N.E. of Prades.

VINCELLES, a town of France, in the department of the Jura; 6 miles S.S.W. of Lons le Saunier.

VINCENNES, a town of France, in the department of Paris, in which was a royal palace, originally begun by Philip de Valois, but repaired and finished by Louis XIV.: the ancient towers served as a state prison. At this place the duke d'Enghien suffered death; 1 post E. of Paris.

VINCENNES, a town of America, the capital of the territory of Indiana and county of Knox, on the bank of the Wabash, 150 miles from its mouth; in a delightful situation, surrounded by a prairie four miles long and one broad, mostly cultivated, and the remainder being a fine meadow which produces good grass. The soil, which is not inferior to any in the United States, yields corn, rice, wheat, tobacco, hemp, hops, grapes, &c. The Wabash is navigable, almost through the whole year, as far as this place. Commerce centres here, as the merchants bring their goods from Canada down the Wabash, from Orleans up the Mississippi, and from the eastern states, down the Ohio and up the Wabash. The fort, erected in 1787, stands on the E. side of Wabash river. It is garrisoned by a major and two companies. The inhabitants, principally of French extraction, amount to 670. It is a post-town; 743 miles from Washington.—Also, a town-ship in the same territory and county, containing 223 inhabitants.

VINCENT, WILLIAM, D.D. in Biography, dean of Westminster and vicar of Ilip, Oxon, was a descendant of a race of ancestors who officiated as clergymen of the established church, and belonged to that class of ecclesiastics usually denominated the "High Church Party." They were seated at Shepey, in the county of Leicestershire. The dean was the last surviving son of Mr. Giles Vincent, who acquired a fortune as a packer under Spanish and Portugal merchants; but afterwards, by losses and disappointments in his commercial connections, retired from trade without being enriched by it. He was born in London, November 2, 1739, and being designed for the church, was entered at Westminster school in September, 1748, and in 1753 was admitted on the foundation. In 1757 he was elected to Trinity college, Cambridge, and supported there by his elder brother, who continued the business of a packer. He took his first degree of B.A. in 1761, and in the following year was appointed teacher at Westminster school. In 1764 he was graduated M.A.; in 1771 he became second master; in 1776, D.D. and one of his majesty's chaplains; in 1788, head-master of the school; and in 1798, president of Sion college. Having married in early life, his family rapidly increased, and some of his children were arrived at maturity before he obtained any considerable preferments in the church, notwithstanding the favourable situation which he occupied. In 1777 he was nominated by Dr. Markham, upon his elevation to the see of York, sub-almoner to the king, an office which he held until his demise;

and in 1778 he was advanced to the rectory of Allhallows, which in 1803 he resigned in favour of his eldest son. In 1801 he obtained a prebendal stall in the collegiate church of St. Peter, Westminster, which preferment enabled him to resign the laborious office of head-master of the school; and in 1802 he became dean. In 1807 he took possession of the rectory of Ilip. On the parsonage-house, rebuilt by Dr. South, he expended between two and three thousand pounds, 1000*l.* of which arose from dilapidations, and the remainder furnished by himself, so as to render it a convenient and comfortable residence. It is mentioned as a remarkable circumstance in the life of this learned divine, that he passed twice, with great applause, through Westminster school; first, from the lowest form to the highest as a scholar, and secondly as an usher: nor is it less singular, that he almost constantly resided within the precincts of the Abbey, from his eighth to his seventy-sixth year, or during the interval of sixty-eight years, allowing for his temporary absence at Cambridge during his education, and on occasion of taking a degree. Notwithstanding his assiduous application to the duties of a sedentary profession, his life was prolonged to an advanced age; and after a fortnight's illness, he died at his favourite residence of the deanery, December 21st, 1815, in the 77th year of his age; leaving behind him two sons, both of whom are married and have children.

Whilst he was unremitting in his attention to his office as tutor, and to his various clerical duties, he devoted a portion of his time to compositions which have issued from the press. Of these, the first we shall mention was "A Letter to Dr. Richard Watton (afterwards Bishop of Llandaff), King's Professor in the University of Cambridge," 8vo. 1780, in reply to some observations introduced by this learned prelate into a sermon preached before the university of Cambridge, which was afterwards printed under the title of "The Principles of the Revolution vindicated," and into another discourse "On the Anniversary of His Majesty's Accession." In 1787 he published his tract on "Parochial Music;" in 1789, a sermon delivered before the sons of the clergy; and in 1792, a sermon preached at St. Margaret's, Westminster, for the Grey-coat school of that parish. In the latter discourse he noticed opinions, which were then prevalent, respecting the doctrines of natural liberty and equality; and more than 20,000 copies of it were printed and dispersed in and near the metropolis, and a great number was circulated through different parts of the kingdom. The next publication of Dr. Vincent was "The Origination of the Greek Verb, an Hypothesis," 8vo.; the title of which was altered in the second edition to "The Greek Verb analysed." This work was criticised with some humour, and not without a degree of asperity, in a piece entitled "Hermes unmasked." Our author's next publication was an elaborate dissertation on military affairs, entitled "De Legione Manliana Quæstio, ex Livio desumpta, et Rei Militaris Romanæ studiosius propostita," 1795. Six years afterwards appeared his principal performance, evincing his acquaintance with both ancient and modern geography and navigation, under the title of "The Voyage of Nearchus to the Euphrates; collected from the original Journal preserved by Arrian, and illustrated by Authorities ancient and modern, containing an Account of the first Navigation attempted by the Europeans in the Indian Ocean," 4to. 1799; and this was soon after followed by "The Periplus of the Erythrean Sea; containing an Account of the Navigation of the Ancients from the Red Sea to the Coast of Zanzibar, with Dissertations, Part I," 4to. 1800. Our learned author was next engaged in a controversy with Dr. Rennell, prebendary of Winchester and master of the Tem-

ple, occasioned by some reflections on the neglect of religion in our public institutions, which were introduced in a sermon preached in 1799, before the Society for promoting Christian Knowledge, at the annual meeting of all the charity-schools of the metropolis, in the cathedral of St. Paul's. To this sermon was annexed a note, in which the preacher declares his opinion, "that there is scarcely any internal danger which we fear, but what is to be ascribed to a *Pagan education*, under Christian establishments, in a Christian country." Dr. Vincent, then master of the only great public school in the metropolis, seemed at first to think that this attack was personal; but in order to avoid public contention, he commenced a private correspondence with Dr. Rennell, in the course of which ample and satisfactory explanations were made. But at the next anniversary, in 1800, Dr. O'Beirne, bishop of Meath, delivered a sermon, which was printed at the request of the Society, accompanied by a note, containing the same obnoxious assertions, together with additional remarks of his own. Dr. Vincent applied to the Society for permission to inclose in the parcels, containing its annual communications, a justification of the public instructors of England; but the Society declining to take a part in the controversy by complying with this request, the author committed to the press his "Defence of Public Education," addressed to the bishop of Meath, in which he makes an apology for the present system, and expresses himself in a high and indignant tone, in respect to the distinguished individuals whose supposed indifferency had incurred his censure. As no reply was made, the contest terminated; and in order to prevent the recurrence of a similar event, the Society resolved, that the notes as well as the text of the annual sermon should for the future be submitted to its revision and approbation.

In 1802, our author published his thanksgiving sermon, preached at St. Margaret's, Westminster, before the honourable house of commons; in 1805, the second part of "The Periplus of the Erythrean Sea;" in 1809, "The Voyage of Nearchus, and the Periplus of the Erythrean Sea," translated from the Greek; and in Mr. Valpy's classical Journal, No. 18. "Observations on the Geography of Sufiana." The dean also reviewed several articles in the British Critic, particularly that relating to the controversy about the Troad, and occasionally contributed articles to the Gentleman's Magazine. By such literary lucubrations Dr. V. amused himself in the intervals of his more laborious employments, passing a long and honourable life by devoting his mornings to reading and his evenings to the society of his friends; and towards the close of life, dividing his time between his deanery and his living of Ilip. "In the bosom of his family," says one of his biographers, "Dr. Vincent was seen to the greatest advantage." In the tranquil and peaceful circle above briefly delineated, "he endeared himself to all around him, by the benignity of his disposition, the affability of his demeanour, and the charms of his conversation. Here were laid open that singleness of heart and simplicity of mind, which none could appreciate justly, but those who saw and were conversant with him in the free and familiar hours of domestic privacy. With qualifications which would have conferred dignity on the highest station in the church, and with an ambition, perhaps, not wholly averse from rank and elevation, Dr. V. nevertheless loved quiet and retirement." We shall close this article with some extracts from a biographer who has duly appreciated his talents and character. "As a clergyman," says this writer, "Dr. Vincent was regular and exemplary in the discharge of his duties; strictly orthodox in point of faith; and a firm supporter of all the doctrines,

doctrines, tenets, and practices of the church of England. His person, as well as enunciation, were well fitted for pulpit oratory: his voice, in particular, was sonorous; his animation produced a lively interest in the hearts of his auditors, while a certain dignity of manner commanded their implicit attention."—"As a writer, he possessed all the necessary requisites to gain the approbation of intelligent critics; he was indefatigably industrious; addicted to research; and learned in no common degree. While his literary labours evinced his intimate acquaintance with the ancients, his sermons were admirably adapted to the abilities and understandings of an ordinary audience. In both capacities his language was chaste; his composition elegant: in short, he continually reflected the images of a mind, richly imbued with learning, both human and divine."

"As a controversial writer, he sometimes bordered on asperity, and this, too, in respect of minor points; while with certain persons, from whom he differed in essentials, he exhibited no common share of moderation and liberality. Accordingly he did full justice to the talents of a Tooke, a Porson, and a Gibbon."

"As a school-master, he must be allowed to have had a number of distinguished pupils," among whom we may reckon the late and present dukes of Bedford, fir Francis Burdett, and his successor, as head-master, Dr. Carey; and in this capacity he is said to have been the acute, able, indefatigable, and strenuous assessor of the ancient discipline. Annual Biography and Obituary, for 1817, vol. i. Gent. Mag.

VINCENT, THOMAS, a celebrated performer on the hautbois, was a scholar of the admirable San Martini; and, after his master had ceased to perform in public, and had furnished him with concertos, was an unrivalled favourite on his instrument, till the arrival of Fischer.

In 1765 he became joint impresario of the Opera with Gordon.

Vincent, after the decease of San Martini, had been in great favour with his royal highness Frederic, prince of Wales, father to his present majesty; had acquired a considerable sum of money in his profession, which he augmented by marriage. However, the ambition of being at the head of so forward a family as an opera vocal and instrumental band, turned his head and his purse inside out; in short, he soon became a bankrupt, and his colleagues, though they escaped utter ruin, were not enriched by the connection. He ended his days in the evening of life, of which the morning had been so brilliant, in poverty and obscurity, and paid dear for his ambition and imprudence.

VINCENT, RICHARD, who performed the first hautbois at Vauxhall Gardens from the beginning of musical performances there, and at Covent-Garden theatre more than thirty years. He was the father of the young musician who married the celebrated Miss Birchell, possessed with one of the finest treble voices that was ever heard in public. After performing at Vauxhall with great and constant applause, on the death of her husband he went to the East Indies, where he was still more applauded than in England, and where he was married a second time to John Mills, esq., a gentleman of fortune and consideration, with whom he returned to her native country, and lived happily in a splendid manner. She was buried in St. Pancras church-yard, where there is an honourable and affectionate epitaph inscribed on a tablet dedicated to her memory, by her surviving husband.

VINCENT of Beauvois, a Dominican monk of the 13th century, was appointed by St. Lewis, king of France, inspector of the education of his children. About the
VOL. XXXVII.

year 1244, he compiled a kind of encyclopædia, entitled "Speculum Majus," which consisted of four parts, viz. "Speculum Naturale, Doctrinale, Morale, et Historiale." Notwithstanding all its errors, it passed through many editions; the first at Strasbourg in 1476, and the last at Douay in 1624. He was also the writer of a "Letter to St. Lewis on the Death of his eldest Son," and of a "Treatise on the Education of Princes;" and died in 1624. Brucker by Enfield.

VINCENT FERRIER, or FERRER, a Dominican, was born at Valencia, in Spain, in 1357; and having entered into the order of preachers in 1374, obtained the degree of doctor in theology at Lerida in 1384. He was the chosen companion of cardinal de Luna, the pope's legate to France; and on his return was summoned to Avignon, in 1394, by the same cardinal, when he rose to the papal chair under the name of Benedict XIII. Yielding to an imagined impulse for preaching the word of God, he became a missionary in 1397, and travelled through several countries, not excepting Britain and Ireland. He also exerted himself in terminating the discord of the Romish church with regard to the papacy, and finding Benedict unrelenting, he abandoned him, and assisted at the council of Constance. In 1407 he accepted the invitation of John, duke of Brittany, and fixed the seat of his mission at Vannes, where he died in 1410. After his death, miracles were said to have been wrought at his tomb, and he was canonized by pope Calixtus III. He was the author of many devotional tracts; and his "Treatise on the Spiritual Life, or interior Man," was frequently reprinted. Dupin. Moreri.

VINCENT of Lerins, was a native of Gaul in the fifth century, who abandoning the military profession, and adopting a religious life, retired to the monastery of Lerins in Provence, where he became a priest. He was held in high estimation for his piety and learning; and after his death, in the reign of Theodosius and Valentinian, was canonized by the Roman church, to which he was thought to be entitled for his "Communitorium adversus Hæreticos," which was neatly written, and much applauded by the Roman Catholics. Of this work Dr. Maclaine, deviating from the article of Mosheim, says, that he can see nothing in it but a blind veneration for ancient opinions. It has been printed in the "Bibliotheca Patrum," and has been published separately, particularly at Cambridge, in 1687. Dupin. Mosheim.

VINCENT DE, PAUL, founder of the congregation of the "Priests of the Missions," (see MISSION,) was born at Poui, or Poy, in the diocese of Acqs, in the year 1576, and advanced, on account of his extraordinary talents, and by a course of education at Acqs and Toulouse, from the humble condition of a shepherd to the office of priest in 1600. Having occasion soon afterwards to visit Marfeilles, for the purpose of receiving a small property which devolved upon him by inheritance, he was, upon his return by sea to Narbonne, taken captive by a Barbary corsair, and sold for a slave at Tunis. Here he served several masters, the last of whom, who was a Savoyard renegade, he was successful in reclaiming. They both determined on making their escape, and arrived safely in a small boat at Aigues Mortes, in 1607. Upon his return to his native country, he was deputed by Peter Montorio, vice-legat of Avignon, on business of importance to the court of Rome; and here he was intrusted by the minister of Henry IV. with a commission to that monarch in 1608. In return for this service, Lewis XIII. conferred upon him the abbey of St. Leonard de Chaume. Having been introduced as tutor to the family of M. de Goudy, general of the galley, he conceived the design of
B b founding

founding the congregation above-mentioned; and in the mean while, wishing to serve the miserable objects that were under the care of his patron, he applied to court for the appointment of almoner-general of the galleys, and obtained it in the year 1619. His assiduity in the discharge of the duties of his office, as well as the piety and benevolence of his disposition, engaged the general esteem and respect of the inhabitants of Marseilles. Devoted to acts of compassion and beneficence, he was entrusted, in the year 1620, with the direction and government of the order of the "Daughters of Charity." His next object was the accomplishment of his purpose with regard to a new community, in which he obtained the concurrence of some priests, who made choice of him as their principal. This institution was prosperous, and the number of the society having increased, he accepted the great house of St. Lazarus, in the suburb of St. Denis, which became the principal house of his order; and in 1632, its utility was acknowledged by pope Urban VIII., who formed it into a regular congregation, and appointed its founder as the first superior general. The rule prescribed to the society enjoined, independently of attention to their own religious exercises, the appropriation of eight months in the year to the instruction of the common people in the neighbouring parishes, to the relief of the sick and indigent, to inspection of seminaries in which young persons were educated for holy orders, and to other acts of private and public service. The superior conducted himself with so much zeal and activity, that he obtained encouragement in the prosecution of his plan, not only in all parts of France, but also in Italy, Scotland, Barbary, Madagascar, &c. Not satisfied with the single object to which his benevolent attention was first directed, he took a very active part in the conduct and support of many other institutions of a benevolent and useful kind. So highly was he esteemed on account of his piety and prudence, and his zeal for doing good, that he was engaged in regular attendance on Lewis XIII. during his last sickness; and under the regency of Anne of Austria, mother of Lewis XIV., he was the chief adviser in all the ecclesiastical affairs of the kingdom. For a period of ten years, during which he possessed this influence, he maintained the most exemplary character in the discharge of his public duties, as well as in his private conduct. He died in 1660, at the age of nearly 85 years. He was beatified by pope Benedict XIII. in 1729, and canonized by Clement XII. in 1737; and it must be allowed, that he occupies a distinguished rank among the saints in the Roman calendar. Moreri. Mosheim.

VINCENT, GREGORY St. See GREGORY St. VINCENT.

VINCENT, in *Geography*, a township of America, in the state of Pennsylvania, and county of Chester, containing 1630 inhabitants; 25 miles W. of Philadelphia.

VINCENT, St., one of the Cape Verd islands, being one of the four situated towards the north-west, about 30 miles in circumference; the land of which is generally elevated, but towards the north-west low and sandy; so that it is unproductive, and the island probably still uninhabited. It has good fresh water, which springs up on digging a little way into the soil of the valley, but the hills are totally destitute of it; and, therefore, the island is improper for cattle. It has a fine large road called Porto Grande, with a rock like a tower in the centre. The bay, which is about a league and a half broad at the mouth, is surrounded with high mountains, and stretching into the middle of the island, is thus sheltered from the west and north-west winds; and, therefore, it is deemed the safest harbour in all the Cape Verd islands; but difficult of access, on account of the im-

petuous winds that blow off the mountains along the coast, so as to endanger ships before they can arrive at this place of security. Besides this bay, there are several others on the south side, in which ships may anchor; and these are generally chosen by the Portuguese for landing their hides. The fish are numerous and excellent. The fourth part of the island is situated in N. lat. 16° 50'. W. long. 25°. See *Cape Verd*.

VINCENT, St., one of the Charibbee islands in the West Indies, about 40 miles in length, and 10 in breadth. Dr. Campbell says, that the Spaniards called it by this name, because they discovered it upon the 22d of January, which, in their calendar, is St. Vincent's day; but it does not appear that they ever, properly speaking, had possession of it; as the Indians were very numerous here, on account of its being the rendezvous of their expeditions to the continent. At length, however, ambition and avarice effected an establishment for a class of intruders, who were long distinguished by the name of the black Charaibes, whom the native Charaibes regarded at first with contempt and pity. Of the origin of these intruders Campbell gives the following account. In 1672, king Charles II. divided the governments in the West Indies, and, by a new commission, appointed lord Willoughby governor of Barbadoes, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, and Dominica; and sir William Stapleton governor of the other Leeward islands, which separation has ever since subsisted. On the demise of lord Willoughby, he was succeeded by sir Jonathan Atkins, who continued governor until the year 1680, when the government was transferred to sir Richard Dutton; who, being sent for to England in 1685, appointed colonel Edwin Stade lieutenant-governor; and he, with a view of asserting and maintaining the British rights, by constituting deputy-governors for the other islands, exerted himself in preventing the French from wooding and watering in this island without permission. At this time it was intimated to him, that the king had signed an act of neutrality, and that commissioners were appointed by the two courts to settle all differences relating to these islands. Some years after, a ship from Guinea, with a large cargo of slaves, was either wrecked or run ashore upon the island of St. Vincent, into the woods and mountains of which great numbers of the negroes escaped, whom the Indians suffered to remain. Partly by the accession of runaway slaves from Barbadoes, and partly by the children they had by the Indian women, these Africans became very numerous; so that about the beginning of the 18th century, they constrained the Indians to retire into the north-west part of the island. These people, as may be reasonably supposed, were much dissatisfied with this treatment; and complained of it occasionally both to the English and to the French, that came to wood and water amongst them. The latter at length suffered themselves to be prevailed upon to attack these invaders. After much deliberation, in the year 1719, they came with considerable force from Martinico, and landing without much opposition, began to burn the negro huts, and destroy their plantations, supposing that the Indians would have attacked them in the mountains; which, if they had done, the blacks had probably been extirpated, or forced to submit, and become slaves. But either from fear or policy, the Indians did nothing, and the negroes falling in the night, and retreating to inaccessible places by day, destroyed so many of the French, that they were forced to retire. When by this experiment they were convinced that force would not do, they had recourse to fair means; and by dint of persuasion and presents, patched up a peace with the negroes as well as the Indians, from which they received great advantage.

tage. Things were in this situation, when captain Uring came with a considerable armament, to take possession of St. Lucia and this island, in virtue of a grant of king George I. to the duke of Montague. When the French had dislodged this gentleman, by a superior force, from St. Lucia, he sent captain Braithwaite, in the year 1723, to try what could be done at the island of St. Vincent, in which he was not at all more successful. After this, the country became a theatre of savage hostilities between the negroes and the Charaibes, in which it is believed that the former were generally victorious: it is certain they proved so in the end, their numbers, in 1763, being computed at 2000; whereas of the red or native Charaibes, there were not left more than 100 families, who retained only a mountainous district, and most of these are by this time said to be exterminated. It is, however, worthy of remark, that the African intruders have adopted most of the Charibbean manners and customs: among the rest, the practice of flattening the foreheads of their infants; and it was perhaps from this that they acquired the appellation of black Charaibes. St. Vincent being ceded to the English by the peace of Paris, in the year 1763, as well as Dominica and Tobago, St. Lucia being assigned to France, (the Charaibes not being mentioned in the whole transaction,) the first measure of the English government was to dispose of the lands, without any regard to the claims of the Charaibes of either race; which, in truth, were considered as of no consequence or validity. This gave rise to a war with the Charaibes, in the course of which it became the avowed intention of government to exterminate those miserable people altogether; or by conveying them to a barren island on the coast of Africa, consign them over to a lingering destruction. By repeated protests and representations from the military officers employed in this disgraceful business, and the dread of parliamentary inquiry, administration at length thought proper to desist; and the Charaibes, after surrendering part of their lands, were permitted to enjoy the remainder unmolested. On the 19th of June 1779, St. Vincent shared the common fate of most of the British West Indian possessions, in that unfortunate war with America, which swallowed up all the resources of the nation, being captured by a small body of troops from Martinico, consisting only of 450 men, commanded by a lieutenant in the French navy. The terms of capitulation, however, were favourable, and the island was restored to the dominion of Great Britain by the general pacification of 1783. It contained at that time 61 sugar estates, 500 acres in coffee, 200 acres in cacao, 400 in cotton, 50 in indigo, and 500 in tobacco, besides land appropriated to the raising of provisions, such as plantains, yams, maize, &c. All the rest of the country, excepting the few spots that had been cleared from time to time by the Charaibes, retained its native woods. St. Vincent contains about 84,000 acres, which are every where well watered; but the country is very generally mountainous and rugged: the intermediate valleys, however, are fertile in a high degree, the soil consisting chiefly of a fine mould, composed of sand and clay, well adapted for sugar. The extent of country at present possessed by the British subjects is 23,605 acres; and about as much more is supposed to be held by the Charaibes. All the remainder is thought incapable of cultivation or improvement. The island, or rather the British territory within it, is divided into five parishes, of which only one had a church, and this was blown down in the hurricane of 1780. There is one town called Kingstown, the capital of the island, and the seat of its government; and three villages that bear the name of towns, but they are inconsiderable hamlets, consisting each of a few houses only.

The botanic garden of St. Vincent consists of 30 acres, of which no less than 16 are in high cultivation. In the frame of its government, and the administration of executive justice, St. Vincent seems not to differ from Grenada. The council consists of twelve members, the assembly of seventeen. The salary of the governor is 2000*l.* sterling, half of which is raised within the island, the other half being paid out of the exchequer of Great Britain. The military force, according to Mr. Edwards, consisted in his time of a regiment of infantry, and a company of artillery, sent from England, and a black corps raised in the country. The militia includes two regiments of foot, serving without pay. The number of inhabitants, says Mr. Edwards, amounts to 1450 whites, and 11,853 negroes. The several smaller islands dependent on the St. Vincent government are Bequia, containing 3700 acres, a small island, valuable for the commodiousness of its bay, called Admiralty bay; Union, containing 2150 acres; Canouane, containing 1777 acres; and Multiqua, containing about 1200 acres. The negroes employed in the cultivation of these islands, being about 1400, are supposed to be included in the 11,853 before mentioned. There are likewise the little islets of Petit Martinique, Petit St. Vincent, Mailleureau, and Bellefeau, each of which produces a little cotton. N. lat. 13° 10'. W. long. 61°. Edwards's West India Islands, vol. i.

VINCENT, *St.*, a town of United America, in the western territory of the Wabash. N. lat. 38° 44'. W. long. 88° 6'.

VINCENT, *St.*, a town of France, in the department of the Lot; 6 miles W. of Cahors.

VINCENT, *St.*, a sea-port town of Brasil, in the government of St. Paul, situated on the sea-coast; 150 miles W. of Rio Janeiro. See SANTOS, ST. VICENTE, and VICENTE.

VINCENT, *St.*, a river of Madagascar, which runs into the Indian sea, on the east coast, S. lat. 21° 48'. E. long. 44°.

VINCENT, *St.*, a town of Peru, in the diocese of La Plata; 40 miles N.E. of Lipas.

VINCENT *d'Ardentes*, *St.*, a town of France, in the department of the Indre; 7 miles S.E. of Châteauroux.

VINCENT, *Cape St.*, the south-west point of Portugal, where commences a chain of lime-stone mountains, which terminates at Tavira, N. lat. 37° 2'. W. long. 9° 5'. Towards this cape the hills become flatter, and this promontory itself is a desert plain, consisting of a grey lime-stone, so naked and rough near the front, that it is very difficult to travel over it. In other parts it is nearly covered with sand. Toward the sea the rock is every where fractured, about 50 to 80 feet high, being of equal height with Cabo de Roeca, which it somewhat resembles. At the utmost extremity in this desert country is a monastery of Capuchins. Ships can approach very near the rock, so that in fine weather the monks can speak to the persons on board. The famous naval engagement between the Spaniards and lord St. Vincent was distinctly seen from this monastery. On another point of the rock, separated by a creek from the extreme end, is the small fort of Sagres, within which nothing is seen but the commandant's dwelling, the soldiers' barracks, and the works which are not allowed to be surveyed. Without the fort are only two houses. At the time when the earthquake of 1755 destroyed Lisbon, the sea swelled here, and pouring from the creek over the land, laid the country waste. At Sagres a great quantity of fish and mussels is taken, and small fishing-smacks lie at anchor under the rock in the creek. Five small leagues from Cape St. Vincent is the city of Lagos, which is properly the chief town of Algarve, though it be no longer the residence of the governor of that province.—Also, a cape on the west

coast of Madagascar. S. lat. $25^{\circ} 38'$. E. long. $43^{\circ} 50'$.—Alfo, a cape on the east coast of Terra del Fuego. S. lat. $54^{\circ} 25'$.

VINCENT de Connozal, *St.*, a town of France, in the department of the Dordogne; 14 miles W. of Perigueux.

VINCENT de Beira, *St.*, a town of Portugal, in the province of Beira; 15 miles W.N.W. of Castell Branco.

VINCENT de la Barquera, *St.*, a sea-port of Spain, in the province of Asturia; 9 miles W.S.W. of Santillana.

VINCENT de Rivedot, *St.*, a town of France, in the department of the Dordogne; 6 miles S. of Ribera.

VINCENT's Bay, *St.*, a bay on the north coast of Terra del Fuego, a little to the east of Cape St. Vincent. Before the anchorage ground, says captain Cook, lie several rocky ledges that are covered with sea-weed; but not less than eight and nine fathoms over all of them. It appears strange that where weeds, which grow at the bottom, appear above the surface, there should be this depth of water; but the weeds which grow upon rocky ground in these countries, and which always distinguish it from sand and ooze, are of an enormous size. The leaves are four feet long, and some of the stalks, though not thicker than a man's thumb, above 120. Mr. (sir Joseph) Banks and Dr. Solander examined some of them, over which we founded and had 14 fathoms, which is 84 feet; and as they made a very acute angle with the bottom, they were thought to be at least one half longer. The footstalks were swelled into an air-vessel, and these eminent naturalists called this plant *fucus giganteus*. They went on shore, and in about four hours returned with above a hundred different plants and flowers, all of them wholly unknown to the botanists of Europe. They found the country about the bay to be in general flat, the bottom of it in particular was a plain, covered with grass, which might easily have been made into a large quantity of hay; they found also abundance of good wood and water, and fowl in great plenty. Among other things, of which nature has been liberal in this place, is Winter's bark, *Winteranea aromatica*; which may easily be known by its broad leaf, shaped like the laurel, of a light green colour without, and inclining to blue within; the bark is easily stripped with a bone or a stick.

VINCENT de la Pazet, *St.*, or Onda, a town of Popayan, in Terra Firma, about 25 miles E. of St. Sebastian's, with a port, where canoes from Carthage and St. Martha unload their merchandise.

VINCENT, *Port St.*, lies on the coast of Chili, in the South Pacific ocean, 6 miles N.N.E. of the mouth of the river Bobio, with a safe harbour, secure against all winds but that from the west, which blows right into it. Talca-guana port is six miles to the north of it.

VINCENT's Rocks, *St.*, rocks on each side of the river Avon, about three miles below Bristol; at the bottom of which is the spring from which rise what are called the Bristol waters.

VINCENT Island, a small island in the North Pacific ocean, at the entrance into Portlock's harbour. N. lat. $57^{\circ} 48'$. W. long. $136^{\circ} 30'$.

VINCETOXICUM, in *Botany*, from *vinco*, to conquer, and *toxicum*, poison, a name which first occurs in Dodonæus, *Pempt.* 407, and which he says had been recently given to the official *Alepias*, (*A. Vincetoxicum*, Linn. Sp. Pl. 314. *Cynanchum Vincetoxicum* of Brown, in Ait. Hort. Kew. v. 2. 77.)—The plant thus denominated was supposed destitute of the dangerous and acrid properties of the rest of its tribe, because its juice is not milky. The root, whose flavour and scent resemble Valerian, has been used as a counter-poison, in the place of Contrayerva, whose name

has the same meaning, and each may have its use as a tonic, or stimulant, however erroneous the idea may seem of a specific, against any poison whatever, except by a chemical alteration of its qualities. Among plants, at least, no such marvellous power has hitherto been ascertained. The above root is scarcely ever used in this country.

VINCETOXICUM, in the *Materia Medica*. As a medicine, this root has been chiefly used in dropical disorders, but its good effects are not sufficiently established; which is also the case with respect to Stahl's pulvis antihydropsicus, in which the vincetoxicum is an ingredient. It has been also recommended in malignant fevers, and even in the plague, by some German authors; and hence called "*Contrayerva Germanorum*." It is said likewise to be useful in small-pox, scrophula, and uterine obstructions. The dose, in powder, is from a scruple to a drachm, or an infusion of three or four drachms. Woodville.

VINCI, LIONARDO DA, in *Biography*, the illegitimate son of Piero da Vinci, a notary of the signoria of Florence, distinguished himself during his life as a man of science and of literature, a philosopher, poet, painter, and musician of the most profound study, and the most exalted taste. He was born at the castle of Vinci, in the lower vale of the Arno, in 1452. From his earliest years he testified a more than ordinary share of ingenuity, and particularly exhibited an ardent desire for drawing. This at length became so decided a preference above all other pursuits, that it determined his father to indulge and cultivate it; and for this purpose he placed him under the tuition of Andrea Verocchio, a skilful designer, and eminent as a sculptor, an architect, and a painter. The progress of Lionardo equalled the sanguine expectation his intellectual abilities had excited; and whilst a youth, he surpassed his master in the practice of the art he had learnt of him. Verocchio had been employed by the monks of S. Salvi at Valombrato, to paint the Baptism of Christ, as an altar-piece for their church, and having made his designs, he entrusted the preparation of the parts to his disciples. Among them, the young Da Vinci was ordered to paint the figure of an angel, which he did with so much taste and skill, and so far surpassing the work of his master, that Verocchio, mortified at being excelled by a youth, abandoned the art, and from that time confined himself to sculpture.

The career of this extraordinary man, thus begun in honour, was pursued with enthusiasm in all things relative to art and science. Nature had endowed him with the beauties of body and of mind, and he cultivated the useful exercise of both. His person was finely proportioned, and his features beautiful and expressive; he was dexterous in feats of arms, the management of the horse, and all the favourite amusements of the time. He was admirably skilled in mechanics, was an able anatomist, and an architect; was learned in natural philosophy, optics, and geometry: in short, he had steadily applied himself to acquire a thorough knowledge of the operations of nature; and was besides an excellent poet and musician.

Thus endowed, and constituted to apply these endowments with energy to every useful and ornamental purpose, fame crowned his portion of human felicity by spreading the renown of his uncommon talents throughout Italy. His various application of them had however one evil attending it,—a certain portion of infatigability: the impetuosity of his nature, leading him too rapidly to new projects, often prevented the completion of those already commenced. In his youth, Vafari says, he invented mills and engines to go by water for various purposes, and contemplated schemes for making the Arno navigable from Pisa to Florence; he; made

plans for roads, for raising water, &c. : yet amidst these occupations he cultivated drawing most assiduously from all kinds of objects of animated nature, in a style of the most laboured and exquisite finishing, as if he never could attain too close an imitation of the object he had selected. He always strove to make them appear as strongly relieved as possible ; their defect is, that not having hit upon the true nature of relieving objects, such as has been exemplified in the Dutch school since his time, he laboured his works to blackness ; and whilst his principal objects appeared illuminated by the light of the day, his shadows partook of the blackness of night.

He delighted in observing those whose character was strongly marked, who had any thing extravagant in the style of their beards, their hair, or dress, and would follow them till he had fixed their form fully in his mind, and then go home and draw them. By studies of this nature he became possessed of strong ideas of expression and of character, and employed himself actively in the use of them in designs ; though the finished works of his hand, which conjecture places at this period of his life, are not of a kind to exhibit much of their application.

His life, Lanzi observes, " may be divided into four periods, the first of which was, as we have seen, spent in prosecuting his studies in art, and occasionally applying them to practice in Florence : to this belong not only the head of Medusa, and the few works mentioned by Vasari, but probably all those paintings of his which have less energy of shade, less complicated drapery, and heads of forms rather delicate than exquisite, seemingly derived from the school of Verocchio. Such are the *Maddalenas* of the Pitti palace at Florence, and the *Aldobrandini* at Rome ; some *Madonnas* or holy families in various galleries, as the *Justiniani* and *Borghese* ; some heads of the Saviour and of the Baptist ; though the multitude of his imitators must render all decision on their originality ambiguous. Of a different class, however, and without a doubt of his hand, is the *Bambino*, who lies in a little ornamented bed, richly dressed and adorned with necklaces, which is in the apartment of the *Gonfaloniere* at Bologna."

After this first period of his life, when he was forty-two, viz. in 1494, he was invited to Milan by the duke Ludovico Sforza, to whom Leonardo rendered himself more particularly acceptable by playing upon the lyre, and upon one of a peculiar form, which he himself had made. To this instrument he sung also admirably, and recited verses extemporaneously, surpassing all who attempted that species of amusement. But the more effective cause assigned for his going to the duke, was a design entertained by that prince of erecting a monument of bronze to the memory of his father. Among the manuscripts still existing of Leonardo, is a memorial presented by him to the duke about 1490. In it he offers his services in various military mechanical contrivances, for the purpose of aiding in sieges, passing rivers, &c. and also for the conducting water-courses, sculpture in bronze or marble, and painting ; and in conclusion remarks, " that at the same time that these things are going on, the equestrian statue to the memory of the duke's father need not be neglected." So that it appears by this, that the modelling and erection of this statue were the primary objects for which he was carried to Milan ; and it was executed by him in bronze, and erected in the city, where it remained till it was demolished on the incursion of the French, after the defeat of Ludovico. The duke appointed him director of the academy of painting and sculpture, which he had recently revived with additional splendour ; and under his instructions many pupils arose, who increased the love and

renown of the arts, as he in great measure banished the remains of the Gothic style, and introduced his own new and more elevated one in its stead.

Here, by desire of the duke, he painted a *Nativity*, which was sent by him as a present to the emperor of Germany ; but if we except this, the portraits of the duke and duchess, and his grandest work in the art, the *Last Supper*, painted on the walls of the refectory of the Dominican convent of the *Madonna delle Grazie*, he does not appear to have occupied much of the time he spent at Milan (which was about five years) in painting. Indeed he scarcely could devote more time to it, as the duke engaged him as an engineer to conduct the waters of the *Adda* to the walls of Milan : an immense operation, in which, after much study and labour, he had nearly succeeded, when it was interrupted by the French. He also made many models of ingenious mechanical contrivances, and among them a lion, in compliment to the king of France, on his arrival at Milan, which, after advancing by itself many paces to meet the monarch, suddenly stopped when it came near him, reared upon its hinder legs, and threw open its breast, which was filled with lilies.

Whilst these various inventions shewed the versatility of his powers, the picture above alluded to, the *Last Supper*, gave immortality to the fame of the moment. Of this picture, one only character is given by all who have written or spoken of it,—that of superior excellence in all the most admirable and exalted qualities of the art. Unfortunately, his knowledge in chemistry was not equal to his love of novelty, or he would not have painted it with a vehicle and a ground totally discordant, which necessarily led to a speedy destruction of the surface. He painted it with oil colours upon the plastered wall, and in consequence the colour cracked and peeled off ; so that in fifty years after it was painted, when *Armenini* visited it, he says " it was already half spoiled ;" and *Scannelli*, who saw it in 1642, says, that " the subject was scarcely discernible." Lanzi, in speaking of it recently, observes, that " what with the attempts to restore it by oils and varnishes, and with the repainting which has accompanied these attempts, there now remain only three heads of the apostles by the hand of Da Vinci, and those rather drawn than coloured." The assent, therefore, which may be now given to the high testimony of contemporary authorities as to the merit of this great work, rests with the copies which were made when the picture was perfect, (and they are many,) and the general character of Leonardo's talent.

There has lately been introduced into England, and is now exhibiting, (1817,) a copy as large in length as the original, said to be the one painted by M. Uggione, a pupil of Da Vinci, for the convent of the *Carthusians* at Pavia ; which in 1793, upon the breaking up of that order, was sold with the other effects of the convent, and is now brought here. In it there remains sufficient of the grandeur of style adopted by its great author to satisfy every beholder of the justice fame has done to his talents. The selection of matter, the general treatment of the subject, the unequalled truth and variety of expression, the close attention paid to character and to nature, the depth, richness and brilliancy of its colour, with the high degree of finish to which it was carried,—all are manifested in this copy, though in some parts imperfectly. In it also are seen the want of many points in *chiaro-scuro* and in colour, which, if they could have been combined with the matter it contains, (and they have since then been combined by Titian and others,) would place the original of this picture in every respect at the head of all the pictures which ever were painted.

During

During his residence at Milan, Du Fresne says he composed his very useful work "Il Trattato della Pittura," for the use of the pupils in the academy under his care; and his studies for the equestrian statue doubtless gave rise to the curious and learned memoranda of the structure of that animal, as his former studies did to those concerning the human figure, which are found in the manuscript in the library of Buckingham-House. It appears to have been his customary practice to write his thoughts constantly, and accompany the passages by appropriate illustrations in drawing; and it would have been well for the art, if every eminent professor had adopted the same habit: we should then have been in possession of a mass of information which would much alleviate the necessities involved in practice, and enable men to express their thoughts and inventions without encountering the difficulties which not unfrequently silt the most beautiful and sublime conceptions in their birth.

The activity and exertions of Lionardo, supported by such uncommon talents, had already formed many skilful artists, who afterwards became renowned, and who would probably have rendered Milan the rival of Florence as a school of art, but for the disastrous issue of a contest between the duke and the king of France, in which, in 1500, the former was defeated, captured, and carried into the country of his enemy, where about ten years afterwards he died.

By this event the progress of the arts at Milan was broken up, with its academy for a time, and its illustrious president returned to Florence, where the arts were encouraged by the house of Medici. In this third period of his life, his first work was a design for an altar-piece for the chapel of the college of the Annunciate, the subject of which was a group, of our Saviour with the Virgin and St. Anne, which was universally approved and admired; yet it does not appear that the picture was ever painted, at least to remain in Italy. It is said, that by the desire of Francis I. he made a picture from it, and certainly one is shewn in the royal collection at Paris, painted from the design, though in a heavy and low tone of colour.

He employed himself also about this time on a portrait of Mona Lisa, known by the name of La Gioconda, a Florentine lady, wife of Francisco del Gioconda, for whom it was painted. This picture he is said to have employed himself upon during four years, but we must conceive it to mean only that it remained unfinished that length of time. It is in possession of the king of France, and attests, by its exquisite finish, the laborious attention of its author. It has a very beautiful expression, particularly about the mouth; but is black and heavy in the shadows: in fact it is overlaboured, and had probably been far better had it left his study sooner.

In 1503, the council of Florence having determined to decorate their chamber with works of art, Lionardo was appointed to execute one side of it; and M. Angelo, then only twenty-nine years of age, but whose gigantic powers were already matured, was selected, as his competitor, to undertake the other. A most unfortunate coalition, as the emulation it excited, aided and strengthened to bitterness by the mistaken affection of admiring partisans of either master, produced in the end the most confirmed jealousy, and even hatred, between these two great men, and divided Florence into parties, who embittered their disputes, without being able to reconcile their differences. Lionardo chose for his subject the battle of Nicolo Piccinino against Attila. He had prepared his cartoon, and proceeded in a certain degree with his picture in oil colours, when to his great mortification he found, that owing to some imperfection in the pre-

paration of the ground, his colours began to peel from the wall, and he abandoned the work.

The cartoon, however, of which we have one group preserved to us in the Battle of the Standard, engraved by Ede- linck, had exalted his name highly among artists and connoisseurs, who flocked to Florence to see it and its rival, which had been prepared by M. Angelo; and among others Raffaele, in 1504, was drawn there, allured by the desire of improving the taste he had imbibed in the school of Perugino; and there, with the benefit he derived from these great works, and the instruction of Bartolomeo della Porta, he shook off in a great degree the dry and Gothic manner of his master, and laid the foundation of his future fame.

Lionardo appears to have divided his residence at Florence and at Milan till 1513, during which time he probably painted his own portrait, which is in the gallery at Florence, a head whose energy leaves all the rest in the room far behind, and that perhaps which in many cabinets is called the portrait of Raffaele. The half figure also of a young nun in the palace Nicolini; Christ among the doctors, formerly in the Doria palace; the supposed portrait of queen Giovanna, adorned with beautiful architecture; that picture in the Barberini of Vanity and Modesty, the beauty and finish of which no one has ever been able to convey in a copy;—these appear, with many others, to belong to this period, when, free from other serious occupations, he was at liberty to attend to painting with increasing power.

No work, however, of any consequence like his Last Supper, was entrusted to him after the failure in the Hall at Florence, so that his great and deserved renown in the art is principally upheld by that work, and the remnant of the cartoon above-mentioned, to which his minor works, though beautifully wrought, are but trifles.

The election of cardinal Giovanni di Medici to the tiara under the title of Leo X. induced Lionardo to visit Rome, which he had never seen: and from his previous knowledge of the pontiff, he hoped for honour and employment. He went there with his patron Giuliano di Medici, and was graciously received by Leo, who soon after signified his intention of employing his pencil. Upon this Lionardo began to distil his oils and prepare his varnishes, which the pope seeing, and being unacquainted with the necessities of the painter's style, he exclaimed with surprise, that nothing could be expected of an artist who thought of finishing his works before he had begun them. This unlucky *bon mot* disconcerted the painter, and prevented him from proceeding: and probably he found the ground too firmly occupied by Raffaele and M. Angelo, (who as the pope said produced works while Lionardo gave words), to leave room for the expectation of honourable employment for himself. He therefore accepted an invitation from Francis I., king of France, to visit his court, and left Rome in 1514 for that purpose, having spent his time there principally in the production of various fantastic and diverting mechanical contrivances, but in nothing of importance.

This change of circumstances marks the fourth period into which Lanzi divides the life of this most extraordinary man, and with its commencement terminated his career in art, as he appears to have been so exhausted by anxiety and sickness on his arrival in France, that he was never more able to use the pencil. For the five years that he continued to exist, it was but to struggle under an incurable complaint, during the continuance of which the king frequently visited him; and it has been said, that in one of these visits Lionardo, exerting himself beyond his strength to shew his sense of his majesty's condescension, was seized with a fainting fit, and that the king stooping forwards to support

support him, he expired in his arms. This event occurred on the 2d of May, 1519, at a place called Cloux, near Amboise, and in the 67th year of his age.

There are so many imitators of the style of Da Vinci, that it is extremely difficult to know what to regard as his among the numerous minor productions which are presented to us as the product of his easel. Among those imitators, Bernardino Luini holds the first rank, and his pictures are constantly imposed upon us as those of Lionardo. Lorenzo di Credi is another who copied Lionardo with great exactness. Antonio Sogliani also imitated and copied him as well as others; so that no wonder there are so many works brought to sale under the high pretension of his name, by which our connoisseurs are duped and our picture-dealers are enriched.

The real character of Lionardo da Vinci as a painter is of the highest quality, as we have before observed. He is the parent of the chiaro-scuro, upon which the fame of Correggio principally depends; and he first attempted to combine high finish with selection of parts and grandeur of style, particularly aiming to give intelligence to character and expression to features; in fact, to portray the mind: and in this no one has ever surpassed him, not even Raffaele, who followed in this respect the road opened by Da Vinci. What is commonly called the beau-ideal, was not exactly the form he appears to have sought; but he had so much the feeling which generated it, that he always took from his model the essential and characteristic, leaving out the mean and useless. Hence we find in his picture of the Last Supper so great a variety of character and of expression, which those who have attached themselves to the antique as their guide have never given; the imitation having, as we conceive, always superseded the original spirit of selection which dictated the taste of the ancients.

Two different manners are observable in his painting; one with dark shades, strongly contrasting with the lights, the other more placid, and conducted with more of middle tint. Grace of design, expression of the mind, and subtle management of the pencil, triumph in and adorn each; all is gay in his pictures, but especially the heads of his women and children. In these he constantly repeated one idea, giving a smile to them which it is impossible to behold without experiencing a sympathetic impulse. Yet, if one may judge from the labour of his pictures, he rarely reached the point at which he aimed, having an impression in his own mind more full and complete than he could render by his pencil; and, like Protogenes of old with his Jalyfus, knew not, as Apelles said of him, when to leave off, nor could be contented with good, when he aspired after the best.

As an author, Lionardo da Vinci has rendered essential service to art, particularly in his Treatise on Painting, which is the only one of his numerous compilations that has been given to the public, and which has been recently (in 1802) translated into English by a member of our Royal Academy, J. F. Rigaud, esq. Venturi speaks of this work as having been compiled from various of his manuscripts, which were doubtless the product of his every-day reflections, set down as they occurred, and without attention to order or arrangement. It treats of proportion, anatomy, motion and equipose of figures, perspective, composition, expression, light and shade, colouring, &c. in 365 precepts, some of which are confused and not easily to be unravelled, others are common place, but most are learned, ingenious, and useful. The rest of his miscellaneous works, treating of the anatomy of the horse and of the human subject, of perspective, optics, hydraulics, botany, &c. were left by him in his will to his friend and pupil Francisco Melzi, and consisted of fourteen

volumes, large and small, which by various means found their way into the national library at Paris, and one is in possession of our own sovereign. Venturi, who saw these at Paris, says "that they contain speculations on those branches of natural philosophy nearest allied to geometry, are extremely miscellaneous, and entered without regard to method or arrangement." Whether the change of events in the political world since his time has reconveyed these remains to the Ambrosian library at Milan, we know not, but most probably they are again returned there. The one in the library at Buckingham-House was the property of Pompeo Leoni, who obtained it, with two others since returned, from H. Melzi, and it is probable it was acquired by the earl of Arundel for Charles I. It was found, soon after his present majesty's accession, in the same cabinet where queen Caroline found the portraits of the court of Henry VIII. by H. Holbein.

VINCI, LEONARDO, an admirable opera composer of the Neapolitan school, is said to have run away from the conservatorio of Gli poveri in Giesù Cristo in that city, where he was the scholar of Gaetano Greco, on account of a quarrel with Porpora, a student of the same seminary. He began to distinguish himself in the year 1724, when he set the opera of Farnace for the Aliberti theatre at Rome. So great was the success of this drama, that he was called upon to furnish at least one opera every year till 1730, when he composed two, "Artaserse," and "Alessandro nell' Indie," both written by Metastasio. These, as we were informed at Rome, he set for half price, to gratify his enmity to Porpora, who was then his rival, in that city.

The vocal compositions of Vinci form an era in dramatic music, as he was the first among his countrymen who, since the invention of recitative by Jacopo Peri, in 1600, seems to have occasioned any considerable revolution in the musical drama. The airs in the first operas were few and simple; but as singing improved, and orchestras became more crowded, the voice-parts were more laboured, and the accompaniments more complicated. In process of time, however, poetry seems to have suffered as much as ever from the pedantry of musicians, who forgetting that the true characteristic of dramatic music is clearness; and that sound being the vehicle of poetry and colouring of passion, the instant the business of the drama is forgotten, and the words are unintelligible, music is so totally separated from poetry, that it becomes merely instrumental; and the voice-part may as well be performed by a flute or violin, in the orchestra, as by one of the characters of the piece, on the stage. Vinci seems to have been the first opera composer who saw this absurdity, and, without degrading his art, rendered it the friend, though not the slave to poetry, by simplifying and polishing melody, and calling the attention of the audience chiefly to the voice-part, by disentangling it from fugue, complication, and laboured contrivance.

In 1726, he set Metastasio's "Didone Abandonata" for Rome, which established his reputation; for in this exquisite drama, not only the airs were greatly applauded, but the recitative, particularly in the last act, which being chiefly accompanied, had such an effect, that, according to count Algarotti, "Virgil himself would have been pleased to hear a composition so animated and so terrible, in which the heart and soul were at once assailed by all the powers of music." Saggio sopra l'Opera in Musica.

We shall mention the rest of this pleasing and intelligent composer's operas, the airs of which long served as models to other masters, and are not yet become either ungraceful or inelegant.

In 1727, he composed "Gismondo, Re di Polonia;" in 1728,

1728, "Catone in Utica;" in 1729, "Semiramide Riconosciuta;" and in 1730, "Alessandro nell'Indie," and "Artaserse," all for the theatres in Rome. The celebrated air at the end of the first act of Artaserse, "Vo folcando un mar crudele," originally composed for Caretini, is well known, and is perhaps the only production of Vinci by which his merits have been favourably estimated in England. In the printed book of the words, Vinci is called "Pro-vince maestro della Real Capella di Napoli."

We have been able to find no more of his works after this period; so that he must either have begun late, or been cut off early in life, as his great and durable renown seems to have been acquired in the short space of six years of his existence.

Vinci began that free and truly dramatic style of composition, which Haffé and Pergolesi afterwards, perhaps, improved; but it is a style which no good composer, except Gluck, has abandoned. It has been, indeed, embellished and rendered more elegant by the disciples of Durante: Piccini, Sacchini, Traetta, and Anfosfi; but they have all been guided by the outline of Vinci.

This justly admired composer died at Rome in 1731, during the first run of his Artaserse. Metastasio, in a letter to the Romanina, makes a melancholy reflection on the subject: "Poor Vinci! Now that merit will be known, which during his life was blasted by his enemies."

"What a miserable being is man! He thinks fame the only good that can render him happy; but alas! he must die ere he is allowed to enjoy it; and if he does not die, envy will make him wretched for attempting to acquire it."

One of our own poets has made a similar reflection on the vanity of human wishes for any other than posthumous fame.

"For such the frailty is of human kind,
Men toil for fame, which no man lives to find;
Long rip'ning under ground the china lies:
Fame bears no fruit, till the vain planter dies."

Earl of Mulgrave.

VINCIA, VENCE, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Gallia Narbonensis, N. of Antipolis, and the capital of the Narusci. The town seems to have been consecrated to the god Mars, and Cybele was worshipped there.

VINCULO Matrimonii, Divorce à. See DIVORCE.

VINCULUM, in *Algebra*, a character in form of a line, or stroke drawn over a factor, divisor, dividend, when compounded of several letters, or quantities; to connect them, and shew that they are to be multiplied, or divided, &c. together, by the other term.

Thus, $d \times a + b - c$, shews that d is to be multiplied into $a + b - c$.

VINCUM, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Lower Germany. Anton. Itin.

VINDALIMUM, VÉDÈNE, a village of Gallia Narbonensis, upon the left of the Rhone, N.W. of Cypréfeta.

VINDANA, a port of Gallia Lyonnensis. Ptol.

VINDELICIA, a country of Europe, N. of the Alps and S. of the Danube, near Rhetia. It has been conjectured that this name is formed of two words, which are the names of two rivers that water the country; one called *Vindo* (the Wertach, which passes to Augsbourg), and the other *Lichus* (the Lech). Strabo and Ptolemy differ in their assignment of the bounds of this country. According to Strabo, the Vindelicians lived near the Salassæ, and inhabited a part of the mountains which regarded the east and turned towards the S. He adds that they were the limitrophes of the Helvetians and Boians. According to this author, the Rhæ-

tians did not touch the lake of Constance, except in a part of their borders, that is, between the Rhine and Bregentz; but this town, which Ptolemy assigns to the Rhetians, really belonged to the Vindelicians. The Helvetians and Vindelicians occupied a great part of the banks of the lake. Upon the whole we may conclude, from the observations of Strabo, Pliny, Tacitus, and Sextus Rufus, who have all taken a part in settling the boundaries of Vindelicia, that in its ancient state it had the Danube to the N., and that the river *Ænus* separated it from Norica on the E. side, and that on the W. it extended from the lake of Constance to the Danube. Its boundaries on the S. are less satisfactorily ascertained. Strabo says that the Vindelicians possessed mountainous plains at the extremity of the Alps; and he represents this country as contained between the Licus and the *Ænus*. M. D'Anville, in his *Ancient Geography*, says that the country of the Vindelici extended from the town of Brigantia (Bregentz), on the lake of Constance, to the Danube; and that the lower part of the course of the *Ænus* or of the Inn separated it from Morbihan. A powerful colony was established in the angle formed by the two rivers Vindo and Licus, whence the nation seems to have derived the appellation of Vindelici; and Augulla, given to this colony, preserves its name in that of Augsbourg, between the two rivers Lech and Wertach, the first of which actually separates Suabia from Bavaria.

Vindelicia, when it was subjugated by the Romans, was joined to Rhetia, and the whole country, contained between the lake of Constance, the Danube, the Inn, and the country of the Carni, the Insures and Venetians, was always called Rhetia, or Provincia Rhetia. Nevertheless, the Rhetians and Vindelicians formed two separate people, although they inhabited the same province. Accordingly Horace calls the inhabitants of Vindelicia, Rheti Vindeli, to distinguish them from the inhabitants of Rhetia properly so called.

VINDELIS, or VINDILIS, an island placed by the Itinerary of Antonine between the Gauls and Great Britain; but this is done in so vague and indefinite a manner, that it is not possible to say what island is meant. Some authors think that it is the isle of Portland.

VINDEMIATING, formed of *vindemia*, vintage, the gathering of grapes, or other ripe fruits; as apples, pears, cherries, &c.

VINDEMIATRIX, or VINDEMIATOR, a fixed star of the third magnitude, in the northern wing of the constellation Virgo.

VINDENUTA, VINDUNITA, *Vindimista*, or *Vindonitensis insula*, in *Ancient Geography*, an island of France, in dependence on the town of Nantes. It was to this island Friard is supposed to have retired in 560, to pass the life of an indolent and useless hermit; and he thus acquired the name of St. Friard.

VINDERIUS, a river of Hibernia, having, according to Ptolemy, its mouth on the eastern coast, between the promontory Iamium and the mouth of the river Logia. Camden thought that it is the present bay of Knockfergus.

VINDIA, or VINDA, a town of Asia, in Galatia, upon the route from Pessinunte to Ancyra, between Germa and Papira. Anton. Itin.

VINDICATION, CLAIMING, in the *Civil Law*, an action arising from the property a person has in any thing; or a permission to take or seize a thing, as one's own, out of the hands of a person, whom the law has doomed not to be the true proprietor.

VINDICATORY Part of a Law. See LAW.

VIN-

VINDICTA, among the Romans, the prætor's rod or switch, with which he touched a slave's head when he was enfranchised.

VINDINATES, in *Ancient Geography*, a people of Italy, in Umbria.

VINDINUM, a town of Gallia Lyonnensis, belonging to the Auleri or Cenomani. Ptol.—Also, a town of Italy, in Umbria.

VINDIUS or VINNIUS Mons, one of the most considerable mountains in Hispania Citerior, according to Ptolemy and Florus. The name is applicable to the chain of mountains which, detaching itself from the Pyrenees, traverses Biscay and the Asturias, and forms, at the entrance of Galicia, two branches, one extending itself to Cape Finisterre, and the other, turning to the S., traverses the country of the ancient Braecares.

VINDIUS Mons, a mountain of India, on this side of the Ganges. Ptol. It extends from the S.W. to the N.E., S. of the country called Sandrabatis.

VINDO, a river of Germany. See VINDELICIA.

VINDOBONA, *Vienna in Austria*, a town of Superior Pannonia, six miles from Cæsum, according to the tables of Peutinger. It is marked in the Itinerary of Antonine upon the route from Sirmium to Trèves, between Motanum and Comagenes.

VINDOGLADIA, VINDUGLADIA, or *Vindocladia*, a town of Great Britain, in the 12th Iter of Antonine, on the route from Calleva to Uriconium, between Sorbiodunum (Old Sarum) and Durnovaria (Dorchester); supposed to be near Cranburn. Dr. Stukeley traced the Roman road all the way from Old Sarum, for 13 miles, to near Borof-ton, where he places Vindocladia.

VINDOMAGUS, one of two towns mentioned by Ptolemy, as belonging to the Volcæ Arecomici: the other being Nemausus. Although the precise situation of Vindomagus is not certainly known, the presumption lies in favour of Vigan, because it affords many monuments of antiquity, and has been mentioned under the name of Vicanus for 600 or 700 years. It is in the same parallel with Nîmes, and only about half a degree differing in longitude, and corresponds in a variety of respects to the place marked out by Ptolemy.

VINDOMIS, VINDOMUM, or *Vindonium*, a town of Great Britain, in the 12th Iter of Antonine, on the route from Calleva to Uriconium, between Calleva (Silchester) and Venta Belgarum (Winchester). If Mr. Horsley has rightly placed Calleva at Silchester, it is probable that he has fixed justly on the site of Vindomis at Farnham.

VINDOMORA, a town of Great Britain, in the 1st Iter of Antonine, on the route from the limit, vallum or wall to Prætorium (Broughton), between Corisopitum (Cowbridge) and Vinovia (Binchester). The situation of this place, fixed at Ebchester, is evidently mistaken by Gale and Camden, the former fixing it at Doland, within less than five miles of Cowbridge, and the other at Wall's-End, which is altogether out of the way of this Iter, that proceeds from N. to S. along the famous military road called Watling-street. See Horsley's Brit. Rom. p. 396.

VINDONISSA, the station of the 21st legion, according to Tacitus, the position of which unites many Roman ways. The distance marked xxii in the Theodosian table, with respect to Augusta Rauracorum, is more suitable than that of xxvii in the Itinerary of Antonine. Vindonissa is named Vindo in a panegyric of Constantine by Eumenius; and Catrum Vindonissense in the notitia of the provinces of Gaul lies in Maxima Sequanorum. This town had been an episcopal see; but having been ruined towards the

end of the sixth century, or the commencement of the seventh, this bishopric became that of Constance, and Mayence was recognised as the metropolis, although Vindonissa, included in the Sequanois, should have acknowledged Befancon under this dignity. The place which it occupied upon the bank of the Rufs, near its junction with the Aar, is denominated Windisch.

VINE, in *Botany and Gardening*. See VITIS.

It is said that vines were first planted about the rivers Rhine, Maine, and Moselle, and also in Hungary, and the northern part of Gaul, about the year 276. But with respect to the provinces of Gaul and Spain, which border on the Mediterranean sea, as well as to Italy, many are of opinion that vines grew spontaneously there. Julius Cæsar found vines growing in Gallia Narbonensis, i. e. Languedoc and Provence; and Strabo remarks, that the said province produced all the kinds of fruit which Italy afforded. The Phœnicians are said in early times to have planted vines in the isles of the Mediterranean sea, as well as in several parts of the continent both of Europe and Africa. It appears that there were real vineyards in England in 1140 and 1230. And. Com. vol. i. p. 16, and p. 81.

VINE, *Black*. See *TOURNEFORTIA Volubilis*.

VINE, *Climbing five-leaved*, of Canada, a species of *Hedera*; which see.

VINE, *Spanish Arbor*, a species of *Ipomœa*; which see.

VINE, *Wild*, or *White Vine*. See *Cissus Sicyoides*, and *Acida*.

VINE, *Culture of, in the Field or open Ground, in Rural Economy*, the growth and management of it in such situations for the use of the grapes in making wine. It would seem probable that the cultivation of this plant might be conducted with advantage in this intention, in many situations in the southern parts of this country; especially as some of them are well known to be nearly within the vinous latitude, which is found to extend between the twenty-fifth and fifty-first degree in the northern hemisphere: and, as in Germany, it is found by experience, that all such vineyards as are situated within the latter of these limits, are capable of being cultivated with considerable profit; though where they stretch much beyond it, their success is extremely doubtful. Proper cultivation and management are, therefore, all which appear necessary in raising crops of this sort.

In speaking of the means of establishing vineyards in this country, Mr. Speechly has remarked, in his useful work on the subject, that there are four things which ought to be materially considered; namely, the situation; the soil; the kinds of vines which are the most fit and proper to be planted; and the mode of their management.

In regard to the first, it is said that an elevated situation, where there is a gentle declivity to the south or south-east, is esteemed preferable to low grounds, which are generally subject to damps and spring-frosts, even at times when the adjoining high grounds are entirely free from both. Vineyards or grounds of this kind, too, should be well protected and sheltered to the north, as well as to the north-west and north-east. In a hilly country there are generally many favourable spots, where nature has given important advantages, and which should be still further improved by art for this purpose. Plantations of forest-trees, judiciously formed, would, it is supposed, contribute much to give warmth and shelter; but these should not be placed too near the vineyards, so as to confine the air, as that would prove very injurious to them.

In wine countries it is well known, that vineyards are often not only confined to gentle declivities, but that they are frequently formed on slopes, on the sides of

hills and rocks, which are sometimes so steep as even to border upon precipices; and that vineyards thus situated produce grapes uncommonly rich, yielding wines of the most excellent quality. Consequently, from the hills which border upon the English Channel having declivities which tend towards the south, they would appear, it is thought, to be highly proper for the growth of the vine. And that the excavations in them, from which chalky materials have been taken, where they have a southern exposure, would likewise seem well calculated to answer the same purpose.

In what respects the nature of the ground, it has been observed that the vine delights in such gravelly and rocky soils as are frequently found on the sides of steep hills and rocks, and that it has sometimes been known to flourish among mere stones and gravel. It grows most favourably in a light, dry, sandy, or gravelly soil, which is perfectly free from stagnant moisture: consequently it may be noticed, that the introduction of the vine into this country would have no bad effect in respect to agriculture, as all strong and deep lands, which are best adapted for tillage, are the most unsuitable for the cultivation of the vine.

But besides gentle declivities and light soils, vines, it is said, grow in situations and soils where the land could hardly be rendered profitable in any other way. And thus, though vines would not grow robust on the slopes of poor, gravelly, and rocky soils, still they would be more productive than when planted on rich lands, and the fruit be greatly preferable. All such hills as have the above aspect or exposure, and are composed of either slate, gravel, scaly rock, or lime-stone, are of course highly proper for being planted upon. It is therefore evident, that there is a considerable portion of soil in the southern districts of this kingdom that is well adapted for the growth of vines.

However, the success of a vineyard in this country would, it is thought, most essentially depend on the kinds of vines which are propagated and cultivated. It is believed that it has been a prevailing, though certainly an erroneous notion, that the sweet early kinds of grapes are the best to plant for the purpose of making wine in this country. And that most or all of the modern trials in this way have been made from vines brought from France. It is not doubted by the above writer, but that there are, among the abundant variety of grapes, peculiar sorts, which are by nature singularly suited to make wines in different climates and situations. Thus the different sorts of grapes propagated and grown in the Madeira and Canary islands, might not, it is thought, be found, if tried, to make good wines in France. It is hence concluded, that as the southern part of this island is almost on the verge of the vinous latitude, it should seem reasonable to suppose, that there would be the greatest probability of success from those kinds of grapes which have been known to thrive and prosper best in the most northern latitudes. On this account, therefore, the kinds of vines cultivated in Germany are recommended, and particularly the sort producing the grapes of which the Rhenish wine is made, in preference to any kind cultivated in France.

It is noticed above, that the early sweet kinds of grapes are improper for making of wine in this country: the reason of which is this, it is supposed, that though such grapes yield a sweet juice, it is not calculated to undergo fermentation in a proper manner. It is found by experience, that good bodied, or generous wines, can be made from grapes of an aultere taste, and that too even before they are quite arrived at a state of maturity. But then wine from such crude grapes requires to be kept to a good age. The case is similar, it is said, in respect to apples. It is well

known that the sweet kinds of them, which ripen in the summer months, are very unfit for making cyder. And that the noblest liquor of this sort, such as that of the styre and cockagee, is made from apples not much better than wildings. Mr. Loudon, however, remarks, in speaking of the culture of the vine in other intentions, that the general imperfection of English grapes is their defect of saccharine matter and want of sweetness. This is, perhaps, it is thought, in part owing to the humidity of the atmosphere, more than to its coldness, as very sweet grapes grow, and spirituous wines are made, in much colder and more northern latitudes than a great part of England. Another reason why the fruit of English vines possesses considerable acidity, is the general taste for large globular grapes, without regard so much to the delicacy of their flavour as the grandeur of their appearance. This species of vine does not produce delicious grapes in the hottest climates, it is said, and consequently should not be so generally cultivated in this. But the appearance in this intention is of little importance. The grapes most abundant in saccharine matter, are, it is said, always round, as those of the currant grape. It must be confessed, however, that the more exposed the vine is to the intense meridian sun, so much the sweeter will be the grape, and the greater the quantity of saccharine or spirituous juice that it will contain.

The sorts of vines most suitable for this purpose may probably be, the chassilas, or common white muscadine, the berries of which are not large, or very sweet. The morillon, noir hatif, a good sort of grape in this intention, which has a small round black berry, of a fugary juice, is much esteemed, as being early, ripening in September. The Malmsey muscadine, which somewhat resembles the above, the juice of which is very sweet, and of a high flavour, is a good bearer, and a fine grape. The black sweet-water has a small roundish berry, of a sweet taste; but which, being apt to crack, is not in much repute. Birds are fond of it. It ripens in the same month as the above. The small black cluster, which has small oval berries, and the leaves covered with a hoary down, is a very pleasant fruit. The early white grape from Teneriffe; the berries of which are of a middling size, and the flesh remarkably sweet and juicy: the Auverna, or true Burgundy grape, sometimes called the black morillon, which is an indifferent fruit for the table, but esteemed one of the best for making wine from: and the white sweet-water, which has a large berry of a white colour, and very agreeable juice, is esteemed an excellent grape, and ripens in the above month:—it is supposed that from some of these, and perhaps a few others, the cultivator may probably find a proper grape for cultivating in the intention of making wine in this country.

In regard to the culture of the vine with this design, as even the most southern parts of this island are but nearly on the verge of the vinous latitude, as has been seen, every possible advantage should be consulted and had recourse to in the formation and management of vineyards. Those abroad, it is said, are formed by planting the vines in rows, and by training them in a perpendicular direction. The first of the above writers would, however, in this country, greatly prefer the mode of training the vines in a lateral or horizontal form, similar to the method which is practised in Holland with vines in frames. There would, it is thought, be little difficulty in this method, as the vines might readily be trained along small poles, not thicker than those used for hops; these poles being fixed nearly parallel to the ground. Vines thus trained, it is apprehended, would derive many advantages, not only by means of warmth and shelter, but that they would most easily be protected also from spring-frosts,

VINE.

frosts, by applying the boughs of trees, particularly those of the evergreen kind. The grapes too, it is observed, would be greatly benefited by the reflection from the soil of the ground underneath them.

It is suggested, that when vines are intended to be planted on the steep of hills, and on the sides of rocks, the ground should be prepared and formed in the manner of steps, which it is particularly necessary should be lower at the inner angles, as without this the vine-plants would lose the advantage of such rains as fall hastily and perpendicularly. It is easy to conceive that much advantage would be gained from a situation thus formed, as the back would be nearly equal to a wall. And the expence attending the formation of the ground could not be very considerable. The work should be begun at the top, and the soil taken out be thrown down the hill. It would likewise be further beneficial to have a little good soil or earth put in at the angles, before the vines are planted.

In respect to the plants, they may be provided either by seeds, cuttings, or layers, but the two last are mostly the best methods. When they are raised from seed, after they have had a year's growth, they should be planted out, about the latter end of March, or beginning of the following month, against the poles or treillis to which they are to be trained, if from seeds ripened in this country; but when from such as are imported from the vine countries, too many should not be planted till their value be known. When they have been thus planted, they should be cut at the third eye, if strong, but at the second, if weakly; at the same time rubbing off the lower end with the finger and thumb.

When by cuttings, they should be chosen from shoots that are best ripened, and have the shortest joints; always having one or two joints of the last year's wood to them, cutting each perfectly smooth, and a little rounding at the lower end, and as near to a joint of the old wood as possible. The upper end too should be cut smooth, and sloping towards the treillis or poles. They should afterwards be trained as circumstances may direct. It has been advised too by some, that choice should be made of cuttings after a warm and dry season, when the wood ripens well; each cutting having two inches of the old wood with one eye of the new. When the old vines are pruned, there is mostly great choice, they should therefore be then selected of a middling size, and the wood round.

In raising vines for this purpose in the layer manner, a method very usually made use of is to lay the stools down in an open situation, in the same mode as for forest-trees and shrubs; though the best way, in the opinion of some, is to take layers from such vines as have been trained.

They should be cut so as to leave one or two strong eyes on each, and when the shoots begin to run, be trained to the treillis or poles. Those which have the strongest and most vigorous shoots should be selected and preserved for this purpose. They should afterwards be carefully trained and pruned, as circumstances may require, always considering that much of the goodness of the grapes in these cases depends upon the living wood being strong and well ripened.

In planting the grounds, the vines may be set in rows at suitable distances, according to the soil, situation, and mode of training which is to be practised, but mostly about three or four feet distant in the rows, and five, six, or more from row to row. The intervals between the rows are to be kept quite clean and free from weeds, by frequent hoeing and digging them over. After the vines have been thus raised, and carefully pruned and trained for three years, they mostly produce crops of fruit, which, when for wine,

should be well ripened before it is used, especially in this country.

The mode of the culture of vines in Madeira may probably suggest some hints for their growth in the open grounds in this country. It is stated, that the best season for planting them there, is from the middle of the month of November to the end of February; that the slips or cuttings are made from a foot and a half to two feet and a half in length; they are set two feet in the ground, about three feet distant, in straight rows or trenches, about four or five feet asunder. After one trench is opened, and the earth taken out and laid on one side of it, so as to form a bank, the butt ends of the vines are put into the bottom of the trench, and the small ends extended sloping up the bank; the trench is then filled with earth dug from the found land the depth of it, breaking the clods, taking out the stones, hawling all the earth towards the vines, and thus making a second trench, at the distance noticed above, from the first; proceeding to plant the whole vineyard or ground in the same manner. By this means the ground is lightened all over, as well as where it touches the vines, and is cleared of stones, the roots of trees, plants, shrubs, and grass, which are all carefully picked out. A vineyard or ground planted in this manner will, it is said, last there fifty or sixty years.

Afterwards the young vines are not pruned until they have been two or three years planted. The season for pruning is nearly as above; in doing which, no part of the vine is cut but the new shoots, which are cut off every year at the end of every second or third joint. The largest of these cuttings are saved for planting, and will keep for several weeks above ground; but if cut early, and not planted till late, it is better to cover the butt-end with earth.

The supporting of the vines, and other such matters, is done to the height of three or four feet, by sticking stakes in the ground from end to end of the rows, then lashing long slender poles near the heads of them; and across the poles are laid, both ways, reeds or canes, at the distance of two or two and a half feet, which are tied to one another, and to the poles where they cross, with split-willow twigs: these, if full grown and hard, will last two or three years. In the second or third year after planting, the vines are raised and fastened to the stakes and poles by means of twigs, and the branches spread open, and loosely tied to the poles or canes, so that they may not be too thick in some places and too thin in others.

In the third year after the vines have been planted out, they commonly produce a pretty good crop of grapes fit for making wine. In which cases, when they are almost come to their full size, they are gradually exposed to the sun, by frequently thinning the leaves till every branch lies open to the sun some part of the day. But if this should be done while the fruit is green, or, all at once, when nearly ripe, it would wither the grapes, and the juice would never be rich. The grapes are here to hang until they are very ripe, and many, on almost every branch, begin to turn to raisins, otherwise the wine will be weak, harsh, and rough, and without much flavour; hence it is evident the grapes should not be promiscuously gathered all at once, but two or three gatherings made, taking only what are ripe each time.

It is likewise found, that in soils which are hot, dry, and poor in quality, the culture of vines in this country in the open ground may be conveniently accomplished in another manner; as by their growth being greatly limited and restricted in such cases, their tendency to fruiting is con-

siderably increased and expedited, they can, of course, be managed by being kept in a dwarf state, in somewhat the manner of the currant, and in this way produce much fruit for the purpose of wine. It is a method which seems to have answered well in some cases, and which is perfectly suited to many situations, where the vine might be cultivated for the making of wine in the southern parts of this country. See *VITIS* and *WINE*.

It is evident from a variety of circumstances, that the cultivation of the vine in the open ground of this country, in the view of procuring wine from the fruit, should be more attended to than has hitherto been the case. In some situations it would probably afford a better profit and advantage than the hop, and with much less expence of cultivation; while in others it is almost the only plant that could be introduced with any chance of success.

VINE Gall-Insect, an insect of the gall-insect class, principally found on the vine, though capable of living on some other trees, and sometimes found on them. It is much of the same shape, figure, and manner of life, with the other animals of this class; but differs from them in this, that as they lay their eggs all under their body, and continue absolutely to cover them till they are hatched, these protect them from their body, and they are found in prodigious abundance, lodged in a sort of cottony or silken bags, all over the stalks and branches of the vines: the dead animal is sometimes found covering them in part, but more frequently they are absolutely naked, and often are so numerous, as to appear like thin cobwebs hung one over another all over the vine.

These eggs might be easily mistaken for those of small spiders; they always hatch well, and come to maturity on the vines they are found on; but if removed to others, they seldom come to any thing, which is very singular, since the gall-insects of almost all other trees may be removed and propagated either on the same or on different trees.

These vine-insects are of the boat-fashioned kind; but beside these, there are some other species which lodge their eggs in a cottony nest of the same kind. The common thorn affords a shorter and more convex kind than this does; these are a very small species; others are something larger; but the oak affords a sort equal in size, if not exceeding those of the vine; some of these are brown, others blueish, and others reddish; and there are some minute differences in their shape. Reaumur, Hist. Inf. tom. iv. p. 61.

VINE-Grubs, a name given by some authors to the pucerons, or little insects which are usually of a green colour, and are found, often in prodigious numbers, sticking to the leaves of trees and plants, and to their young stalks.

M. Reaumur has been very curious in his investigation of the nature of this insect; but the manner of propagating its species was never clearly observed, till Mr. Bonet discovered it.

Reaumur observes, that in every family of pucerons, there are some that have wings, and some that have not; and that, according to the usual course of nature, the winged ones should be males, and the others females; but, on the contrary, that both the winged and the unwinged vine-grubs are females, all being viviparous, and each kind producing a number of living young; so that the males of these pucerons were never discovered, even by that careful observer; nor could he ever find out what it was that impregnated the one and the other kind. He leaves us queries on this subject, whether there is no copulation among them?

and whether they are all hermaphrodites, each having in itself the organs of both sexes, as is the case of the river muscles?

Mr. Bonet, in order to inform himself of the process of nature in these creatures, brought up one of them in perfect solitude from its birth; he had an opportunity of observing it in the place where it was kept, and watched it very strictly for many months together. At the end of twelve days this creature, without having had any copulation with a male, began to breed. She produced in the whole ninety-five young ones, all alive, and constantly under the eye of the observer. This experiment was repeated several times with the same success: and, at length, repeated upon the young ones produced in this manner, and they were found to breed at the same period, and in the same manner with their parent, without having had any copulation with a male, as far as to the fourth generation.

A hasty observer would immediately conclude from this, that there was no copulation among the pucerons; but farther enquiry proves that this is not the case; for the same observer has found a species of them in which there is copulation; so that both the winged and the unwinged kinds are truly females, and the male is a small fly, of a very different shape, as is the case in regard to many other insects. This male is the most falacious creature imaginable, copulating a vast many times successively, with the same, and with different females. As this is the case in regard to one species of this creature, it doubtless is so also in regard to the rest, though that has not yet been observed: and the singularity seems to be this, that after the male has copulated with the female, the not only becomes prolific, but her young ones are born ready impregnated, as far as the fourth generation; after which, probably, there is a necessity for the copulation with the male again.

There is another very singular observation also in the production of the young pucerons; the females are properly viviparous, and usually bring forth live young; but they sometimes produce only a sort of fetuses, which are laid in a long series one beside the other, as the caterpillar eggs are laid by the butterfly; and they are left to hatch, as it were, afterwards, by the heat of the sun. Phil. Trans. N^o 469.

VINE or Bine Hop, in *Rural Economy*, a term often applied to the shoot of the hop-plant. After picking the hops, it is mostly the best practice to tie up the vines, bines, or binds, into small bawins while perfectly dry, in order to preserve them in some way or other as fuel for different uses, and to clear the ground for future operations. The work usually costs about sixpence the hundred.

VINE-Press, a sort of press and vat constructed for the purpose of squeezing and receiving the liquor from the grapes, where wine is to be made from them. It may be formed of different sizes, as from six to nine feet square, or more, according to the extent of the vineyard, being made of planks which are about eighteen or twenty inches in breadth, and two and a half or three inches in thickness, so fixed to a bottom of the same kind, or of greater thickness, that they may be capable of being pressed close to it, and to one another, at the corners, by the help of posts or studs, with wedges and levers; it being caulked, where necessary, in order to prevent the waste of the liquor. On one side a spout is to be placed, on which a wicker basket is to be hung during the operation, to strain the liquor through as it runs into a tub, which is often put half way in the ground, to accommodate it to the height of the vat. When the grapes are gathered, they are thrown into the vat of the press,

press, and the spout being stopped, receive a gentle pressure; and then the spout is opened, and the juice drawn off as long as it will run without further pressing; when the spout is again stopped, the grapes are again subjected to a stronger pressure, somewhat in the manner of the cyder-press, and the liquor afterwards drawn off as before. In this manner the work proceeds until the liquor is wholly drawn off.

These presses are perfectly simple in their nature, being merely so contrived as to afford a proper degree of pressure, without doing too much injury to the grapes, which would probably hurt the flavour and quality of the wine. See *VINE*.

VINEÆ, in the *Roman Art of War*, were defensive engines, composed of wicker hurdles, laid for a roof on the tops of posts, which the soldiers who went under it for shelter bore up with their hands. Some say that they had two roofs; the first and lower of planks, and the upper roof of hurdles, to break the force of any blows, without disordering the machine. See *MANTELETS*.

VINEGAR, *ACETUM*, an agreeable, acid, penetrating liquor, prepared from wine, cyder, beer, and other liquors, and varying in hue from light red to brown straw-colour, malt vinegar being more highly coloured than that of wine: and of considerable use, both as a medicine and a sauce: or, vinegar is a vegetable acid liquor, produced by the second degree of fermentation, or that which succeeds the spirituous, and is called the acid or acetous fermentation. Every liquor, which has completely undergone the spirituous fermentation, is spontaneously and necessarily disposed to the acid fermentation. Accordingly, every vinous liquor does continually tend to become vinegar, and is actually changed into it, sooner or later, according to circumstances; unless this change be prevented by some obstacle to fermentation in general. If vinegar be long kept, and particularly if it be exposed to the air, it will become muddy and ropy, acquiring an unpleasant smell, losing its acidity, and putrefying. In order to preserve it for a longer time, it should be boiled for a few minutes, so that the gluten may coagulate and separate, on the presence of which these changes depend, and also kept in well-corked bottles.

The word is French, *vinaigre*; formed from *vin*, *wine*, and *aigre*, *four*.

The method of making vinegar has long been kept a secret among the people of that profession; who, it is said, oblige themselves to each other by oath not to reveal it; but, notwithstanding this, the Philosophical Transactions, and some other late writings, furnish us with approved accounts of it. Whatever be the materials used in the preparation of the liquor for producing vinegar, it is merely necessary to admit air into the vessel in which it is kept, and to preserve it in a temperature somewhat higher than that of the atmosphere in this climate, that is, from about 75° to 80°. When a liquor already fermented is used, it is also of almost indispensable importance that yeast, or some other ferment, be added, in order to hasten the fermentation, or else the change will be too gradual to obtain vinegar in perfection, and the first acidified portion will turn mouldy before the last has become sour. But if the material employed has not undergone fermentation, the whole process of the vinous and preceding acetous fermentation will go on without interruption, with the same ferment which first set it in action, as, e. g. in making vinegar from malt, or from sugar and water. It is necessary also to stop the process of the manufacture in that stage of it, in which the acid has attained to its highest degree of strength and perfection,

after which the liquor would then speedily be deteriorated, the acetous acid would gradually disappear, and an offensive mouldy watery liquor remain, with scarcely any acidity. It depends upon the skill and experience of the manufacturer to determine when his vinegar is in a fit state to be drawn off and closely barrelled.

VINEGAR, Method of making Cyder. The cyder (the meanest of which will serve the purpose) is first to be drawn off into another vessel, and a quantity of the must, or pouze of apples, to be added; the whole is then to be set in the sun, if there be a convenience for the purpose; and, at a week or nine days end, it may be drawn off.

VINEGAR, Method of making Beer. Take a middling sort of beer, indifferently well hopped; into which, when it has worked well, and is grown fine, put some rape, or husks of grapes, usually brought home for that purpose; mash them together in a tub; then, letting the rape settle, draw off the liquid part, put it into a cask, and set it in the sun as hot as may be; the bung-hole being only covered with a tile, or slate-stone; and in about thirty or forty days it will become a good vinegar, and may pass in use as well as that made of wine, if it be refined, and kept from turning musty.

Or, vinegar may be made thus: To every gallon of spring-water, add three pounds of Malaga raisins; which put into an earthen jar, and place them where they may have the hottest sun from May till Michaelmas; then pressing all well, turn the liquor up in a very strong iron-hooped vessel, to prevent its burbling: it will appear very thick and muddy, when newly pressed; but it will refine in the vessel, and be as clear as wine. Thus let it remain untouched for three months, before it be drawn off, and it will prove excellent vinegar.

VINEGAR, To make Wine. Any sort of vinous liquor, being mixed with its own faeces, flowers, or ferment, and its tartar first reduced to powder; or else with the acid and austere stalks of the vegetable from whence the wine was obtained, which hold a large proportion of tartar: and the whole being kept frequently stirring in a vessel which has formerly held vinegar, or set in a warm place full of the steams of the same, will begin to ferment anew, and conceive heat, and will grow sour by degrees, and soon after turn into vinegar.

The remote subjects of acetous fermentation are the same with those of vinous; but the immediate subjects of it are all kinds of vegetable juices, after they have once undergone that fermentation which reduces them to wine; for it is absolutely impossible to make vinegar of must, the crude juice of grapes, or other ripe fruits, without the previous assistance of vinous fermentation.

The proper ferments for this operation, by which vinegar is prepared, are, 1. The faeces of all acid wines. 2. The lees of vinegar. 3. Pulverized tartar; especially that of Rhenish wine, or the cream or crystals of it. 4. Vinegar itself. 5. A wooden vessel well drenched with vinegar, or one that has long been employed to contain it. 6. Wine that has often been mixed with its own faeces. 7. The twigs of vines, and the stalks of grapes, currants, cherries, or other vegetables of an acid austere taste. 8. Bakers' leaven, after it is turned acid. 9. All manner of ferments, compounded of those already mentioned.

Vinegar is no production of nature, but a mere creature of art: for verjuice, the juices of citrons, lemons, and the like native acids, are improperly said to be *natural* vinegars; because, when distilled, they afford nothing but rapid water; whereas it is the property of vinegar to yield an acid spirit by distillation.

VINEGAR.

The wine which is generally converted into vinegar, and which for its cheapness is commonly employed for this purpose, is such as has already become sour; although the better and the more spirituous the wine, and also the more of the vinous spirit that can be retained in the vinegar, the better and stronger it will be. Becher says, in his "Phylica Subterranea," that having digested wine in order to convert it into vinegar, in a bottle hermetically sealed, he found, that although a longer than the ordinary time was required, the vinegar produced was much stronger than when free air is admitted. Mr. Cartheuser also affirms, that the strength of vinegar may be much increased by adding some aqua vitæ to the wine, before it is exposed to the acetous fermentation. Nothing more seems requisite in the preparation of good vinegar than to employ good wine, and to conduct the fermentation in the most advantageous method; the principal part of the operation being performed by nature.

VINEGAR in France, Method of making. The French use a method of making vinegar different from that above described. They take two very large oaken vessels, the larger the better, open at the top; in each of which they place a wooden grate, within a foot of the bottom: upon these grates they first lay twigs, or cuttings of vines, and afterwards the stalks of the clusters of grapes, without the grapes themselves, or their stones, called the *rape*, till the whole pile reaches within a foot of the brim of the vessels; then they fill one of these vessels with wine to the very top, and half fill the other; and with liquor drawn out of the full vessel, they fill up that which was only half full before; daily repeating the same operation, and pouring the liquor back from one vessel to the other; so that each of them is full and half full by turns.

When this process has been continued for two or three days, a degree of heat will arise in the vessel which is then but half full, and will increase for several days successively, without any appearance of the like in the vessel which happens to be full during those days; the liquor of which will still remain cool; and as soon as the heat ceases in the vessel that is half full, the vinegar is prepared; which, in the summer, happens on the fourteenth or fifteenth day from the beginning; but, in the winter, the fermentation proceeds much slower; so that they are often obliged to forward it by artificial warmth, or the use of stoves.

When the weather is exceedingly hot, the liquor ought to be poured off from the full vessel into the other twice a day; otherwise the liquor would be over-heated, and the fermentation would prove too strong; whence the spirituous parts would fly away, and leave a vapid wine, instead of vinegar, behind.

The full vessel is always to be left open at top; but the mouth of the other must be closed with a cover of wood, in order the better to keep down and fix the spirit in the body of the liquor; for, otherwise, it might easily fly off in the heat of fermentation. The vessel that is only half full seems to grow hot, rather than the other, because it contains a much greater quantity of the vine-twigs and stalks than that, in proportion to the liquor; above which the pile rising to a considerable height, conceives heat the more, and so conveys it to the wine below. Boerhaave's Elem. of Chemistry, part iii. p. 143, &c. Phil. Trans. vol. ii. p. 657.

There is another method, by which a very good vinegar is commonly made at Paris from the lees of wine. A quantity of wine-lees is put into a large tun, and worked up with wine sufficient to render it very fluid. This is then put into cloth sacks, which are arranged in a large

iron-bound wooden vat, the heavy cover of which is laid over them, and serves as a press, that is gradually screwed down till all the liquor is pressed out. The wine, thus loaded with the extractive and tartareous matter of the lees, is distributed in large casks set upright, through the heading of which a hole is cut, which is constantly left open. In summer these casks are simply set in the sun; but in winter they are arranged in a stoved room. The fermentation comes on in a day or two, and when it has got to its height, so much heat is excited, that sometimes the hand can hardly be borne in it. In this case, it must be checked by a cooler air, and by adding some fresh wine to the casks; and, indeed, it is in a due regulation of the heat that most of the practical skill of the maker consists. The process goes on in this way till the whole of the wine is thoroughly acidified, which requires about a fortnight in summer and a month in winter; after which the new vinegar is put into barrels, at the bottom of which are laid a good many chips of beech wood. Here it remains for about a fortnight, during which time it clarifies, and the clear part is then drawn off and kept in well-closed casks. These beech chips may be used over and over again for several years.

The natural colour of good wine-vinegar is a very pale red, but a higher colour is given, if desired, by the addition of elder-berries.

There are several slight variations in the mode of making wine-vinegar, but which need not be detailed. They all consist in exciting a fresh fermentation in wine, and keeping it up in a moderate degree till acetification is complete. Many refuse parts of the vine are of use for this purpose, such as the hulks, the four succulent twigs, the marc or cake left in the wine-press, and the like; and after they have once served, they are still more valuable, as the acid which they naturally contain, or which is evolved by them, is more readily produced.

Wine may also be converted to good vinegar without these additions, simply by adding wine, especially when on the fret, to vinegar already made, and exposing it to a proper heat. In this way many manufacturers proceed, keeping their casks always full, by taking out of them at intervals about a third or fourth part, replenishing them with wine, and again bringing the contents to the state of vinegar.

In this country vinegar is chiefly made from malt. The following is the usual process in London. A mash of malt and hot water is made, which, after infusion for an hour and a half, is conveyed into a cooler a few inches deep, and thence, when sufficiently cooled, into large and deep fermenting tuns, where it is mixed with yeast, and kept in fermentation for four or five days. The liquor (which is now a strong ale without hops) is then distributed into smaller barrels, set close together in a stoved chamber, and a moderate heat is kept up for about six weeks, during which the fermentation goes on equally and uniformly till the whole is soured. This is then emptied into common barrels, which are set in rows (often of many hundreds) in a field in the open air, the bung-hole being just covered with a tile to keep off the wet, but to allow a free admission of air. Here the liquor remains for four or five months, according to the heat of the weather, a gentle fermentation being kept up, till it becomes perfect vinegar. This is finished in the following way. Large tuns are employed, with a false bottom, on which is put a quantity of the refuse of raisins or other fruit left by the makers of raisin and other home-made wines, called technically *rape*. These rape-tuns are worked by pairs; one of them is quite filled with the vinegar from the barrels, and the other only three-quarters full, so that the ferment-

VINEGAR.

fermentation is excited more easily in the latter than the former, and every day a portion of the vinegar is laded from one to the other, till the whole is completely finished and fit for sale.

Vinegar, as well as fruit-wines, is often made in small quantity for domestic uses, and the process is by no means difficult. The materials may be either brown sugar and water alone, or sugar with raisins, currants, and especially ripe gooseberries. These should be mixed in the proportions which would give a strong wine, put into a small barrel, which it should fill about three-fourths, and the bung-hole very loosely stopped. Some yeast, or, what is better, a toast fopped in yeast, should be put in, and the barrel set in the sun in summer, or a little way from a fire in winter, and the fermentation will soon begin. This should be kept up constant, but very moderate, till the taste and smell indicate that the vinegar is complete. It should be poured off clear and bottled carefully, and it will keep much better if it is boiled for a minute, cooled and strained before bottling.

In both the vinous and acetous fermentations, an intestine motion, a swelling, a hissing noise, and an ebullition, may be perceived; but the heat produced by the former is scarcely sensible, whereas that produced by the latter is very considerable. Moreover, the vapour which exhales from vinegar, during fermentation, is not noxious, like that of fermenting wine: on the contrary, as the acid of vinegar disengages itself, it seems to acquire more power to bind and retain the inflammable principle, which is the truly dangerous part of these vapours. Besides, vinegar does not deposit tartar as wine does, even though it has been made with wine that had not deposited its tartar; but the sediment of vinegar is a viscid, oily, and very putrescent matter; which is used to cover the grape-stalks that are employed in the making of vinegar, in order to promote the fermentation. The acid of the grape-stalks, which are washed clean and preserved to promote the fermentation of more vinegar, acts powerfully as a leaven or ferment. The casks which have been used are also to be cleaned from the viscid matter just mentioned, and kept for the same use, as they are fitter for the purpose than new casks. When the acetous fermentation is finished, the nature and character of the liquor that has undergone it are totally changed. The taste and smell of wine are partly spirituous and partly acid; though in good wine the latter is scarcely perceptible: the taste and smell of vinegar are also acid and spirituous; but the former quality prevails so much, as almost totally to conceal the latter. The properties of wine and vinegar prove, that the acetous fermentation unfolds in a very singular manner the acid parts of wine, and intimately combines them with the inflammable spirit; so that by changing wine into vinegar, the ardent spirit is no longer perceptible, so that it cannot affect the head and intoxicate; and if it be distilled, the first liquor that rises with a heat less than that of boiling water is not an ardent spirit, as when wine is distilled, unless the vinegar be too new, and the acetous fermentation has not been completely finished; but when old vinegar is distilled, the liquor that first rises is a slightly acid phlegm, which contains the most volatile, the most odoriferous, and the most spirituous part of the vinegar.

When vinegar has run a little beyond the acetous state, and begun to enter on the putrefactive, the putrefaction may be stopped by quenching a red-hot iron in the liquor; and the acid, which has been lost, may in some measure be restored, by the addition of a little spirit of wine, rye-bread, mustard-seed, &c. The putrefaction of vinegar may also be prevented, by racking it off from the feculencies, and keeping

it in a close-stopped vessel, in a cool place. However, such as has once suffered a considerable heat, cannot long be preserved from corruption.

In England, the excise laws relating to vinegar are as follow:

Every maker of vinegar for sale shall take out a licence, for which he shall pay 10*s*.; and shall renew the same annually ten days at least before the end of the year; on pain of 50*s*. 43 Geo. III. c. 69. Sched. (A.) 24 Geo. III. c. 41.

But persons in partnership need only take out one licence for one house.

By 43 Geo. III. c. 68. for all vinegar or verjuice imported, a certain duty shall be paid *per* ton (quantity 252 gallons).

By 43 Geo. III. c. 69. Sched. (A.) for every barrel of vinegar, vinegar beer, or liquors preparing for vinegar, which shall be brewed or made in Great Britain for sale, shall be paid by the maker a certain other duty.

And upon every hoghead of verjuice which shall be made in Great Britain for sale, shall be paid by the maker a certain duty.

And by 49 Geo. III. c. 98. a duty is imposed in lieu of all former duties of customs.

By 10 & 11 W. c. 21. thirty-four quarts shall be accounted a gallon of vinegar, according to the standard ale quart.

Every vinegar-maker shall make entry with the officer of excise of the house or place where he intends to carry on the business; and whether he intends to make vinegar from malt or corn, or molasses or sugar, or from any and what other materials. 26 Geo. III. c. 73.

Such officer may at all times by day and night (but if in the night, in the presence of a constable), enter into any places used by such persons, and take an account of such liquors therein, and shall make a report thereof in writing to the commissioners, leaving a true copy thereof under his hand, with such maker, if demanded, in writing, under the penalty of 10*s*. 7 & 8 W. c. 30. 12 Geo. c. 28. 12 Ch. c. 24.

By 10 & 11 W. c. 21. no vinegar-maker shall receive into his custody any liquors for making vinegar, nor deliver out any vinegar in casks, or by the gallon, without notice first given to the officer, unless from Sept. 29, to Mar. 25, yearly, between seven in the morning and five in the evening, and from Mar. 25, to Sept. 29, between five in the morning and seven in the evening; on pain of 50*s*.

On receiving such liquors into his custody, he shall shew the fame to the gauger before he mixes them with any other liquors, rape, or other materials; on pain of 20*s*.

If any vinegar-maker shall, without giving notice at the next excise-office, or to one of the commissioners, use any store-house, warehouse, cellar, or other place, for making or keeping any vinegar beer, or liquor preparing for vinegar, he shall forfeit 50*s*.

If any maker of vinegar for sale shall conceal any vinegar, or liquor preparing for vinegar, from the view of the gauger, he shall for every barrel forfeit 40*s*. 7 & 8 W. c. 30.

If such maker shall, on demand made by such gauger in the day-time (or if by night, in the presence of a constable), refuse to permit him to enter his house, store-house, or other place used by him, and to take an account of the said liquors, he shall forfeit 15*s*.

No person carrying on the trade of a vinegar-maker from molasses or sugar, or other materials, (except malt or corn,) shall carry on (either alone or in partnership) the trade of a distiller

VINEGAR.

distiller or rectifier of spirits in the same premises, or within two miles thereof; and all entries made by such person shall be void. 26 Geo. III. c. 73.

All stale beer, returns of beer or ale, cyder, verjuice, or any other liquor proper to be made into vinegar, which shall be found in the possession of any common vinegar-maker, except such as are to be drunk in his family, and which shall be kept separate for that purpose, shall be deemed vinegar or liquors preparing for vinegar. 10 & 11 W. c. 21.

Every such vinegar-maker shall make entry once a month at the next excise-office of all liquors made within that month, and also within a month after such entry, shall clear off the duties, on pain of double duty. 12 Ch. II. c. 24.

All penalties and forfeitures are to be recovered, levied, and mitigated as by the excise laws. 43 Geo. III. c. 69.

VINEGAR, *Chemical Properties of the pure Acid of the different kinds of.* See ACETOUS ACID.

The quantity of fixt alkaline salt which vinegar is capable of saturating, is one of the surest criterions of its strength. The best of the German vinegars, according to Stahl, saturate little more than $\frac{1}{4}$ th of their own weight; the French vinegars, examined by Geoffroy, above $\frac{1}{4}$ th; and some of them no less than $\frac{1}{2}$ th; the common distilled vinegar of our shops about $\frac{1}{3}$ th. By congelation, and distillation from alkalies, and from some metallic bodies, particularly copper, the acid may be so far concentrated as to saturate nearly equal its own weight. The best way of judging of the saturation, according to Dr. Lewis, is by trying the liquor from time to time with certain coloured vegetable juices, or on paper stained with them. For this purpose, a thick writing paper may be stained pale blue on one side with the blue preparation of archil, commonly called lacmus; and pale red on the other side, by a mixture of the same infusion with so much distilled spirit of salt as is just sufficient to redden it. If a small slip of this paper be dipped occasionally into the liquor to be tried, or a drop of the liquor be applied on both sides of the paper, the red side turns blue as long as any of the alkali remains unsaturated; the blue side turns red, when the acid begins to prevail; and no change at all is produced, when the saturation is complete. Where lacmus cannot be procured, the paper may be coloured with the juices of violets, iris, cyanus, &c. or with the blue juice pressed out from scrapings of the cortical part of common radish roots; with which it is sufficient to stain the paper on one side; this one colour discovering both acidity and alkalescence, the former changing it red, and the latter green.

The acetous acid differs essentially from all the others: from the native vegetable acid, in subtilty and volatility; not being obtainable in the form of a concrete salt, which most, perhaps all, of the native ones are, and rising in distillation with a moderate heat, which very few of the native ones have been found to do: from the mineral acids, in its habitude to different bodies, and the nature of the compounds which it forms with them, being much weaker than the mineral acids: thus, whatever alkaline, earthy, or metallic substance the acetous acid be combined with, the addition of any mineral acid will disjoin them, the mineral taking the place of the acetous; neutral salts, composed of the acetous acid and fixed alkalies, dissolve totally and plentifully in rectified spirit of wine, whilst those composed of the same alkalies and mineral acids are not at all soluble in that menstruum: in this property, the acetous acid differs also from most, perhaps from all, of the acids of its own kingdom; and from all acids in general, in its peculiar odour.

The acid of vinegar dissolves all substances upon which other acids can act, and forms with them neutral salts, all which may be called acetous salts. With calcareous earth it forms salts, which in crystallizing shoot into silky ramifications and vegetations: these salts are named, from their earthy bases, salt of chalk, salt of crabs' eyes, &c. (See ACETITE of Lime, &c.) The solubility of calcareous earth in this acid, and its precipitability by that of vitriol, afford a ready method of discovering the sophistication of vinegar, said to be sometimes practised, with vitriolic acid. If a saturated solution of any calcareous earth, as chalk, made in strong vinegar, be added to such as is suspected of containing vitriolic acid, no change will ensue, if the vinegar was pure; but if it contained even a minute portion of that acid, the mixture will immediately become milky, and, on standing for a little while, deposit a milky sediment: if the calcareous solution be gradually drop'd in, so long as it produces any milkiness or cloudiness, all the vitriolic acid will be absorbed by the chalk; and as this new compound is very sparingly dissoluble, nearly the whole of it will precipitate, so as to leave the vinegar almost pure. Its adulteration with vitriolic or sulphuric acid may also be detected by a solution of nitrate of barytes, which forms a white precipitate, when dropped into the suspected vinegar, insoluble in nitric acid, after having been exposed to a strong heat. With fixed vegetable alkali the acid of vinegar forms a very pungent and very deliquescent salt, called *Regenerated TARTAR*, or *TERRA foliata tartari*; which see. (See also ACETITE of Potash.) With fixed mineral alkali it forms a neutral crystallizable salt. With volatile alkali it forms an acetous ammoniacal salt, called *spirit of Mindereus*. See ACETITE of Ammonia.

Vinegar dissolves, among metallic bodies, zinc and iron; and the rest with difficulty, if at all. (See ACETOUS ACID.) United with copper, it forms a verdigris and crystals of Venus. With lead it forms ceruse, and salt or sugar of lead; dissolving it more easily when reduced to a calx than in its metallic state; boiled even with the glass of lead, or in the common glazed earthen vessels, in the glazing of which this metal is a principal ingredient, it extracts so much as to become strongly tainted with the pernicious qualities of the lead. Gold, platina, silver, and quicksilver, are not affected by vinegar in their metallic state; the two first have not been observed in any state to be affected by it. Silver precipitated from the nitrous acid, and thoroughly edulcorated with water, and mercury treated in the same manner, or changed by fire into a red powder, slowly and sparingly dissolve in it. Of the affinities of this acid to different metals, or its forsaking one to unite with another, few experiments have been made. Dr. Lewis observes, that it deposits lead and copper upon adding iron. (See TABLES of AFFINITY.) It dissolves the vegetable inspissated juices, and several of the gummy resins, and extracts the virtues of sundry plants in tolerable perfection, superadding at the same time a virtue of a different kind. However, it excellently assits and coincides with some drugs, as garlic, squills, and ammoniacum; and in many cases, where this acid is principally to be depended upon, it may be advantageously impregnated with the flavour of certain vegetables. Vinegar very much concentrated, as the rectified spirit of Venus, or radical vinegar, being distilled with equal parts of highly rectified spirit of wine, furnishes a liquor which has all the essential characters of ether, and is called *acetous ether*. It was discovered by the count de Lauraguais. (See Hist. Acad. Scienc. Par. 1759.) It mingles equally with blood and its serum, and with most of the fluids of animals; not thickening or coagulating them, like the acids

VINEGAR.

of the mineral kingdom, but tending rather, as Boerhaave justly observes, to attenuate and resolve coagulations. It is likewise, when taken internally, less stimulating than the mineral acids, and less disposed to affect the kidneys. Professor Cullen observes, that it is less liable to undergo changes in the first passages than the native vegetable acids, which have yet to go through the process of fermentation. The use of vinegar as a condiment, and as an antiseptic for pickling and preserving dead animal and vegetable matter, is well known.

VINEGAR, Medicinal Properties of. This mild, unctuous acid is a medicine of great use in the different kinds of inflammatory and putrid distempers, both internal and external. Nothing is more extolled in many cases of putrefaction, and as an antidote against venomous bites, by Dioscorides and Hippocrates, than oxycerate; and vinegar, when applied to sores in animal bodies, is known to stimulate and resist putrefaction. When weak, it possesses the virtues of water; when strong, its effects approach to those of salts and acid spirit. Med. Ess. Edinb. vol. v. art. 24.

It is one of the most certain antiphlogistics and sudorifics in high fevers, and one of the best preservatives against pestilential and other putrid contagious. Accordingly Boerhaave informs us, that Franciscus de la Boe Sylvius visited his patients in the plague with safety, by drinking first an ounce or two of vinegar. And it is now a common practice to wash and sprinkle the rooms of hospitals, the decks of ships, &c. with vinegar, in order to purify the air. Dr. Hales (Ventilators, part i. p. 46.) recommends dipping many cloths in vinegar, and hanging them up in all proper vacancies between the decks of ships, and in the chambers of sick persons, by which great quantities of vinegar would intermix and float in the air; and he found by an experiment, mentioned in his Statical Essays, vol. i. p. 266, that an air which passes through such cloths, could be breathed to and fro as long again, as the like quantity of air which was not impregnated with vinegar. Fainting, vomiting, lethargic and hysterical paroxysms, are likewise frequently relieved by vinegar, applied to the mouth and nose, or received into the stomach. Lethargic persons are often found to be excited more effectually by vinegar blown into the nose, than by the far more pungent volatile spirits. Boerhaave observes, that this acid counteracts, in a peculiar manner, the effects of spirituous liquors. The daily use of vinegar with food is salutary in hot, bilious dispositions, and where there is a tendency to inflammation or putrefaction. It is prejudicial to children, to aged, hysterical, and hypochondriacal persons; in cold, pale, phlegmatic habits, where the vessels are lax, the circulation languid, and the power of digestion weak. It tends in all cases, if used freely, to prevent corpulence. Hoffman suspects that it produces this effect by impeding the formation of chyle, or destroying the union of the unctuous and ferous fluids of which chyle is composed; an effect common to all acids, as appears from their coagulating milk and artificial emulsions. Dr. Lewis observes, that he has known great corpulence reduced by the liberal use of vinegar, but not with impunity: diseases succeeding, which eluded the power of medicines, and proved at length fatal.

Combinations of vinegar with different earthy bodies, differ in virtue according to the nature of the earth. A solution of the aluminous earth in this acid is strongly styptic; of vegetable earth, or magnesia alba, bitterish and gently purgative: both these solutions are milder, and less ungrateful, than those of the same earths made in the mineral acids; and, though as yet unknown in practice, certainly deserves, as Dr. Lewis says, to be introduced. Solutions

of different animal and the calcareous mineral earths are bitterish and subastringent, in various degrees, and supposed to act as mild resolvents, subastringents, or diaphoretics. Combinations of vinegar with fixed alkaline salts are useful aperients, diuretics, and cathartics. Dr. Lewis has known two drachms of the alkali, dissolved in as much vinegar as was sufficient to saturate it, occasion ten or twelve copious watery stools, and a plentiful discharge of urine, without griping or fatiguing the patient. Mixtures of alkali and distilled vinegar, evaporated to a dry salt, are kept in the shops; either in a brownish oily state, as obtained by simple evaporation, or purified to perfect whiteness, by gentle fusion or solution in water. These preparations are given in doses of ten or twenty grains as mild aperients, and to a drachm or two as purgatives and diuretics. See TARTAR, Regenerated, SAL Diureticus, TERRA Foliated, and ARCANUM Tartari.

Combinations of vinegar with volatile alkaline salts, commonly made with distilled vinegar, added gradually to the salt, till the effervescence ceases, scarcely yield any solid salt; the saline matter evaporating with the watery fluid, or even before it: on distilling the mixture in a retort, a salt sometimes concretes about the sides of the receiver, but liquefies again as the vessels grow cold. These mixtures, called *Spiritus Mindereri*, have little purgative virtue, but operate powerfully as aperients; by urine, if the patient walks about in the cool air; by perspiration or sweat, if kept warm in bed. They are principally made use of in this last intention, in doses of half an ounce; and, as they act without irritation, they have place in inflammatory cases, where the warm sudorifics, if they fail of exciting a sweat, aggravate the dilemma. Vinegar and honey, or oxymel, of the consistence of a syrup, swallowed warm, is very good in many cases of sore throats arising from colds. A very important medicinal virtue has been attributed to vinegar, namely, that of curing the canine madness. See HYPNO-PHOBIA, and MADNESS from the Bite of enraged Animals.

M. Buchoz, in a work, entitled "An historical Treatise of Plants growing in Lorraine, &c." affirms, that several successful trials have ascertained the efficacy of vinegar against the ill effects arising from the bite of mad dogs, when it is given in the quantity of a pound each day, divided into three doses; one to be taken in the morning, another at noon, and a third in the evening. Upon the whole we shall here observe, that vinegar, taken into the stomach, acts as a refrigerant, promotes diaphoresis and the discharge of urine; and is a powerful antinarcotic: externally its action on the living fibre is moderately stimulant and astringent. In inflammatory fevers it may be used to acidulate the ordinary beverage. It is given as a remedy in putrid diseases and scurvy; and is the most easily procured, and the best means of counteracting the fatal effects of over-doses of opium, and other narcotic poisons; for which purpose it should be administered in table spoonfuls, frequently repeated, after the stomach has been emptied by a proper emetic. It is employed as a glyster in obstinate costiveness; and externally, in the form of fomentation, or of lotion, is applied in burns, bruises, sprains, and chronic ophthalmia; and diluted with water, it is the best lotion for clearing the eye of small particles of lime, when they adhere to any part of the ball, or the lids. Its vapour is inhaled in putrid fore-throat; and diffused through sick rooms, with the view of neutralizing pestilential effluvia; but as a fumigation it has little efficacy. The dose of vinegar is fss to fssj ; and the quantity given in clysters fssj to fssj . See on the subject of this article, Boerhaave's Elem. Chem. by Dallowe, part iii. p. 146, &c. Neumann's Chem. by Lewis, p. 458, &c. Disd.

Diff. Chem. · Lewis's Mat. Med. Thomson's Lond. Disp. See also ACETIC Acid, ACETITE, ACETOUS Acid, and ACETUM.

VINEGAR, in *Rural Economy*, is an acid or cooling liquid that may be made use of with considerable benefit in different sorts of field labour, in mixture with water or other fluids, as quenching thirst very effectually, without stimulating or increasing the heat of the body too greatly. It has been stated, on the authority of a manuscript paper found in possession of sir William Pulteney on the use of vinegar, by the writer of the Corrected Report of the Agriculture of the County of Middlesex, that during the first American war, the interruption given by our cruizers to the trade of that country, and some other circumstances, prevented the inhabitants of it from procuring proper supplies of molasses for their distilleries, and a distress was experienced, particularly in harvest-time, from the want of rum to mix with water, which was the drink of their labourers. It is commonly known, the writer thinks, that cold water is dangerous, when used by persons heated with labour, or by any severe exercise; and yet it is necessary to supply the waste and exhaustion of perspiration in some mode or other. When rum or wine is added in small quantity to water, it may be used, even if cold, with little danger: it would, however, be safer, it is supposed, if a little warm water were mixed and employed in such cases.

On this account, Dr. Rush, of the same country, after making proper experiments on the subject, recommended in a publication, that instead of rum, which could not then be had, the labourers in harvest should mix a very small proportion of vinegar with the water they made use of as drink. Some years afterwards, in another publication, the same writer mentioned that the practice had been adopted, and had succeeded even beyond his expectations; indeed so much, that in many places vinegar was still continued to be used, though rum could easily be had. The preference of vinegar to rum is accounted for in this manner: severe labour or exercise excites a degree of fever; and that fever is increased by spirits or fermented liquor of any sort; but vinegar, at the same time that it prevents mischief from drinking cold water during the heat and perspiration occasioned by exercise, allays the fever; and the labourers found themselves more refreshed and less exhausted at night, when vinegar was used instead of rum.

The exact proportion of the vinegar is not known by the writer, but it is supposed that it was not more than about a tea-spoonful to half a pint of water.

The discovery, it is said, was not altogether new, as the Romans used vinegar to mix with water for the drink of their soldiers.

The writer of the above agricultural report adds to this, that M. Denon, a celebrated French draughtsman, who accompanied their army while it was in Upper Egypt, experienced the advantage of vinegar mixed somewhat in this way in that burning climate, which he relates in this manner: "I cooled the heat of my blood with vinegar, which I mixed with water and sugar, and drank of it largely."

Independently of this, however, the same writer states, that the quality of water, which produces the ill effects above described to persons drinking it cold, when under any considerable degree of perspiration, may probably be corrected by the simple addition of skim-milk. The labourers in some districts of this kingdom, it is said, during harvest, make use of no other beverage than milk and water, which is found to allay the fever, and quench the thirst, much more than beer. At the same time, the labourers are

glad when they can get beer or ale, though they confess that they are much sooner thirsty after drinking either, than they are after drinking milk and water, or it would seem than vinegar and water.

As it is necessary to have good and well-kept vinegar in this intention, as well as for some domestic and other purposes, it may be proper to consider the nature of it, and the means of preserving and preventing the decomposition and injury of it in any way. Where good vinegar is wanted, wines of good quality are necessary, as the best kinds of it are those that have been made from generous wines. The more spirituous the wine is, and the more of this vinous spirit that can be retained in the vinegar, of course the better and stronger it will be, and consequently the more fit for the above uses. In regard to the means of its preservation, they principally consist in defending it well against the action or influence of the external air, by keeping it in proper vessels, well closed, and placed in cool situations. Its alterations and injuries may likewise be further retarded, where necessary, by depriving it of a portion of the water which it contains; for which purpose, nothing more is wanted than to just let it boil for an instant; but the vessels which are employed in this kind of business should obviously not be made of copper. The process too, which has been proposed by some with a similar intention, is quite simple; it consists in filling with this acid glass vessels of a proper kind, which are to be then placed in boilers full of water; the water being in this case made to boil for a full quarter of an hour, after which the vinegar in the vessels is taken out, when it may be kept for several years without undergoing any alteration or decomposition. Distillation, too, has been advised as a means of preserving vinegar; but besides the circumstance of its being a tedious and difficult process, it is apt to deprive the acid of the agreeable smell and taste which are peculiar to it in its natural state, and which is always desirable, but more especially when for use in the above intention. And the same is the case with vinegar that has been concentrated by freezing. The acid by this simple operation becomes much stronger, and capable of being kept for a much greater length of time; but it acquires something of a burnt smell and taste, which render it unfit for being employed for many domestic purposes, as well as that above stated.

There is another manner of accomplishing this business by a saline substance, which is that of sea-salt, or muriate of soda, which is advised by some to be added to vinegar, as being able to preserve it, and which succeeds well enough in some cases, though it is not without its inconveniences; for the vinegars that contain this material grow turbid, and at length lose their primitive qualities. But though it may not succeed quite so perfectly as might be wished, it may still be employed in certain cases with advantage, especially if the quantity of salt that is necessary to be added to the vinegar be not too large a proportion.

What respects the signs by which vinegar may be known to be good, adulterated, or spoiled, deserve considerable attention, as nothing is more common than to meet with vinegars that are of bad quality. Two causes principally contribute to their being in that state: the first of which is, that they have been manufactured or prepared with weak wines, or such as are already in a spoiled condition; the second, that they have been mixed with acid substances, such as pimento and others; or that mineral acids, such as the sulphuric or muriatic, have been added to them. Nothing is, however, more easy than to detect such frauds and impositions, it being sufficient for the purpose to merely saturate a given quantity of potash with the vinegar which is suspected

VINEGAR.

suspected of adulteration, and to compare the quantity of vinegar that has been obliged to be employed before a complete saturation could be obtained, with that consumed in a similar trial made with vinegar, the good quality of which is well known; and by evaporating or reducing the substance of the solution nearly to dryness afterwards, the nature of the material employed may be ascertained. And as to the acrid vegetable substances that may have been mixed with it, they may be readily recognized by their taste, which will be altogether different from that of the vinegar, and which will become the more perceptible, the more the acid has been concentrated or reduced by evaporation, or any other means.

It may be noticed in general, that vinegar which has not been adulterated, or which has not been spoiled by an incipient decomposition, is readily and easily known by its penetrating acid taste, its transparency, and its agreeable smell, which becomes still more developed if some of the vinegar be rubbed between the hands, or in any other way.

In some of these modes, vinegar that is fit for use in the above intention, and for other purposes, may be readily known.

Vinegar is frequently also of much utility and advantage as an application in different cases of bruises and slight swellings, arising from blows and other accidents among different kinds of live-stock or domestic animals.

VINEGAR of *Antimony*, is an acid spirit, best made by distillation from the ore of antimony. See *ANTIMONY*.

Its use is recommended in continued and malignant fevers.

VINEGAR, *Aromatic*, of the Edinb. Ph., is prepared by taking of rosemary tops dried, and sage leaves dried, of each 4 oz.; lavender flowers dried, 2 oz.; cloves bruised, 2 dr.; and distilled vinegar, 8 lbs.: macerating these ingredients for seven days, and filtering the expressed liquor through paper. The odour of this liquid, which is a solution of the volatile oils of the substance employed in vinegar, is pleasant, pungent, and aromatic; and it is a grateful perfume in sick rooms, but cannot be regarded as a prophylactic from fever, or other contagions.

The aromatic spirit of vinegar, originally invented and successively improved by the late ingenious and respectable Mr. Henry of Manchester, is composed of highly concentrated vinegar, joined with the most pleasant aromatic and efficacious antiseptics, and may be kept unimpaired for any length of time, and in any climate. Its fragrant odour adapts it for affording relief in head-aches, faintings, &c. and renders it peculiarly grateful and refreshing in crowded rooms, places of public resort, and the apartments of the sick. It is also said to counteract the infection of contagious diseases.

VINEGAR, *Distilled*, is the spirituous acid of vinegar obtained by distillation. The process of distilling vinegar is very simple. A quantity of good ordinary vinegar is put into a large cucurbit or still, which ought to be made of stone-ware, and not of metal, as the acid of vinegar is capable of acting upon most metals. This cucurbit is sunk in a deep furnace, so that five or six fingers' breadth only near its neck appear. The neck is to be carefully luted with clay all round the furnace, that the capital may not be heated too much. A capital and a glass receiver are then to be fitted, and the distillation is to be begun with a very gentle heat. The acid spirituous liquor passes by drops into the receiver. This liquor is white, transparent, penetrating, somewhat empyreumatic, and disengaged from an acid, but not spirituous substance, and also from an extractive sapo-

naceous matter, both which are contained in ordinary vinegar. These latter substances remain in the still with the colouring matter, and form together an extremely acid extract of vinegar. This residuum contains also some tartar, and by incineration yields much fixed alkali, as all matters belonging to vines, grapes, and wine do.

The thicker vinegar is, the less fit it proves for distillation, as there is always the greater danger of an empyreuma, or burnt smell, which would spoil the whole process, and as it usually in this case comes over oleaginous. And the purest white salt of tartar, saturated with this distilled vinegar, being afterwards ignited, turns black, and yields a smell extremely like that of crude tartar in the calcination. Shaw's Chemical Essays.

On the other hand, the more the vinegar is diluted immediately before distillation, the less danger there is of burning; and if the thick remaining mass, when the thinner part is distilled from it, be again diluted with water, it may, by a second distillation, be brought to afford an acetous substance; though this latter be by no means comparable to this former volatile part. This Vigan justly suspects to be a circumstance known but to very few. And even when the vinegar is distilled with the utmost labour and care, it still has this effect in a higher degree, and contains an immense quantity of phlegm, in proportion to its acid salt.

In this case, the method of condensation by freezing is of the utmost service; first of all separating the more aqueous part, and in the next place that which is somewhat acetous, though not comparable to what remains behind; so that, by this means, a most concentrated and subtle spirituous distilled vinegar may be produced, viz. by freezing the whole parcel of distilled phlegm and distilled vinegar together, a thing of great moment to the curious in the *chemia subtilior*, and particularly to those who understand Holland; And when the vinegar is froze without distillation, by this means you have a noble rob, or a rich concentrated vinegar, freed from its distilling aqueous and useless part. Vigan, Medull. Chem.

The Lond. Ph. directs the acetic acid to be distilled from a gallon of vinegar in a glass retort, placed in a sand-bath, into a glass receiver kept cool; the first pint to be thrown away, and the six succeeding pints which are distilled to be preserved. The distilled acetous acid of the Edinb. Ph. is prepared by distilling 8 lbs. of the acetous acid in glass vessels, with a gentle heat, rejecting the 2 lbs. which first came over, as being too watery; and the 4 lbs. that follow will be the distilled acetous acid: the residue is a stronger acid, but too much burnt. The distilled vinegar of the Dub. Ph. is obtained by taking of wine vinegar ten pints, and distilling with a gentle heat six pints: the distillation is to be performed in a glass vessel, and the first pint which comes over rejected. The specific gravity of this acid is to that of water as 1006 or 1009 to 1000. (See *ACETOUS Acid*.) Darraq has ascertained (Annales de Chimie, xli. 264.) that distilled vinegar differs from acetic acid, by containing some uncombined mucilage and extractive matter, but that the acids are otherwise the same. To this extractive it is owing, that when distilled vinegar is boiled with potash, the solution has a deep reddish-brown colour, and during evaporation carbonaceous matter is deposited. Sulphuric acid is detected by a precipitate being produced on the addition of a solution of acetate of barytes; lead, by a solution of sulphuretted hydrogen, forming a dark-coloured precipitate; and copper, by its assuming a blue colour, when supersaturated with ammonia. The medical properties and uses of distilled vinegar are the same with those of common vinegar; but, being purer, and less

liable to spontaneous decomposition, it is fitter for pharmaceutical purposes. Thomson's Disp.

VINEGAR, *Concentrated*. See CONCENTRATION.

VINEGAR of *Lead*, is a liquor formed by digesting ceruse or litharge, with a sufficient quantity to dissolve it perfectly. This is called the *acetum lithargyrites*, and is prepared by digesting four ounces of litharge about three days in a sand heat, with a pint of strong vinegar, now and then shaking the vessel. The liquor, filtered, will receive a strong impregnation from the litharge, and will be found to have dissolved about one-tenth of it. When a saturated solution is required, the ceruse is preferred to the litharge. This vinegar is of the same nature with solutions of saccharum saturni, and when diluted with a large quantity of water, it abates external inflammations, the itching and other uneasinesses in cancerous ulcers; and before Mr. Goulard's practice, it was used for bathing inflammations in scirrhous tumours, to prevent their becoming cancerous. Inflammations and inflammatory tumours, in general, are dispersed by it. Dr. William Saunders has observed, that the acetum lithargyrites, or Goulard's extract, is not the same in its operation and powers as the saccharum saturni, as medical practitioners have generally supposed. In the preparation of the former, the acid is fully saturated with lead; but in that of the latter, the acid is in a much greater proportion to the lead. The former, when diluted by the purest distilled water, gives out a copious precipitation, which he finds, by experiment, to be ceruse. The latter remains dissolved in distilled water, and is, therefore, applied topically in a state more immediately active, both on account of its greater proportion of acid, and its preserving its solubility under high degrees of dilution. He has also found by experiment, that, by adding a very small proportion of distilled vinegar to the aqua saturnina of Goulard, the white precipitate is redissolved, and that the solution procured in this manner is more active, but less adapted to remove inflammation, and abate irritation, as a sedative, than the aqua saturnina itself. Dr. Saunders, however, is perfectly convinced that no degree of dilution of saccharum saturni will answer the many valuable purposes obtained from the use of the acetum lithargyrites. Water alone, in the case of the aqua saturnina, proves a precipitant of lead, by attracting the acid, and reducing the preparation to a state of ceruse, an intermediate state between lead and the saccharum saturni; so that ceruse diffused in water more nearly resembles the aqua saturnina of Goulard, than a solution of the saccharum saturni does. The saccharum saturni may be considered as an union of ceruse with vinegar; whereas Goulard's acetum lithargyrites is an union of lead with vinegar. See Percival's Phil. Med. and Exp. Ess. 1776. Append. p. 323, &c. See also LEAD.

VINEGAR of *Meadow Saffron*, *Acetum Colchici*, is ordered by the London College to be prepared by taking of the meadow saffron root (bulb) sliced, 1 oz.; of acetic acid, a pint; and of proof-spirit, a fluid-ounce; macerating the root with the vinegar in a covered glass vessel for twenty-four hours, then expelling, and setting the liquor aside, that the feculencies may subside, and adding the spirit to the clear liquor. This is given as a diuretic in ascites and hydrothorax, but is less to be depended on than the squill. The dose is from fʒss to fʒj, united with honey, or any bland fluid. See COLCHICUM and *Meadow Saffron*.

VINEGAR, *Portable*, a name given by the chemists to a sort of vinegar-powder, or vinegar in a dry form. It is a preparation of tartar with vinegar, and is made in this manner: Take white tartar, half a pound; let it be carefully washed, then dried and powdered; infuse this powder in the

strongest wine-vinegar; then dry it, and infuse it again, repeating this operation ten times: after this the dry powder is to be kept for use. At any time, a sort of extemporaneous vinegar may be made by dissolving a small quantity of this powder in any proper liquor.

VINEGAR, *Prophylactic*. See ACETUM Prophylacticum.

VINEGAR, *Radical*, is a name given to the acid of vinegar, highly concentrated, by distilling verdigris, or crystals of verdigris, &c. See ACETIC Acid.

M. de Laffone has lately found, that in the process of distilling verdigris for this purpose, a fluid escapes of the nature of those called by the ancient chemists *gas*, and by the moderns *fixed air*; and he also observed, that if the distillation be suspended the moment before the acid concentrated vapours appear under a white form, copperish flowers are obtained: before this period, the radical vinegar contains no copper; it only begins to contain some, when the copperish flowers, carried along by the acid vapours, mix themselves with this vinegar: if it is then rectified by a new distillation, these flowers are no more sublimed, and, therefore, a radical vinegar, exempt from copper, may be extracted from verdigris. The copperish flowers are in a high degree caustic, and may be considered as a violent poison. Hist. Acad. Sc. Par. 1777.

VINEGAR of *Roses*. See ACETUM Rosatum.

VINEGAR of *Squill*. See SQUILL.

VINEGAR, *Eel* in. The common opinion, from the discovery of eels in vinegar, that its sharpness to the taste was occasioned by these animals, caused the accurate Leeuwenhoek to attempt a careful examination of it by the microscope.

Some of the strongest and sharpest vinegar, after having been exposed for some hours to the air, and afterwards examined by the microscope, entertains the sight with a number of corpuscles, called the salts of vinegar, which are acute at both extremities, and have many of them in the middle an oblong figure of a brownish colour, and others were altogether clear, pellucid, and bright as crystal. Others of these particles appeared of an oval figure, and some of the half of such a figure, hollowed like a small boat, or the half of a nut-shell. The more perfect figures, pointed at both ends, and pellucid, are so very minute, that some thousands of them are comprehended in a small drop.

These seem to be what affect the tongue with the acid sharpness, when we taste vinegar; and it is very probable, that beside these, minute as they are, there are multitudes of others, equally pointed, and infinitely smaller than these.

If vinegar be placed in an open glass, and suffered to remain some weeks, the surface of it will be found, on examination with good glasses, to be full of the same figures, double-pointed, and very pellucid; and in these, very often, there may be cavities plainly discovered; but examining the liquor a little deeper down, there are found numbers of minute eels; yet these, though minute, are prodigiously larger than the salt particles, and can never be supposed to be the occasion of the sharpness of vinegar to the taste, by any who rightly consider, since it is not all vinegar that contains them; nay, the much greater part of vinegar is wholly without them, and in winter they all die; yet vinegar is not less sharp at that season than in the summer.

Mr. Mentzelius was so lucky as to see these undergo their last metamorphosis, and change into small flies; and though this is a single instance, in regard to the microscopical world of animalcules, yet it is highly probable that the whole race of those, whose appearance in medicated fluids we have been so long puzzled to account for, may, like these, be the worm-state, of some winged aerial insect, and have owed their

their origin, where we see them, to the eggs of parent flies, too small for our sight. Reaumur, Hist. Inf. vol. iv.

If vinegar be impregnated with crab's-eyes, or any other alkaline substance, which blunts, and in a great measure destroys its acidity, these double-pointed figures are no longer found in it, on a microscopical inspection; but in their places we find others with an oblong quadrangular base, from which they shoot up into pyramids, and appear like polished diamonds. These are also very minute, that six thousand of them are computed to be contained in a drop of the liquor, no larger than two corns of barley; and these will be usually found all of the same size, or very nearly so, which is by no means the case with the other sorts of vinegar in its natural state. See *Microscopic EELS*.

VINEGAR-Hill, in *Geography*, an eminence near the town of Enniscorthy, famous for being a station of the rebels in 1798.

VINER'S ISLAND, a small island in the south-west part of James Bay, Hudson's Bay.

VINERY, in *Gardening*, a sort of garden erection, consisting of a wall twelve or fourteen feet in height, extending from east to west, furnished with flues, and proper flues, with roof and lights of glass, covering a border of some extent; as ten feet or more in width. When vines are to be forced at an early season, upright glasses, two and a half or three feet in height, are often employed in front, to support the roof, and to admit sun and light to the border, which is frequently occupied with low-growing vegetables: but when they are not wanted early, a low wall will answer equally well. In forcing vines, the following dimensions are supposed to form an improved vinery, or house of this kind, and one that has been found to answer well in actual practice. In houses of this sort, if the wall be twelve feet high, the breadth ten feet, and the height of the upright wall in front three feet, the roof will form an angle of about forty-three degrees; which experience has shewn to be a suitable pitch for forcing vines with advantage.

These sorts of buildings may likewise be constructed on a plan somewhat similar to that of a single-pitted pine-stove, having the back wall fourteen feet high; the roof slanting, and covering an extent of about sixteen feet; with a flue running from east to west near the front wall. This is well suited, not only for grapes, but early crops of melons, strawberries, and other similar kinds of fruit.

To save the expence of glass; where there are peach-houses, the glass frames may also be employed for the vinery, when constructed with this intention, and good grapes may be obtained from vines trained against walls about six feet high; by means of melon-frame glasses, where a small slanting roof is made proper to receive them. But a small degree of fire-heat is of great advantage, and might be applied either by a flued wall, the flue running through the house, or by cast-iron pipes for the purpose.

These sorts of houses, Mr. Nicol remarks, vary exceedingly in their construction; and although some lay great stress on this article, (and there are extremes which ought not to be followed,) he is convinced the failure of success in the production of the grape, is much less a consequence of bad construction in the house, than in the preparation of the border, the choice of the kinds, and the general management. It has fallen to his lot to have the construction and management of three several and differently constructed grape-houses in the same garden, under his care for years, which have equally and uniformly produced excellent crops. This, in his opinion, is a proof of the necessity of a greater niceness in the formation of the border being observed, than in the construction of the house; the fire-place and

flues excepted, which should always be particularly attended to.

He also thinks that the site of a vinery is an object of such consequence to the welfare of the plant, and successful cultivation and production of well-flavoured fruit, that the greatest care should be taken in the choice of it. A gentle hill, having a south aspect, and considerable declivity that way, the soil a strong brown loam of two feet, over a bottom of dry sand, gravel, or soft clay, is, he thinks, the most desirable, and would be the least expensive of all situations. In this case the border requires no paving or draining; and admits of a proper mixture of sandy loam, vegetable mould, marle, and dung, by the removal of two feet of the natural bottom, with the natural soil, to form a border, perfectly adapted to the growth of the vine, in the following proportion; viz. one half strong brown loam, a quarter light sandy loam, an eighth vegetable mould of decayed tree-leaves, and an eighth stable-dung; to which add about a fiftieth part of shell-marle. This is the composition of the vine-borders at Wenys's Castle, none of which are less than four feet deep, and one (owing to the accidental situation of the house) is six. See *FORCING, HOT-HOUSES, and STOVE*. See also *VITIS*.

In order to form borders against these hot-walls in other cases, they should have the earth taken out two feet deep where the ground is dry, but in other cases one foot will be sufficient, as in wet soils the borders should be raised at least two feet above the level of the ground, to prevent the roots of the vines from being injured by the wet. The bottom of this trench should be filled with stones, lime-rubbish, &c. a foot and a half or two feet in thickness, which should be levelled and beaten down pretty hard, to prevent the roots from running downward. The trenches should be made five feet wide at least, otherwise the roots will, in a few years, extend themselves beyond the rubbish, and, finding an easy passage downwards, run into the moist ground, and be thereby much injured, or destroyed; but before the rubbish is filled into the trench, it is a better method to raise a nine-inch wall at that distance from the hot-wall, which will keep the rubbish from intermixing with the neighbouring earth, and also confine the roots to the border in which they are planted. This wall should be raised to the height of the intended border, and may be useful to lay the plate of timber of the frames upon, which will be necessary to cover the vines with when they are forced; and where the borders are raised to any considerable height above the level of the ground, these walls may preserve the earth of the borders from falling down into the walks; but in carrying them up, it will be proper to leave little openings, about eight or ten feet distant, to let the water pass off by. As soon as the walls are finished and thoroughly dry, the rubbish should be filled in, as directed above, when there should be fresh light earth laid upon it two feet thick, which will be a sufficient depth of mould for the vines to root in. The borders should be prepared in this manner at least a month or six weeks before the vines are planted, in order that they may have time to settle. See *VITIS*.

Improved and more economical modes of heating and steaming the plants in vineries have lately been had recourse to by Mr. Loudon and others, as by the ordinary fires, and the use of cast-iron plates, &c. Vineries have sometimes steam-vaults under the ground, for supplying occasional warmth to the roots of the vine plants. Houses of these kinds are sometimes called *graperies*, and *grape-houses*. See *STOVE*.

VINET, ELIAS, in *Biography*, a learned man of the sixteenth century, was born at Vinets, a village of Saintonge, and

and having gained a small sum of money by tuition, he went to Paris for the study of mathematics and improvement in classical literature. He was invited to Bourdeaux in 1541, and appointed to a professorship by Govea, principal of the college in that city. He accompanied his patron to Coimbra in 1547, but after his death returned to Bourdeaux, where he was appointed principal of the college in 1558. Having performed the duties of this office for twenty-five years, he was released from service in his advanced age, but retained his salary, and died in 1587, at the age of 78. Vinet edited various ancient authors; and besides his translations into French, he published some original works, such as "The Art of making Dials;" a treatise "On Moderation;" the "Antiquities of Saintes and Barbesieux," 4to. 1571; and "Antiquities of Bourdeaux and Bourg," 4to. 1574. Moreri.

VINEUIL, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Loir and Cher, on the Couffon; 3 miles E. of Blois.

VINEYARD, **VINETUM**, a plantation of vines. See **VINE**.

Vineyards were formerly common in England, but for a considerable time the cultivation of them has been altogether neglected. There was a famous vineyard at Bath, planted with white Muscadine and black cluster grapes, which, at one time, yielded sixty hogheads of wine at a vintage, though, in 1721, it only yielded three hogheads.

Bradley also mentions a small vineyard of a private person at Rotherhithe, consisting only of a hundred vines, which yielded at a vintage ninety-five gallons of wine, that had the true Burgundy flavour, as being made of that sort of grape, and exceeded any made on this side of Paris.

VINEYARD, in *Geography*, a town of America, in the district of Vermont, and county of Grand Isle; containing 338 inhabitants.

VINEYARD, *Martha's*. See *MARTHA'S Vineyard*.

VINEYARD, *New*, a township in the district of Maine, and county of Somerset; containing 484 inhabitants; 60 miles N.W. of Brunswick.

VINEYARD Sound, a narrow sea, on the north-west coast of Martha's Vineyard, separated from Buzzard's bay by Elizabeth islands.

VINFELD, a place of Westphalia, in the county of Lippe, near Horn.

VINGENNA, in *Ancient Geography*, a river of Gaul, which discharges itself into the Loire.

VINGER, in *Geography*, a town of Norway, in the province of Aggerhuus; 12 miles S.S.E. of Berga.

VINGORLA, a town of Hindoostan, in the country of Concan, where the Dutch had a settlement, from which they were driven by the natives in 1696. About ten miles to the west-north-west are some rocks, in the Indian sea, called Vingorla Rocks. The town of Vingorla is situated near the mouth of a river; 22 miles N.N.W. of Goa. N. lat. 15° 53'. E. long. 73° 27'.

VINHAES, a town of Portugal, in the province of Tralosa Montes; 12 miles W. of Bragança.

VINJA CUTARIA, a town of Hindoostan, in Cutch; 16 miles S. of Tahej.

VINIE LAKE, a lake of Norway, in the government of Aggerhuus; 45 miles W. of Conberg.

VINIOLÆ, in *Ancient Geography*, a place in the isle of Sardinia, on the route from Portus Tibulis to Caralis, between Fanum Carisi and Sulci. Anton. Itin.—Also, a place of Spain, belonging to the Carpetani, between Accatucci and Mentefa Baitia.

VINITZA, in *Geography*, a town of Croatia; 12 miles W. of Varadin.

VINIUS, in *Ancient Geography*, a river of Italy, in the vicinity of the town of Calinum, according to Varro, supposed to be now known by the name of Fiume di San Germano.

VINKATTY CHILLUM, in *Geography*, a town of Hindoostan, in the Carnatic; 10 miles S. of Nellore.

VINKENBOOMS, **DAVID**, in *Biography*, a landscape painter, born at Mechlin in 1578, was the son of an obscure painter in dilettante. His landscapes, which are in the style of Roland Savery and of John Breughel, are sometimes adorned with stories from the Bible, but more frequently are convivial; being fairs or merry-makings. He ventured occasionally on history, with landscape backgrounds; such is the picture of Christ bearing his Cross, in the collection of the elector palatine, and of Christ healing the Blind, at Frankfort. His compositions are ingenious, but his touch is petite and hard.

VINKISH, the name of a disease in sheep. See **VANQUISH**.

UINMARSUCK, in *Geography*, an island near the coast of East Greenland. N. lat. 60° 40'. W. long. 45° 45'.

VINNA, a town of Hungary; 2 miles N.W. of Ungvar.

VINNAS, a town of Peru, in the diocese of Guamanga; 50 miles W. of Guanca Velica.

VINNEBERG, a town of Germany, in the bishopric of Munster; 10 miles N.E. of Munster.

VINETT, in our *Statutes*, is used for a flower or border, which printers use to ornament printed leaves of books. See **VIGNETTE**.

VINNIUS, (**VINNEN**), **ARNOLD**, in *Biography*, an eminent jurist, was born in Holland in 1588, studied at Leyden, and taught the classics at the Hague till the year 1633, when he became law-professor in the university of Leyden. Whilst he occupied this office, he acquired distinction by various works of jurisprudence, in an elegant and ornamented style. The principal of his publications are, "Commentarius Academicus et Forensis in quatuor Libros Institutionum Imperialium," Amst. 1642, often reprinted, and particularly by Heineccius, with a preface and notes, Lugd. Bat. 1726, 4to.; "Notæ ad Institutiones," accompanying the preceding; "Introductio ad Praxin Batavam," &c. &c. He died at Leyden in 1657, or, as some say, in 1668. Moreri.

VINNY, in *Agriculture*, a term signifying mouldy and stuffy, when applied to hay and other such substances. We have thus vinny hay, &c.

VINOVIA, **VINONIA**, or *Viconia*, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Great Britain, in the 11th Iter of Antonine, on the route from Vallum to Prætorium, is fixed at Binchester on the Were, in the bishopric of Durham, between Vinodomora (Ebechester) and Cataractori (Cataract), on the fourth side of the river Swale. Ptolemy assigns it to the Brigantes.

VINOUS, **VINOSUS**, something that relates to wine; or that has the taste and smell of it.

All vegetables, by a due treatment, afford a vinous liquor; as corn, pulse, nuts, apples, grapes, &c.

A second fermentation, duly managed, turns any vinous liquor into an acetous one.

The proper character and effect of fermentation are, to produce either a vinous, or an acetous quality in the body fermented.

Some of our countrymen, bound on a voyage to the East Indies, having filled several casks with Thames water, to carry

carry along with them, observed an intestine motion in it when they came to the equator; and found it afterwards turned into a kind of vinous liquor, capable of affording an inflammable spirit by distillation. See PUTREFACTION of Water.

VINSOBRES, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Drôme; 4 miles S.E. of Nions.

VINTAGE, the crop of wine, or what is got from the vines each season.

The word is also used for the time or season of gathering or pressing the grapes.

In France, a decree or ordinance of the proper judge, and a solemn publication of it, are required, before the vintage can be begun.

VINTAIN, or BINTAIN, in *Geography*, a town of Africa, and capital of the kingdom of Fonia, on a river of the same name, which runs into the Gambia. This town is much frequented by Europeans for the purchase of wax, ivory, and skins.

VINTIMIGLIA, a sea-port town of Genoa, defended by a castle. It is the see of a bishop, under the archbishop of Milan; 13 miles N.E. of Nice. N. lat. 43° 48'. E. long. 7° 33'.

VINTIUM, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of the Nerusti, according to Ptolemy, recognized by inscriptions in honour of Gordian and Trajan-Decius, in which are read CIVIT. VINT. In the Notitia of the provinces of Gaul, Civitas Vintuntium is one of those of the Maritime Alps. In later times it was called Vincium, and this name is preserved in that of Vence.

VINUESA, in *Geography*, a town of Spain, in Old Castile; 13 miles N.W. of Soria.

VINUM, a liquor, or drink, popularly called *Wine*; which see.

VINUM, in *Medicine*, *Vinum Medicamentum*, is particularly applied to several medicated wines, *i. e.* medicinal preparations, of which wine is the basis. Wine, as a solvent, is liable to the objection of inequality of strength; and on account of its spontaneous decomposition by exposure to the air, it is more objectionable, this change being more likely to occur sooner when it is imbued with principles which tend to hasten the fermentative process. In order to obviate these disadvantages, Parmentier (Annales de Chimie, lii. 46.) proposes, that instead of preparing medicated wines in the usual way, the alcoholic tinctures well prepared should be added to wine in given quantities; by which means, he says, the preparations are less nauseous, and always of a determinate strength. By the general term wine, the London College designates cherry wine. These medicated wines should be kept in very well-corked bottles, and in a cool situation. Some of these are denominated from the ingredients used in them; some from the intentions with which they are prescribed; and some from their qualities, &c. Such are the

VINUM Absinthites, or Wormwood Wine; made of the great or little absinthium, by taking the apices, or tops, with the flowers, putting them in a sacculus, or bag, and suspending it in the middle of a vessel of wine; which, fermenting, extracts the taste, smell, and virtues, of the wormwood. See ABSINTHITES.

VINUM Aloes, Wine of Aloes, is prepared, according to the Lond. Ph., by rubbing eight ounces of extract of spiked aloes to powder with white sand previously freed from any impurities, and also rubbing two ounces of canella bark into powder, and on these, mixed together, pouring six pints of wine and two pints of proof-spirit; macerating for fourteen days, frequently shaking the vessel containing the mixture, and afterwards straining. The Dub. Ph. directs four

ounces of fœcotorine aloes and one ounce of canella alba to be separately reduced to powder, and mixed together, and then to pour over it three pints of Spanish white wine, mixed with a pound of proof-spirit; then to digest for fourteen days, with frequent agitation, and lastly to strain the solution.

VINUM Aloes Socotorina, Wine of Socotorine Aloes, of the Edin. Ph., commonly called *Sacred Tincture*, is prepared by taking one ounce of fœcotorine aloes in powder, lesser cardamom-seeds bruised, and ginger-root bruised, of each a drachm, and two pounds of Spanish white wine; digesting for seven days, with frequent agitation, and then straining. This medicated wine is an excellent warm purgative and stomachic; and has been employed long and beneficially in cold phlegmatic habits, paralysis, gout, dyspepsia, and chlorosis; the dose is from fʒij to fʒij as a stomachic, and from fʒij to fʒij as a purgative.

VINUM Aloeticum Alkalinum, a form of medicine in the late London Dispensatory, intended to stand in the place of Helmont's elixir proprietatis. It is prepared in this manner: Take of bay fixed alkaline salt, eight ounces; aloes, myrrh, and saffron, of each an ounce; purified fat ammoniac, six drachms; white wine, a quart; infuse them together without heat for a week, or longer, and then filter the wine through paper for use.

VINUM Amarum, Bitter Wine, is an infusion of certain bitter, stomachic herbs, as gentian-root, juniper-berries, tops of centaury, orange and lemon-peel, in wine. This wine may be made by infusing for a week, without heat, gentian-root, and yellow rind of lemon-peel, of each one ounce, and two drachms of long-pepper, in two pints of mountain-wine, and straining out the wine for use.

The Vinum Gentiane Compositum, vulgò *Vinum Amarum*, or compound wine of gentian, commonly called *bitter wine*, is obtained by slicing or bruising half an ounce of gentian-root, one ounce of cinchona bark, two drachms of orange-peel dried, one drachm of canella alba, and pouring upon them four ounces of proof-spirit, and, after twenty-four hours, adding two pounds and a half of Spanish white wine; then macerating for seven days and straining. This wine, newly prepared, is stomachic and tonic, but by keeping becomes acerbent. The dose is from fʒiv to fʒvi, given two or three times a day. For other preparations, see GENTIAN-ROOT.

In complaints arising from weakness of the stomach, or indigestion, a glass of this wine may be taken an hour before dinner and supper.

VINUM Anthelminticum, Anthelmintic Wine, may be made by infusing, without heat, half an ounce of rhubarb, and an ounce of worm-seed, bruised, in two pints of red Port wine, for a few days, and straining off the wine. As the stomachs of persons afflicted with worms are always debilitated, red wine alone will often prove serviceable: it must, however, have still better effects when joined with bitter and purgative ingredients, as in the above form. A glass of this wine may be taken twice or thrice a day.

VINUM Antimonial, Antimonial Wine, is made by digesting, without heat, half an ounce of glass of antimony, reduced to a fine powder, in eight ounces of Lisbon wine, for three or four days, occasionally shaking the bottle, and afterwards filtering the wine through paper. The dose of this wine varies according to the intention. As an alterative and diaphoretic, it may be taken from ten to fifty or sixty drops. In a larger dose it generally proves cathartic, or excites vomiting.

The Liquor Antimonii Tartarizati, or solution of tartarized antimony of the Lond. Ph., is obtained by dissolving a scruple of

of tartarized antimony in four fluid-ounces, of boiling distilled water, and then adding six fluid-ounces of wine. The *Vinum Tartritis Antimonii*, formerly *Vinum Antimonialle*, is had by mixing twenty-four grains of tartrate of antimony in one pound of Spanish white wine, so that the tartrate may be dissolved. These solutions are of equal strength; f3j of either containing two grains of tartarized antimony. They are diaphoretic or emetic, according to the extent of the dose. In doses of $\mathfrak{xx}$ to f3j, in any proper vehicle, repeated every three or four hours, diaphoresis is usually excited; but this solution is principally used as an emetic for infants, a tea-spoonful being given every five minutes till it produces full vomiting. See ANTIMONY.

Vinum Aromaticum, is made by infusing aromatics, or spices, in new wine, or must.

Vinum Benedictum, *Blessed Wine*, is made of crocus metallorum and mars infused in wine. This was formerly a celebrated emetic, but is now almost out of use, on account of its roughness.

Vinum Chalybeatum, *Chalybeate Wine*, is thus prepared: Take filings of iron, four ounces; cinnamon and mace, of each half an ounce; of Rhenish wine, two quarts; infuse a month without heat, often shaking the vessel; then filter it off for use. Some superadd a reddish colour, by using a small quantity of cochineal.

Fine iron wire, cut in pieces, is more eligible than the filings, as we may always depend on the wire being pure iron; and as it exposes a larger surface to the fluid, it is more easily acted upon.

This wine is an excellent stomachic and aperient; it may be drank in the quantity of a common spoonful, or even of a moderate glass, once or twice a day, or mixed in apozems of the aperient vegetables.

In obstructions of the menses, this preparation of iron may be taken in the dose of half a wine-glass twice or thrice a day. Dr. Buchan says, that the medicine would probably be as good if made with Lisbon wine, sharpened with half an ounce of cream of tartar, or a small quantity of the spirit of vitriol.

The *Vinum Ferri*, or *Wine of Iron*, is by the Lond. Ph. directed to be prepared by mixing two ounces of filings of iron with two pints of wine, and setting the mixture aside for a month, occasionally shaking it; and filtering it through paper. The Dub. Ph. orders four ounces of iron wire cut in pieces, and four pints of white Rhenish wine; and directs to sprinkle a little of the wine over the iron filings, and exposing them to the air, until they be covered with rust, then to add the remainder of the wine; to digest for seven days, with frequent agitation, and lastly to filter. This is a vinous solution of tartrate of iron and potash, and when prepared as the London College directs, each pint contains about twenty-two grains of oxyd of iron. It is the least unpleasant of the preparations of iron; chiefly employed in chlorosis, and the relaxed habits of young females. The dose is from f3j to f3vj, given twice or thrice a day.

Vinum Cydonites, *Quince Wine*, made of slices of that fruit, steeped in must, or new wine.

Vinum Emeticum, *Emetic Wine*, is wine in which the glass or regulus of antimony, or crocus metallorum, has been steeped. See EMETIC.

This only takes a certain degree of efficacy from the matters; nor is it found any stronger at three months end, than at the end of three days. It purges both upwards and downwards.

Vinum Enulatum, *Elegance Wine*, is an infusion of the root of that plant, with fugar and currants, in white Port. It cleanses the viscera, prevents disorders and obstructions

of the lungs, and is good in asthmatic cafes, cachexies, &c. See ELEGAMPANE.

Vinum Hippocraticum. See HIPPOCRAS.

Vinum Ipecacuanhe is made, according to the Lond. Ph., by macerating for fourteen days two ounces of the root of ipecacuanha bruised in two pints of wine, and filtering; according to the Ed. Ph., by macerating for seven days one ounce of the root bruised in fifteen ounces of Spanish white wine, and filtering through paper; and according to the Dublin Ph., by digesting for seven days two ounces of the bruised root in two pints of Spanish white wine, and then filtering. As an emetic, this is equally efficacious, and milder in its operation than antimonial wine, and, therefore, better adapted for infants: for this purpose, a tea-spoonful, or f3ls, is given for a dose, and repeated every ten minutes till it operates. In smaller doses it answers the same purposes as the powder, and is given in coughs, diarrhoea, dysentery, and other complaints in which a determination to the skin is indicated.

Vinum Marinum, *Sea-wine*, is made by casting sea-water on the grapes in the vat.

Vinum Millepedum. See MILLEPEDES.

Vinum Nicotiane Tabaci, *Wine of Tobacco*, of the Edinb. Ph., is prepared by macerating for seven days one ounce of tobacco-leaves in one pound of Spanish white wine, and filtering through paper. This is the only form in which tobacco can be conveniently administered as an internal remedy. It is given to produce diuretic and antispasmodic effects in dropsies, colica pictonum, and ileus. The dose is from $\mathfrak{xx}$ to $\mathfrak{xxx}$, in any proper vehicle.

Vinum Opii, *Wine of Opium*, is obtained, according to the Lond. Ph., by taking an ounce of extract of opium, cinnamon bark bruised and cloves bruised, of each a drachm, and a pint of wine; macerating for eight days, and filtering. Mr. Ware introduced the use of this tincture as a local application in the second stage of ophthalmia, when the inflammatory symptoms have subsided, and the vessels of the conjunctiva remain turgid with red blood. Two or three drops are dropped into the eye every morning, until the redness be removed.

Vinum Peccorale, *Peccoral Wine*, is prepared by liquorice, saffron, coriander-seeds, caraway, anise, salt of tartar, pennyroyal, and hyssop leaves, digested with Canary wine, and strained. It is a good expectorant, helping to deterge and cleanse the lungs, &c.

Vinum Picatum, *Pitched Wine*, is made of pitch infused in must.

Vinum Rhei Palmati. See RHUBARB.

Vinum Rosatum, *Rose Wine*, is made by steeping roses for three months in wine.

Vinum Scilliticum. See SQUILLS.

Vinum Stomachicum, *Stomachic Wine*, is prepared by infusing an ounce of Peruvian bark, grossly powdered, cardamom-seeds, and orange-peel, bruised, of each two drachms, in a bottle of white Port or Lisbon wine for five or six days, and straining off the wine. This wine is not only of service in laxity and debility of the stomach and intestines, but may also be taken as a preventive, by persons liable to the intermittent fever, or who reside in places where this disease prevails. It will be of use to those who recover slowly after fevers of any kind, as it assists digestion, and helps to restore the tone and vigour of the system. A glass of it may be taken two or three times a day.

Vinum Strabillium, denotes pine-apple wine.

Vinum e Tartaro Antimoniali, is made by dissolving tartar emetic in white wine, in the proportion of twenty-four grains to a pound.

name of a charming flower, most probably originated in its Greek synonym *ior*. At least, the vague and forced etymologies of this word, for which Latin authors have ransacked their own language, prove it not to have come from thence. Nor are the explanations of the Greek much more satisfactory, though the fable of this plant having sprung up on purpose to be the food of the metamorphosed Io, is too poetical to be forgotten. The names of the Violet in modern languages all proceed from the Latin, or from the same source, whatever it may be. The poetry, the romance, the scenery, of every country, is embroidered with the violet, from Caledonia to Arcadia, and the very same individual species is, or has been, the object of homage in both those distant countries. Yet it must be remembered, that *ior*, *Viola*, and even the English *Violet*, are names of more wide-extended and indefinite application, than those of perhaps any other flower, even the Rose not excepted; so as to be nearly synonymous with the word *flower* itself; nor can any thing be more dissimilar from the true kind, or from each other, than the Calathian Violet, a *GENTIANA*, or the Dame's Violet, *HESPERIS*; the Dog's-tooth Violet, *ERYTHRONIUM*, or the Water Violet, *HOTTONIA*. (See those articles).—Linn. Gen. 457. Schreb. 597. Willd. Sp. Pl. v. 1. 1159. Mart. Mill. Dict. v. 4. Sm. Fl. Brit. 244. Prodr. Fl. Græc. Sibth. v. 1. 145. Ait. Hort. Kew. v. 2. 43. Pursh 171. Juss. 294. Tourn. t. 236. Lamarck Illustr. t. 725. Poiret in Lam. Dict. v. 8. 623. Gærtn. t. 112.—Class and order, *Syngenesia Monogamia*, Linn. *Pentandria Monogynia*, Smith, Willd., &c. Nat. Ord. *Campanaceæ*, Linn. *Cisti*, Juss.

Gen. Ch. Cal. Perianth inferior, short, permanent, of five ovate-oblong, erect leaves, most acute at the summit, inserted above their base, which is obtuse; they are equal, but variously disposed; two of them subtending petal α , one each of the petals β and γ , and the fifth the two petals δ and ϵ together. Cor. irregular, of five unequal petals; of which petal α is at the top of the flower, the broadest and most obtuse of all, straight, looking downwards, emarginate, ending at the base in a horn-shaped, obtuse Nectary, projecting betwixt the calyx-leaves; β and γ are lateral, both alike, opposite, obtuse, straight; δ and ϵ are the lowest of all, both alike, larger than the two former, reflexed upward. Stam. Filaments five, very small, two of them adjoining to petal α , are furnished with two combined appendages, which enter the nectary; anthers converging, hardly connected, obtuse, with a terminal membrane to each. Pist. Germen superior, roundish; style thread-shaped, projecting beyond the anthers; stigma oblique, pointed or concave. Peric. Capsule ovate, triangular, obtuse, of one cell and three valves. Seeds several in each cell, ovate, polished, inserted into the valves. Recept. linear, running along the centre of each valve.

Obf. The stigma, in the Common March Violet, *V. odorata*, and its allies, is a simple reflexed hook; in the *tricolor*, or Panfy, tribe, it is a hollow knob, perforated at the summit, and more or less gaping occasionally. In the European species, the flower is always inverted; in the Indian ones, mostly erect; hence the different aspect of the two.

Eff. Ch. Corolla of five petals, irregular, spurred behind. Anthers somewhat connected. Capsule superior, of three valves and one cell. Calyx of five leaves, extended at their base.

Viola is a very numerous, almost entirely herbaceous, genus, for the most part of humble stature, though of great elegance. The stem is either trailing, or erect; sometimes wanting. Leaves alternate, rarely opposite, stalked, simple,

crenate, or ferrated, occasionally deeply divided. *Stipulas* various and remarkable. Flowers on simple stalks, blue, or rather purplish, whitish, or yellow; in one instance, at least, green; very often streaked in a radiant manner, like those of *Veronica*. The species abound in cold or cool countries, such as Europe and North America, though some are of tropical origin; but the habit of these latter is peculiar. One species has but two perfect Stamens.

The discoveries of North American botanists have, of late, greatly enriched this genus. New Holland likewise has contributed several new and curious species; but of these we shall probably learn much more than is at present known, from Mr. Brown, whenever he continues his valuable *Prodromus*.

Two sections are most commodious for the distribution of the species, others, which have been proposed, proving problematical or obscure.

SECT. I. *Without stems*.

1. *V. palmata*. Palmated Violet. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1323. Willd. n. 1. Ait. n. 1. Pursh n. 3. Curt. Mag. t. 535. (V. alba, folio securis amazonia effigie, Floridana; Pluk. Amalth. 208. t. 447. f. 9.)—Downy. Leaves heart-shaped, lobed in a hastate or palmate manner, more or less notched. Calyx-leaves lanceolate, smooth. Two lateral petals bearded at the base.—Native of North America, on dry hills and pasture ground, generally in a sandy soil. Perennial, flowering from April to June. Pursh. Hardy in our gardens, but rarely cultivated. The first leaves are kidney-shaped, ferrated; the subsequent ones deeply and variously palmate, five-lobed, an inch and a half or two inches long, occasionally smooth. Footstalks erect, from two to four inches long. Flower-stalks rather taller, simple, and single-flowered, as in the whole genus, with a pair of opposite awl-shaped bractæ below the middle. Flowers an inch broad, light blue, whitish at the base, inodorous.

2. *V. pedata*. Cut-leaved Violet. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1323. Willd. n. 2. Ait. n. 2. Pursh n. 1. Curt. Mag. t. 89. Andr. Repof. t. 153. (V. virginiana tricolor, foliis multifidis, cauliculis aphyllis; Pluk. Phyt. t. 114. f. 7.)—Leaves pedate, smooth, with seven or nine lanceolate, nearly entire, lobes.—Native of dry sandy hills and fields, from New England to Carolina. Perennial, flowering in May and June. Rare in our gardens. According to Mr. Curtis, it should be planted in a pot of loam mixed with bog earth, plunged into a north border, and kept in a frame through the winter. The truly pedate leaves distinguish this species. The flowers are larger than the preceding, pale blue, with prominent orange-coloured tips to their anthers. Pursh mentions a variety, whose petals are very handsomely ornamented with a dark purple velvet at the bottom, similar to *V. tricolor*. This may be Plukenet's plant, so meanly figured, as usual with him.

3. *V. digitata*. Finger-leaved Violet. Pursh n. 2.—“Leaves palmate, tapering down into the footstalk, of five or seven undivided lobes.”—Native of Virginia. *Leconte*. Perennial, flowering in May. Flowers pale blue. Pursh. May not this be nearly akin to the entire-lobed variety of the following?

4. *V. pinnata*. Wing-leaved Violet. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1323. Willd. n. 3. Ait. n. 3. Allion. Ped. v. 2. 97. (V. acutis, foliis pinnatifidis; Gmel. Sib. v. 4. 101. t. 49. f. 4. V. n. 561; Hall. Hist. v. 1. 241. V. montana, laciniato folio; Cluf. Hist. v. 1. 309.)

5. *V. acutis*, foliis digitatis; Gmel. Sib. v. 4. 100. t. 49. f. 3. (V. montana, folio multifido; Bauh. Hist. v. 3. 544.)

Leaves in many deep, toothed or jagged, segments, tapering

VIOLA.

tapering at their base, somewhat downy.—Native of Siberia, as well as of the mountains of Switzerland and Savoy, flowering in the spring. Cultivated by Miller in 1752, but we know not that it exists at present in the English collections. This species is rather smaller than *V. pedata*. Leaves generally, as deeply divided, into about five segments, which are either unequally three-cleft, or pinnatifid, as well as jagged, and very narrow; or, in the variety β , lanceolate and only somewhat notched. Their ribs and edges are more or less downy. Flowers pale blue, with darker veins. Sometimes the leaves are less deeply divided, in a pedate manner, with bluntish lobes; but this variety does not seem confined to any particular country.

5. *V. sagittata*. Arrow-leaved Violet. Ait. n. 4. Willd. n. 4. Pursh n. 4.—Downy. Leaves oblong, acute, somewhat ferrated; heart-shaped, cut, a little elongated, at the base. Calyx linear, smooth. Three lower petals bearded at the base.—On dry hills, from New England to Virginia. Perennial, flowering from April to June. Dr. Fothergill imported it from Pennsylvania in 1775. Linnaeus confounded this species with his *hirta*, an European plant, distinguished by its uniformly heart-shaped, regularly crenate, leaves. The *sagittata* has remarkably elongated leaves, very obscurely ferrated, except towards the base, where they are more or less deeply toothed. Flower-stalks, in our specimens, much shorter than the leaves; Mr. Pursh says longer. He describes the flowers, which we have not seen fresh, “blue; lower petal white towards the bottom, with purple veins; the rest longer, narrower, and white towards the base.”

6. *V. dentata*. Toothed-leaved Violet. Pursh n. 5.—Smooth. Leaves oblong, acute; abrupt, dilated, with large ascending teeth, at the base. Flower-stalks shorter than the leaves. Calyx linear, smooth. Three lower petals bearded at the base.—Native of wet meadows and woods in Pennsylvania. Perennial, flowering in May and June. Flowers nearly the same as the last. Pursh. The leaves are of a hastate figure, two to three inches long, somewhat shorter than the preceding.

7. *V. betonicifolia*. Betony-leaved Violet.—Rather downy. Leaves linear-oblong, obtuse, crenate; heart-shaped, and slightly dilated, at the base. Flower-stalks taller than the leaves. Calyx lanceolate, smooth. Petals all bearded at the base.—Native of New South Wales. Dr. White. The root is somewhat woody, and doubtless perennial. Leaves the size of the last, but smooth or slightly downy only, regularly crenate throughout; not toothed, nor much dilated, at the bottom. Stalks generally, but not always, densely downy for an inch and a half below the flowers. Calyx-leaves broader than in the two last. Petals apparently light purple, not much veined.

8. *V. lanceolata*. Spear-leaved Violet. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1323. Willd. n. 5. Ait. n. 5. Pursh n. 6. Forst. Tr. of Linn. Soc. v. 6. 310.—Smooth. Leaves lanceolate, obscurely crenate; tapering at the base; rather shorter than the flower-stalks. Petals beardless.—In overflowed meadows, from Canada to Pennsylvania, flowering in June and July. Perennial. The leaves are an inch and half long; their footstalks nearly twice as much. Flowers the size of *V. palustris*, white; three of their petals marked with purple ribs.

9. *V. fufiformis*. Tap-rooted Siberian Violet. (V. acaulis, foliis lanceolatis, crenatis, hirsutis; Gmel. Sib. v. 4. 99. t. 49. f. 2.)—Leaves ovato-lanceolate, crenate, downy, longer than their footstalks, much shorter than the flower-stalks. Root tap-shaped.—Native of Siberia, in rather dry places, flowering in autumn. Gmelin. Mr.

Forster, in Tr. of Linn. Soc. v. 6. 310, has long ago pointed out this Siberian *Viola* as a distinct species from the North American *lanceolata*. We have never seen a specimen. The leaves in the figure cited are above an inch long; the flower-stalks near three inches, with two lanceolate bractæas, rather above the middle. Flowers larger than the last, blue or purplish.

10. *V. microphylla*. Small-leaved Yellow Violet. Poiret in Lam. n. 11.—Leaves ovato-lanceolate, crenate, somewhat downy, shorter than their footstalks. Root scaly. Flower-stalks taller than the leaves, smooth, with two awl-shaped bractæas near the top.—Gathered by Commerçon on hills on the Patagonian coast, in the straits of Magellan. Poiret. Leaves several, radical, four or five lines long, and three broad. Stipulas two, narrow, membranous, at the base of each footstalk. Flowers yellow; lip twice the size of the other petals, emarginate, marked with purple lines, and ending behind in a short blunt spur; two lateral petals bearded at the base. This seems nearly akin to *V. magellanica* of Forster; see n. 18.

11. *V. pygmaea*. Dwarf Linear-leaved Violet. Poiret in Lam. n. 18.—Leaves sessile, linear, entire, somewhat fleshy, smooth, rather longer than the flower-stalk. Root tap-shaped.—Gathered in Peru, by Joseph de Jussieu. A very distinct species, according to the description of Poiret, hardly an inch high, with thick fleshy roots, crowned by tufts of narrow, linear, obtuse leaves, having scaly, oval, pointed stipulas at their base. Flowers small, drooping, pale blue, striated; the petals obtuse, scarcely longer than the sharp, lanceolate, white-edged leaves of the calyx.

12. *V. obliqua*. Oblique-flowered Violet. Ait. n. 6. Willd. n. 6. Pursh n. 8.—Smooth. Leaves heart-shaped, acute, flattish, acutely crenate, taller than the flower-stalks. Flowers erect. Petals obliquely twisted; the lateral ones narrowest and longest, bearded below the middle.—In shady wet places, from Pennsylvania to Virginia, flowering from April to June. Perennial. Flowers white, with purple and yellow veins. Pursh. Leaves an inch and half long; their stalks twice or thrice as much. Flower-stalks thread-shaped, usually the length of the footstalks. Calyx smooth. Petals oblong-ovate, straw-coloured; blue at the base; the uppermost half an inch long, with blue streaks, beardless; two lateral ones rather narrower and longer, bearded below their middle; two lowest as long as these, and rather broader, beardless. Solander in Ait. H. Kew.

13. *V. cucullata*. Hollow-leaved Violet. Ait. n. 7. Willd. n. 7. Pursh n. 10. Curt. Mag. t. 1795.—Smooth. Leaves heart-shaped, acute, ferrated; involute at the base. Petals twisted, obtuse; the lateral ones bearded at their lower part.—Common in North America, in grassy wet places, flowering in May and June. A hardy perennial with us. Root tuberous. Leaves rather larger than our Sweet Violet, erect and smooth, remarkably rolled in at their base, so as to form a sort of cup. Flowers also larger than in that species, light purplish-blue, with dark veins; the centre white. The late Mr. Curtis, as Dr. Sims records, observed the spring flowers to bear no seed; though later ones, on very short stalks, without petals, were all prolific. Such is, more or less, the case with many of this section, as well as with the caulescent *V. mirabilis*, hereafter described.

14. *V. sororia*. White-rooted Violet. Willd. Hort. Berol. t. 72. Ait. n. 8. Pursh n. 11.—Leaves heart-shaped, crenate, obtuse; downy beneath. Petals oblong; the lower one bearded at the base.—Found in overflowed meadows of Pennsylvania, and other parts of North America.

VIOLA.

America. Perennial, flowering from April to June. *Flowers* blue, white at the bottom; lower *petal* veined. *Pursh*. This species was sent to Kew garden, in 1802, by the late Mr. Masson, during his last botanical expedition to North America.

15. *V. primulifolia*. Cowslip-leaved Violet. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1324. Willd. n. 8. Ait. n. 9.—Smooth. Leaves ovate-heart-shaped, obscurely crenate, obtuse, running down into the bordered footstalks. Calyx naked.—Native of Pennsylvania and Virginia, flowering in the spring. We have specimens from the late Dr. Muhlenberg, exactly agreeing with those of Linnæus. The root seems to be perennial and creeping. Leaves an inch and half long, on footstalks half as long again, and sometimes slightly downy, furnished with a narrow, leafy, entire border, gradually dilated upwards, till it unites with the leaf; hence the foliage of this plant is compared by Linnæus to that of the Cowslip, not the Primrose. The flowers are rather small, pale flesh-coloured or bluish; the lower *petal* strongly and copiously veined with dark purple; the lateral ones bearded at the base. Calyx-leaves linear-lanceolate, unequal in breadth, always, as it appears to us, quite smooth.

16. *V. fimbriatula*. Fringed Violet. (*V. primulifolia*; Pursh n. 9.)—Leaves heart-shaped, crenate, fringed, acute, running down into the bordered footstalks; moist downy beneath. Calyx mostly ciliated.—Sent from North America, by Mr. Francis Boott, as the *V. primulifolia* of Pursh, with whose definition it agrees. That author speaks of it as growing on dry hills, from Canada to Virginia; perennial, flowering from April to June. The appearance of this plant is very different from the last. Root rather tuberous, not creeping. Leaves more heart-shaped and acute, fringed, and somewhat downy on both sides, their length, like that of their bordered footstalks, about an inch. Flowers numerous, blue, thrice the size of the preceding, with obovate petals, two of which are loosely bearded at the base. Calyx-leaves lanceolate, unequal in breadth, distant but strongly fringed; occasionally naked.

17. *V. hirta*. Hairy Violet. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1324. Willd. n. 9. Fl. Brit. n. 1. Engl. Bot. t. 894. Curt. Lond. fasc. 1. t. 64. Fl. Dan. t. 618. (*V. martia* major hirsuta inodora; Morif. sect. 5. t. 35. f. 4.)—Leaves heart-shaped, hairy as well as their footstalks. Calyx-leaves obtuse. Lateral petals marked with a hairy central line.—Native of groves and bushy places, principally on a chalky lime-stone soil, in various parts of Europe, from Denmark to Mount Athos, flowering in April and May. The whole herb is of a hoary green, clothed with soft pubescence. Stem none, except very short leafy scyons, which do not throw out roots, but compose a dense leafy tuft, lasting many years if undisturbed. Flower-stalks taller than the leaves, smooth, with a pair of lanceolate smooth bractæ below their middle. Flowers light greyish-blue, streaked with black, scentless. Calyx smooth. Anthers distinct. *V. campestris*, March. à Bieb. Taurico-Caucas. v. 1. 171. may possibly be a sweet-scented variety of this.

18. *V. magellanica*. Magellanic Violet. "Forst. Comment. Soc. Goett. v. 6. 41. t. 8." Willd. n. 10.—Stem none. Leaves kidney-shaped, wavy, villous.—Native of boggy situations, in Terra del Fuego. Perennial. Flower large, yellow, streaked with brown veins. Forster. Perhaps not distinct from *V. microphylla*, n. 10. We have not seen either.

19. *V. papilionacea*. Butterfly Violet. Pursh n. 12.—"Leaves triangular-heart-shaped, acute, crenate, somewhat hooded, nearly smooth. Flower-stalks the length of the leaves. Petals obovate: three lower ones converging,

bearded below the middle; two upper reflexed."—Near Philadelphia, in wet places. Perennial, flowering in May and June. Flowers blue, elegantly fringed, bearded with yellow down. Pursh.

20. *V. clandestina*. Subterranean Violet. Pursh n. 13. (*V. rotundifolia*; Michaux Boreal.-Amer. v. 2. 150? Muhlenb. Cat. 26?)—"Nearly smooth. Leaves almost orbicular, blunthly; heart-shaped with converging lobes at the base; with blunt glandular serratures at the margin. Flowers from lateral shoots. Petals linear, hardly longer than the calyx."—On the high mountains of Pennsylvania, in shady beech woods, among rotten wood and rich vegetable mould. Perennial, flowering from June to September. This singular species differs from all the rest, in producing its flowers as it were under ground, they being always covered with rotten wood or leaves. They are very small, of a chocolate-brown. The seed-vessel buries itself still deeper in the ground, and is large in proportion to the plant. The inhabitants know it by the name of *Heal-all*, being used by them to cure all kinds of wounds or sores. Pursh.

21. *V. palustris*. Marsh Violet. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1324. Willd. n. 11. Fl. Brit. n. 3. Engl. Bot. t. 444. Abbot Bedf. 190. t. 3. Curt. Lond. fasc. 3. t. 58. Fl. Dan. t. 83. (*V. palustris* rotundifolia glabra; Morif. sect. 5. t. 35. f. 5.)—Leaves kidney-shaped, smooth. Root creeping. Two lateral petals bearded.—Native of mossy bogs, in the colder parts of Europe, flowering in April or May. More frequent in Scotland, and the north of England, than in the south, growing on the moist parts of sandy or turfy heaths. The root is thread-shaped, rather fleshy, creeping considerably. Herb smooth. Leaves thinning, obscurely crenate, generally abrupt, or emarginate, often purple beneath, on stalks exceeding their own length. Flower-stalks longer than the leaves, with a pair of lanceolate bractæ about the middle, not always below that part. Flowers scentless, smaller than the Sweet Violet, of a very pale blue or flesh-colour, streaked partly with red, partly with dark purple; the two lateral petals marked at the lower part with a central downy line. This is a very pretty species, not easily to be cultivated. Ray's *V. rubra* triata Eboracensis, Syn. ed. 3. 365, is scarcely to be deemed a variety.

22. *V. blanda*. White-flowered American Violet. "Willd. Hort. Berol. t. 24." Ait. n. 12. Pursh n. 7.—Leaves heart-shaped, blunthly, crenate, smooth. Root creeping. Petals beardless.—In wet places, or boggy meadows, from New York to Carolina. Perennial, flowering from April to June. Flowers yellowish-white; lower *petal* marked with blue stripes and veins. Pursh. Nearly akin to the last, but the leaves, though variable in acuteness, are not at all kidney-shaped. The roots are very slender. Petals marked with similar veins to the foregoing species, but they appear not to be hairy in any part.

23. *V. hederacea*. Ivy-leaved Violet. Labillard. Nov. Holl. v. 1. 66. t. 91.—Leaves heart-shaped, wavy, nearly smooth, running down into the slightly bordered footstalks. Root creeping. Flower-stalks solitary, much taller than the leaves. Two lateral petals bearded below the middle.—Found by Labillardiere, at the Cape of Van Diemen. We have the same, or a very similar species, from New South Wales, in which the flowers seem to be pale pink, with a purple eye; the petals obovate, veiny, the lateral ones densely hairy in their lower half. The leaves however are larger, more kidney-shaped, and more toothed, than in the figure above cited; but it may be only a luxuriant variety. M. Labillardiere describes his with a trailing root, or runners, throwing up here and there solitary tufts of numerous heart-shaped, or rather kidney-shaped, long-stalked leaves, half an inch

VIOLA.

each broad, with copious awl-shaped radical *stipulas*. Each tuft bears one *flower-stalk*, three inches high, with two awl-shaped *bracteas* towards the middle, and one small erect *flower*, the size of *V. palustris*, whose two lateral *petals* are villous near the base. The *calyx-leaves* project but very little at the base, which is the case with our specimens above-mentioned, from New South Wales, and indeed with *V. palustris* and *blanda*. Yet they all have enough of that character to prove them true *Viola*.

24. *V. odorata*. Sweet *Violet*. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1324. Willd. n. 12. Fl. Brit. n. 2. Engl. Bot. t. 619. Curt. Lond. fasc. 1. t. 63. Fl. Dan. t. 309. Bulliard t. 169. Renealm. Spec. 141. t. 140. (*V. nigra*, five purpurea; Ger. Em. 850. *V. purpurea*; Matth. Valgr. v. 2. 522. Camer. Epit. 910.)—Scyons creeping. Leaves heart-shaped, crenate, smoothish as well as the footstalks. Calyx obtuse. Two lateral petals with a hairy line.—Native of thickets, groves, and banks, throughout Europe, from Sweden to Greece, flowering in March. It appears, by Dr. Muhlenberg's catalogue, to be cultivated, not wild, in North America. There can be no doubt of this being the *ivy-leaf* of Dioscorides, who speaks of the ivy-like leaves, and very sweet-scented purple flowers, which he recommends for sore throats, and for children in the falling-sickness; hence syrup of violets is still kept in the shops. The long trailing leafy runners, by which the plant is widely increased, characterize this species. These seldom bear flowers till the second year. Leaves truly heart-shaped, dark green; slightly downy beneath. *Stipulas* lanceolate, toothed, pale. *Flower-stalks* taller than the leaves, with two lanceolate narrow *bracteas*, more than half way up. *Flower* nodding, twice the size of *V. palustris*, and about equal to that of *hirta*, whose cent resembles Orice-root, or the flowers of Mignonette, or the Vine, and indeed is too generally known and esteemed to require description. The colour is that dark purplish-blue, peculiarly called a *violet colour*. There is a white variety, frequently found wild; and a very double one cultivated in gardens, which requires a pure air. Whether the more early pale grey, and very sweet double *Violet*, be a variety, or a distinct species, we have had no opportunity of enquiring. The *stamens* of *V. odorata* are quite distinct. *Capful* soft, pale green, minutely dotted with red, like an unripe Cranberry. Leers, in his Fl. Herb. 189, mentions having once found a curious flower of this species which had five regular petals, all spurred, resembling the nectaries of an *Aquilegia*, stripped of its own petals. This was, as he says, an instance of *PELORITA* in *Viola*; see that article. The petals are often wanting in our wild, as well as garden, *Violets*.

25. *V. pyrenaica*. Pyrenean *Violet*. "Decand. Franc. v. 4. 803." Poir. in Lam. n. 19.—Leaves slightly heart-shaped, crenate, smooth. Footstalks dilated at the summit. Calyx obtuse. Spur very short.—Found by M. Ramond, on the Pyrenees, in stony ground. Perennial. This is said to differ from *V. odorata* in having more woody roots, without runners. *Stipulas* greener, and narrower. Leaves scarcely heart-shaped. Nectary shorter, straighter and more obtuse. Flowers smaller, less fragrant, the lip more strongly radiated. Decandolle and Poir.

Sect. 2. *With leafy stems*.

26. *V. canina*. Dog's *Violet*. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1324. Willd. n. 13. Fl. Brit. n. 4. Engl. Bot. t. 620. Curt. Lond. fasc. 2. t. 61. (*V. canina sylvestris*; Ger. Em. 851. *V. canina carulea* inodora sylvestris ferotina; Lob. Ic. v. 1. 609. *V. inodora major*; Rivin. Pentap. Irr. t. 119.)—Stem at length ascending, channelled. Leaves oblong-heart-shaped. *Capful* acute. *Stipulas* serrated.—Even more common throughout Europe than the Sweet *Violet*, being

as abundant in Greece, and its neighbouring islands and mountains, as it is in England or Sweden, flowering from April throughout most part of the summer, when every thicket, grove, bank, and barren heath abounds with its pale purple scentless blossoms. The root is woody, though slender. The first flowers are radical; but several branched, angular or furrowed, smooth, leafy stems soon spring forth, extremely variable in length, direction, and luxuriance, which continue growing, and bearing numerous, axillary, stalked flowers, for several weeks. The leaves vary no less in size, and somewhat in figure, but are always crenate, smooth, heart-shaped; more or less oblong. Footstalks slightly dilated upwards. *Stipulas* not very deeply toothed. *Bracteas* above the middle of the *flower-stalks*. *Capful* more oblong than in the *V. odorata*. See a species nearly related perhaps to this at n. 63.

Several varieties are mentioned by authors. That with a white flower is less frequent than in *V. odorata*. Can this be *V. neglecta* of the Fl. Taur.-Caucas. v. 1. 172? The γ of Fl. Brit., found by M. Du Bois about Mitcham, is smaller in all its parts, and said by Dillenius to have a yellowish, not a whitish spur, a very trifling difference indeed! We have in Norfolk a diminutive, though truly shrubby plant, first noticed by the late Mr. Crowe, in which we cannot discern any specific difference from *V. canina*, except size, and perhaps a thicker texture of leaf. Yet it has remained unchanged in a garden, where the soil is manured, for above twelve years. This cannot be the δ of Fl. Brit. (*V. alpina*; Hudf. ed. 1. 379. *V. martia alpina*, folio tenello circinato; Raii Syn. 366.) The leaves are exactly heart-shaped, obtuse, smooth, coriaceous, minutely crenate. Flowers like *canina*, but not half so large. *V. farnetosa*, Fl. Taur.-Caucas. v. 1. 172, we have not seen, and therefore must leave it in doubt.

27. *V. lattea*. Cream-coloured *Violet*. Fl. Brit. n. 5. Engl. Bot. t. 445. Ait. n. 15. (*V. canina*, var. 3; With. 262. *V. Ruppii*; Allion. Ped. v. 2. 99. t. 26. f. 6. *V. flore albo*; Rivin. Pentap. Irr. t. 120.)—Stem ascending, round. Leaves ovate-lanceolate. *Stipulas* deeply serrated.—Native of moist rather mountainous heaths, in the south of England. Mr. T. F. Forster found it first on the wolds at Tunbridge; Mr. Stackhouse at Pendarvis, Cornwall. M. Reynier gathered specimens, now before us, in the bogs of Switzerland, but rarely, and he has indicated Rivinus's figure, which, though taller and larger, resembles our plant. Nevertheless we much doubt the permanency of the species, and were only led by the great authority, in this genus, of our friend Mr. Forster, to adopt it. The whole plant is smaller than the ordinary *canina*, but the chief difference consists in the leaves being lanceolate or ovate, decurrent at the base, not heart-shaped. The *stipulas* are supposed to be more deeply cut, and *bracteas* broader. The petals are narrower than in *canina*, obtuse, whitish, streaked with purple lines exactly like *canina*. They even vary often to a light blue.

28. *V. montana*. Long-leaved Mountain *Violet*. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1325. Willd. n. 14. Ait. n. 16. (*V. flore caruleo longifolia*; Rivin. Pentap. Irr. t. 121. *V. affurgens* tricolor; Ger. Em. 854. *V. arborescens*; Camer. Epit. 911. Matth. Valgr. v. 2. 523, bad. *V. erecta*, flore caruleo et albo; Morif. sect. 5. t. 7. f. 7.)—Stems erect. Leaves ovate-oblong, somewhat heart-shaped. *Stipulas* pinnatifid at one side.—Native of the mountains of Lapland, Germany, Switzerland, and the north of Italy; a hardy perennial in our gardens, flowering in May and June. The name of *arborescens*, given first by Matthioli, has been justly thought absurd. The numerous stems are herbaceous

VIOLA.

and annual, twelve or eighteen inches high, erect, straight, smooth, leafy, but little branched. *Leaves* two inches and a half long, and one broad, bluntly serrated, smooth. *Footstalks* an inch long. *Stipulas* for the most part longer than the footstalks, lanceolate, obtuse; half-ovate at the base, and more or less pinnatifid at the outer, more rounded, margin. *Flower-stalks* axillary, shorter than the leaves, each with two awl-shaped bractes above the middle, and a large, greyish-blue, inodorous flower. *Calyx-leaves* acute, unequal in breadth; much elongated and toothed at the base. *Cap-
sule* oblong, triangular. *Seeds* oval.

29. *V. concolor*. Green-flowered Violet. Forster Tr. of Linn. Soc. v. 6. 309. t. 28. Ait. n. 24. Pursh n. 21. Muhlenb. Cat. 26.—Stem erect, downy. Leaves elliptic-lanceolate, tapering at each end. *Stipulas* linear-lanceolate, entire.—Native of lime-stone rocks in Pennsylvania, flowering in June and July. *Pursh*. Mr. Forster received living plants from America before the year 1788. The root is fibrous, perennial. *Stem* simple, erect, leafy, from one to two feet high, angular and furrowed, most hairy in the upper part. *Leaves* three inches long, more or less, and above one broad, entire or somewhat toothed, taper-pointed, ciliated, running down into shortish bordered footstalks. *Stipulas* four, two smaller than the rest. *Flowers* very small, green, on axillary stalks, two together, one of them imperfect. The flowers are very rarely produced in a garden. Their diminutive size, and green petals, are very peculiar, as is indeed the whole habit of this curious species; yet we see no possible reason for separating it from *Viola*. The capsule, figured, but not described, by Mr. Forster, appears rather large in proportion to the flower, elliptical, acute, with large, oval, not numerous, seeds.

30. *V. canadensis*. Canadian Violet. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1326. Willd. n. 17. Ait. n. 18. Pursh n. 14.—Stem nearly erect, partially hairy, almost round. Leaves heart-shaped, pointed, serrated, smooth. *Stipulas* slightly notched. Capsule downy.—In shady woods, in rich moist situations, on the mountains, from Canada to Carolina; perennial, flowering from June to August. *Flowers* sweet-scented; on the outside purplish-blue; on the inside white, elegantly veined. *Pursh*. The habit of the plant is somewhat akin to *V. canina*. Stem a span high, simple, most leafy in the upper part; often marked partially, more or less distinctly, with a downy lateral line. *Leaves* stalked, broad at the base, somewhat deltoid, with about seven ribs; their length an inch and a half; breadth nearly as much. *Stipulas* ovato-lanceolate, rarely notched. *Flower-stalks* about equal to the leaves, angular, with one or two minute bractes towards the bottom. *Calyx-leaves* linear-lanceolate, smooth; heart-shaped, very little elongated, at the base. *Corolla* often white on both sides. *Cap-
sule* globular, densely villous, especially in an early state; which we do not find noticed, but it appears to distinguish the species very satisfactorily.

31. *V. striata*. Streaked Violet. Ait. n. 19. Willd. n. 18. Pursh n. 15.—Stem nearly erect, semi-cylindrical. Leaves heart-shaped, pointed, smooth, serrated. *Stipulas* with fringe-like ferratures. Capsule smooth.—In shady woods, from Pennsylvania to Virginia; perennial, flowering from May to July. *Flowers* white, with purple veins. *Pursh*. This resembles the last, but the *stipulas*, and if we mistake not, the smoothness of the capsule, afford a clear specific distinction between it and the last. The flower-stalks bear a pair of very narrow awl-shaped bractes towards the top. The calyx is considerably elongated at the base.

32. *V. debilis*. Weak-stalked Violet. Michaux Boreal-Amer. v. 2. 150. Pursh n. 16.—Stem ascending. Leaves kidney-heart-shaped, scarcely pointed, smooth, crenate. *Sti-*

pulas with fringe-like ferratures. Flower-stalks twice the length of the leaves.—In low grounds, from Pennsylvania to Carolina; perennial, flowering from May to July. About half the size of the two preceding, with light-blue flowers. *Bractes* linear, on the upper part of the stalks. *Calyx* decidedly elongated at the base. *Cap-
sule* quite smooth. Most akin to *V. striata*, but apparently distinct.

33. *V. rostrata*. Larkspur Violet. Pursh n. 17.—Stem ascending. Leaves roundish-heart-shaped, serrated, smooth. *Stipulas* deeply fringed. Flower-stalks twice the length of the leaves. Nectary longer than the petals.—On shady rocks, near Easttown, Pennsylvania; perennial, flowering in May and June. *Flowers* blue. *Pursh*. About the stature of the last. The leaves have a small blunt point. *Stipulas* often rather pinnatifid than fringed, almost as long as the footstalks. *Bractes* awl-shaped, above half way up the stalks. *Flowers* large, very much like *Delphinium Consolida* in size, colour, and general aspect. Nectary an inch long, obtuse, slightly recurved.

34. *V. pubescens*. Downy Yellow Violet. Ait. n. 20. Willd. n. 19. Pursh n. 18. (*V. pennsylvanica*; Michaux Boreal-Amer. v. 2. 149.)—Stem erect, simple, downy, leafy at the top. Leaves triangular-heart-shaped; most downy beneath. *Stipulas* ovate, notched at the extremity.—In shady woods among rocks, particularly lime-stone, from New York to Virginia; perennial, flowering in May and June. *Pursh*. Sent to Kew garden in 1772, by Mr. W. Young. We are indebted to Mr. Francis Boott, a young botanist of great zeal and intelligence, for finer specimens of this, and many other North American plants, than have ever before been seen in Europe. The root has many long, stout, simple fibres. Herb rather succulent, more or less clothed with fine short silky pubescence. Stem simple; naked in the lower part; with three or four leaves at the top, which are two inches wide, serrated, bright green, many-ribbed. *Stipulas* shorter than the lowest footstalk, longer than the others. *Flower-stalks* downy, rather shorter than the leaves, destitute, as far as we can discern, of bractes. *Flowers* nearly as large as *V. canina*, yellow, with brown veins. *Calyx* scarcely elongated at the base.

35. *V. hastata*. Halberd-leaved Yellow Violet. Michaux Boreal-Amer. v. 2. 149. Pursh n. 19. Ait. Epit. 376.—Stem erect, simple, leafy at the top, smooth as well as the hastate, nearly sessile, leaves. *Stipulas* minute, finely toothed.—On high mountains, from Pennsylvania to Carolina; perennial, flowering in May and June. *Flowers* yellow. *Pursh*. Introduced at Kew, we presume by Mr. Masson, in 1803. This seems nearly related to the last, and indeed to the following, though all are sufficiently well discriminated. We have not seen specimens of this or the *V. Nuttallii*. It is much to be wished that such as are not yet figured, might find a place in some periodical work.

36. *V. Nuttallii*. Yellow Missouri Violet. Pursh n. 20.—Downy. Stem simple, erect. Leaves ovate-oblong, acute, ribbed, slightly toothed; tapering down into long footstalks. *Stipulas* lanceolate, undivided. Flower-stalks the length of the leaves.—Found by Mr. Nuttall, on the banks of the Missouri; perennial, flowering in June. *Flowers* yellow. *Pursh*.

37. *V. mirabilis*. Broad-leaved Violet. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1326. Willd. n. 20. Ait. n. 21. Jacq. Austr. t. 19. Fl. Dan. t. 1045. (*V. montana latifolia*, flores ex radice, semina in cuscumine fœrens; Dill. Elth. 408. t. 303.)—Stem erect, triangular, leafless in the middle. Leaves kidney-heart-shaped, acute, crenate, smooth. Upper flowers without petals. Calyx much dilated at the base. *Stipulas* lanceolate, entire.—Native of woods and bushy places in Sweden.

VIOLA.

den and Germany. A hardy perennial, flowering in July and August. The *stems* are a foot high, leafy at the bottom and top only, smooth. *Leaves* two or three inches broad, acute; the radical, or lower, on very long stalks; the upper on very short ones. Radical *flowers* the size of *V. odorata*, light reddish-purple, with a veiny lip: axillary ones about the top of the stem, on shorter stalks, generally without petals, but alone, for the most part, perfecting seed. The base of the *calyx-leaves* in all is much dilated, abrupt, one-third as long as the rest of the calyx. *Capsule* large, rigid, veiny, smooth. The specific name alludes to the fruit being produced by apparently imperfect *flowers*, not, as De Theis imagined, to their great size or admirable beauty. Such a circumstance in the fructification of Violets occurs in several other species.

38. *V. biflora*. Two-flowered Yellow Violet. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1326. Willd. n. 21. Ait. n. 22. Fl. Dan. t. 46. (*V. flore luteo*; Rivin. Pentap. Irr. t. 121. *V. montana prima*; Clus. Hist. v. 1. 309. *V. alpina rotundifolia minor*; Pluk. Phyt. t. 233. f. 7.)—Stem erect, about two-flowered. Leaves kidney-shaped, serrated, nearly smooth. Stipulas ovate, entire.—Native of the mountains of Lapland, Austria, Switzerland, and Savoy, but not of Britain. Sometimes kept, with other alpine plants, in pots, under a frame, in our gardens, flowering in the spring. This is a pretty delicate species, three or four inches high, allied to several of the preceding, but perfectly distinct. The slender simple stem bears three or four stalked leaves, an inch or inch and half in diameter; and usually two distant, axillary, slender-stalked, small, yellow flowers, whose lip is streaked with black. *Bractæas* minute, about the middle of each stalk. *Calyx-leaves* scarcely dilated or elongated, but rather gibbous, at the base. *Capsule* smooth, rigid. Seeds few, large.

39. *V. uniflora*. Siberian Yellow Violet. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1327. Willd. n. 22. Ait. n. 23. (*V. n. 67*; Gmel. Sib. v. 4. 101. t. 48. f. 5.)—Stem single-flowered, leafy at the top only. Leaves heart-shaped, toothed.—Native of Siberia. Said to have been cultivated in 1774, by the late Mr. James Gordon; but we presume it would be as easy to find one of the artificial golden flowers of the ancient Mexicans in our gardens at present, for its name does not even appear in Mr. Donn's Cambridge catalogue. The root of this rare and very curious species is thread-shaped, toothed, perennial, with long simple fibres. Herb about the size and habit of the Winter Aconite, *Helleborus hyemalis*, but rather downy, especially the stem. Leaves two or three, crowded at the summit of the stem, on very short stalks, ovate or heart-shaped, an inch long, scarcely downy, coarsely toothed, with a blunt point; their base entire. Stipulas small, lanceolate, with glandular teeth. Flowers yellow, larger than any of the preceding; their petals rounded, an inch long; two lateral ones bearded at the base. *Calyx-leaves* oblong, somewhat heart-shaped at their insertion, but hardly dilated or elongated. Gmelin's figure is very incorrect.

40. *V. decumbens*. Narrow-leaved Cape Violet. Linn. Suppl. 397. Willd. n. 23. Thunb. Prodr. 41.—Stems procumbent, round. Leaves linear, crowded, acute, entire. Calyx smooth. Petals of nearly equal length.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope. Stems smooth, somewhat branched, rather shrubby, a span long. Leaves numerous crowded about the ends of the branches, alternate, an inch and half long, hardly a line broad; tapering at the base, where they are united to a pair of minute lanceolate stipulas. Flower-stalks axillary, solitary on each branch, and rising above its summit, twice the length of the leaves, slender,

with two awl-shaped bractæas about the middle. Flower blue, far more like *V. canina* than *tricolor*, to which Linnaeus compares it; but the *calyx-leaves* are very slightly extended at the base. Nectary pale green.

41. *V. arborescens*. Shrubby Dwarf Violet. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1325. Willd. n. 30. Ait. n. 30. (*V. hispanica fruticans*; Barrel. Ic. t. 568.)—Stem ascending, shrubby, branched. Leaves lanceolate, downy, entire. Calyx minutely fringed. Petals of nearly equal length.—Native of the south of Spain, about Conil and Tariffa, flowering in February. Durand. A greenhouse plant, cultivated by the late Mr. Blackburne, in his rich garden at Orford, Lancashire, in 1779, as appears by his Catalogue; but scarcely now, probably, existing in any collection. The root is long and woody, as are also the stems, whose extremities terminate in many dense, crowded, leafy branches. Leaves resembling those of a *Cheiranthus*, more or less hoary, an inch long, tapering down into slender footstalks, each accompanied by two longish very narrow stipulas. Flowers somewhat like the last, but the nectary is very short, and *calyx-leaves* more elongated at the base, each marked with three ribs. Possibly *V. cheiranthifolia*, Poir. in Lam. n. 43, may not be distinct from this.

42. *V. capensis*. Hoary Cape Violet. Thunb. Prodr. 40. Willd. n. 29.—Stem shrubby, erect, downy. Leaves obovate, crenate, hoary. Calyx-leaves ovate, hairy. Lower petal abrupt, thrice as long as the rest.—Gathered at the Cape of Good Hope by Thunberg, from whom we have an unnamed native specimen, which can belong to no other species. It is more or less downy in every part, especially the flower-stalks, and calyx, which is not at all extended at the base. Leaves alternate, stalked, an inch long. Stipulas extremely minute, lanceolate. This is one of those species of which the lower petal, or lip, is so much extended, or rather the other four petals fo diminished, as to have a very peculiar aspect; and to which, the base of the calyx is quite simple, not protracted beyond the insertion. Such species have given occasion to the late M. Ventenat to establish his genus *Ionidium*, in Jard. de la Malmais. t. 27, of which the distinctive characters are, the want of a spur to the corolla, and of appendages, or elongations, to the *calyx-leaves*. These characters should seem to indicate a distinct genus from *Viola*; but there are so many gradations, some of which we have noted in their proper places, with respect to the calyx, and no less with regard to the nectary, that we cannot rely on either part; especially as the habit does not always concur with these differences. Several of the supposed species of *Ionidium* have as evident a spur, though short, as any *Viola*. Their calyx, it must be allowed, is more constant, but several undoubted *Viola* have as little of a projection there. Ventenat was, moreover, but imperfectly conversant with the species of his supposed genus, as will appear in the course of our history of them.

43. *V. busifolia*. Box-leaved Madagascarian Violet. Poir. in Lam. n. 56. (*Ionidium busifolium*; Venten. Malmais. under t. 27.)—Stems ascending, smooth, herbaceous. Leaves obovate, smooth, revolute, entire. Calyx-leaves ovate, naked. Lower petal abrupt, twice as long as the rest.—Gathered by Commerçon in Madagascaria. Thouin. Allied very nearly to the last, but smooth, and less shrubby. The leaves are rather smaller, and greatly resemble Box, or rather *Polygala Chamæbusus*. The root is woody. Stems six inches long, spreading every way, leafy, scarcely branched. Stipulas minute, awl-shaped. Flower-stalks twice the length of the leaves, with two small awl-shaped bractæas towards the top. Calyx-leaves broad at the base, especially the two lowermost, which have membranous edges, and embrace the rounded

rounded spur of the *nectary*, which is extended a little beyond them. Here a material character of *Ionidium* fails us. Lateral *petals* veined, half as long as the spatulate lip. *Capsule* ovate, smooth. *Seeds* four in each cell, pale, oval, abrupt, beautifully striated longitudinally.

44. *V. enneasperma*. Nine-seeded Violet. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1327. Willd. n. 33, excluding the synonym of Burmann. (*Ionidium enneaspermum*; Venten. Malmalf. under t. 27. I. heterophyllum; ibid. according to the characters and synonym. *Viola furecata maderaspatensis*, lini facie, rotundioribus imis foliis; Pluk. Phyt. t. 120. f. 8. "Nelamparenda; Rheede Hort. Malab. v. g. 117. t. 60.")—Stem erect, much branched from the bottom. Leaves lanceolate or linear, somewhat revolute, smoothish, slightly toothed. Calyx-leaves lanceolate, naked. Lower petal twice as long as the rest.—Native of Ceylon, Tranquebar, and Madagascar. The root is long, simple, woody, perennial. Stems several, branched chiefly in the lower part, erect, six inches high, angular, smooth. Leaves rather glaucous, various in length and breadth, stalked; the lower ones shortest and roundest; none more than an inch, or an inch and half, long. Stipulas minute, awl-shaped, spreading, like little prickles. Flower-stalks shorter than the leaves. Flowers purplish, very like the last; but the calyx-leaves are much narrower and more acute; lip obovate, not so abrupt. Seeds only three in each cell, striated in the same manner, but rather larger. Such is the plant of the Linnæan herbarium, which must be n. 317 of Linn. Fl. Zeyl. 149, though its leaves are certainly not quite entire, nor in any sense linear; neither are the stipulas wanting. Ventenat rightly finds fault with Willdenow for citing a plant of Burmann's Fl. Zeyl. t. 85, which he also cites, more correctly, for *Polygala theezans*; but the error is Linnæus's, and Willdenow copies him without examination. *V. linifolia*, Poir. in Lam. n. 61, from Madagascar, has perfectly linear, very narrow, leaves, but is certainly a mere variety.

45. *V. suffruticosa*. Madder-leaved Violet. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1327. Fl. Zeyl. n. 318. 150. Willd. n. 34. (*Rubeola zeylanica*, foliis latioribus, ratum dicta; Burm. Zeyl. 208.)—"Stem procumbent. Leaves lanceolate, crowded, somewhat serrated. Calyx even at the base."—Native of Ceylon. Herb procumbent, much branched, hard, like *Gifus Helianthemum*. Leaves acute, scarce evidently serrated, tapering down into footstalks. Stipulas awl-shaped, hardish, permanent; hence the plant becomes rough, and in a manner prickly. Flowers as in the last. Linn. in Fl. Zeyl.

We have seen no specimen of this. However the stipulas may be, the procumbent stem seems the most striking difference between these two species.

46. *V. verticillata*. Whorl-leaved Violet. "Ortega Decad. 4. 50." Ait. n. 25. (*Ionidium polygalæfolium*; Venten. Malmalf. t. 27.)—Stems procumbent. Leaves opposite, lanceolate, entire, with lanceolate stipulas, one-third of their length. Flower-stalks drooping, as long as the leaves. Corolla without a spur, nearly equal.—Native of South America. A greenhouse perennial herbaceous plant, brought from Spain, in 1797, by the late marchioness of Bute. The inconspicuous reddish flowers are produced during summer. This is related to several of the last described, inasmuch as the calyx is not extended at the base; but the corolla is also nearly, or quite, destitute of a spur, without any great disproportion between the several petals. The opposite leaves are almost unparallelled in this genus. They are erroneously called whorled, though the large stipulas, resembling leaves, give that appearance. The seeds are smooth, black, two in each cell.

47. *V. striata*. Stiff Opposite-leaved Violet. Poir. in Lam. n. 66. (*Ionidium strictum*; Venten. Malmalf. under t. 27.)—"Leaves opposite, lanceolate, entire. Stipulas very short. Flower-stalks erect, shorter than the leaves."—Found in Hispaniola by M. Poiteau. Ventenat. Stems above a foot high. Leaves an inch long. Flowers whitish, with narrow obtuse petals. Poir. It is said to be related to Poir. t's *V. linearifolia*, a species concerning which we have not sufficient information.

48. *V. labiosa*. Large-lipped Violet.—Stem erect. Leaves opposite, linear, revolute, smooth. Stipulas minute. Flowers racemose. Lower petal obovate, very large, with a short spur.—Sent by Dr. White from New South Wales, among the first specimens collected in that country. This very remarkable species is evidently akin to *V. enneasperma* and *verticillata*, with their allies, but nevertheless so distinct in many important characters, that we are at a loss which to select for discrimination. The stems are from nine to twelve inches high, angular, erect, rigid, smooth like the rest of the herbage. Leaves an inch and half or two inches long, very narrow, acute, entire; tapering at the base, sessile; some of the lower ones scattered, but the greater part opposite. Stipulas hardly discernible. Flowering branches like the rest of the stem in thickness, but destitute of leaves, bearing several rather distant flowers, on short, drooping, partial stalks, so as to constitute a true cluster. Calyx very small; its leaves lanceolate, acute; the two lower ones gibbous at the base, clasping the spur. Four of the petals ovate, pointed, very little longer than the calyx, pale, with dark veins; the two lateral ones much dilated and rounded at the lower side: the fifth petal, or lip, is disproportionately large, an inch long, broadly obovate, abrupt or emarginate, veiny, apparently rose-coloured; its claw channelled, the length of the other petals, ending behind in a rounded spur, extending beyond the base of the calyx. Capsule ovate, smooth. Seeds two in each cell, large, orbicular, black and smooth, as in *V. verticillata*; not furrowed, as in *enneasperma* and *buxifolia*.

49. *V. thebisfolia*. Toad-flax-leaved Violet. Poir. in Lam. n. 69.—Leaves alternate, linear, entire, smooth, very long. Stipulas awl-shaped. Flowers axillary, nearly sessile.—Gathered by Adanson, in Senegal. Roots slender. Stem erect, herbaceous, scarcely branched, cylindrical, or a little compressed, smooth. Leaves two or three inches, or more, in length, a line or two broad. Stipulas very acute. Flowers very small. Calyx-leaves narrow, acute. Petals whitish, hardly longer than the calyx. Capsule roundish-oval, obtuse. Poir.

50. *V. longifolia*. Long-leaved Cayenne Violet. Poir. in Lam. n. 68.—Stem shrubby. Leaves lanceolate, serrated, very smooth. Flowers solitary or aggregate, on capillary stalks, hardly so long as the awl-shaped nectary.—Native of Cayenne. Preserved in the herbarium of professor Desfontaines. Remarkable for the great size of its leaves, which are four or five inches long, finely serrated, and the smallness of its flowers, which grow on capillary axillary stalks, six lines at most in length, either solitary, or several together. The calyx is smooth, minute. Petals whitish, with a straight awl-shaped spur, at least as long as the stalk.

We presume, from Poir. t's authority, that this last species has no posterior elongation of the calyx, though the spur is so considerable. It may therefore, considering the leaves, serve to connect the foregoing species with the following.

51. *V. glutinosa*. Clammy Violet. Poir. in Lam. n. 63. (*Ionidium glutinosum*; Venten. Malmalf. under t. 27.)

VIOLA.

t. 27.)—Stem branched. Leaves ovate, ferrated, smooth; tapering at the base; the lower ones opposite. Stipulas lanceolate, acute. Flower-stalks the length of the leaves. Lip twice the length of the calyx, without a spur.—Gathered by Commerçon, on rocks at Monte-Vio. The stem is perhaps shrubby, apparently two feet at least in height, our specimen having several opposite, angular, leafy branches, each a foot long, somewhat downy. Both the stem and leaves are said to be covered with a glutinous moisture. The upper leaves are chiefly alternate, an inch long, stalked, veiny. Flowers numerous, axillary, solitary, not bigger than a large pin's head, drooping, whitish, without bracteas. Calyx-leaves ovate, acute, combined at the base, a little gibbous, but not elongated, in that part. Four of the petals rather longer than the calyx: lip twice as long, abrupt, with no protruding spur. Capsule globose. The form and proportion of the petals appear similar to *V. verticillata*, n. 46.

52. *V. parviflora*. Small-flowered South American Violet. Linn. Suppl. 396. Willd. n. 32. Poir. in Lam. n. 60. Cavan. Ic. v. 6. 21.—Stem branched, diffuse, downy. Leaves ovate, ferrated, smooth; obtuse at the base. Stipulas awl-shaped. Flower-stalks the length of the leaves. Lip twice the length of the calyx, without a spur.—Native of Mexico. The root is woody. Stems several, shrubby, branched, leafy, a foot or more in length. Leaves about half as long as the last, but of a broader, more ovate, form, not at all tapering at the base; their ferratures few and large. The lower ones are sometimes opposite. The flowers are so much like the preceding, that we can scarcely find any difference. Their stalks, about half an inch long, remain after the capsules are fallen off. The lip has perhaps a slight rounded protuberance at its base, but not extending beyond the calyx.

53. *V. oppositifolia*. Lanceolate Opposite-leaved Violet. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1327. Willd. n. 36. (Calceolaria, n. 1; Lœfl. It. 183.)—Stem shrubby, cross-branched, smooth. Leaves opposite, lanceolate, nearly sessile, acutely ferrated. Flowers racemose.—Gathered by Lœfling, in South America. Many circumstances, indicated by that author, shew an affinity between this and ten or eleven of the foregoing species, especially perhaps the two last. They all, in some particular or other, form exceptions to the characters or habit of a *Viola*. The stems of that before us are described as erect, from a span to eighteen inches high, woody below, round, smooth; with opposite branches. Leaves on very short stalks; their ferratures long, not deep; the extremity entire. Flowers white, in solitary spreading clusters (see n. 48.), their stalks partly permanent. Calyx gibbous below. Lip scarcely so broad as its claw, bent upwards, and revolute, at the end. Capsule triangular. Seeds somewhat angular. This plant has something of the habit of *Veronica Anagallis*, or *V. scutellata*. Lœfling.

54. *V. Calceolaria*. Shaggy Slipper Violet. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1327. Willd. n. 35. (V. Itoubou; Aubl. Guian. 808. t. 318. Calceolaria, n. 2; Lœfl. It. 184.)—Stems hairy, herbaceous. Leaves scattered, nearly sessile, ovate, ferrated, very hairy as well as the lanceolate stipulas and bracteas. Calyx shaggy with branched hairs. Lip kidney-shaped.—Native of South America. Gathered by Aublet in Cayenne and Guiana, in sandy ground, flowering at various seasons. This is distinguished by the copious, silky, shaggy hairs, covering every part of the herbage. The stems are a foot high, simple or branched, leafy. Leaves an inch long. Flowers solitary, stalked, white or blue. Four petals small, convoluted. Lip very

large, bristly underneath. Capsule hairy. Seeds oval, smooth.

55. *V. Ipecacuanha*. Ipecacuanha Violet. Linn. Mant. 484. Suppl. 397. (V. grandiflora, veronica folio villosa, Ipecacuanha alba dicta; Barrere Fr. equinox. 115. Pombalia Ipecacuanha; Vandelli Falc. 7. t. 1.)—Stem shrubby, erect. Leaves scattered, ovate, crenate; hairy underneath and at the margin. Calyx hairy. Lip very abrupt, twice as broad as long.—Native of Brazil. Cultivated by Vandelli at Lisbon, where it flowered in October, in the greenhouse. The root is white, woody, with many cylindrical branches, and is reported to possess the qualities of the true IPECACUANHA (see that article); though in a weaker degree. The stem is two feet high. Leaves stalked, an inch or inch and half long. Flowers fragrant, pale red, with a very short but broad lip, near an inch wide, involute at each side. Seeds roundish, five or six in each cell.

56. *V. diandra*. Diandrous Climbing Violet. Linn. Syst. Veg. ed. 13. 669. Willd. n. 39.—Stem herbaceous, trailing. Leaves oblong, remote. Stalks single-flowered. Nectary very long and twisted. Three of the stamens abortive.—Native of Guiana. Stem thread-shaped, climbing up hedges. Leaves alternate. Flower-stalks axillary, solitary, with a joint; swelling upwards. Bracteas two, minute. Calyx not at all prominent behind. Corolla white. Lip uppermost, very large, with a long twisted spur. Lateral petals ascending; two lower ones smaller, deflexed. Two hinder stamens only perfect. Allamand.

57. *V. Hybanthus*. Gibbous Climbing Violet. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1328. Willd. n. 37, excluding Aublet's synonym. (V. n. 209; Lœfl. It. 282; Hybanthus havanensis; Jacq. Amer. 77. t. 175. f. 24, 25.)—Stem shrubby, climbing, prickly. Leaves oblong, slightly ferrated, smooth, aggregate. Flowers several on a stalk. Lip somewhat longer than the other petals, without a spur.—Native of uncultivated hills about the Havannah. An elegant branching shrub, seven feet high, erect. Leaves several from one bud, an inch and half long, emarginate; each tapering at the base into a short footstalk. Flower-stalks one or two from the same bud with the leaves, short, divided in the upper part, each bearing a few minute whitish flowers, about the size of *V. glutinosa* and *parviflora*, and nearly agreeing with those species in structure, except that the lip appears shorter in proportion. Capsule the size of a pea. Seeds few, globose. We take our description from Jacquin, having seen no specimen of his plant, or of Lœfling's; so that we have no means of determining whether the *Viola* of the latter author, cited as above by Linnæus, be the plant in question, or whether Jacquin's conjectural reference to Lœfling's *Calceolaria frutescens*, It. 184, be more correct. We are only certain that Aublet's *V. Hybanthus* is extremely different from the above; see the following species.

58. *V. laurifolia*. Laurel-leaved Climbing Violet. Linn. fil. MSS. (V. Hybanthus; Aubl. Guian. 811. t. 319; excluding Lœfling's synonym.)—Stem shrubby, climbing. Leaves ovate, pointed, very obscurely crenate, smooth, alternate. Flowers corymbose. Nectary cylindrical, obtuse, thrice as long as the petals.—Found by Aublet, on the banks of waters in Guiana, flowering in April. The main trunk is three inches in diameter, and three or four feet high, sending forth long, round, twining branches, which climb the neighbouring trees. Leaves from four to six inches long, veiny, very smooth, entire, or slightly crenate towards the end, which Aublet's figure expresses too strongly. Footstalks stout, half an inch long, smooth.

F f

Flower.

Flower-stalks axillary, long, corymbose, rarely simple and solitary, each bearing, about the middle, two minute opposite *bractæes*. *Flowers* pale yellow, sweet-scented, not unlike some species of *Impatiens*, the *nectary* being full an inch long. Two lateral *petals* much larger than the others. The structure of the parts of *fructification* answer well to *Viola*, so far at least as we can examine them. The *calyx-leaves* are, in some degree, gibbous, or extended at their base, though Aublet notices it not.

59. *V. stipularis*. Trailing Fringed Violet. Swartz Prodr. 117. Ind. Occ. 1956. Willd. n. 31. (*V. persicariæ* folia; Poir. in Lam. n. 39.)—Stem creeping, round, simple. Leaves ovate, crenate, smooth; tapering at each end. *Stipulas* fringed, longer than the footstalks. *Flowers* solitary, without a spur. Calyx dilated at the base.—Gathered by Mr. Francis Masson, on a lofty mountain called mount Misery, in the island of St. Kit's. Stem rather shrubby, trailing probably to the extent of several feet, smooth, taking root, and sending up short leafy branches, not above an inch long, from each joint. Leaves with their footstalks an inch and half or two inches long. *Stipulas* near an inch in length, crowded, ovato-lanceolate, taper-pointed, membranous, deeply fringed with fine, long, capillary teeth. *Flower-stalks* few, axillary, slender, shorter than the leaves, each with two awl-shaped *bractæes* above the middle. *Calyx-leaves* awl-shaped, long and slender, gibbous or dilated at the base, and apparently longer than the small blue corolla. No spur is discernible. Poir. has taken an inadmissible liberty, in changing the original name of this species, in compliance with an error of Cavanilles; see the following.

60. *V. setosa*. Upright Fringed Violet. (*V. stipularis*; Cavan. Ic. v. 6. 21. t. 531. f. 2. Poir. in Lam. n. 38.)—Stem erect, round, much branched. Leaves ovate, acute, serrated, unequal at the base. *Stipulas* fringed, longer than the footstalks. *Flower-stalks* solitary, twice the length of the leaves.—Native of the neighbourhood of Talcahuano, in Chili. The stem is shrubby, a foot high; we presume it, from the plate, to be erect, though nothing is said by the author upon that subject, nor whether the leaves be smooth, the *calyx* dilated at the base, or the corolla furnished with a spur. By the figure, the two latter characters seem wanting, and the petals are drawn obovate, the lip being broader, and rather longer, than the rest. The *stipulas* are fringed with long prominent bristles, much like the preceding. Cavanilles did not perceive that the specific name he chose had been long pre-engaged.

We shall here introduce some new species of this author, which, according to the incomplete information afforded by his work, seem naturally to follow what have just been described; though some essential particulars are neglected, especially the structure of the *calyx-leaves* at their base. If the figures be faithful, these are not at all dilated beyond their insertion. The figure and description of *V. philippica*, t. 529. f. 2, are such, that we dare not adopt that species at all.

61. *V. rubella*. Little Red Violet. Cavan. Ic. v. 6. 20. t. 531. f. 1. Poir. in Lam. n. 37.—Stem erect, shrubby. Leaves ovate, acute, serrated. *Stipulas* shorter than the footstalks, with bristly serratures. *Flower-stalks* solitary, shorter than the leaves. Spur half as long as the petals.—Native of Chili, flowering in February. This appears to be smooth, and the stem round. Leaves thrice the size of the last, obtuse and equal at the base, on footstalks an inch long. *Stipulas* scarcely half so long. *Flowers* reddish, much like the last in size and shape, except the *nectary*, which is obtuse, projecting beyond the base of the *calyx*.

62. *V. maculata*. Dotted-leaved Violet. Cavan. Ic. v. 6. 20. t. 530. (*V. pyrolæ* folia; Poir. in Lam. n. 32.)—Stem simple, erect. Leaves elliptical, crenate; acute at each end; dotted beneath. *Stipulas* pinnatifid. *Flower-stalks* longer than the leaves.—Native of the Falkland islands, flowering in December. This is certainly remarkable in its tribe for having yellow flowers. The dots on the leaves occur in some other species, even in *canina*, yet surely the name ought not to be arbitrarily changed. The stem is six inches high. Leaves an inch and half long; their stalks still longer. *Stipulas* hardly an inch in length, deeply and copiously pinnatifid. *Flower-stalks* axillary, rising much above the stem. *Flowers* drooping, the size of *V. odorata*, but yellow, their spur projecting beyond the base of the *calyx*, whose leaves lanceolate taper-pointed leaves are represented a little gibbous at that side.

63. *V. adunca*. Hooked Violet.—Stems simple, ascending. Leaves ovate, somewhat heart-shaped, obtuse, crenate, downy, dotted. *Stipulas* loosely fringed. *Flower-stalks* longer than the leaves. Nectary hooked.—Brought by Mr. Menzies from the west coast of North America. This species has the size and habit of *V. canina*, and their *stipulas*, *flower-stalks*, and *bractæes* are similar. The *calyx-leaves* too are extended, in like manner, at the base. The whole of the herbage is minutely speckled, as in our last species, as well as in *canina*. But the plant is more or less downy, and clearly distinguished by the strongly recurved form of the spur, which if straight would be as long as the lip. The two lateral petals are downy at the base. Perhaps this species is more akin to *canina* than to any other, and ought to stand near it; at least if the *rubella* and *maculata* have no elongation at the base of their *calyx*.

64. *V. tricolor*. Panfy Violet, or Heart's-Ease. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1326. Willd. n. 24. Ait. n. 26. Fl. Brit. n. 6. Engl. Bot. t. 1287. Curt. Lond. fasc. 1. t. 65. Woodw. Suppl. t. 252. Fl. Dan. t. 623. Ger. Em. 854. Rennealm Spec. 144. t. 140. Rivin. Pentap. Irr. t. 122. Ehrh. Pl. Off. n. 278. (V. n. 568; Hall. Hist. v. 1. 244. Jaceea, five Flos Trinitatis; Camer. Epit. 912.)

β. V. arvensis; Murray Prodr. Gotting. 73. Sibth. Oxon. 84. Sym. Syn. 61. (*V. bicolor*; Rivin. Pentap. Irr. t. 122. Ehrh. Pl. Off. n. 359. Pursh n. 22. V. n. 569; Hall. Hist. v. 1. 244. *V. tricolor* petrææ; Ger. Em. 854. Jaceea altera; Camer. Epit. 913. Corn Panfie; Petiv. Herb. Brit. t. 37. f. 9.)

Stem angular, diffuse, divided. Leaves oblong, deeply crenate. *Stipulas* lyrate, pinnatifid. *Bractæes* obsolete.—Native of cultivated ground throughout Europe, from Sweden to Greece, as well as in North America, flowering all summer long. Root annual. Stems more or less branched, especially from the bottom, angular, most hairy on one side, extremely variable in luxuriance, when simple nearly erect. Leaves stalked, usually ovate, deeply crenate; sometimes more oblong; and in the more starved plants of variety *β* merely undulated. *Stipulas* always deeply pinnatifid, with narrow tongue-shaped segments; the terminal one very large, ovate, crenate. *Flower-stalks* axillary, solitary, firm, longer than the leaves, bearing towards the top a pair of extremely minute, close-pressed, scarcely visible *bractæes*. *Calyx-leaves* greatly and unequally dilated at the base, lanceolate in front, acute, entire. Petals extremely variable in size and colour, from the large, splendid, velvet-like Panfy of the gardens, which if allowed to sow itself without attention, soon becomes scarcely different from the wild plant; to the small pale-yellowish variety *β*, whose ultimate state of degeneracy, among the scorje of mount Ætna, is the *V. ætnica erecta bicolor hirtuta*.

VIOLA.

Viola minima, of Cupani's Hort. Cath. 130, sent us by Baron Bivona. In general, however, there are two tolerably dissimilar wild varieties, as above indicated; one with the *petals* longer than the *calyx*, the two uppermost purple; two lateral whitish, ribbed with purple, hairy at the base; *lip* yellow, inversely heart-shaped, streaked with purple, ending behind in a short *spur*; the other variety (β) has *petals* of a pale yellow, or cream-colour, hardly so long as the *calyx*, but little marked with blue. The hairiness of the *calyx*, like that of the herbage in general, is certainly variable.

65. *V. pilosa*. Blue Hairy Heart's-Ease. Donn Cant. ed. 3. 40. ed. 5. 52. (*V. hispida*; Lamarck Franc. v. 2. 679. *V. rothomagensis*; Poirlet in Lam. n. 45. "Decand. Franc. v. 4. 809." Desfont. Tabl. 178. Sims in Curt. Mag. t. 1498. Ait. Epit. 376.)—Stem angular, zigzag, hairy, diffuse, branched. Leaves ovate, crenate, fringed. Stipulas pinnatifid, somewhat lyrate. Bractæas lanceolate, toothed at the base.—Native of stony hills near Rouen, as well as in other parts of France, and on the downs near Dunkirk; perennial, flowering in the spring. This plant has long been universally known in our gardens, under the apt name of *V. pilosa*, given by the late Mr. Curtis, who gave us a specimen, so named, from his garden at Lambeth marsh, in May 1781. The date of its introduction is, therefore, anterior, even to what the late Mr. Donn has recorded, 1783. We had a specimen also of the same as his *V. pilosa*, from the Cambridge garden in 1803; and we regret that Dr. Sims has followed less classical authority and example, in the appellation he has retained, to the disparagement, though undesigned, of his old friends and ours. The plant in question is not very easily distinguishable, by a definition, from *tricolor*, though unquestionably a different species. The root is perennial. Herb much more hairy. Flowers bright blue, the side *petals* and *lip* striped with black. *Calyx* and *spur* much like *tricolor*. Bractæas nearer the top of the *flower-stalks*, and much larger, lanceolate, with two very evident teeth on each side at the base. This character seems material, though not yet mentioned. The reader of M. Poirlet's description may, at first sight, suppose it to have been found out by him, but a slight examination will discover that author to have written *bractæas* for *stipulas*.

66. *V. lutea*. Yellow Mountain Pansy. Hudf. ed. 1. 331. Fl. Brit. n. 7. Engl. Bot. t. 721. Ait. n. 27. Poirlet in Lam. n. 46. "Decand. Franc. v. 4. 809." Great Yellow Pansy; Petiv. Herb. Brit. t. 37. f. 10. (*V. grandiflora*; Hudf. ed. 2. 380. Lightf. 508. Ait. ed. 1. v. 3. 291; but not of Linnaeus. *V. flore luteo majore*; Rivin. Pentap. Irr. t. 121. *V. n. 566 β ; Hall. Hist. v. 1. 243.)—Stem triangular, unbranched. Leaves ovate-oblong, crenate, fringed. Stipulas lobed, palmate. Bractæas minute, scarcely toothed. Spur the length of the *calyx*.—This plant is found in grassy mountainous pastures, flowering from May to September. It is frequent in such situations, if we mistake not, (see Linn. Lapland Tour, v. 1. 41.) to Britain, Switzerland, and France. A specimen before us, from the son of the great Haller, shews it to have been confounded, amongst other things, by that author, under his n. 566. The root is perennial. Stem weak and decumbent at the base, scarcely ever branched, three or four inches high, a little downy, especially at one side, leafy. Leaves stalked; the lowermost small, nearly orbicular. Stipulas large, deeply cleft, their middle segments largest. Flowers one or two, on long solitary axillary stalks, rising high above the leafy top of the stem, larger than in the common *tricolor*, to which their*

calyx is similar; but their *spur* is smaller, not extending beyond the posterior lobes of that part. *Petals* mostly yellow; the two lateral ones, and the *lip*, streaked with black, and all more or less downy at the base; two upper ones sometimes also streaked with black or purple, or partly spotted with the latter colour; not unfrequently they are spurred all over; as in Engl. Bot. The *stigma* is club-shaped, hairy, hollow, with a purple line underneath. M. Poirlet has shewn great practical knowledge in his remarks under this species, advertising to *V. grandiflora*. We hope to remove his doubts in the next paragraph.

67. *V. grandiflora*. Great Mountain Pansy. Linn. Mant. 120. Willd. n. 25, excluding all the synonyms. (*V. altaica*; Pallas Herb. according to Dr. Sims. "Ker. Bot. Regit. 54." Sims in Curt. Mag. t. 1776.)—Stem angular, unbranched. Leaves ovate-oblong, crenate. Stipulas pinnatifid, somewhat lyrate. Bractæas minute, scarcely toothed. Spur twice the length of the hind lobes of the *calyx*.—Native of Siberia. Pallas is said to have gathered it on the Altay mountains. The Linnaean specimen seems of older date than the discoveries of this eminent traveller, but has no mark to indicate where it grew. This species is certainly more akin to the preceding than to the following, both which have been confounded with it. The habit and mode of growth agree with *V. lutea*, but every part is twice as large. The stem, weak and decumbent at the base, is about a span high, smooth, except a roughness on some of the angles, or at one of the sides. Leaves on longish stalks; the upper ones ovate, or ovate-lanceolate, a little hairy, not fringed; lower orbicular or heart-shaped, smooth. Stipulas very different from *V. lutea*, being oblong, pinnatifid in their lower half only, not palmate. Flower-stalks two or three on each plant, axillary, solitary, erect, five inches long, rising high above the stem. Bractæas an inch or more below the summit, opposite, membranous, lanceolate, extremely small, with a tooth on each side at the base. Flowers pale yellow, above twice the size of *V. lutea*, and of a rounder figure; their lateral *petals* hairy at the base, and marked, like the *lip*, with a few black lines. *Calyx* much dilated and toothed at its base, but not reaching half the length of the *spur*, which is cylindrical, rather slender, slightly curved, affording the most decisive distinction. The specimen represented in the Bot. Mag. seems to be the top of a plant, with rounder upper leaves than our wild specimens exhibit. The flower is unfortunately drawn so as not to shew the *calyx* or *spur*, but the description answers to our plant, except that the dried *petals* are not remarkably undulated. The Linnaean description is good, except that the stem is not branched. Some naked flower-stalks caused this error. The remark that this and *calcarata* are the offspring of *V. tricolor*, is perfectly unauthorized.

68. *V. calcarata*. Dwarf Mountain Pansy. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1325. Willd. n. 27. Ait. n. 28. (*V. n. 566 α ; Hall. Hist. v. 1. 243. t. 17. f. 1. *V. alpina purpurea*, exiguis foliis; Bauh. Pin. 199. *Mcclanum montanum*; Dalech. Hist. 1204.)*

β . *V. n. 566 β , n. 2; Hall. Hist. v. 1. 243. (*V. Palasii*; Forst. Tr. of Linn. Soc. v. 6. 311. *V. montana lutea*, subrotundo crenato folio; Barrel. Ic. t. 691, et *V. montana cærulea tricolor*, folio subrotundo crenato; ibid. t. 692.)—Stems quite simple, hardly so long as the foot-stalks. Leaves ovate, crenate. Stipulas three-cleft. Bractæas toothed at the base, somewhat hastate. Spur thrice as long as the hind lobes of the *calyx*.—Native of the mountains of Siberia, Austria, Switzerland, Savoy, and the south of France, flowering in July and August. Generally known in gardens by the name of *grandiflora*, at least*

the variety β ; which is confounded by Linnæus in his synonyms with the true *grandiflora*; by Haller with *lutea*. M. Poiret justly observes, that a specific character of the variety β , when it was announced in Tr. of Linn. Soc. by the name of *V. Pallasi*, ought to have been given. That name, however, is now superfluous, for we are perfectly satisfied that no specific difference exists between the plant there intended and the original *calcarata*. The root is perennial, much branched under ground, and creeping extensively, each shoot crowned with a short leafy stem, much overtopped, not only by the generally solitary flower-stalk, but by its own crowded leaves or their stalks. The leaves are smaller, thicker, blunter, more glaucous, and more uniformly ovate, than in either of the two last, with a few, slight and rounded, notches. *Stipulas* usually longer than the footstalks, in three deep segments, scarcely more, the middle one obovate, varying in breadth. They are well represented by Barrelier. The herb is often smooth, occasionally more or less downy. Flower-stalks rising high above the leaves, two or three inches long, more or less. *Bractæas* above the middle, lanceolate, with several lateral teeth, as if palmate, or hastate. Flower generally light purple, with black lines at the bottom, larger than *V. lutea*, sometimes parti-coloured like that; in β almost the size of *grandiflora*, with more remarkable black lines, and either yellow, parti-coloured, or all over violet. The calyx in both varieties is elongated, dilated, and toothed, at the base. Spur long, slender, cylindrical, slightly curved. Haller's figure is characteristic, but shews no part with critical precision. We have endeavoured to be explicit on the subject of the three last species, as no plants have been less understood.

69. *V. Zoysii*. Dwarf Carinthian Pansy. Wulf. in Jacq. Coll. v. 4. 297. t. 11. f. 1. Willd. n. 26, excluding the synonym.—Stems quite simple, hardly so long as the footstalks. Leaves ovate, crenate, smooth. *Stipulas* elliptic-lanceolate, undivided, nearly entire. *Bractæas* toothed at the base. Spur thrice as long as the hind lobes of the calyx.—Native of the mountains of Carniola and Carinthia, communicated by Mr. Sieber. Wulfen received it from the Baron de Zoys, whom he commemorates in the name. His description and figure are complete, except that we cannot account for his citing, without scruple, t. 691 of Barrelier. M. Poiret makes *V. Zoysii* a variety of *calcarata*; but they are clearly distinguished by their *stipulas*, which in the present are always oval, never lobed, though in one or two instances we find a slight lateral notch. The plant moreover is smaller, more perfectly smooth, green, not at all glaucous. Flower-stalks two or three inches high, angular. *Bractæas* minute. Petals large, yellow, with black lines at the bottom; sometimes partly tinged with blue. Spur ascending, rather thicker than in *calcarata*, and not quite so long. Wulfen might well be puzzled with the determination of this plant, *grandiflora*, &c.

70. *V. cenifolia*. Violet of Mount Cenis. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1325. Willd. n. 16. Ait. n. 17. Allion. Pedem. v. 2. 98. t. 2. f. 6. Spec. 14. t. 3. f. 4. Poiret in Lamarck n. 26. (V. n. 565; Hall. Hist. v. 1. 242.)

β . Poiret *ibid.* (*V. valderia*; Allion. Pedem. v. 2. 98. t. 24. f. 3.)—Stems simple, procumbent. Leaves ovate, entire. *Stipulas* obovate, stalked, undivided, unequal. Spur thrice as long as the hind lobes of the calyx.—Native of the hill called Ronce, above the hospital on Mount Cenis, where we gathered specimens, with Dr. Bellardi, in August 1877. It also grows on the alps of Savoy and Switzerland. The roots are creeping. The whole plant bears a resemblance to *V. calcarata* and its allies, but has decumbent

stems, two or three inches long; fleshy entire leaves, either smooth, or rough with short reflexed hairs; and very different *stipulas*, on long stalks. Flowers nearly the usual size of *calcarata*, blue. *Bractæas* small, hardly toothed. *V. valderia* is surely a most trifling variety. The leaves are falsely described sinuated; and the stems are not more erect than in the original *cenifolia*.

71. *V. arenaria*. Sand Violet. Poiret in Lam. n. 25. "Decand. Franc. v. 4. 806."—"Stems simple, diffuse, somewhat downy. Leaves roundish-heartshaped, smoothish, slightly crenate. *Stipulas* lanceolate, toothed. Calyx acute."—Native of sandy places, in the Lower Valais. Root scaly at the crown, sending out two or three spreading stems, two or three inches long. Flower-stalks three or four times as long as the leaves. Flowers pale blue, or whitish, with a thick obtuse spur. *Bractæas* linear, acute, four or five lines long, about an inch below the flower. Decandolle. Poiret.

72. *V. minuta*. Minute Basil-leaved Violet. Marfch. à Bieberst. Fl. Taur.-Cauc. v. 1. 173. (*V. orientalis minima*, ocyml folio; Tournef. Cor. 30?)—"Stems simple, flaccid, single-flowered. Leaves roundish, crenate, nearly smooth. *Stipulas* ovate, entire."—Native of the Georgian region of Mount Caucasus. Root apparently creeping. Stems as long as the finger-nail. Leaves only two or three lines in length and breadth, broadly but slightly crenate. Footstalks about as long. *Stipulas* rough with hairs at the edges. Flower the size and shape of *V. odorata*, with a spur the length of the petals. *Bractæas* remote, very minute. Akin perhaps to *V. cenifolia* and *alpina*. Marfch. à Bieberst. It may possibly be more related to the following, though the *stipulas* do not agree.

73. *V. nummularifolia*. Money-wort-leaved Violet. Allion. Pedem. v. 2. 98. t. 9. f. 4. Willd. n. 15. (*V. alpina minima*, nummularia folio; Boeck. Mus. 163. t. 127.)—Stems tufted, simple. Leaves orbicular-heartshaped, nearly entire, smooth. *Stipulas* lanceolate, membranous, three-cleft. Spur rounded, rather longer than the dilated base of the calyx.—Native of the rocks of Corsica, Dauphiny, and Piedmont. The long, slender, branching roots divide at the top into tufts of little, smooth, leafy stems, erect or decumbent, not branched. Leaves fleshy, a quarter of an inch in length and breadth, obtuse, occasionally crenate, on slender stalks about twice as long. *Stipulas* half or quarter the length of the footstalks, sessile, unconnected with them, pale, acute, with one or two taper teeth at each side. Flowers blue, rather smaller than *V. odorata*, not unlike that species in shape. Very distinct from *V. cenifolia*.

74. *V. alpina*. Alpine Radical Violet. Jacq. Obs. part 1. 21. t. 11. Fl. Austr. v. 3. 24. t. 242. Poiret in Lam. n. 15. (*V. montana secunda*; Clus. Hist. v. 1. 309.)—Stem scarcely any. Leaves nearly radical, orbicular-heartshaped, slightly crenate, nearly smooth. *Stipulas* lanceolate, membranous, entire, united to the base of the long footstalks. Spur rounded, twice as long as the dilated base of the calyx.—Native of the summits of the loftiest mountains of Austria, flowering in July and August. Mr. Sieber, to whom we are obliged for wild specimens, exactly agreeing with some from Jacquini, justly observes, that botanists in general have unaccountably neglected this species. It is not to be found in Linnæus, Murray, nor Willdenow; yet none can be more distinct. It ought perhaps to stand in the first section, as having much less of a stem than some which are placed there; but its affinity to several we have just described is so great, that it more naturally ranges with the Pansy tribe, of which it has the large concave oblique stigma. The *stipulas*, being laterally united to the footstalks, like

VIOLA.

like those of a rose or bramble, though hitherto unnoticed, afford a most striking and clear character. The flowers are deep blue, striped or spotted with black, or dark violet, nearly the size of *V. calcarata*, but with a shorter spur, and much shorter flower-stalks.

75. *V. tenella*. Little Syrian Violet. Poir. in Lam. n. 53.—“Lower leaves opposite, roundish, minute; upper somewhat alternate, oblong, obtuse; all smooth and entire. Flower-stalks rather longer than the leaves.”—Native of Syria; preserved in the herbarium of professor Desfontaines. A very small plant, two inches high at the utmost. Roots simple, thread-shaped, whitish. Stems erect, very smooth, simple, slender. Leaves stalked. Flower small, on a solitary almost capillary stalk. Poir. Nothing is said of the stipulas, bractæ, calyx, or spur, so that our knowledge of this species is very incomplete, and, but for the remarkable circumstance of the partly opposite leaves, we should scarcely have ventured to admit it without examination of a specimen.

76. *V. tridentata*. Three-toothed Magellanic Violet.—Stems procumbent. Leaves crowded, wedge-shaped, with three terminal teeth. Flower-stalks much longer than the leaves. Calyx obtuse.—Gathered by Mr. Menzies, in February 1787, on the mountains of Staten Land, growing among the snow. This little species is so different in habit from all the rest, that we know not where to place it. The numerous stems, an inch or two in length, compose dense tufts, and are thickly covered with alternate, closely crowded, or imbricated, fleshy, shining, smooth leaves, a quarter of an inch long, more resembling a *Saxifraga* than a *Viola*, each ending in three broad blunt teeth, and sometimes notched also at the sides: the base tapers down into a short broad footstalk. We can discern no stipulas, except the imbricated scales on the lower part of each branch may be called. Flowers small, drooping, on thick stalks an inch high, rising above the top of each stem. Calyx-leaves ovate, obtuse, thick, somewhat gibbous at the base. Spur scarcely any.

77. *V. gracilis*. Slender Mountain Violet. Sm. Prodr. Fl. Græc. Sibth. n. 511. Fl. Græc. t. 222, unpublished.—Stem branched, angular, diffuse. Leaves lanceolate, somewhat crenate; the upper ones crowded, opposite. Stipulas deeply three-cleft. Spur much longer than the base of the calyx.—Gathered by Dr. Sibthorp, on the summit of the Bithynian Olympus. We have also specimens from mount Aetna, collected by Baron Bivona. The roots are perennial, creeping, long and very slender, much divided at the top. Stems slender, angular, hardly a span long; subdivided at the base; leafy in the upper part; simple, either quite smooth or very finely downy. Leaves on longish stalks, lanceolate or obovate, very rarely and obscurely crenate, smooth or a little downy, scarcely an inch long at the most; the lower ones alternate; upper opposite, and much crowded at the top of the stem. Stipulas like the leaves, but about one third as large, in three deep, stalked, obovate, entire segments, the middle one rather the largest. Flower-stalks axillary, few, three or four inches long. Bractæ rather above the middle, small, lanceolate, membranous, toothed at the base in a hastate manner. Flowers about the size of *V. lutea*, but somewhat more oblong, of a dull purplish-blue, occasionally yellow. Calyx-leaves bluntnish; much elongated and toothed at the base. Spur slender, about the length of the petals. Capsule oblong.

This is allied to the Pansy tribe, and perhaps more akin to *V. canina* than any other, but very distinct, and remarkable for the opposite leaves; a character occurring here and there in species otherwise little related to each other.

78. *V. cornuta*. Horned Violet. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1325. Willd. n. 28. Poir. in Lam. n. 48. Ait. n. 29. Curt. Mag. t. 791. (V. n. 570; Hall. Hist. v. 1. 244. V. pyrenaica, longius caudata, teucris folio; Tourn. Inst. 421.)—Stem ascending, angular, branched. Leaves heart-shaped, crenate. Stipulas sessile, pinnatifid. Calyx-leaves awl-shaped, taper-pointed; elongated and abrupt at the base, much shorter than the spur.—Native of the Pyrenæes, and of mount Atlas. Ray is reported to have found this species on the Jura; but Haller asserts there is no record of any person besides having met with it in Switzerland. Professor Ortega is said to have first introduced it at Kew in 1776. The plant is hardy and perennial, now frequent in gardens, flowering in May. The stems form large lax tufts, producing abundance of sky-blue, or pale purple, inodorous flowers, of the Pansy kind. Their lip has a small point. The spur is slender, ascending, near an inch long. Calyx-leaves remarkably long, slender, and acute. The whole herb is somewhat downy, of a greyish-green. Stipulas broad, variable in size, usually about as long as the footstalks. Ray in his Hist. Plant. v. 3. 510, seems to indicate that some of the leaves, at least, are opposite. We have seen no instance of this.

The arrangement of the species of this ample and interesting genus might, doubtless, be greatly improved, providing any able botanist could compare the leading ones together, in a sufficiently perfect state. The flower being reversed in position, as in most European and American Violets; in other words, the lip being turned downwards, seems the natural posture, though many of Indian growth are supposed to have erect flowers. This character is not easy to ascertain in dried specimens, the only ones possible to be obtained of several of the most singular or curious kinds. We have, therefore, scarcely adverted to it. The intelligent reader will trace out the leading circumstances which have made us swerve, in part, from Willdenow's distribution, though we are conscious that much more remains to be done. In the admission of new species, we have passed over many American ones, mentioned by M. Poir. because they are probably superseded by the labours of Mr. Pursh. We could not, therefore, undertake, nor did it appear requisite, to settle their synonymy: especially as we have reason to think the American *Viola* are not yet all well known.

We regret that the elaborate treatise on this genus, which, for near thirty years, has been meditated by our accurate friend Mr. Forster, and which is, in fact, promised in the sixth volume of the Linnean Society's Transactions, has never been accomplished. We are aware of the difficulty of the subject, and those who have studied it more deeply, are perhaps still more so; but we do not scruple to declare, that a full scientific botanical essay on *Viola*, might display as much skill and learning, and be made subservient to as much philosophical illustration of Botany, as any monographical subject that could be chosen.

VIOLA. See CHEIRANTHUS, LUNARIA, and TROPÆOLUM.

VIOLA Aquatilis. See HOTTONIA.

VIOLA Mariana. See CAMPANULA.

VIOLA Matronalis. See HESPERIS.

VIOLA Palustris. See HOTTONIA and PINGICULA.

VIOLA, in Gardening, contains plants of the herbaceous, fibrous-rooted, perennial kind, among which the species cultivated are, the sweet-scented March violet (*V. odorata*); the palmated violet (*V. palmata*); the multifid-leaved violet (*V. pedata*); and the pansy violet, or heart's-ease (*V. tricolor*).

The first fort is a low creeping flower plant, which is in general very highly esteemed for its fragrance. There are different varieties of it, as the single blue and white, the double blue and white, and the pale purple; it is also found with white flowers; and it has been seen wild with double flowers. This variety is in much esteem, both for the superior size of the flowers, and their extreme fragrantcy; and as they appear later, they keep up the succession.

The second fort is curious, and rare in this country, having no sweet scent to recommend it.

The last fort varies with more than two colours, as purple, blue, yellow, white, improved and enlarged by garden culture. There is the low growing, with small flowers; the larger upright, with large flowers; large Dutch, with largest flowers; variegated, yellow; purple and white flowered; yellow-flowered, with purple spots; purple, with yellow or white spots; white, with yellow and purple spots; entire yellow; deep and pale yellow; purple-flowered; scentless flowered; sweet-scented flowered.

Method of Culture.—The first fort may be increased by seeds, or parting the roots. The seeds may be sown in a bed of light earth, soon after they become ripe, in the beginning of autumn; and when they have some growth, be removed into a shady border, until the autumn, when they may be set out where they are to grow. The double-flowered forts afford no seed. The best mode is, however, by parting the roots in the early autumn, or after they have flowered, and planting them out in the borders, or in beds at good distances; at the latter season watering them well. When intended for flowers, they should not be parted oftener than once in three or four years.

The second and third forts succeed best by being planted in pots filled with loam and bog-earth well mixed, plunging them in the mould of a north border, where they should be protected in winter, or removed under a common hot-bed frame.

The fourth fort rises readily from scattered seeds, and may be raised by sowing the seed where the plants are to grow, in the autumn or spring.

They may likewise be increased by planting out the offset slips of the large bushy plants, taken off with root-fibres, in the autumn or spring, in the borders, or in beds for increasing their growth. The varieties may be preserved in this way with safety.

These plants afford much variety in the borders, and other parts; and the first fort is useful for the flowers. It is proper to be planted out on the verges of shrubberies and wood-walks, as well as in tufts and patches in the borders, clumps, and other parts of pleasure-grounds; but when cultivated for the purpose of its flowers, it is best planted out in rows in beds, or in the borders, at the distance of a foot.

VIOLA, in the *Materia Medica*. The common sweet violet, or *viola odorata* of Linnæus, is perennial, grows wild in hedges and shady places, and flowers in March. The flowers of the *V. hirta*, or hairy, scentless March violet, are often substituted for the other in our markets: but this fort may be easily distinguished; the herb, by its having stalks, which trail on the ground, and bear both leaves and flowers, and by the young leaves being hairy; the flower, by the three lower petals being spotted with white, and by their want of smell. The official violet is the *Ιω μέλαν* of Theophrastus, and the *Ιω πορφύρεα* of Dioscorides; it was also well known to the Arabian physicians, as Mesue commends its use highly in various inflammatory diseases. *Viola* is likewise frequently mentioned by the Latin poets, who allude to its effects as a vulnerary. The recent flowers only

are now received in the catalogues of the *Materia Medica*: they have an agreeable sweet smell, and a mucilaginous bitterish taste; when chewed, they tinge the saliva blue; to water they readily give out both their virtue and their fine flavour, but scarcely impart any tincture to rectified spirit, though they impregnate the spirit with their flavour. These flowers, taken in the quantity of a drachm or two, are said to be gently purgative or laxative; and according to Bergius, and some others, they possess an anodyne and pectoral quality. The official preparation of these flowers is a syrup, which to young children answers the purpose of a purgative. This syrup is usually prepared from the petals of the cultivated violet; and Dr. Withering tells us, that at Stratford-upon-Avon, large quantities of the violet are cultivated for this purpose; but the London herb-shops are chiefly supplied from Kent. (See *SYRUPS*.) This syrup is also found useful in many chemical inquiries, to detect an acid or an alkali; the former changing the blue colour to a red, the latter to a green. The seeds of violets are reported to be strongly diuretic, and useful in gravelly complaints. The root powdered, in the dose of a drachm, proves both emetic and cathartic.

That species of violet called pansy, or heart's-ease, the *viola tricolor* of Linnæus, grows in corn-fields, waste and uncultivated grounds, flowering all the summer months. By the vivid colouring of its flowers, it often becomes very beautiful in gardens, where it is distinguished by various names. To the taste, this plant, in its recent state, is very glutinous or mucilaginous, accompanied with the common herbaceous flavour and roughness. By distillation with water, according to Haase, it affords a small quantity of odorous essential oil, of a somewhat acrid taste. The dried herb yields about half its weight of watery extract; the fresh plant about one-eighth. It was formerly reckoned a powerful medicine in epilepsy, asthma, ulcers, scabies, and cutaneous complaints; but its present character is owing to its having been recommended by Dr. Starck, a German physician, and others, as a specific in the crusta lactea of children. He directs a handful of the fresh, or half a drachm of the dried leaves, to be boiled two hours in half a pint of milk, which is to be strained for use. This dose is repeated morning and evening. Bread, with this decoction, is also to be formed into a poultice, and applied to the part. He observes, that when it has been administered eight days, the eruption usually increases considerably, and the patient's urine acquires a smell like that of cats. When the medicine has been taken a fortnight, the scurf begins to fall off in large scales, leaving the skin clean. The use of the remedy is to be persisted in, till the skin has resumed the natural appearance, and the urine ceases to have any particular smell. Lewis. Woodville.

VIOLA, FRANCISCO DELLA, in *Biography*, maestro di cappella to Alfonso d'Este, duke of Ferrara, a disciple of Adrian Willaert, the master of Zarlino, and one of the interlocutors in his "Ragionamento." He was the editor of a curious work by his master Willaert, published at Ferrara, 1558, under the title of "Musica Nova."

VIOLA, in *Geography*, a river of Spain, in Guispucoza, which rises in the mountains of Adrian, and runs into the sea, at Cumaja.

VIOLA, in *Ichthyology*, a name by which some authors have called the smelt.

VIOLA Serotina, the late violet, in *Botany*, a name given by the ancients to a garden-flower, not properly of the violet kind, but to which we, as well as they, have connected the name violet, though with a distinctive epithet, we call it *viola matronalis*, or *dame's violet*.

Pliny is very express in this distinction, but is not sufficiently attended to in it; and by this means is misunderstood in some other parts of his works, where he alludes to this flower in his description of the colour called by the Romans *conchyliar*, or *conchyliaceous color*; he says that the deepest degree of it was that of the flower of the *viola ferotina*. The commentators on his work have generally explained this into his saying, that the deepest colour of this name was a blue purple, like that of the violet; but he only means that it is of a deeper red than the colour of the mallow flower, and with a proportionate mixture of purple, as there is in that flower.

VIOLARIS LAPIS, in *Natural History*, a fossil body, called by the Germans *violstein*, and by many authors *lapis odore violarum*, from its having a sweet smell when fresh broken, which has been supposed to resemble that of the violet.

The Germans have many stones which have more or less of a sweet smell when fresh broken, as they have many which stink very strangely; the latter of these they call all by that of the common name of *swine-stone*, and the former, all by that of *violet-stone*. The substance, however, which possesses this quality in the highest degree of all others, and is, therefore, most proper to be called distinctly by this name, is a species of talc, of the genus of the *bractearia*, called by Dr. Hill *bractearium niveum lucidissimum bracteis undulatis*, or the snow-white shining bractearium, with undulated scales. This is found in masses of an extremely rude and irregular structure, but very compact and firm, usually of a roundish or oblong figure: these are of various sizes, from an inch or two, to a foot in diameter, and are composed of almost an infinite number of thin, extremely beautiful, and snow-white plates, which are all broad, thin, and flaky, and of various sizes, and perfectly irregular in shape and figure, and are naturally waved, bent, and curled: its smell, when broken, is not like that of any of the known perfumes, but is a sort of mixed one, resembling that of roses and violets together: it is very heavy, and will neither give fire with steel, nor ferment with acid menstruums. It is common on the shores of rivers in Italy, and in the mountains of Germany. Hill's *Hist. of Fossils*.

VIOLATION, the act of *violating*, i. e. forcing a woman, or committing a rape upon her.

Amnon, David's son, violated his sister, who was avenged by Abshalom: Tereus violated his sister-in-law Philomela. To violate the queen, the king's eldest daughter, or the princess of Wales, is high-treason.

VIOLATION is also used, in a moral sense, for a breach or infringement of a law, ordinance, or the like.

Thus, we say a violation of the law of nature, of the law of nations, of a treaty of peace, of one's oath, &c.

VIOLATION is also used for a profanation. In which sense we say, to violate a church, &c.

VIOLENT, in the *Schools*, a thing done by force. In which sense it stands opposed to spontaneous.

A thing is said to be violent, when affected by some external principle; the body that undergoes it contributing nothing thereto, but struggling against it.

The body, in such case, is said to struggle, because whatever is violent, discomposes and distracts a thing from its natural constitution, and tends to destroy it.

The schoolmen all allow, that man, as being endued with reason, is capable of suffering such violence; but brute and inanimate bodies are not: *in brutum*, &c. *violentum non cadit*.

VIOLENT Motion. See **MOTION**.

VIOLENT Purging, or *Cling*, a disease in sheep of the

more inveterate bowel kind, which not unfrequently attacks them in some situations.

It is said not to be peculiar to any soil, but appears most frequently, and spreads most rapidly, where the pasture is of a soft grassy nature. It is constantly produced by improper management, such as working among the flocks inconsiderately in hot sultry weather, and in crowded folds. It is thought by some to break out most frequently in milking time, where that practice is carried on, when the sheep lie, for six or seven weeks in the later warm summer months, upon the same spot for some time, during the morning and evening at the *bought* or milking-place. Indeed, when sheep, from whatever cause, lie upon the same spot until the ground turns foul, if the weather be soft, sultry, and warm, with thunder, or showers of that kind, this disease is much to be apprehended, and is often very spreading and fatal.

The appearances of the disease are, that the sheep affected with it acquires a sickly look, the ears of it drop and hang low down, the eyes are languid, and the wool claps to the body of it. It continues for some time to follow the flock, but mostly stands in the same position, looking to the ground. It often lies down, but soon rises up again; and walks to a short distance, during which it commonly voids feces. The skin is hot, dry, and scaly, and the pulse and respiration quick. It eats very little, and does not chew the cud, but seems to have an unquenchable thirst. There is frequent rumbling heard in the bowels, followed by the discharge of feces, which are thinner than ordinary, having little or no resemblance to the hard purl of healthy sheep. As the disease advances, the purging increases, the discharge becomes thinner, is first mixed with blood, then slime and blood, and at last is black and fetid, accompanied clearly with severe gripes and straining. After a wet summer, the discharge is sometimes green, the grass seeming to pass with little change of colour. In the mean time, the sheep rapidly wastes away, and in a few days is reduced to a perfect skeleton, with its belly drawn up to its back; it separates from the flock, wanders about in an uneasy manner, and hides itself among fern, heath, or bushes, when they are present. Its eyes are suffused with red, its breathing becomes more laborious, an unpleasant smell exhales from every part of its body, its feces are absolutely putrid, it is quite overcome by the disease, and it continues straining and purging until it expires.

It is said, in the third volume of the Transactions of the Highland Society of Scotland, to be distinguished from the ordinary diarrhoeas and loosenesses in these animals, by their chiefly attacking hogs, weak-gimmers and dimmonds, while this disease is frequent among older sheep; by their mostly occurring in the spring and ceasing in the summer, when this disease only commences; by their having no fever, straining, or pain before passing the stools, as is the case in this disease; by the feces in them being loose, but natural in other respects, and without blood or slime, while in this disease they consist of hard lumps occasionally passed, the rest being blood and slime; by there not being that degree of fetor in the feces in them, that takes place in this disease; by the appetite being rather sharper than usual in them, while in this disease it is wholly gone; by there being nothing infectious in them, while this disease is often greatly so; by there being only a temporary stop put to the thriving of the sheep, which afterwards becomes rapidly strong and vigorous in them, while in this disease the animal wastes suddenly; and by their having little danger in them for the most part, except where there is much debility, while this disease is very commonly fatal.

According to some, if a sheep survives this disease for a fortnight.

fortnight, or even for a few days, it mostly recovers. In this case, there is either very little or no blood in the fæces, the slime dries up, and becomes mixed with hardened balls, the feverish heat abates, the skin gets moist, the vigour of the eye returns, the appetite increases, and the wool rises slowly, and assumes its natural appearance, though a great part of it frequently comes off. However, it grows again, and sheep which have had this disease commonly become very healthy and sound, being seldom attacked by any other disease. In some cases there is the feverish appearances without any flux at all, which is a less fatal and of course more favourable state of the disease.

Notwithstanding the disease is always originally produced by improper management, it is often greatly infectious, and spreads rapidly among the same flocks and to different ones. It is a very dangerous sort of disorder, which on soft soils destroys the greater number of sheep attacked with it, but which on dry hard land is less fatal and less infectious.

In preventing the disease, which is more certain and beneficial than any thing that can be done in the cure of it when it is formed, the principal circumstances to be regarded are, the dispersing the sheep as equally as possible over the land; the preventing their collecting together in clumps and fouling the land; the having the situations for the *boughs* in milking time, high, dry and airy, shifting them often, and dividing the sheep equally among them, to prevent their being too much thronged and heated; the changing those situations frequently, where they lie, before they become foul; the removing the diseased sheep immediately as they become affected to some considerable distance; the using of tar to the noses and tails of the sheep, as well as in tubs where they are confined; and the salving of many of the sheep, and putting them in clean pastures, to lie at their ease. The disease however sometimes continues, in spite of these means, until the frost sets in, when it disappears slowly with much loss.

The cure of the disease is to be attempted, when the sheep are strong and in good condition, by cutting the tails acrofs, and afterwards caufing them to perspire in some way or other freely, not letting them be suddenly exposed to cold after it. At the same time the bowels are to be cleared by the use of a little rhubarb, as about half a drachm, or, what is better, by about four grains of ipecacuanha in powder, given until they purge freely. A quantity of thin flour-porridge well boiled, and barley or oatmeal, may then be given with a pint of sweet milk two or three times a day. If the disease be not soon removed by these means, remedies of the powerful astringent kind must be had recourse to, with opium in small quantities, such as a decoction of logwood, bark, Japan earth, and chalk made with milk, and given in the proportion of a gill two or three times a day. Fifteen or twenty drops of the tincture of opium may be put in each dose of the decoction. And it is often very useful when taken alone in a very little cold water.

VIOLET, in *Botany, Gardening*, and the *Materia Medica*. See **VIOLA**.

VIOLET, *Bulbous*, a name sometimes given to the snow-drop, a plant which Linnaeus makes a distinct genus under the name *galanthus*; but which Tournefort comprehends among the *narcisso-leucocoums*.

VIOLET, *Calathian*. See **GENTIANA Pneumonanthe**.

VIOLET, *Corn*, a name sometimes applied to the *Campanula hybrida*.

VIOLET, *Damask*. See **HESPERIS**.

VIOLET, *Dane's*, *Rocket*, or *Queen's Gilliflower*. See **HESPERIS**.

This plant is an antiscorbutic and diaphoretic, and is very serviceable in the asthma, coughs, and convulsions. The outward use of it is recommended in inflammations, cancers, gangrenes, sphacelus, and contagious diseases. Bruised, it very potently refits putrefaction; and applied to pestilential buboes in the arm-pits, it ripens and softens them: James from Boerhaave.

VIOLET, *Dog's-tooth*, the name by which some call the *dens canis* of botanical writers. See **ERYTHRIONUM**.

VIOLET, *Water*. See **HOTTONIA**.

VIOLIN, an instrument of four strings, tuned fifths, and played by a bow. It has a neck like the treble viol, but the finger-board has no frets. This may be pronounced the most powerful, the most perfect, and the most useful instrument that has ever been invented. It is in the power of the performer on this sovereign of the orchestra, to make the intonation of all keys equally perfect. We have not been able to trace its antiquity higher than the 16th century. In the beginning of the 17th century it was hardly known to the English in shape or name; and, therefore, that superior power of expressing almost all that a human voice can produce, except the articulation of words, seemed at this time so utterly impossible, that it was not thought a gentleman's instrument, or one that should be admitted into good company. Viols of various sizes, with six strings, and fretted like the guitar, began indeed to be admitted into chamber-concerts: for when the performance was public, these instruments were too feeble for the obtuse organs of our Gothic ancestors; and the low state of our regal music in the time of Henry VIII. 1530, may be gathered from the accounts given in Hall's and Hollingshead's Chronicles, of a masque at cardinal Wolsey's palace, Whitehall, where the king was entertained with "a concert of drums and fifes." But this was soft music compared with that of his heroic daughter Elizabeth, who, according to Henxner, used to be regaled during dinner "with twelve trumpets and two kettle-drums; which, together with fifes, cornets, and fide-drums, made the hall ring for half an hour together." Itinerarium, edit. 1757, Strawberry-Hill.

It has long been a dispute among the learned, whether the violin, or any instrument of that kind, as now played with a bow, was known to the ancients. The little figure of Apollo, playing on a kind of violin, with something like a bow, in the grand duke's tribuna at Florence, which Mr. Addison and others supposed to be antique, has been proved to be modern by the abbé Winckelmann and Mr. Mings. So that as this was the only piece of sculpture reputed ancient, in which any thing like a bow could be found, nothing more remains to be discussed relative to that point. With respect to an instrument with a double neck, besides that on the broken obelisk at Rome, and one from a sepulchral grotto in the ancient city of Tarquinia, there is an antique painting in the collection of William Locke, esq. which consists of a single figure, supposed to be a muse, with an instrument nearly in the form of a modern violin, but the neck is much longer, and neither bow nor plectrum are discoverable near it. This, as Dr. Burney apprehends, may have been a chelys, which was a species of guitar, either thrummed by the fingers, or twanged with a quill. The ancients had, indeed, instead of a bow, the plectrum; but in all the representations which painting and sculpture have preserved of this implement, it appears too clumsy to produce from the strings tones that had either the sweetness or brilliancy of such as are drawn from them by means of the bow or quill. Dr. Burney supposes, though it is represented so massive, that it was a quill, or piece of ivory in imitation of one, rather than a rick or blunt piece of wood

VIOLIN.

or ivory; and, indeed, Virgil tells us, *Æn. vi. 647*; that it was made of ivory. Burney's *Hist. Mus. vol. i.*

The origin of the violin, according to the French account, is unknown. It is only supposed to have been invented about the ninth or tenth century, to which opinion we should have subscribed, had not some ancient monuments remained with an exact representation of its form. In the pictures of Philostratus, p. 85, in an ancient grotto, may be seen many violins which are represented much like those of the present times, except that the neck is shorter.

Amphion is there represented, p. 76, playing upon a kind of viol or violin with five strings, and with a bow like our's, and quite different from the plectrum of the ancients. It is believed that Athenæus means the bow, when he says, "the sceptre is one thing and the plectrum another." It is imagined that by the sceptre he means the bow, which is very probable, especially after the ancient monuments of which we have preserved the figure. The pit or grotto, on the walls of which we see violins like the present, is found on silver medals which were struck by order of Scribonius Libo, a very considerable personage at Rome. An account of these may be seen in Pierre Valerien, author of the *Hieroglyphics*, book 47.

This is all that antiquity has preserved concerning the violin, and, says the author, it is so little, that we learn nothing from it.

The rebec is the most ancient violin in France; it had but three strings, and the romancers and troubadours frequently mention it. A figure of the minstrel Colin Mufet, is still preserved at the entrance of the church of St. Julien des Menestriers, at Paris, playing on the rebec.

The time is not known when a fourth string was added to this instrument. It is still used in its primitive state as a trichord in Turkey and other Eastern countries; the oldest violins we have in France are not more ancient than the time of Charles IX. made at Cremona by the famous Amati, which are still of the best model possible. Laborde, tom. i.

The violin seems to have been brought into favour at the court of France before any honourable mention is made of it elsewhere, by the arrival of Baltazarini, a great performer on that instrument; who, at the head of a band of violin-players, was sent from Piedmont by marshal Brissac to Catherine de Medicis, and appointed by that princess her first valet de chambre and superintendent of her music. Galilei (*Dial. p. 147.*) says, that "both the violin and bafe, or violoncello, were invented by the Italians, perhaps by the Neapolitans;" and we are unable to confute that opinion. Corelli's violin, long in the possession of Giardini, was made in 1578, and the case painted by Annibal Caracci, probably several years after the violin was finished, at which time Anib. Caracci was but eight years old. Montagne, who was at Verona in 1580, says that there were organs and violins to accompany the masks in the great church. *Journ. du Voyage.*

The restoration of monarchy and episcopacy seems to have been not only favourable to sacred music, but secular; for it may be ascribed to the particular pleasure which king Charles II. received from the gay and sprightly sound of the violin, that this instrument was introduced at court, and the houses of the nobility and gentry for any other purpose than country-dances, and festive mirth. Hitherto there seem to have been no public concerts; and in the music of the chamber, in the performance of *fancies* on instruments, which had taken place of vocal madrigals and motets, the violin had no admission, the whole business having been done by viols.

VOL. XXXVII.

After Charles had, in imitation of Lewis XIV., established a band of twenty-four violins, tenors, and bafes, instead of the viols, lutes, and cornets, of which the court band used to consist, the violin family began to rise in reputation, and had an honourable place assigned it in the music of the court, the theatres, and the chamber; and the success of performers and compositions with which the nation was afterwards supplied from Italy and elsewhere, stimulated the practice and established the character of that class of instruments, which have ever since been universally acknowledged to be the pillars of a well-ordered orchestra. A general passion for this instrument, and for pieces expressly composed for it, as well as a taste for Italian music, seem to have been excited in this country about the latter end of Charles II.'s reign, when French music and French politics became equally odious to a great part of the nation. The Hon. Mr. North, brother of the lord keeper North, who listened critically to every kind of music, and left manuscript memoirs of the music of his time, still in the possession of his family, says, that the decay of French music, and favour of the Italian, came on by degrees. Its beginning was accidental, and occasioned by the arrival of Nicola Matteis.

During the last century, almost all the great violinists of Europe, except Somis and Tartini, have visited this country; but Giardini, at one time perhaps the best performer in Europe, residing here for many years, formed a school which furnished our orchestras with a greater number of able performers on that instrument, than can be found in the capital of any other kingdom in Europe. And we may venture to assert from our own knowledge, that the lowest ripieno in the opera orchestra at present, has more hand, and is a better sight's-man, than the leader of that band in Felling's time.

The violin consists, like most other instruments, of three parts; the *neck*, the *table*, and the *soundboard*.

At the side are two apertures, and sometimes a third towards the top, shaped like a heart.

Its bridge, which is below the apertures, bears up the strings, which are fastened to the two extremes of the instrument; at one of them by a screw, which stretches or loosens them at pleasure.

The style and sound of the violin are the gayest and most sprightly of all other instruments; and hence it is, of all instruments, the fittest for dancing. Yet there are ways of touching it, which render it grave, soft, languishing, and fit for church or chamber music.

It generally makes the treble, or highest parts in concerts. Its harmony is from 5th to 5th. Its play is composed of bafe, counter-tenor, tenor, and treble; to which may be added a fifth part: each part has four 5ths, which rise to a greater 17th.

In compositions of music, violin is expressed by V: two V V denote two violins.

The word violin, alone, stands for treble violin: when the Italians prefix *alto*, *tenore*, or *basso*, it then expresses the counter-tenor, tenor, or bafe violin.

In compositions where there are two, three, or more different violins, they make use of *primo*, *secondo*, *terzo*, or of the characters I^o II^o III^o, or I^o 2^o 3^o, &c. to denote the difference.

The violin has only four strings, each of a different thickness, the smallest of which makes the *e* *f* *mi* of the highest octave of the organ; the second, a fifth below the first, makes the *a* *m* *la*; the third, a fifth below the second, is *d* *la* *re*; lastly, the fourth, a fifth below the third, is *g* *re* *sol*. Most nations, ordinarily, use the clef *g* *re* *sol* on the second line, to denote the music for the violin; only, in

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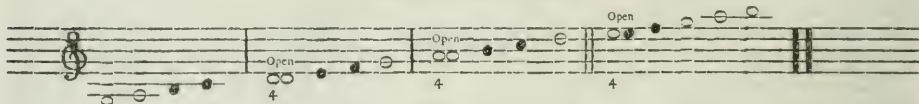
France,

France, they use the same clef as the first line at bottom: the first of these methods is best, where the song goes very low; the second where it goes very high.

Merfennus speaks of the tenor and contra-tenor violin, which, he says, differ only in magnitude from the treble violin. But we have at present no such instrument in use as the contra-tenor violin; the part proper to it being with ease performed on the violin; and accordingly in concertos, overtures, and other instrumental compositions of many parts, the second violin is in reality the counter-tenor part. It is

much to be doubted, says sir John Hawkins (Hist. Mus. vol. iv. p. 115.) whether the counter-tenor violin ever came into England. Anth. Wood, speaking of the band of Charles II., makes no mention of the contra-tenor violin. Before the restoration of Charles II. says he, and especially after, viols begun to be out of fashion, and only violins used, as treble violin, tenor and base violin; and the king, according to the French mode, would have twenty-four violins playing before him while he was at meals, as being more airy and brisk than viols.

Natural Scale for the Violin.



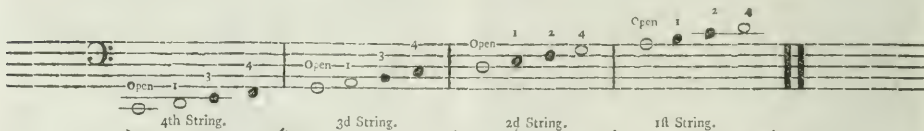
VIOLINO PICCOLO, Ital. a kit, or the pocket-violin of dancing-masters.

VIOLINO SCORDATO, Ital., a fiddle out of tune.

VIOLONCELLO, the diminutive of *violone*, *contrabasso*, or double-bass. The violoncello is the natural base to the violin and tenor, and has been very much cultivated throughout Europe, and no where more successfully than in England, during the last century, in proportion as the base-viol or fix-stringed base lost its favour. The last English performer on the viol di gamba, who was favourably noticed, was Miss Ford, afterwards Mrs. Thicknes; but she made little more use of it than in accompanying her voice, which she did with great expression and effect. But Abel, in spite of the natural defects of the instrument, the tone of which every one disliked, by his exquisite taste, prodigious execution when he pleased, genius, and profound knowledge of composition, delighted all hearers, and made them forget, or at least forgive, its querulous and nasal quality of tone. The instrument now is as dead as the great musician, and seems to have departed this life at the same time.

The first performer on the violoncello in our memory, who was always heard with pleasure, was Caporale, whose chief excellence was his fine tone. Gordon and Paxton had considerable merit of that kind. The elder Cervetto and Pasqualino, both defective in tone, had what was then thought considerable execution and knowledge of the finger-board; but Crofdil and the younger Cervetto became in all respects the most complete and delightful performers on the violoncello, which not only England but all Europe can boast. So equally perfect in all things else are these admirable artists, that the fire of the one, and the vocal tone of the other, can alone distinguish them. But, to the great regret of the public, they have retired from all professional exercise of their talents. We have however many performers on the violoncello for general business, who would have been thought wonderful players formerly; and to console us a little for the loss of Cervetto and Crofdil, a Linley, who in every requisite of a great player, may be pronounced wonderful at present (1804).

Diatonic Scale of the Violoncello, without Shifts.



VIOLONE, a double-bass, almost twice as big as the common base-violin, and the strings bigger and longer, in proportion; and, consequently, its sound an octave lower than that of our base-violin; which has a noble effect in great concertos; but this depends upon the number of strings, and the manner of tuning them; some performers using four strings, and others three; and in the tuning of these there is a considerable difference. The true use of the violone is to sustain the harmony, and in this respect it has a noble effect: divided bases are improper for it, the strings not answering immediately to the percussion of the bow: these can only be executed with a good effect on the violoncello, the sounds of which are more articulate and distinct.

VIOLONISTA, Ital., a performer on the violin.

UJON, in *Geography*, a town of Persia, in the province of Chusistan; 35 miles N.N.W. of Eftachar.

VIOTTI, —, in *Biography*, a good composer and great performer on the violin. He is a native of Turin, and said to be the son of the prince de Carignan's gardener, and intended by his father to be brought up to his own profession, discouraging as much as possible his passion for music, which he early discovered; and even complaining to the prince that he should never make a gardener of him, as he was always scraping upon a bad fiddle. The prince advised his father to send him to Pugnani, and if he discovered in him the seeds of genius and promising talents, he would prevail on him to take the boy as a scholar or an apprentice.

Pugnani immediately discovered, that with proper cultivation, he would soon distinguish himself among professors of the first class; an opinion which a few years confirmed.

In 1783 he went to Paris, and first performed at the concert spirituel, was extremely applauded, and increased in favour

favour till the time of the Revolution, when the Convention invited foreigners to assist them with their counsel in framing a new government, and elected as deputies many strangers; among the rest, Viotti was chosen a member of the senate, who had mounted to great eminence in his profession, and was a favourite of the public.

He continued to act as a deputy till Danton, Marat, and Robespierre had disgraced the cause of liberty, and excited such horror as well as terror in every humane breast, that he emigrated to England, where he was received as his professional merit deserved; till an information was lodged against him at the duke of Portland's office (perhaps by jacobinical emissaries from Paris), that he attended jacobinical clubs, and was caballing against the state. He was ordered to quit the kingdom; but at the peace returned, though not as a musician or a politician, but established himself in London as a wine-merchant, and has never been heard in public since his second arrival, which is much lamented by the lovers of music. Yet, though he is no longer a public performer, we may, perhaps without impropriety, give our sentiments concerning his abilities as a composer; and confess, that it has often struck us, in the midst of our sincere admiration of Viotti's great abilities, that his style of composition was a *mescolanza dell' antica e moderna*; writing sometimes with all the solidity of the great Italian masters of the old school, and sometimes with the levity and frivolity of the French in modern times. He may perhaps have done this insensibly, in trying to please in a style which was the most certain of applause. We have sometimes, in his grave and elaborate movements, thought he resembled Geminiani more than any other old master, with more rhythm and pathos, and indeed with more decided and meditated plans and subjects; but in his latter movements and finales, he generally degenerates into French *naïveté*, or rather *niaiserie*, which makes us forget that Viotti is a native of Italy, and a disciple of Pugnani, whom he greatly surpasses, when he does his best, both in hand and genius.

He has been a considerable publisher of pieces for his instrument, which, though every one cannot play, yet all admire, when played.

In 1786, he published at Paris, Berlin, and Amsterdam, twelve violin concertos, in nine and twelve parts; and the next year six violin quartets. Most of his pieces have been adapted to the piano-forte by other masters. The last work which he published at Paris, was six duets for violins.

VIOR, or DIUR, in *Ancient Geography*, a river of Africa, in Mauritania Tingitana, according to Pliny and Ptolemy. Hardouin says that it is now named Sus; a river of which name is known on the confines of the kingdom of Morocco.

VIORNA, in *Botany*, an old synonym of our common Traveller's Joy, *Clematis vitalba*, and evidently of a similar meaning, being derived from *via*, a road, and *orno*, to adorn. Gerard, who thus explains the word, declares himself the author of the English name. *Viorna* is transferred by Linnæus to another species of *Clematis*, with which it had originally no connexion. See CLEMATIS.

VIPACH, in *Geography*. See WIPACI.

VIPALANKA, or UJ PALANKA, a fortress of Hungary, in the bannat of Temesvar, on a small river which runs into the Danube; 50 miles S. of Temesvar. N. lat. 45°. E. long. 21°.

VIPAO, a river of Carniola, which runs into the Lisonzo, in the county of Goritz.

VIPATORE, a town of Hindoostan, in Baramaul; 28 miles E. of Darampoury.

VIPER, VIPERA, in *Natural History*, the *coluber berus* of

Linnæus, famed not only for the exceeding venomousness of its bite, which is one of the most dangerous poisons in the animal kingdom, but also for the great usefulness of its flesh in medicine; whence vipers come to make a considerable article in the materia medica.

We have described the common viper, as well as some other species, under the article COLUMBER, and have detailed some of the most interesting particulars relating to this animal. Under the article POISON, we have considered the nature of its venom, and some of the usual remedies applied as antidotes to its pernicious and usually fatal effects. We shall not here repeat the observations that may be found under those articles.

The method of catching vipers is by putting a cleft-stick on or near their head, after which they are seized by the tail, and put into a bag.

Dr. Mead observes, that the ancients esteemed the viper sacred; and that the kings of the East Indies caused cottages to be built for their entertainment, and their killers to be punished with death. On medals, the viper is frequently represented as a symbol of divine power; and, as such, given by way of attribute to the ancient physicians.

The story of the rattle-snake's charming its prey has been seriously discredited or ridiculed by many, and by others the effects of the animal's fear have been supposed the result of a previous bite; but we have reason to be less incredulous, if we advert to an experiment mentioned in the Philosophical Transactions, of a like thing in regard to a viper. It is well known that no viper will feed while in confinement, except a female which is with young, but that such a one will. A viper-catcher, who had more than sixty living vipers in a chest, put a living mouse in among them; there happened to be one female big with young among these, none of the others at all regarded the mouse, but she raised up her head a little, and looked furiously at it. The mouse was terrified, and stood still for a considerable time, though the viper continued rolled up in a spiral, only raising up its head and looking at it, and vibrating its tongue; the mouse at length recovered from its fright, and began to move, but without running away, only walking in a terrified manner round and round the viper, and often squeaking; at length she came before the head of the creature, which was still raised, and the mouth open. The mouse, after some time, went up to the creature, and crept into its mouth, where she was gradually swallowed without the viper's altering its posture.

By Mr. Boyle's experiments made upon vipers *in vacuo*, it appeared, that on the withdrawing of the air from the vessel where the viper was put, she began to swell, and after some time, she opened her mouth very wide, and frequently; but on continuing two hours and a half in the receiver, she did not appear to be quite dead. The gaping of the jaws was attended with a loss of the swelling, observed at first in her whole body; but after every time closing them she swelled again, and thus became lank and plump reciprocally many times in an hour. During the first moments this creature crawled about, as if in search of air, and afterwards foamed at the mouth.

The neck and body continued swelled longer in a second experiment with another viper, and a blister appeared on the back. This creature lived an hour and a half. The mouth remained vastly distended after death, and the internal parts of it were much distorted, and thrust forwards. After the admission of the air the mouth closed, and opened again after a time; and, in fine, on pinching the tail there was some motion perceived in the body that seemed to argue life. The common snake bears the exhausted receiver

better than the viper, and, after many hours remaining in it, and seeming dead, will give signs of life on being warmed by bringing the glass to the fire; but a longer continuance in the rarefied air absolutely kills it, as it does all other creatures. Phil. Transf. No. 62.

As to the manner in which the viper conveys its poison, authors are a little disagreed. Francisco Redi, and Moïse Charras, have each of them written very curious pieces on the subject; but their result is very different.

Redi maintains, that all the venom of the viper is contained in the two vesiculae, or bags, which cover the base of the two canine teeth; whence, upon biting, a yellowish liquor is squeezed out into the wound; where, mixing with the blood, and other juices, it produces those dreadful symptoms. This hypothesis he maintains by a great number of experiments; as of animals, viz. cocks, &c. being bit with vipers, after these vesiculae and their juice had been taken out, without any signs of poison; or any ill consequence at all.

Charras, on the other hand, maintains, that this yellow liquor is not poisonous; that he has given it to pigeons as food, without their being at all disordered by it; that the viper's bite he has always found mortal to animals, even after the bag has been taken clear out, as well as before; and lastly, that the poison must lie in the irritated spirits of the viper, which it exhales in the ardor of its biting, and which are so cold, that they curdle the blood, and stop the circulation.

The controversy between these two ingenious authors is very extraordinary; their systems are opposite, yet both are maintained by a great number of well-attested experiments.

Dr. Mead supposes the sentiment of Sig. Redi to be the true one, in his essay on the poison of the viper, and adds to Redi's account, that the poison in the viper's bag is separated from the blood by a conglomerate gland, lying in the lateral interior part of the os incisivis, behind the orbit of the eye; from which gland there is a duct that conveys the poison to the bags at the teeth. The teeth, he adds, are tubulated, for the conveyance and emission of the poison into the wound; but their hollowness does not reach to the apex, or tip of the tooth, but ends in a long slit below the point, out of which slit the poison is emitted.

These slits, or perforations of the teeth, Galen tells us, the mountebanks of his days used to stop with some kind of paste; after which they would publicly expose themselves to be bitten without danger.

The abbé Fontana, in a treatise on the poison of the viper, first published in Italian, in 1765, and, in 1776, translated into French by M. Darcet, who has made several additions to it, has given the result of no less than six thousand experiments, in which upwards of four thousand animals were bitten, and most of them killed by the vipers.

The viper, he says, has sometimes four, seldom three, but generally two canine teeth in each jaw, falcated and infixed and fixed in a socket; at their bases, and behind them, are six or seven smaller teeth, adhering by a membrane, which, it is thought, are intended to supply the place of the larger teeth, sometimes lost in the act of biting. A similar conjecture, with respect to the use of the same kind of teeth in the rattle-snake, was made by Dr. Bartram. Phil. Transf. No. 456. p. 358; or Abr. vol. ix. p. 60.

Each of these has two cavities; one tubular, beginning near the base, and proceeding along the convex side nearly

to the end, and open at each end; the aperture near the base being almost elliptical, and the other longitudinal; the other cavity, situated behind the former, and never before observed, is broad at the base, and diminishes as it approaches towards the point. It has only one aperture at the insertion in the gum, through which the nerves and blood-vessels of the tooth are admitted. The fibrous sheath, that covers all these teeth, seems to be a continuation of the external membrane of the palate, being always open near the points of the teeth. The receptacle of the venom is a small bladder, a spongy gland, situated under the muscles of the side of the upper jaw, and seldom containing more than three or four drops of a yellow fluid, which is conveyed thence by an excretory duct to the socket of the canine teeth, whence it enters the lower aperture of the tube, and finds its way out again at the longitudinal orifice, near the point, into the internal part of the wound occasioned by the bite: this fluid receives its impulse from a constrictor muscle, which, however, never propels at once the whole of the contents of the gland. For an account of the effects of the viper's bite, we refer to COLUBER, BERUS, and POISON. See also WOUNDS.

The cure of the venomous bites of vipers seems very unsettled: Mr. Boyle found a hot iron held near the place very successful; but it proved otherwise with M. Charras. Again, the snake-root from the East Indies, immediately applied to the place, is much commended; but signor Redi and M. Charras found it of no use; yet Baglivi and Dr. Havers give instances of its good success.

Dr. Mead adds, that the snake-stone, directly applied to a pigeon when bitten, saved its life four hours; whereas most of the other pigeons bitten died in half an hour.

This stone is not natural, but factitious; its virtue lies in its porosity, which is supposed to imbibe the virus.

The viper-catchers, Dr. Mead adds, have a specific, in which they can so far confide as not to be afraid of being bitten.

That specific is, the axungia of the viper presently rubbed into the wound; which, consisting of clammy, viscid, penetrating and active parts, sheathes the salts of the virus.

The same author applying it to the nostrils of a dog bitten, found the creature well the next day: when this is not timely applied, and the virus has insinuated into the blood, the sal viper is excellent, given and repeated till sweats be produced. This succeeded well with M. Charras; and Dr. Mead relates, that it recovered one after the virus had induced an universal icterus.

The bite of the viper having been supposed certainly curable by oil of olives, vulgarly called salad-oil, alone; and a viper-catcher in England having suffered himself to be bitten by one of these creatures, and having recovered, after many dangerous symptoms, and the cure being attributed to the oil alone, though other medicines were given him internally; in consequence of which, Dr. Vater tried the same remedy with success at Dresden: Messrs. Geoffroy and Hunauld, of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris, made a number of experiments, in which this oil proved ineffectual; and added to their accounts, some other persons bitten, in which all the dreadful consequences of that poison are shewn, and the remedies by which they were cured are mentioned. Philof. Transf. N^o 443, 444, 445; or Abr. vol. ix. p. 60.

Two instances are mentioned, in which the symptoms of the bite appeared much in the same manner with those of the man who suffered himself to be bitten in England, in order to be cured by the oil. The sleep came on in all the same circumstances, and they were all cured, as well he who

who used no unctuous application at all, as he who used the fat of the vipers, or the Englishman who depended upon oil. The internal medicines given to them all were of much the same kind; and all that can be concluded from the whole is, that either these bites would not have proved mortal in themselves, or that the cordial medicines which they took internally, were the remedies that prevented the mischief that would have ensued; and these seem to have acted not as specifics against the bite of this animal, but merely as medicines that would stop the spreading of a gangrene; the unprevented increase of which is the thing that proves fatal from the creature's bite.

The dissections of the animals which had died by the bite of the viper, whether they had or had not been rubbed with oil, afforded all the same appearances. The limb which had received the wound was in all swelled and livid, and these symptoms were usually carried along the thigh to the belly, and sometimes up to the breast. Incisions made along these parts always discovered the cellules of the membrana adiposa full of bloody-coloured water, and the membrane itself was swelled, blackish, and gangrened. And this appeared always more plainly in the belly than in any other part: the membrana adiposa in all other parts of the body was in its natural state. The injured parts often had a cadaverous smell; the muscles of the wounded limb were also found of a brownish colour, and their fibres had lost their confidence, and seemed ready to give way to the approaching gangrene. Nor is this effect confined to the external parts alone: a groove that had been bitten had three gangrenous spots on its heart, and all the indications of a beginning gangrene in other parts of it; the concave side of the liver was also gangrened, and had wholly lost its confidence; and the lungs of a fowl, that had been bitten on the wing, were found in part gangrened. The effects, however, were different in degree, from the bite of the several vipers; and there seems no reason to doubt, but that the bites of different animals, though of the same species, under different circumstances, either in regard to the creature wounding, or the creature wounded, may be followed with very different consequences; so that remedies are not to be depended on from their success in one or two trials. Mem. Acad. Scienc. Par. 1737.

The poison of the viper is only noxious when immediately conveyed into the blood. Nor is it mortal to eat the flesh of creatures killed by vipers, or to drink the wine in which they have been drowned, or to suck the parts they have wounded. On the contrary, signor Redi says, sucking the wound is a sovereign remedy against the bite of vipers. This author denies what has been affirmed by Aristotle and Galen, that the spittle of a fasting person kills vipers. Phil. Trans. N^o 9. p. 160.

The practice of sucking out poisons is very ancient, and indeed nothing can be more rational. Where the bite cannot be cut out, this is the most likely way for extracting the poison. There can be no danger in performing this office, as the poison does no harm, unless it is taken into the body by a wound. The person who sucks the wound ought, however, to wash his mouth frequently with salad-oil, which will secure him from the least inconvenience.

The Pylly in Africa, and the Merfi in Italy, were famed for curing the bites of poisonous animals, by sucking the wound; and we are told that the Indians in North America practise the same at this day.

When the wound is well sucked, it should be afterwards rubbed with warm salad-oil. A poultice of bread and milk, softened with salad-oil, should likewise be applied

to it, and the patient should drink freely of vinegar-why, or water-gruel with vinegar in it, to make him sweat. Vinegar is, indeed, one of the best medicines which can be used in any kind of poison, and ought to be taken very liberally. If the patient be sick, he may take a vomit. This course, says Dr. Buchan, will be sufficient to cure the bite of any of the poisonous animals of this country.

Dr. Brookes says, that the following remedy, which was the invention of a negro, who for the discovery obtained his freedom and a pension for life of 100*l. per annum*, from the general assembly of Carolina, has been found effectual for the bite of the rattle-snake. The prescription is as follows: Take of the roots of plantain and horehound in summer, roots and branches together, a sufficient quantity; bruise them in a mortar, and squeeze out the juice, of which give, as soon as possible, one large spoonful; if the patient be swelled, force it down his throat. This generally will cure: but if he finds no relief an hour after, give him another spoonful, which is said never to fail. If the roots are dried, they must be moistened with a little water. To the wound may be applied a leaf of good tobacco moistened with rum.

Messrs. Jussieu and Le Sage strongly recommend the use of the volatile fluor alkali as an antidote against the venom of vipers; but if the proofs alleged by the abbé Fontana, that the poison of vipers is not of an acid nature, be admitted, the utility of the alkali must be precluded. The abbé adds, that cantharides, applied outwardly, always did mischief by increasing the inflammation; when given inwardly, they operated as an emetic, which is sometimes beneficial. Scarifications produced the same effects with the external application of cantharides: Peruvian bark, theriaca, oils, the suction of leeches, and of the mouth, were all found ineffectual. He also explodes, in this case, the boasted virtue of the Piedra de Cobras, as an alexipharmic. Quicklime also, when applied to the wound in pigeons, has sometimes been of use, but not so as to justify any confidence in the remedy.

Upon the whole this writer infers, that the greatest security we have against the bite of vipers in one species, is the little probability of its being poisonous to the degree that has been always imagined, and that has caused such dreadful alarms, which alone are sufficient to irritate a tainted habit. He also doubts whether the bite of the rattle-snake is actually so venomous as is generally imagined. See Fontana *pour les Poisons et sur le Corps Animal*, &c. in 2 vols. 4to. Florence.

Vipers make a considerable article in medicine. Most authors agree, that there is no part, humour, or excrement, not even the gall itself of a viper, but may be swallowed without harm. Accordingly the ancients, and, as several authors assure us, the Indians, as well as many other people at this day, both of the East and West, eat them as we do eels.

Caro viperina, viper's flesh, either roasted or boiled, the physicians have unanimously prescribed as an excellent restorative; and it has been particularly recommended in the elephantiasis, incurable consumptions, leprosy, &c.; and Dr. Mead thinks they might be less sparing in the quantity than they are: instead of a little viper's flesh, he recommends the broth or jelly of vipers; or, as the ancients did, to boil and eat them as fish, or at least to drink *vinum viperinum*, i. e. wine in which they have been long infused.

Viper's flesh, indeed, appears to be very nutritious, and therefore an useful restorative in some kinds of weakness and emaciated habits; but in scrophulous, leprosy, and other like distempers, the good effects which have been ascribed

ascribed to it are more uncertain. Dr. Lewis says, that he has known a viper taken every day for above a month, in disorders of the leprous kind, without any apparent benefit.

The form in which they are used to the best advantage, is that of broth, or jus viperinum.

Viper's flesh used to be an ingredient in several of our best antidotes, as the theriaca Andromach. &c.

The apothecaries also formerly sold the pulvis viperinus, which is only dried vipers pulverized, heart, liver, and all, and passed through a sieve. This, to heighten the price, we suppose, they call *animal bezoard*.

The salts of vipers, whether volatile or fixed, also their fat, or xungia, and their oil, chemically drawn, are drugs that have been in considerable repute.

The fat of the viper is accounted particularly useful in disorders of the eyes; but what advantages it has above other soft fats, is by no means clear. It was formerly supposed to have some specific power of resisting the poison of the viper's bite, by being rubbed immediately on the wounded part; but experience has now shewn, that common oil is, in this intention, of equal efficacy. Lewis. See *COLUBER Berus*.

VIPER, Bites and Stings of, in Animals, the affections which it produces in these ways. The bites of such reptiles should constantly be guarded against as much as possible, as they are not unfrequently attended with dangerous consequences. Animals of the neat-cattle kind are more liable to be bitten and stung by these reptiles, than those of any other sort of live-stock. Instances have been known where the tongues of such cattle have even been bitten or stung while grazing or feeding, which have proved fatal. Such stock are, however, seldom attacked by reptiles of the adder kind, except in cases where these are disturbed by the animals in pasturing or feeding; which is the main reason why so many of them are bitten or stung about the head, and occasionally the feet. There are mostly much pain, inflammation, and swelling produced by these bites and stings; the progress of which may commonly be checked or stopped, and the complaint removed, by the use of such means as are directed below.

A sort of soft liquid of the liniment kind may be prepared by mixing strong spirit of hartshorn, saponaceous liniment, spirit of turpentine, and tincture of opium, with olive-oil; the former in the proportion of about two ounces each to three of the last, incorporating them well together by shaking them in a phial, which will be found very useful in many cases. A proper quantity of it should be well rubbed upon the affected part, two or three times in the course of the day, until the inflammation and swelling begin to disappear, after the bottle has been well shaken.

In the more dangerous cases, it may often be advantageous to use fomentations to the affected parts, especially when about the head, with the above application; such as those made by boiling white poppy-heads with the roots of the marshmallow, the leaves of the large plantain, and the tops of wormwood, in the quantities of a few ounces of the first, and a handful of each of the latter, when cut small, and bruised in five or six quarts of the stale grounds of malt liquor. They may be applied frequently to the diseased parts, rubbing them afterwards each time well with the above soft liquid liniment. Where there are feverish appearances, as is often the case in the summer season, a proper quantity of blood may sometimes be taken away with great benefit, and a strong purge be afterwards given of the cooling kind with much use.

In slight cases of this kind, some think the continued free use of spirit of hartshorn, given internally, and applied ex-

ternally to the affected parts, is the best remedy of any that is yet known.

As they are so dangerous, these reptiles should always be destroyed as much as possible in all pastures and grazing grounds.

VIPER Wine, Vinum Viperinum, is a preparation of vipers infused in wine. It is commonly made by macerating for a week, with a gentle heat, two ounces of the dried flesh in three pints of mountain. This has been deemed a great restorative, and provocative to venery, and also good against cutaneous eruptions, &c.

But Dr. Lewis observes, that it cannot perhaps be affirmed from fair experience, that this wine has any great virtue.

VIPER's Bugloss, in Botany. See *ECHIUM*.

The flowers of the viper's bugloss are supposed to possess the virtue of cordials, in the same degree with the borage and bugloss. Some authors greatly recommend a decoction of the dried plant in epilepsies. It is said that very singular cures have been done by it.

VIPER's Graft. See *SCORZONERA*.

The roots of the common viper's grafts, or *scorzonera Hispanica* of Linnaeus, have been employed indifferently as alexipharmics, and in hypochondriacal disorders and obstructions of the viscera; but at present are more properly considered as alimentary articles, in general salubrious, and moderately nutritious. They abound with a milky juice, of a soft, sweetish taste, but which, in drying, contracts a slight bitterness. Extracts made from them by water are considerably sweet and mucilaginous: extracts made by rectified spirit have a less degree of sweetness, accompanied with a slight grateful warmth.

In Cartheuser's experiments, the spirituous extract amounted to one-third the weight of the root, and the watery to above one-half. Lewis.

VIPER Key, in Geography, one of the Tortugas islands.

VIPERA PILEATA, or Vittata, in Zoology, a name by which some authors have called a remarkable species of Indian serpent, more usually known by the name of *Cobra de capella*.

VIPERARIA, in Botany, a name given by some authors to the *scorzonera*, or viper's grafts.

VIPITANUM, in Ancient Geography, a town of Germany, between Veldidana and Sublavio, thought to be the present Stortzingen, or rather Amoluz, a village at the foot of mount Brenner.

VIPPACH, in Geography, a town of Germany, in the territory of Erfurt; 8 miles N. of Erfurt.—Also, a river of Thuringia, which runs into the Gram; 3 miles S. of Sommerda.

VIPPACH, Marck, a town of Germany, in the principality of Eisenach; 7 miles N.E. of Erfurt.

VIPULZAN, a town of Austria, in the county of Goritz; 6 miles W. of Goritz.

VIQUE, or VICA, a town of Spain, in Catalonia; the see of a bishop, suffragan of Tarragona; 22 miles W.S.W. of Gerona. N. lat. 41° 54'. E. long. 2° 8'.

VIR, in Ancient Geography, a river of Spain, the mouth of which, according to Ptolemy, is near the promontory on which was the altars of the sun.

VIRABADRA, in Hindoo Mythology, a warlike character, usually spoken of as a son of Siva, the avenging form of the trimurti, or divine triad of that polytheistic race. (See *SIVA* and *TRIMURTI*.) Sometimes he is said to be an incarnation of Siva. He is usually represented four-armed; holding a sword, shield, bow, and arrow; and in a threatening pursuing posture, accompanied by Sivean attributes;

attributes; such as collar of skulls, linga, &c. (See LINGA and SAIVA.) A human figure with a ram's head, and a handsome female figure, are commonly seen beside him, in the act of adoration. Some account of Virabadra, with representations of him from metallic casts, may be seen in the Hindoo Pantheon.

Virabadra is a personage of extensive and ancient celebrity. His exploits, parentage, &c. are recorded in the Sivpurana, and his name frequently occurs in other Sanscrit works. (See PURANA.) In the sacred poem just named, it is said that he was produced from a drop of Siva's sweat. He is understood, as one of the offspring of Siva, to be included in the denomination of Bhairava; a word derived from *bheru*, meaning terrific or tremendous. It is written, and we believe more correctly pronounced, *Vairava*; which name is given to another supposed son or incarnation of Siva. See VAIRAVA.

Sonnerat mentions Virabadra as a Carnatic deity; calling him, in his inaccurate mode of writing Eastern names, Virapatin. He calls him Siva's fourth son, produced with a thousand heads and a thousand arms, by the sweat of his body, to avert the effects of a sacrifice. He is sometimes called also Bhir Bhadr.

The other three sons of Siva, mentioned by Sonnerat, are, we suppose, *Kartika*, *Pollear*, and *Vairava*. See those articles.

VIRACELLUM, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Italy, in Liguria, S.E. of Aupa.

VIRAGO, a woman of extraordinary stature and courage, and who, with the female sex, has the mien and air of a man, and performs the actions and exercises of men.

The word is pure Latin, formed from *vir*, man, and is seldom used but in the way of diversion.

Such were Semiramis and Penthesilea among the ancients; and Jeanne la Pucelle, commonly called *The Maid of Orleans*, among the moderns.

In the Vulgate version of the bible, Eve is called *virago*, because made of the rib of man. The Latin translator by this, aimed to preserve the etymology as it is in the Hebrew, and of *vir*, formed *virago*; as Adam, in the Hebrew text, called Eve *Ischa*, of *isch*, man.

VIRAGUE, in *Geography*, a town of Hindoostan, in Dowlatabad; 25 miles E. of Perinda.

VIRAJ, in *Hindoo Mythology*, a very mysterious personification, originating immediately from the godhead, in a manner not reconcilable to minds which have happily shaken off the trammels of idolatry and superstition. In the early portion of the Institutes of Menu (ch. i. v. 32.) it is said, "Having divided his own substance, the mighty power became half male, half female (or, says the commentator, *nature active and passive*); and from that female he produced Viraj." Menu next tells us that he himself was the person produced by the male power Viraj, and that he produced her lords of created beings eminent in holiness. These are usually called Brahmadikas, or offspring of Brahma; but the Puranas do not agree as to their number: sometimes nine, seven, and three only are mentioned. Considerable difficulty is found in the attempt to reconcile the apparent contradictions in the histories of these early personages; who, it may be reasonably imagined, have had historical existence, though so much obscured by the fictions of mythology.

All travellers who have visited the cavern temple, called by the English Elephanta, have been struck with a colossal one-breasted figure; and various have been the conjectures as to its allusion. The author of the Hindoo Pantheon, who has examined the temple in question, reasonably judges

it to be a representation of Viraj, or nature active and passive; and he gives several representations of similar subjects from original pictures. (See SIVA.) In our article ELEPHANTA we have noticed the supposition of some travellers, that the one-breasted armed female alluded to the fable of the Amazons. It is now found that the Hindoos also have fables of islands inhabited only by warlike women, who are called, in the Persian translations of these stories, Hamazen; which word means, in that language, *all-women*. (See on this curious subject, Moor on Hindoo Infanticide, p. 82.) The whole ground-work of the Amazonian fable may, therefore, have come from India to the embellishing Greeks, as well as the notion of male and female deities; all originating possibly in the mysterious sexual union, the subject of this article.

In the Hindoo mythology, the co-equality of the male and female power is asserted. There is less sexual confusion among the Hindoo than among the Greek deities. Among the latter, the sex of several is very dubious; while others were both male and female. Authority can be produced among western mythologists, making both Minerva and Venus male as well as female. These goddesses correspond with the Parvati and Lakshmi of the Hindoos: the former of whom is seen in the blue figure Viraj; and the latter in her character of Sukra, or the planet Venus, is of the male sex. Soma, the moon of India, is also male, as he was among the Germans and Saxons. The Parthians said that Venus was the moon, and a male deity; as, according to Macrobius, did some western mythologists. See SOMA.

There are fables connected with the history of Krishna, in which he and his mistresses, to conceal the shame of the amorous deity from his enraged consort, were variously metamorphosed. On one occasion, as related in a Purana, "when detected dallying in a grove of scandal with Viraja, the figure of a quadruped concealed his shame; and she was changed into a river." This fable is noticed in our article RADHA. We know not if the nymph of the scandal grove have any connection with the subject of this article.

VIRAMSHAMPETTA, in *Geography*, a town of Hindoostan, in the Carnatic; 9 miles S.W. of Terriore.

VIRANDJIK, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Natolia; 16 miles W. of Kiutaja.

VIRANSHEHR, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Natolia; 42 miles E.N.E. of Boli.

VIRATARUPA, in *Mythology*, a name of the Hindoo god Vishnu; and given also to his warlike incarnation in the person of Rama. See RAMA and VISINU.

VIRBIUS MONS, in *Ancient Geography*, part of a mountain, now called "Mont Albano." The name Virbius (from *vir*, man, and *bis*, twice) is said to have been given to this mountain in honour of Hippolytus, who, having been put to death by a monster, had been restored to life by Diana. From the Appian way another was detached, which led to a temple of Diana on this mount. This mountain was on the Appian way, from which diverged two other ways, one of which led to the temple of Jupiter Latialis, on mount Albano, and the other to the temple of Diana, at the bottom of the centre of the lake of Armenia.

VIRE, in *Geography*, a river of France, which rises near Calvados, and runs into the English Channel, to the north of Higny, between the departments of the Channel and the Calvados.—Also, a town of France, and principal place of a district, in the department of the Calvados; 27 miles S.W. of Caen. N. lat. 48° 51'. W. long. 48'.

VIRE, or *Matraca*, a cape of Arabia, on the coast of the Indian sea; 16 miles N.N.E. of Hafek.

VIREA, in *Botany*, Adanson Fam. des Plantes, v. 2.

112, a name which seems to allude to the more green, and less hoary, herbage of the plants to which it is applied, compared with many of the same tribe; like *Vireo*, the Latin name of the Green-finch. See APARGIA, under the article THIRNIA.

VIRECTA, a word derived from *vireo*, to be verdant, alluding to the verdure of the plant, which however is not peculiarly striking, except in the dried specimens; whose colour, being better preserved than in some of the same natural order, might perhaps suggest to Linnæus the idea of the name. *Virectum* occurs in some copies of Virgil, for a green retreat; but *viretum* is generally supposed the true reading.—Linn. Suppl. 17. Schreb. Gen. 125. Willd. Sp. Pl. v. 1. 972. Mart. Mill. Dict. v. 4. Juss. 200. Poir. in Lamarck Dict. v. 8. 676. (Sipanea; Aubl. Guian. 147. t. 56. Juss. 201, under *Mussenda*. Lamarck Illustr. t. 151.)—Clas and order, *Pentandria Monogynia*. Nat. Ord. *Stellata*, Linn. *Rubiaceæ*, Juss.

Gen. Ch. Cal. Perianth superior, of five narrow-awh-shaped, erect, equal, permanent leaves, with as many solitary, glandular or bristly, intermediate teeth. Cor. of one petal, funnel-shaped; tube thrice as long as the calyx, erect, even; slender below; dilated in the upper half; limb horizontally spreading, in five ovate, or lanceolate, entire, equal segments, not half so long as the tube. Stam. Filaments five, various in length, inserted into the middle of the tube; anthers terminal, very long, linear-awh-shaped, converging, either contained within the tube, or prominent. Pist. Germen inferior, globose, crowned with an elevated rim within the calyx; style thread-shaped, smooth, the length of the tube; stigma in two short, acute, divaricated segments. Peric. Capsule globose with five furrows, hispid, crowned with the upright calyx, of two cells and two valves; the partitions transverse, from the centre of each valve. Recept. central, globose, meeting the partitions. Seeds numerous, small, angular, dotted with minute depressions.

Eff. Ch. Corolla funnel-shaped. Stamens inserted into the tube. Calyx of five leaves, with intermediate teeth. Stigma deeply divided. Capsule inferior, of two cells and two valves, with contrary partitions. Seeds numerous.

Obs. Though Linnæus described this genus with great care and minuteness, he erred in attributing to it a capsule of only one cell. Hence M. Poir. justly doubted the propriety of referring hither the *Sipanea* of Aublet, which has two cells, and if compared with the above description will be found to answer in every material point. The only difference indeed is, that *Sipanea* has five bristles between the calyx-leaves, instead of the minute glands of the original *Virectia*. A circumstance which confirms, rather than invalidates, that part of the generic character.

1. *V. biflora*. Twin-flowered *Virectia*. Linn. Suppl. 134. Syst. Veg. ed. 14. 197. Willd. n. 1. (*V. virens*; Vahl Symb. v. 2. 38. *Rondeletia biflora*; Rottb. Surin. 7. t. 2. f. 2.)—Stem creeping. Flower-stalks unequal, terminal, in pairs. Corolla smooth. Stamens within the tube. Leaves ovate, twice as long as their footstalks.—Native of Surinam, in rather moist situations, where it was gathered by Dalberg and Rolander. The root is fibrous, annual. Stems a foot or more in length, decumbent, throwing out roots from their lower joints, ascending at the extremity, square, a little hairy, leafy, forked. Leaves stalked, opposite, near an inch long, smooth, or nearly so, resembling some *Parietaria*, or *Urtica*. Stipulas small, triangular, opposite, connecting the bases of the footstalks. Flower-stalks from the forks of the stem, some of them terminal, each bearing two reddish flowers, about an inch

long, white in the centre; the lowest of them nearly sessile; Germen bristly. Calyx and Corolla quite smooth.

2. *V. procumbens*. Procumbent *Virectia*.—Stem procumbent. Flowers terminal, aggregate. Corolla bristly. Stamens prominent. Leaves ovate, thrice as long as their footstalks.—Discovered at Sierra Leone, by Mr. Afzelius, to whom we are obliged for a specimen, and for the determination of the genus. This is about the size of the preceding, but is more procumbent, and rather more hairy, especially the stem and footstalks. Leaves similar, but somewhat smaller, and more tapering from their broad base into the footstalk. Flowers in some measure capitate, at the end of the stem or branches, not numerous, smaller than the first species; their corolla with narrow, almost linear, segments, and clothed externally with shining, bristly hairs. Filaments as long as the limb of the corolla, with short purplish anthers.

3. *V. pratenfis*. Savanna *Virectia*. Vahl Eclog. fasc. 2. 11. Schrad. Journ. v. 2. 333. (*Sipanea pratenfis*; Aubl. Guian. 148. t. 56.)—Stem erect. Flowers terminal, aggregate. Corolla smooth. Stamens within the tube. Leaves ovato-lanceolate, stalked.—Abundant in the meadows round the town of Caienne, where it is almost always to be found in flower and seed. Aublet says this herb serves to make altringent decoctions, useful for washing wounds and ulcers, as well as in the gonorrhœa. The root is fibrous; whether annual or otherwise we are not informed. Stems two feet or more in height, roundish, with many opposite branches. Leaves about an inch and a half long, acute, rather tapering at the base, a little hairy, especially their ribs beneath. Footstalks rather short. Stipulas membranous, abrupt. Flowers five, six, or seven, together, in little terminal tufts, white or rose-coloured, about the size of the first species. The corolla appears to be smooth; its segments broad, rounded or obovate. The short filaments, inserted into the middle of the tube, with their anthers of the same length, are altogether concealed therein, and do not reach near so high as the mouth. Calyx fringed with bristles, and furnished with small solitary hairs between its segments; but these do not appear quite so long in Aublet's own specimen as in his figure. The capsule resembles *V. biflora*.

4. *V. multiflora*. Many-flowered *Virectia*.—Stem erect. Flowers terminal, aggregate, numerous. Corolla bristly. Stamens and style longer than the limb. Leaves ovato-lanceolate, nearly sessile.—Found by Mr. Afzelius at Sierra Leone. Very like the last in size and habit, but the stem is rather more quadrangular, and purplish. Leaves an inch and a half or two inches long, deflexed, rounded at the base, hairy, on short stalks. Stipulas lanceolate, hairy. Flowers many together, almost sessile, in dense, hairy, terminal heads. Calyx densely fringed with long bristly hairs, such as clothe the outside of the corolla. The segments of the latter are very narrow, almost linear. The filaments extend beyond them, and are quite capillary, smooth, with shortish terminal anthers. The style is slender, still longer than the filaments, with a small divided stigma. We have not seen the fruit.

VIRELAY, the name of a song among the Provençal poets, which succeeded the *chants royaux*, or royal songs, so called either because Thibaut, comte de Champagne, and king of Navarre, was author of so great a number, or to give them the dignity of poems the most worthy to be sung at court. For different from the Vaudevilles which pass from mouth to mouth, they were produced for the most delicate ears, and performed by the most able musicians of those times. From the chant royal, and from the balade, came the lay and virelay, the rondeau, the triolet,

and

and all those little poems, of which the refrain, or burden, is the most agreeable part.

VIRET, PETER, in *Biography*, a famous Calvinistic divine, was born in 1511, at Orbe, in the canton of Berne, and during his studies at Paris formed an acquaintance with Farel, with whom he co-operated in propagating the doctrines of the Reformation in several towns of Switzerland, and particularly at Geneva, whither he accompanied Farel in 1534. At Lausanne he exercised his ministry with great satisfaction, so that he declined the offer of being colleague with Calvin at Geneva. He is said, in one of his visits to Geneva, to have escaped death by poison, administered to him by the infliction of some of the popish canons of that church, which, though it did not prove instantly fatal, injured his constitution, which was delicate, and shortened his life. From Lausanne he removed to Nîmes and Montpellier, and at length settled at Lyons. But in 1653 he was obliged to quit his station, in consequence of the edict of Charles IX., which prohibited his subjects of the reformed religion from having ministers that were not born in the kingdom. He then retired to Orange, and from thence, by the invitation of the queen of Navarre, to Berne. In 1569 he was in prison, and exchanged for the governor of a town. His death happened, probably at Pau, in 1571, at the age of 60.

Viret possessed a considerable share of learning, and was an eloquent preacher. His works were numerous; of these, several upon the doctrines and superstition of the Romish church were written in a style of ludicrous farcical, but others were serious. His work "On True and False Religion," published at Geneva in 1560, displays much reading on the subject of superstition: but his largest work is "An Exposition of the Doctrine of the Christian Faith," which Dupin depreciates, as he does his small tracts of controversy. Bayle. Dupin.

VIRGA. See YARD.

VIRGA is particularly used in law for *verge*, or rod, such as sheriffs and bailiffs carry, as a badge of their office.

"Ranf. ap Howell, præpositus de Lantiffin amerciatu pro eo quod habuit in manu sua eorum iudiciariis hic virgam nigram & inhonestam, ubi habere debuisset virgum album et honestum certæ longitudinis, prout decet." In fess. Itin. de Cardiff. 7 Hen. VI.

VIRGA Aurea, in *Botany*. See **SOLIDAGO**.

VIRGA Pastoris, a name given by some authors to *dipsacus*; which see.

Where the name *virga pastoris* occurs in the translation of the Arabian writers, it is to be supposed to mean the plant we call *virga pastoris*.

It is, indeed, the literal translation of the hassalerheir of Serapion and Avicenna; but they called the common horse-tail by this name, when they applied the adjective female to it; and when they added the male, they meant by it the common knot-grass.

VIRGA Sanguinea, a name given by Matthioli, and some other authors, to the cornus scæmna, or dogberry-bush, common in our hedges. See **CORNUS**.

VIRGÆ Lateralis Minimus, in *Anatomy*, a name given by some writers to a muscle, called by others levator ani parvus, and by some transversus ani. It is called by Albinus the transversus perinei, and by some transversus penis.

VIRGÆ, in *Physiology*, a meteor, called also *columella*, and *funes tensorii*; being an assemblage of several streams of light, representing a bundle of rods or ropes.

It is supposed owing to the streaming of the sun-beams through certain rimulæ, or chinks; at least through the

more lax and open parts of a watery cloud, happening chiefly in the morning and evening.

There is also another kind, consisting not of streams of mere white light, but, as it were, painted of various colours, like those of the rainbow.

VIRGANTIA, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of the Segusians, according to Ammianus Marcellinus. Strabo names it Brigantium: it is so called by Ptolemy and Anton. Itin.: it is the present Briançon.

VIRGÃO ALBA, a town of Hispania Citerior, called in Anton. Itin. Urcæo, Vircæo, and Virgæo, and marked between Calpurniana and Illiturgis.

VIRGATA SUTURA, a term used by some anatomists for the sagittal suture of the cranium.

VIRGATA Terra, or *Virga Terra*, a yard-land.

VIRGATORES SERVIENTES, in *Fleta*, are vergers, or tip-staves, who attend the judges. See **VERGER**, and **SERGEANT at Arms**.

VIRGI, or **URCA**, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Spain, upon the gulf Virgitanus Sinus.

VIRGIL, **PUBLIUS VIRGILIUS MARO**, in *Biography*, a celebrated Roman poet, whose name is familiar to every classical scholar, was born in the year B.C. 70 at Andes, a village near Mantua, and liberally educated at Cremona, Milan, and Naples. His teacher in philosophy was named Syro, and the philosophy in which he was instructed was the Epicurean. From his first eclogue, in which he is supposed to have related his own adventures under the appellation of Tityrus, it appears that he first visited Rome in his 30th year for the purpose of recovering lands that were in the possession of the military belonging to Octavius and Antony, after the war against the republicans; and having been introduced to Octavius by Pollio, or some other person, and to his subsequent patron Mæcenas, he succeeded in the object of his visit by their influence. His life, however, was endangered by the violence of the veteran who occupied his farm, and who resisted the surrender of it, so that he was obliged to seek redress by another visit to Rome, and to obtain an order for his reinstatement. His eclogues, which were completed in his 33d or 34th year, were very favourably received; and in his 34th year he was induced by Mæcenas to commence his *Georgics*; and during a period of seven years, which he employed in the prosecution of them, he resided chiefly at Naples. The latter years of his life were devoted to the *Æneid*. At this time he was ranked among those friends, who were particularly distinguished by the attention and confidence of Augustus. After the death of Marcellus, in the year B.C. 23, he paid that admirable tribute to his memory, which occurs in the sixth book of the *Æneid*, and concerning which Donatus says, that when it was recited before Augustus, in the presence of Octavia, the mother of the deceased, as soon as the words "Tu Marcellus eris" were pronounced, she fainted away; and afterwards rewarded the poet with ten sesterces (above 80*l.*) for each line of the passage. After the completion of his *Æneid*, Virgil went to Greece, with the view of further polishing it; and on this occasion Horace is supposed to have addressed him with the third ode of his first book, beginning "Sic, te Diva potens Cyprî," in which he expresses the warmest affection for his brother poet. At Athens he met with Augustus, and proposed returning in his company; but at Megara he was seized with a disorder, which detained him, as some say, at Brundisium, or, according to others, at Tarentum, and which soon terminated his life in the year B.C. 19, in the 52d year of his age. His remains were conveyed, in pursuance of his request, to Naples, and in-

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terred

tered on the Puteolan way. On his death-bed he is said to have expressed a wish that his *Æneid*, which he regarded as an imperfect work, might be committed to the flames; but it was saved either by the interposition of his friends Tucca and Varus, who prevailed upon him to bequeath it to them, on the condition that they should make no alteration in it, or by the injunctions of Augustus to his executors. His modesty, indicated by this wish, was combined with other similar qualities. "He was mild and gentle in his manners, unassuming in conversation, sincere and faithful in friendship, so that he was singularly beloved by Augustus, Mecænas, and all the most distinguished persons of that period." His poetical talents, as well as general character, were highly appreciated by his contemporaries, inasmuch that whenever his verses were recited in the theatre whilst he was present, the audience rose up and paid him the respect which was usually manifested to the emperor. His eminent merit has been also acknowledged by ancient and modern critics, and though they have differed in opinion as to his peculiar and distinguishing excellencies, they have generally agreed, as one of his most judicious biographers has said, "in placing him upon one of the highest seats in Parnassus." Of the faculty of invention he seems to have possessed a very moderate share, inasmuch that his *Bucolics*, *Georgics*, and *Æneid*, abound with traces of imitation, and even of translation; but it is "in the diction and phraseology of poetry, in all that constitutes the artist, that his chief excellence consists; and his admirers will not allow that the Virgilian splendour and majesty of style have ever been equalled."—"In two species of composition Virgil has afforded models to almost all succeeding poets, the didactic and the epic." His fame has been testified by the numerous editions of his works, as well as the commentaries and translations which they have produced. The learned professor Heyne has given an account of the various MSS. and editions of Virgil in his edition of Leipzig, 1788, which has been considered by competent judges as the most complete and valuable. For a description and character of the *Æneid*, see *ÆNEID*. Vita Virgilii Ruzii et Heynii. Gen. Biog.

VIRGIL, in *Geography*, a post-township of America, in the province of New York, and S.W. corner of Courtlandt county; 10 miles S. of Homer, and 155 miles W. of Albany. It is ten miles square, well watered, and furnished with good roads; the soil is excellent; the timber is maple, beech, bass, elm, butter-nut, &c. with some pine and hemlock. In 1810, the population was 913; the senatorial electors 77; and the whole amount of taxable property 84,351 dollars.

VIRGILIA, in *Botany*, a genus dedicated by Lamarck to the great Latin poet, whose *Georgics* may well claim for him this sort of commemoration, has taken place of the *Virgilia* of L'Heritier, Sm. Exot. Bot. v. 1. 71, called by Lamarck and others *Galaria*. We shall submit to the general determination; for though L'Heritier thought M. Gaillard unworthy of distinction, he may be screened by a host of names, which certainly confer less honour upon their authors than their owners, however small the merits of the latter may be.—Lamarck Illustr. t. 326. Poiriet in Lamarck Dict. v. 8. 677. Brown in Ait. Hort. Kew. v. 3. 4. Pursh 309.—Class and order, *Decandria Monogynia*. Nat. Ord. *Papilionaceæ*, Linn. *Leguminosæ*, Juss.

Gen. Ch. Cal. Perianth inferior, of one leaf, bell-shaped, two-lipped; upper lip in two less deeply separated segments; lower in three spreading ones; the tube breaking off circularly just above the base. Cor. papilionaceous; standard oval, ascending, not reflexed at the sides, emar-

ginate; wings oblong, direct, rather shorter than the standard; keel of two elliptic-oblong petals, nearly the length of the wings. Stam. Filaments ten, awl-shaped, distinct, ascending, converging, the length of the keel which enfolds them; anthers oval, notched. Pist. Germen superior, oblong, compressed; style curved, the length of the stamens; stigma obtuse, beardless. Peric. Legume oblong, compressed, of one cell and two valves. Seeds several, orbicular, compressed.

Ess. Ch. Calyx two-lipped, with five unequal teeth. Corolla papilionaceous, nearly equal; standard not reflexed at the sides. Stigma beardless. Legume compressed, oblong, with many seeds.

1. *V. capensis*. Vetch-leaved Virgilia. Poiriet in Lam. n. 1. Lam. fig. 2. Ait. n. 3. (*Podalyria capensis*; Willd. Sp. Pl. v. 2. 501. *Sophora capensis*; Linn. Mant. 67. Thunb. Prodr. 79. Andr. Repos. t. 347. S. oroboides; Berg. Cap. 142.)—Stamens deciduous; woolly at the base. Germen downy. Keel acute. Leaflets lanceolate, downy beneath. Legume silky.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope. The late Thomas Cornwall, esq. an assiduous cultivator of exotic plants, is said by Mr. Aiton to have first introduced this species in 1767. The seeds have often been imported since the plant, being frequent near Cape Town. It flowers with us in July and August, being sheltered in winter in the greenhouse. This is a tall shrub, or small tree, having alternate pinnate leaves, with an odd leaflet, like the whole genus. The leaflets are very numerous, uniform, about an inch long, acute; shining, and nearly smooth, on the upper side. Flowers in stalked, axillary, downy clusters, shorter than the leaves, each half the size of a common Sweet-pea, white, with a pink, lunate spot on the standard. Legume downy, two inches long.

2. *V. aurea*. Great-flowered Virgilia. Poir. in Lam. n. 2. Lam. fig. 1. Ait. n. 1. (*Podalyria aurea*; Willd. Sp. Pl. v. 2. 502. *Robinia subdecandra*; L'Herit. Stirp. Nov. 157. t. 75.)—Stamens permanent. Germen downy. Leaflets elliptical, obtuse, pointless. Legume smooth.—Native of Abyssinia. Sent to Kew in 1777, by M. Thouin. A greenhouse shrub, flowering in July. The leaflets are full as numerous as in the foregoing, and longer, more elliptical and obtuse, smooth on both sides; paler, and a little glaucous, at the back. Flowers yellow, according to L'Heritier; Poiriet says white; the size of the former, in axillary clusters as long as the leaves. Legume two or three inches long, quite smooth.

3. *V. intrusa*. Small-flowered Virgilia. Br. in Ait. n. 2.—Stamens permanent. Germen smooth. Calyx concave externally at the base. Leaflets oval, obtuse, with a small point.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope, from whence it was sent to Kew garden, by Mr. Mafson, about the year 1790. A greenhouse shrub, flowering most part of the summer. Aiton.

4. *V. secundiflora*. Unilateral-flowered Virgilia. Cavan. Ic. v. 5. t. 401. Poir. in Lam. n. 3. ("Broussonetia secundiflora; Ortega Dec. 5. 61. t. 7.")—Germen and legume downy. Calyx tapering at the base. Leaflets oval, obtuse, pointless.—Native of New Spain. It flowered at Madrid in April. We have a specimen from Cavanilles, but the plant has not yet found its way into the English greenhouses. The stem is shrubby, three feet or more in height, with stout, round, finely downy branches. Leaflets rather fewer than in any of the rest, coriaceous, veiny, smooth or very slightly silky, an inch long, sessile, mostly alternate, on a channelled common stalk. Cluster terminal, dense, of numerous flowers all turned one way, scarcely fo-

large as in the first or second species. *Calyx* finely silky, with shallow divisions. *Petals* blue; the *standard* much paler than the rest. *Stamens* smooth. *Germens* very silky.

5. *V. lutea*. Yellow American *Virgilia*. Pursh n. 1.—“Leaflets alternate, ovate, short-pointed, smooth. Clusters elongated, pendulous. Legumes stalked, flat.”—On mountains between Georgia and Tennessee. A handsome tree, much like our *Laburnum*, flowering in June. The bark gives a beautiful yellow dye. *Pursh*.

VIRGILIAN HUSBANDRY. See HUSBANDRY.

VIRGILIANÆ SORTES. See SORTES.

VIRGIN, VIRGO, a female who has had no carnal commerce with a man; or, more properly, who has still the *flor virginis*, or maidenhood.

By the Mosaic law, the priests are enjoined to take none to wife but those that are virgins; the widow, the divorced, and the harlot, are to be refrained from.

In the Roman breviary there is a particular office for virgins departed, answering to those of saints, martyrs, and confessors.

VIRGIN is also applied, by way of eminence, to Mary the mother of our Saviour.

Many of the fathers, with the modern churches, hold, that the Virgin not only conceived, but brought forth, or was delivered without breach of her virginity; otherwise, faith St. Augustine, it would be false which is said in the creed, that he was born of a virgin. It is even alleged that she still remained a virgin to the end of her life; whence the Greeks always called her *αι παρθενος*, ever Virgin Mary; and after them the Latins, *semper virgo*. Though, as this is not recorded in Holy Writ, many have denied it; and held that she had afterwards to do with Joseph, and bore other children; and this as early as the time of Origen. Tertullian himself is produced as one that denied the perpetual virginity; and the like may be said of Apollinaris and Eusebius, with their followers. See AN-TIDICOMARIANITES and HELVIDIANS.

VIRGIN, *Charity of the Holy*. See CHARITY.

VIRGIN, *Nativity of the*. See NATIVITY.

VIRGIN, *Presentation of the*. See PRESENTATION.

VIRGINS of Love. See MISSION.

VIRGIN is also applied, figuratively, to several things that retain their absolute purity, and have never been made use of. Thus,

VIRGIN Copper. See COPPER.

VIRGIN Gold. See GOLD.

VIRGIN Oil. See VIRGIN OIL.

VIRGIN Parchment. See PARCHMENT.

VIRGIN *Quicksilver*, is that found perfectly formed, and fluid in the veins of mines; or at least such as is got from the mineral earth, by mere lotion, without fire.

VIRGIN Sulphur. See SULPHUR.

VIRGIN Wax. See VIRGIN WAX.

VIRGIN's Bower, in Botany. See CLEMATIS.

The leaves and flowers of the upright virgin's bower, or *clematis crecta* of Linnæus, called also *flammula Jovis*, and distinguished by its pinnated oval leaves and erect stalk, are extremely acrid; the former, when fresh, raising blisters on the part to which they are applied.

This is one of the new medicines introduced by Dr. Stoeck. He has published several cases of its efficacy in cancerous, venereal, and other malignant ulcers, obdurate pains of the head and bones, inveterate itch, and other diseases proceeding from peculiar acrimony. It was used internally, in infusion of the flowers or leaves, and extract of the plants; and the powder was sprinkled on the ulcers externally, where it was found to act as a most excellent escharotic and detergent.

The medicine is said to have proved diuretic to some patients, and sudorific to others, but rarely to have moved the belly. Small doses, of only half a grain of the extract, and half a drachm of the dried leaves in infusion, were at first exhibited, which were gradually increased. Lewis.

VIRGIN's Milk, in the *Materia Medica*, is a name given to a solution of benzoïn in spirits, mixed with twenty times its quantity, or more, of water, which renders it milky.

It is said to be of great service in disorders of the breast, for resolving obstructions of the pulmonary vessels, and promoting expectoration. It is also used as a cosmetic.

VIRGIN's Milk. See VIRGIN's MILK.

VIRGIN's Thread, a sort of meteor that flies in the air, like small untwisted silk, and which falling upon the ground, or open plants, changes itself into a substance like a spider's web.

In these northern climates it is most frequent in summer; the days being then temperately warm, the earth not exceeding dry, nor yet overcharged with moisture.

This has formerly passed for a sort of dew of an earthy slimy nature; but naturalists are now agreed, that the virgin's threads are no other than so many spiders' webs.

VIRGIN, Cape, in Geography, a cape on the S.E. coast of South America, at the entrance into the Straits of Magellan. It was so called by Magellan, because he discovered it on the feast of St. Ursula. S. lat. 52° 24'. W. long. 67° 52'.

VIRGIN Islands, a group of islands in the West Indies, E. of Porto Rico, extending 60 miles in length and upwards of 36 in breadth; dangerous to navigators, though in the middle of them there is a basin, 18 or 20 miles long, and 9 or 12 broad, in which ships may anchor and be sheltered from all winds, called the “Bay of Sir Francis Drake,” from his having passed through them to St. Domingo. Some have erroneously supposed that the name was bestowed upon them, in 1580, by Sir Francis Drake, in honour of queen Elizabeth; but the fact is, that these islands were named “Las Virgines” by Columbus himself, who discovered them in 1493, and gave them this appellation, in allusion to the well-known legend in the Romish church of the 11,000 virgins. After having been long neglected by the Spaniards, they were visited in 1596 by the earl of Cumberland, in his way to Porto Rico; and the historian of that voyage describes them as “a haunt of little islands, wholly uninhabited, sandy, barren, and craggy.” The whole group comprehends about 40 islands, islets, and keys, and they are at present divided between the English, the Spaniards, and Danes. The English hold Tortola, and Virgin-Gorda, called Penniston, and corruptly Spanish-Town, in which are two very good harbours; Jofan Dykes, Guana ile, Beef and Thatch islands, Anegada, Nicker, Prickly Pear, Camane's, Ginger, Cooper's, Salt island, Peter's island, and several others of little value. The Danes possess Santa Cruz, or *Sa. Croix* (which see), St. Thomas, with about twelve smaller dependent islands, and St. John, having the best harbour of any island to the leeward of Antigua; and the Spaniards claim Crab island, the Green or Serpent island, the Tropic Keys, and Great and Little Passage. Those islands which now belong to the British government were first possessed by a party of Dutch Buccaneers, who fixed themselves at Tortola (which see), and the English title has remained. The colony struggled with difficulties until the year 1773; when a petition was presented to his majesty, requesting that the governor and council might be permitted to frame proper laws for their government and welfare; pledging themselves, in such case, to grant to his majesty, his heirs and successors, an impost of $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., in specie, upon all commodities the growth of these islands, similar to that which

was paid in the other Leeward islands. This application succeeded; and an assembly was convened Feb. 1, 1774, which honourably complied with their engagement to the crown. They afterwards passed a grant of 400*l.* currency *per annum*, as their proportion towards the salary of the governor-general. Such was the price at which the Virgin islands purchased the establishment of a constitutional legislature. The chief and almost the only staple productions of these islands are sugar and cotton. These islands lie in about N. lat. 18° 20'; and the passage through them is safe, at W. by N. and W.N.W. as far as to the W. end of the fourth island. Edwards's *Hist. of the West Indies*, vol. i.

VIRGIN Rocks, rocks in the Atlantic, 60 miles S.E. of Cape Race, on the coast of Newfoundland. N. lat. 46° 20'. W. long. 50°.

VIRGINAL, is a keyed musical instrument of one string, jack, and quill to each note, like a spinet; but in shape resembling the present small piano-forte. It has been imagined to have been invented in England during the reign of queen Elizabeth, and to have been thus denominated in honour of that virgin princess; but we have here not only a proof of its use in this kingdom before she was queen, but a drawing and description of it appeared in Lucinius's *Musurgia*, before she was born. Dr. Johnson imagines that this instrument had its name from being chiefly cultivated by young ladies.

VIRGINAL-Book of Queen Elizabeth. See **QUEEN Elizabeth**, and **BIRD**.

VIRGINAL-Book of Lady Nevil. See **BIRD**.

For the first music that was printed for the virginal, see **PARTHENIA**.

VIRGINALE CLAUSTRUM, in *Anatomy*, the same as hymen.

VIRGINES, *LAS*, *Bay of*, in *Geography*, a bay on the coast of New Albion, between Cape Colne and Point Zuniga.

VIRGINEUS MORBUS, the *Virgin's disease*; the green-sickness, or chlorosis.

VIRGIN-GORDA, in *Geography*. See **SPANISH-TOWN**.

VIRGINIA, one of the United States of America, situated between 36° 30' and 40° 43' N. lat., and 1° 40' E. and 6° 20' W. long. from Washington; and bounded on the N. by Maryland, Pennsylvania, and Ohio; on the S. by North Carolina and Tennessee; on the E. by Maryland and the Atlantic ocean; and on the W. by Kentucky and Ohio. Its extent from N. to S. is 220 miles, and from E. to W. 370 miles; and its area about 64,000 square miles, or 40,960,000 acres. The number of inhabitants, deduced from the census of 1810, and stated by Mr. Melish, is 974,622, as in the following:

Topographical Table.

Counties.	No. of Inhabitants.	Chief Towns.
Accomack -	15,743	Drummond.
Albemarle -	18,268	Charlottesville.
Amelia -	10,594	
Amherst -	10,548	New Glasgow.
Augusta -	14,308	Staunton.
Bath -	4,837	Warm Springs.
Bedford -	16,148	Liberty.
Berkley -	11,479	Martinsburg.
Botetourt -	13,301	Fincaitle - 700
Brooke -	5,843	Charlestown.
Brunswick -	15,411	
Buckingham -	20,059	New Canton.
Campbell -	11,001	Lynchburg.
Caroline -	17,544	Port Royal - 1500
Charles City -	5,186	

Counties.	No. of Inhabitants.	Chief Towns.
Charlotte -	13,161	Maryville.
Chesterfield -	9,979	Manchester.
Cumberland -	9,992	Carterville.
Culpeper -	18,967	Fairfax.
Cabell -	2,717	
Dinwiddie -	12,524	Petersburgh - 5668
Elizabeth City -	3,608	Hampton.
Essex -	9,376	Tappahannock - 600
Faquier -	22,689	Warrertown.
Fairfax -	13,111	Centreville.
Fluvanna -	4,775	Columbia.
Frederick -	22,574	Winchester - 2500
Franklin -	10,724	Rocky Mount.
Gloucester -	10,427	
Goochland -	10,203	
Grayson -	4,941	Greenville.
Greenbriar -	5,914	Lewisburg.
Greenville -	6,858	Hicksford.
Giles -	3,745	
Halifax -	22,133	South Boston.
Hamphshire -	9,784	Romney.
Hanover -	15,082	Hanover.
Hardy -	5,525	Moorfields.
Harrison -	9,958	Clarkeburg.
Henrico -	9,945	Richmond - 9735
Henry -	5,611	Martinsville.
Isle of Wight -	9,186	Smithfield.
James City -	9,094	Williamsburg - 1500
Jefferson -	11,851	Charles Town.
Kanaway -	3,866	Charles Town.
King and Queen -	10,988	Dunkirk.
King George -	6,454	
King William -	9,285	Delaware.
Lancaster -	5,592	Kilmarnock.
Lee -	4,694	Jonesville.
Loudon -	21,338	Leefburg - 400
Louisa -	11,900	
Lunenburg -	12,265	Hungary.
Madison -	8,381	Madison.
Matthews -	4,227	
Mecklinburg -	18,453	St. Tammany.
Middlesex -	4,414	Urbanau.
Monongalia -	12,793	Morgan Town.
Monroe -	5,444	Union Town.
Montgomery -	8,409	Christianburg.
Mason -	1,991	Point Pleasant.
Nansemond -	10,324	
New Kent -	6,478	Suffolk - 350
Norfolk County -	13,679	Cumberland.
Northampton -	7,474	Norfolk - 9193
Northumberland -	8,308	
Nottaway -	9,278	Bridge Town.
Nelson -	9,684	
Ohio -	8,175	Wheeling.
Orange -	12,323	Stannardsville.
Patrick -	4,695	
Pendleton -	4,239	Franklin.
Pittsylvania -	17,172	Danville.
Powhatan -	8,073	
Prince Edward -	12,409	James Town.
Princess Anne -	9,498	Kempville.
Prince William -	11,311	Haymarket.
Prince George -	8,050	
Randolph -	2,854	Beverly.
Richmond -	6,214	
Rockbridge -	10,318	Lexington - 400
		Rocking-

VIRGINIA:

Counties.	No. of Inhabitants.	Chief Towns.
Rockingham	12,753	
Ruffell	6,316	Franklin.
Shenandoah	13,646	Woodstock.
Southampton	13,497	Jerusalem.
Spotylvania	13,296	Fredericksburg 1500
Stafford	9,830	Falmouth.
Surry	6,855	Cobham.
Suffex	11,362	
Tazewell	3,007	Jeffersonville.
Tyler*		
Warwick	1,835	
Washington	12,136	Abingdon.
Westmoreland	8,102	Leeds.
Wood	3,036	Newport.
Wythe	8,356	Evanham.
York	5,187	York - - 700
City of Richmond	9,735	
Norfolk Borough	9,193	
Peterburgh	5,668	

* Laid out since last census.

The aspect of the country is different in various parts of it. On the eastern shore it is level, interspersed with swamps and meadows. In the middle it is mountainous, with many rich valleys, and on the west side hilly. With regard to the *mountains*, it is observed, that they are not solitary, and scattered confusedly over the face of the country; but they commence at about 150 miles from the sea-coast, and are disposed in ridges one behind another, running nearly parallel to the sea-coast, but rather approaching as they advance towards the N.E. To the S.W. the mountains converge into a single ridge, which as it approaches the gulf of Mexico subides into plain country, and gives rise to some of the waters of that gulf, and particularly to a river called Apalachicola. Hence the mountains were denominated the Apalachian mountains, being in reality the termination only of the great ridges passing through the continent. The name, however, has been extended by European geographers; some giving it, after their separation into different ridges, to the Blue Ridge, others to the North mountains, others to the Alleghany, and others to the Laurel Ridge. The veins of lime-stone, coal, and other minerals, lie generally in the same direction. But the courses of the great rivers are at right angles with these. James and Potomac penetrate through all the ridges of mountains E. of the *Alleghany* (which see), which is broken by no water-course, but is in reality the spine of the country, between the Atlantic on one side, and the Mississippi and St. Laurence on the other. The passage of the Potomac through the Blue Ridge exhibits one of the most stupendous scenes in nature. The only remarkable cascade in this country, is that of the Falling Spring in the county of Augusta, formed by a water of James river, here called Jackson's river; but it bears no comparison with that of Niagara. In the lime-stone country, there are several extensive *caverns*; the most noted of which is called Madison's cave, on the N. side of the Blue Ridge. It extends into the earth about 300 feet, and branches into subordinate caverns. There are also some others, such as that near the North mountain, in the county of Frederick, and the Blowing cave, in the ridge which divides the waters of the Cow and Calf pasture; besides another of the same kind with this last in Cumberland mountain. But of all nature's works, the most sublime is the Natural Bridge; lying on the ascent of a hill which seems to have been cloven through its whole length by some great convulsion.

The fissure just at the bridge is reckoned to be 270 feet deep, about 45 wide at the bottom, and 90 at the top, which is of course the length of the bridge, and its height above the water. Its breadth in the middle is about 60 feet, and the thickness of the mass at the summit of the arch about 40 feet. This bridge is in the county of Rockbridge. The stream passing under it is called Cedar creek, which is a water of James river.

The *minerals* of this state are iron, coal, lime-stone, and some copper, black-lead, and gold. The ore from which gold was extracted was found on the N. side of Rappahannock, about four miles below the Falls. On the Great Kanaway, in the county of Montgomery, are mines of lead; the ore containing a small portion of silver not worth the pains of separation. A valuable lead-mine is also said to have been discovered in Cumberland, below the mouth of Red river. A mine of copper was once opened in the county of Amherst, but the discovery was not prosecuted. There are several mines of iron, particularly two in the valley between the Blue Ridge and the North mountain. Considerable quantities of black-lead are taken occasionally for use from Winterham, in the county of Amelia. Mineral coal of a very excellent quality is abundantly supplied by the country on James river, from fifteen to twenty miles above Richmond, and for several miles northward and southward; also by the western country in so many places, that the whole tract between the Laurel mountain, Mississippi, and the Ohio, has been supposed to yield coal. On James river, at the mouth of Rockfish, there is great abundance of good marble. There is known only one vein of lime-stone below the Blue Ridge; from the Blue Ridge westwardly, the whole country seems to be founded on a rock of lime-stone, which is cut into beds, and range, like the mountains and sea-coast, from S.W. to N.E., the lamina of each bed declining from the horizon towards a parallelism with the axis of the earth. Near the western foot of the North mountain are immense bodies of schist, which contain impressions of shells in a variety of forms.

Mineral springs are numerous; but the most efficacious of these are two in Augusta, near the first sources of James river, where it is called Jackson's river. One is called the Warm spring, the other the Hot spring. The sweet springs are in the county of Botetourt, at the eastern foot of the Alleghany, about forty-two miles from the warm springs. On Potomac river, in Berkeley county, above the North mountain, are medicinal springs that are much more frequented than those of Augusta. At Richmond there is a weak chalybeate; and it is said that there are sulphur springs, one on Howard's creek of Greenbriar, and another at Boonsborough, on Kentucky. There is also in the low grounds of the Great Kanaway, seven miles above the mouth of Elk river, and sixty-seven above that of the Kanaway itself, a hole in the earth, capable of holding thirty or forty gallons, from which issues a gas or bituminous vapour in so strong a current, as to cause the sand about its orifice to exhibit the motion which it has in a boiling spring; and on presenting a candle or lighted torch to it, it flames up in a column of eighteen inches in diameter, and four or five feet in height, and burns for several days: there is another similar to it on Sandy river, with a column of flame twelve inches in diameter, and three feet high. In this country there are also several syphon fountains.

The *rivers* of Virginia are the Potomac or Potowmack, Shenandoah, Rappahannock, Mattaponi, Pamunkey, York, James, Rivanna, Appomattox, Elizabeth, Nottaway, Meherrin, Staunton, Ohio, Sandy, Great Kanaway, Little Kanaway, Monongahela, and Cheat. Several of these

VIRGINIA.

these are navigable for vessels of various sizes, and to considerable distances. The principal of them are separately noticed under their respective names.

The *soil* in the low part of the state is sandy, but rich on the banks of rivers: between the head of tide-waters and the mountains it is pretty good. The mountains are poor, and in various places incapable of culture, but they are interspersed with many fertile valleys. West of the mountains the soil is generally good.

Of the *produce* of this state, wheat and tobacco are the staples; corn, rye, barley, buckwheat, hemp, flax, roots, grafs, fruit, indigo, and some silk, are also cultivated.

As to the *climate*, in the low country, the summers are hot, and winters mild; in the upper country, and among the mountains, the air is pure, and the weather pleasant: towards the west, temperate.

With respect to the state of *literature* in Virginia, the college of William and Mary is the only public seminary of learning. (See COLLEGE.) Besides this, it has a number of flourishing academies; one in Prince Edward county, one at Alexandria, one at Norfolk, one at Hanover, and others at other places. Since the declaration of independence, the laws have been revised, and one object in this revision was the diffusion of knowledge more generally through the mass of the people. The bill for this purpose proposed to lay off every county into small districts of five or six miles square, called hundreds, and in each of them to establish a school for instruction in reading, writing, and arithmetic.

As to the *religion* of Virginia, we may observe, that the first settlers were emigrants from England, belonging to the English church; and though they were flying from persecution, they manifested a considerable degree of intolerance: which was also the case with their Presbyterian brethren, who had emigrated to the northern government; and the Quakers, who were seeking an asylum from persecution, experienced the effects of this intolerance. At the commencement of the late revolution, two-thirds of the people are said to have become dissenters of one description or another. The present denominations of Christians in Virginia are, Presbyterians, who are the most numerous, and inhabit the western parts of the state; Episcopalians, or, as Mr. Jefferson calls them, "Anglicans," who are the most ancient settlers, and occupy the eastern and first settled parts of the state; and intermingled with these, Baptists and Methodists in great numbers.

With regard to the *character* of the Virginians, it is observed, that as a political and military body, they rank among the first in the page of history; some of them having been most active in effecting the revolutions in America, and influencing the great mass of the people, who would otherwise have indulged their indolence and indifference. Valuing themselves on their inheriting the ancient dominion, they have thought themselves entitled to the first rank in the union, and without doubt they have reason to boast of their "Washington." But Virginia, though claiming priority of the northern states in point of age, is far from being equal to some of them as to literary, mechanical, nautical, agricultural, and manufactory improvements. Allowing for some few instances, the Virginians have made very little progress in the arts and sciences. Before the revolution they were represented by travellers who passed through their country as indolent and inactive, fond of society, addicted to convivial pleasures, and of course indolent for any enterprise that exposed them to fatigue and danger. The authority which they exercised over their slaves rendered them vain and imperious, and strangers to that elegance of sentiment which is

peculiarly characteristic of refined and polished nations. Hence they were led to extravagance, ostentation, a disregard of economy, and inattention to business: they were haughty and jealous of their liberties, impatient of restraint, and averse from being controuled by any superior power. They are, however, liberal and generous; and are ready to furnish necessary supplies for the support of government, as well as for the purposes of hospitality. Their women are, upon the whole, handsome, though in this respect inferior to those of England: having few advantages, their accomplishments are inconsiderable, and their temper reserved. The only amusement to which they are much addicted is dancing, and it is almost the only one of which they participate. The Virginians, says a discerning traveller cited by Morfe, are rich, and in general sensible, polite, and hospitable, and of an independent spirit; the poor are ignorant and abject: but all are of an inquisitive turn, and in many other respects very much resemble the people in the eastern states. They differ from them, however, in their morals: the former being much addicted to gaming, drinking, swearing, horse-racing, cock-fighting, and moist kinds of dissipation. There is a much greater difference between the rich and poor in Virginia than in any of the northern states.

As to the *constitution*, and *judiciary administration* of Virginia, we observe, that the executive powers are lodged in the hands of a governor, annually chosen, and incapable of acting more than three years in seven. He is assisted by a council of eight members. The judiciary powers are divided among several courts. Legislation is exercised by two houses of assembly; the one called the house of delegates, composed of two members from each county, chosen annually by the citizens possessing an estate for life in 100 acres of uninhabited land, or 25 acres with a house upon it, or in a house or lot in some town: the other called the senate, consisting of twenty-four members, chosen quadrennially by the same electors, who for this purpose are distributed into twenty-four districts. The concurrence of both houses is necessary for passing a law. There are three superior courts, to which appeals lie from the courts below; viz. the high court of chancery, the general court, and the court of admiralty. There is one supreme court, called the court of appeals, composed of the judges of the three superior courts, assembling twice a year, at stated times, at Richmond. It receives appeals in all civil cases from each of the superior courts, and finally determines them; but has no original jurisdiction. In 1785, the assembly enacted that no man should be compelled to support any religious worship, place, or minister whatsoever, nor be enforced, restrained, molested, or burdened in his body or goods, nor otherwise suffer on account of his religious opinions or belief; but that all men should be free to profess, and by argument to maintain, their opinions in matters of religion; and that the same should in no wise diminish, enlarge, or affect their civil capacities. In October 1786, an act was passed by the assembly, prohibiting the importation of slaves into the commonwealth, upon penalty of the forfeiture of the sum of 1000*l.* for every slave. And every slave imported contrary to the true intent and meaning of this act, becomes free.

History of Virginia.—In the year 1584, two patents were granted by queen Elizabeth, one to Adrian Gilbert (Feb. 6), the other to sir Walter Raleigh (March 25), for lands not possessed by any Christian prince. Under the direction of sir Walter, two ships were sent out, and in July, 1585, arrived on the coast, anchoring in a harbour seven leagues W. of the Roanoke. On the 15th of July they took formal possession of the country, and in honour of their virgin queen Elizabeth, called it Virginia. Before this event the country was

known

known by the general name of Florida; afterwards Virginia became the common name for the whole of North America. In 1586, a colony of more than one hundred people was stationed at Roanoke, under the direction of captain Ralph Lane; which colony endured extreme hardships, and must have perished, if Sir Francis Drake had not fortunately returned to Virginia, and carried them to England. In 1587, Sir Walter sent another company to Virginia, under governor White, with a charter and twelve assistants; and in July this colony arrived at Roanoke, where 115 people were left at the old settlement. In 1590, governor White came over again to Virginia, with supplies and recruits for his colony; but not a man was to be found, all having perished either by famine, or massacred by the Indians. Some further unsuccessful attempts were made for settling this province. At length, in 1606, James I., by patent, divided Virginia into two colonies. The first, under the name of South Virginia, was granted to the London company; the northern, called the second colony, and known by the general name of North Virginia, was granted to the Plymouth company; and each of these colonies had a council of thirteen men to govern them. The Plymouth colony broke up, after enduring many hardships, in 1608. In 1610, the South Virginia or London company sealed a patent to Lord De la War, or Delaware, constituting him governor and captain-general of South Virginia, and he soon after embarked for America with 150 men, in three ships. From this time we may date the effectual settlement of Virginia. By a marriage in April, 1613, of Mr. John Rolfe, a worthy young gentleman, with Pocahontas, the daughter of Powhatan, a famous Indian chief, the connection, equally agreeable to the English and the Indians, laid the foundation of a friendly and advantageous commerce between them. The descendants of Pocahontas became the heads of some of the most respectable families in Virginia. Her brother-in-law, Tomocomo, accompanied her to England, and on his return, being asked by Powhatan how many people there were in England, replied, "count the stars in the sky, the leaves on the trees, and the sands on the sea-shore; for such is the number of the people in England." The government of Virginia was settled in consequence of a charter obtained in 1609, on the 24th of July, 1621; but dissensions afterwards occurred between the company to which the charter was granted and the king: inasmuch that, partly by law, and partly by force, the company was ousted of all its rights, without retribution, after having expended 100,000*l.* in establishing the colony. King James suspended their powers by proclamation, July 15, 1624, and Charles I. took the government into his own hands. But this state of things did not continue for any long time; for the northern parts of the country were granted away from the original proprietors to the lords Baltimore and Fairfax, the first of these obtaining the rights of separate jurisdiction and government. In 1650, the parliament, conceiving itself as occupying the place and powers of the deposed king, began to assume and exercise a right over the colonies, by passing an act for prohibiting their trade with foreign nations. This colony, having maintained its opposition to Cromwell and the parliament, was induced, in 1651, to lay down its arms, on condition of previously securing their most essential rights by a solemn convention. This convention, as the colony imagined, ensured the ancient limits of the country, its free trade, its exemption from taxation, except by its own assembly, and exclusion of military forces. But this convention was violated in every particular by subsequent kings and parliaments, until at last resistance on the part of this and of the other colonies terminated in an appeal to arms; and this appeal being

crowned with success, they issued a declaration of their independence, in July 1776, and the subsequent establishment of their "federal constitution," to which Virginia acceded after considerable opposition. See AMERICA and UNITED STATES.

VIRGINIA, a post-town of the county of Cavan, Ireland, situated on Lough Ramor; 40½ miles N.W. from Dublin.

VIRGINIAN ACACIA, in Botany. See ROBINIA.

VIRGINIAN Creeper. See CLEMATIS.

VIRGINIAN Guelder-Rose. See SPIREA *Opulifolia*.

VIRGINIAN Poke. See PHYTOLACCA *Decandra*.

VIRGINIAN Silk. See PERIPLOCA.

VIRGINIANA BOLUS, is a pure earth, of a compact texture, hard and heavy, of a pale red or rose colour, variegated with veins of deep red, and often with large spots and veins of bright yellow: it is of a glossy surface, does not colour the hands, adheres firmly to the tongue, melts with difficulty in the mouth, is of a rough astringent taste, leaves no grittiness in the teeth, and is diffusive with difficulty in water. It burns in the fire to an almost stony hardness, without any change of colour. It is the product of Pennsylvania, and most parts of America. This kind of bole has not yet been used in medicine.

VIRGINIS, SPICA. See SPICA.

VIRGINITY, VIRGINITAS, the test or criterion of a virgin; or that which entitles her to the denomination.

In the first ages of the Christian church, virginity grew into great honour and esteem, inasmuch that the women were admitted to make solemn vows of it in public. Yet was it held infamous among the Jews for a woman to die a maid.

The vestals among the ancients, and the nuns or religious among the moderns, found guilty of a breach of the vow of virginity, are allotted a severe punishment; the first to be buried alive, the latter to be immured.

The physicians, both ancient and modern, are exceedingly divided upon the subject of virginity, some holding that there are no certain marks or testimonies of it; and others that there are. Solomon says expressly, there are four things too wonderful for him to know: "the way of an eagle in the air; of a serpent on the rock; of a ship in the midst of the sea; and the way of a man in a maid;" which our translators have rendered, less justly, *the way of a man with a maid*.

Yet Moses established a test, which was to be conclusive among the Jews. The nuptial sheets, it seems, were to be viewed by the relations on both sides: and the maid's parents were to preserve them as a token of her virginity, to be produced, in case her husband should ever reproach her on that score.

In case the token of virginity was not found on them, she was to be stoned to death at her father's door.

This test of virginity has occasioned abundance of speculation about the parts concerned; but the nicest enquiries cannot settle any thing certain about them. Dr. Drake says expressly, that, whatever might be expected among the Jews, there is not the same reason to expect those tokens of virginity in these countries; for, besides that the Hebrews married extremely young, as is the custom in all the Eastern countries, there are several circumstances which may here frustrate such expectations, even in virgins not vitiated either by any male contact, or any wantonness of their own.

In effect, in these northern climates, the inclemency of the air exposes the sex to such checks of perspiration, as gives a great turn to the course of the humours, and drives so much humidity through the parts, as may extraordinarily
supple

supple and relax those membranes from which the resistance is expected; and from which, in hotter countries, it might more reasonably be depended on.

What most commonly passes among us for the test of virginity is the *hymen* (which see); and yet the most curious among the anatomists are greatly divided, not only about the figure, substance, place, and perforations of this famous membrane, but even about the existence of it, some positively affirming, and others as flatly denying it. See GENERATION.

As nice a point as that of virginity is among anatomists, the midwives and matrons treat it with less diffidence. In the statutes of the sworn matrons, or midwives of Paris, containing likewise divers formulas of reports and depositions made in court, upon their being called to visit girls that made their complaint of being deflowered, they laid down fourteen marks on which to form a judgment.

Laur. Joubart, a famous physician of Montpellier, has transcribed three of these reports; one made to the provost of Paris, another in Languedoc, and a third in Berne. These reports are very consistent with each other, and contain fourteen marks of virginity, expressed in their proper terms, such as were received among the women in that profession, and authorized in court.

M. Joubart does not explain those terms, nor do we find any explanation of them any where, but in another report, of the 23d of October, 1672, inserted in the Picture of Love of Vennette, a physician of Rochel.

In Peru, and several other provinces in South America, we are assured by Pedro de Cieca, in the history of the Incas, &c. that the men never marry but on condition that the next relation or friend of the maid shall undertake to enjoy her before him, and take away her virginity. And our countryman, Lawson, relates the like of some of the Indian nations of Carolina. So little is the *flor virginis* valued in some places.

VIRGINIUS RUFUS, L., in *Biography*, a distinguished Roman citizen and commander, whose merit raised him to the consulate in the reign of Nero, A.D. 63. When the Gauls revolted under Vindex, A.D. 68, he marched to Besançon, in order to resist his designs. On this occasion the legions proclaimed him emperor, but he refused the title, alleging that the disposal of the empire belonged not to them, but to the senate and people. After the death of Nero, and the succession of Galba, he was again solicited by the army to become a candidate for the empire, and he was threatened with death by one of the tribunes if he did not comply with the wishes of the soldiers. But he resolutely resisted, and prevailed with them to acknowledge the new emperor. When Otho acquired temporary dominion, he endeavoured to engage the attachment of the German legion, by conferring a second consulate, A.D. 69, on Virgilius, their old commander; and after his death, he was a third time urged by the soldiery to accept the empire, but he perished in refusing the offer. Upon Vitellius's entrance into Rome, Virgilius was very unjustly suspected of a design to assassinate him; and though Vitellius had no doubt of his innocence, it was not without great difficulty that he preserved his life. From this time till the reign of Nerva he lived in retirement, calling the place of his retreat near Alaium "the rest of his old age." To Pliny the younger he was guardian, and was always regarded by him with filial veneration; and at Rome he was respected as one of the most excellent of its citizens. "He read," according to the account given of him by Pliny, "verses and histories of which he was the subject, and lived, as it were, with his own posterity;" and Pliny relates the following instance of

his love of historical fidelity. Cluvius Rufus, an eminent historian, said to him, "You are sensible, Virgilius, of the fidelity required in a writer of history; if, therefore, you meet with any thing in my work which is displeasing to you, I request that you will pardon it." He replied, "Are you ignorant, Cluvius, that my purpose, in doing what I have done, was that you writers might freely say what you should think fit." In his eighty-third year Nerva honoured him by advancing him to a third consulate, as his own colleague in that office. On this occasion he intended to deliver a discourse, and whilst he was preparing at home for the recitation of it, a large book fell from his hand upon the floor; and, in stooping for it, his foot slipped, and in the fall he broke his thigh. The fracture occasioned his death, A.D. 97. His remains were honoured with a public funeral, and his eulogy was pronounced by Cornelius Tacitus. The epitaph which he had written for himself was comprised in two lines, and merely recorded one of the principal actions of his life, with its motive:

"Hic situs est Rufus, pulso qui Vindice quondam
Imperium asseruit, non sibi, sed patriæ."

"Here Rufus lies, who, by the repulse of Vindex, secured the empire, not for himself, but for his country." Crevier. Plin. Epist. Gen. Biog.

VIRGO, in *Astronomy*, one of the signs or constellations of the zodiac, into which the sun enters in the middle of August. See CONSTELLATION.

The stars in the constellation Virgo, in Ptolemy's catalogue, are 32; in Tycho's, 33; in Hevelius's, 50; and in the Britannic, 110.

VIRGULA, in *Grammar*, a term which Latin, French, and some other authors use for a point in writing, usually called by us, *comma*.

Virgulas, F. Simon observes, are an invention of the modern grammarians, to give the greater clearness to discourse. The use of them was unknown to the ancient Greeks and Romans, who wrote all without taking off the pen, so that their books lie all together, without any distinction of points and virgulas.

VIRGULA, or *Virgola*, in *Music*, the tail or stem to a note. The first notes in the old time-table had no tails till the minim was invented, which had a tail to distinguish it from the semibreve, as the crotchet had a black head to distinguish it from the minim, of which the head is white, and the quaver a hook to the tail, to distinguish it from the crotchet, of which the tail was straight, &c.

VIRGULA Divina, or *Baculus divinatorius*, a forked branch in form of a Y, cut off a hazle-tree, by means of which people have pretended to discover mines, springs, &c. under ground.

The method of using it is this: the person who bears it walking very slowly over the places where he suspects mines or springs may be, the effluvia exhaling from the metals, or vapour from the water, impregnating the wood, makes it dip or incline, which is a sign of a discovery.

We find no mention made of this virgula in any author before the 11th century; but from that time it has been in frequent use. Divers fine names have been invented for it, some calling it *caduceus*, others *Aaron's rod*, &c.

Some dispute the matter of fact, and deny it to be possible; others, convinced by the great number of experiments alleged in its behalf, look out for the natural causes of them. The corpuscles, say these authors, rising from the springs, or minerals, entering the rod, determine it to bow down, in order to render it parallel to the vertical lines which the effluvia describe in their rise.

In effect, the mineral or watery particles are supposed to be emitted by means of the subterraneous heat, or of the fermentations in the entrails of the earth: and the virgula, being of a light porous wood, gives an easy passage to those particles, which are also very fine and subtle; the effluvia then driven forwards by those that follow them, and oppressed, at the same time, by the atmosphere incumbent on them, are forced to enter the little interstices at the fibres of the wood; and, by that effort, they oblige it to incline or dip down perpendicularly, to become parallel with the little columns which those vapours form in their rise.

A late writer has recited no less than six hundred experiments, made with all possible attention and circumspection, and several of which are very curious and extraordinary, in order to ascertain the facts attributed to the divining rod; and he has also undertaken to unfold their resemblance to the admirable and uniform phenomena of electricity and magnetism. See M. Thouvenel's *Memoire Physique et Medicinale* Montrant des Reports evidens entre les Phenomenes de la Baguette divinatoire, &c. 12mo. Paris, 1781.

Mr. Pryce has collected several observations on the nature and use of the virgula divinatoria, in his *Mineralog. Cornub.* lib. iii. cap. 1.

VIRGULARIA, in *Botany*, so called from *virga*, in allusion to its slender wand-like branches, by the authors of the *Flora Peruviana*.—Poirot in *Lamarck Dict.* v. 8. 679.—**Class** and order, *Didymia Angiospermia*. Nat. Ord. *Perfonate*, Linn. *Scrophularia*, Juss.

Gen. Ch. *Cal.* Perianth inferior, bell-shaped, permanent, somewhat two-lipped, with ten angles, and five sharp spreading teeth; the two lowermost a little distant. *Cor.* of one petal, bell-shaped, irregular; tube a little recurved; mouth inflated, gibbous; limb in five roundish, concave segments; the two uppermost shortest, ascending; three lowermost spreading, the middle one narrowest. *Stam.* Filaments four, thread-shaped, compressed, hairy at their base, inserted into the tube, two of them shorter than the rest; anthers inclining, arrow-shaped, of two cells. *Pist.* Germen superior, obovate; style awl-shaped, recurved, as long as the corolla; stigma oblong, compressed, of two lobes, the uppermost channelled, half sheathing the lower. *Peric.* Capsule invested with the calyx, oval, obtuse with a point, with two furrows, two cloven valves, and two cells, the partition contrary. *Seeds* numerous, very small, inserted into a convex central receptacle, attached to each side of the partition.

Eff. Ch. Calyx five-toothed, with ten angles. Corolla somewhat bell-shaped, irregular, recurved. Stigma with one lobe sheathing the other. Capsule of two cells, two valves, and a transverse partition. *Seeds* numerous.

This genus appears to come near *Buddlea*. It is said to consist of only two known species, natives of Peru, of a shrubby habit, with numerous slender twigs. Neither of the species has as yet been described.

VIRGULTUM, in our ancient *Law-Books*, is used for anholt, or plantation of twigs, or others.

Sometimes, also, for a coppice of young wood. "Et præterea concedo virgultum meum, et totam communiam domini mei." Mon. Angl.

In another place of the same work, *virgultum*, or rather *virgula*, may be taken for *virgata*; viz. "Dedit prædictæ ecclesiæ unam virgultum terre in manerio de Crumptonne." See *YARD-Land*.

VIRIBALUM, in *Ancient Geography*, a promontory on the western side of the isle of Corsica, between the gulf Capulus and the mouth of the river Ciciidus: supposed to be Punta di Adiazza.

VOL. XXXVII.

VIRICONIUM. See **URICONIUM**.

VIRIDARIO ELIGENDO, in *Law*, a writ that lies for the choice of a verdor in the forest. See **VERDEROR**.

VIRIDE ÆRIS, the same as ærugo, or *verdigrise*, which see.

VIRIDELLUS, a word used by some medical writers to express the epilepsy, and, by some of the chemical ones, as a name for the common green vitriol.

VIRIEU, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Ière; 6 miles S.S.E. of La Tour du Pin.

VIRIEU le Grand, a town of France, in the department of the Ain; 6 miles N. of Belley.

VIRILE, something that belongs, or is peculiar to man, or the male sex.

Thus, virile member, *membrum virile*, is frequently used for the penis.

VIRILE Age, *Ætas virilis*, is the strength and vigour of a man's age, viz. from thirty to forty-five years, which is an age in which we are equally removed from the extremes of youth and old age. See **AGE**.

The civil lawyers only make one age of youth and virility, and yet their different temperatures seem to require a distinction, for which reason some compare youth to summer, and virility to autumn.

At Rome, the youth quitted the prætexta at fourteen or fifteen years of age, and took the virile gown, *toga virilis*, to shew, it seems, that they then entered on a serious age.

M. Dacier will have it, that children do not take the prætexta till thirteen years of age, nor quit it for the toga virilis till seventeen.

VIRILIA, a man's genitals, or privy members, including the penis and testes. See **GENERATION**.

The cutting off the virilia, according to Bracton, was felony by common law; and that whether the party were consenting or not.

"Henricus Hall et A. uxor ejus capti et detenti in prisona de Evichester, eo quod reatati fuerunt, quod ipsi abiciderunt virilia Johannis Monachi, quem idem Henricus deprehendit cum predicta A. uxore ejus." Rot. Clauf. 13 Hen. III.

VIRILIS Testis Musculus, in *Anatomy*, a name given by Vesalius and others, to the muscle generally known by the name of the cremaster.

VIRIMGAM, in *Geography*, a town of Hindoostan, in Guzerat; 55 miles W. of Amedabad.

VIRITES, a name by which the writers of the middle ages have called the pyrites.

VIRIVILLE, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Ière; 12 miles N.N.W. of St. Marcellin.

VIRNENBURG, a town of France, in the department of the Rhine and Moselle, late capital of a county, to which it gave name; 20 miles W. of Coblenz. N. lat. 50° 27'. E. long. 6° 58'.

VIROLA, in *Botany*, the vernacular name in Guiana of a sort of bastard Nutmeg-tree; Aubl. Guian. 904. t. 345. Juss. 81. (See **MYRISTICA**.) Aublet calls it *V. sebifera*, and describes it as a tree from thirty to sixty feet high, and above two feet in diameter, with numerous spreading branches. *Leaves* alternate, stalked, oblong, acute, entire, wavy, eight inches long; downy beneath. *Flowers* dioecious, in compound, dense, axillary panicles. *Anthers* but three. *Capsule* globose, pointed, coriaceous, of two valves, containing a seed like a nutmeg, enveloped in a many-cleft tunic, like mace, and yielding a copious oily acrid substance, used for making candles.—This tree is common in Cayenne and Guiana. Swartz in his *Fl. Ind. Occ.* 1129, and

Willd. in Sp. Pl. v. 4. 872, have referred it to *Myrsifera*, by the specific name of *sebisera*, where, notwithstanding our learned friend Mr. Brown's doubts, we should think it ought to remain.

VIROSIDUM, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Great Britain, thought by Camden to be Warwick, in Cumberland.

VIROVESA, a town of Hispania Citerior, S.E. of Julio-Brigunda, one of the ten cities of the Autrigones, according to Pliny. In the Itin. Anton. it is marked on the route from the Gauls to the place named Ad Legionem Geminum, between Segasamundum and Segesamona. Ptolemy calls it Vireusta, and it is now named Briviesca.

VIROVIACUM, a place marked in the Itin. Anton. between Castellum and Turnacum, or Cassel and Tournai, at the same distance from both places.

VIROUR, in *Geography*, a town of Hindoostan, in Tinevelly; 57 miles N.N.E. of Neermul.

VIRPRINACH, a town of Istria; 9 miles E.N.E. of Pedena.

VIRREIES, three small islands among the Philippines. N. lat. 13° 18'. E. long. 121° 48'.

VIRSBO, a town of Sweden, in Westmanland; 24 miles N. of Stroemholm.

VIRTON, a town of France, in the department of the Forests; 10 miles S.W. of Arlon.

VIRTUNGIANUS DUCTUS, or *Ductus Virtungii*, so called from the inventor, Virtungius, a professor at Padua, in *Anatomy*, a canal, more usually called *ductus pancreaticus*. See PANCREAS and PANCREATIC JUICE.

VIRTU, Ital. force, talents.

VIRTUAL, **POTENTIAL**, something that has a power, or virtue, of acting, or doing.

The term is chiefly understood of something that acts by a secret invisible cause, in opposition to *actual* and *sensible*.

VIRTUAL, *Focus*, in *Optics*. See *Focus*.

VIRTUALITY, **VIRTUALITAS**, in the *Schools*, denotes some mode or analogy in an object, which, in reality, is the same with some other mode, but, out of regard to contradictory predicates, is considered as if distinct from it.

And hence arise what we call *virtual distinctions*, by which one virtuality is distinguished from another, not one thing from another.

Thus it is, the divine nature is distinguished from the divine person; and the divine understanding from the divine will.

VIRTUALLY, **VIRTUALITER**, is applied to a mode of existence. A thing is said to be virtually any where, when it is deemed to be there by some virtue, influence, or other effect, produced by it. Thus the sun is virtually on earth, *i. e.* by his light, heat, &c.

A thing is also said to be virtually present, when the virtues, or properties, belonging to it, and issuing from it, remain. In which sense, the forms of the elements are held to be virtually in mixed bodies.

A thing is also said to be a cause virtually, or a virtual cause, and that two ways: the first, when there is no real distinction between it and the effect attributed to it; and yet it is conceived by us as if it were really the cause of it. Thus, immutability in God is the cause of eternity.

Secondly, when any effect is not of the same kind with the cause, and yet the cause has the power or virtue of producing the effect; thus the sun is not formally, but virtually hot; and fire is not contained formally, but virtually, in heat.

VIRTUE, **VIRTUS**, a term used in various significations. In the general, it denotes *power*, or *perfection*, of

any thing, whether natural or supernatural, animate or inanimate, essential or accessory. Hence the virtues, that is, the powers of God, angels, men, plants, elements, &c.

VIRTUE, in its more proper and restrained sense, is used by some writers to signify an habit, which improves and perfects the possessor and his actions. Accordingly, in this sense of the term, virtue is a principle of acting or doing well and readily; and as there are two faculties or powers in man from which all his actions proceed, *viz.* the understanding and the will, so the virtue (as these authors say), by which he is perfected, or by which he is disposed to do all things rightly, and to live happily, must be two-fold; the one of the understanding, the other of the will. That which improves the understanding, is called *intellectual*, or *dianoetic*; and that, the will, *moral*, or *ethical*. For, since there are two things required in order to live aright, *viz.* to know what should be done, and, when known, readily to perform it; and since man is apt to err various ways in each respect, unless regulated by discipline, &c. he alone can deport himself rightly in his whole course of life, whose understanding and will have attained their utmost perfection.

VIRTUE, *Intellectual*, then, according to Aristotle, is an habit of the reasonable soul, by which it conceives or speaks the truth, either in affirming or denying.

The virtues which come under this class are divided into *speculative*, which are those conversant about necessary things, that can only be known or contemplated; and *practical*, which are conversant about contingent things, that may likewise be practised.

Aristotle has another division of intellectual virtue, derived from the subject; as some of them are seated in the *επιστημονικη*, or *contemplative part*; *viz.* those conversant about necessary things, as *science*, *wisdom*, *intelligence*; and others in the *λογικη*, or *practical part*, such as those conversant about contingent things, as *prudence*, *art*, &c.

VIRTUE, *Moral*, is defined by Aristotle to be an elective habit, placed in a mediocrity, determined by reason, and as a prudent man would determine. See the sequel of this article.

We shall here subjoin as concise an account as possible of the principal systems of morality or ethics that have been proposed by different writers, both ancient and modern, who have treated of this subject; from which the reader will be able to discover the opinions that have chiefly prevailed with regard to the nature, foundation, and obligation of virtue, referring for a more extended and elaborate account of the subject to the article *Moral Philosophy*.

It may be proper to premise, that virtue has been distinguished into *abstract* or *absolute*, and *relative* or *practical* virtue. *Abstract* virtue is, most properly, a quality of the external action or event; and denotes what an action is, considered independently of the sense of the agent; or what, in itself and absolutely, it is right such an agent, in such circumstances, should do, and what, if he judged truly, he would judge he ought to do. *Practical* virtue, on the contrary, has a necessary relation to, and dependence upon, the sense and opinion of the agent concerning his actions; or it signifies what he ought to do, upon supposition of his having such and such sentiments of things. Agreeably to this distinction, good actions have been by some divided into such as are *materially* good, and such as are *formally* so. The enquiry concerning the foundation of virtue refers to absolute virtue: and if it be asked what the foundation of virtue is, we may mean either, what is the true account or reason that such and such actions are right, or apprehended as such by us; or, what are the primary principles and heads

heads of virtue, *i. e.* the considerations inferring obligation in particular cases, and rendering particular actions right and fit to be done; or, moreover, what are the motives, causes, and reasons, which engage or attach us to it, and support the practice of it in the world. In this last sense the term must be used by those who represent the will of God, self-interest, the reasons of things, and the moral sense, as all distinct and coincident foundations of virtue.

An ingenious writer, in forming his arrangement of the different systems of moral philosophy, of which we shall here avail ourselves, observes, that in treating of the principles of morals, there are two questions to be considered: first, wherein does virtue consist, or what, in temper and conduct, constitutes the excellent and laudable character? and secondly, by what power of the mind is this character, whatever it be, recommended to us? The first question is examined when we consider whether virtue consists in benevolence; as Dr. Hutcheson imagines; or in acting suitably to the different relations of persons and things, as Dr. Clarke supposes; or in a conformity to the will of God; or in the prudent pursuit of our own true happiness, as others have maintained. In reference to the second question we consider, whether the virtuous character, whatever it consists in, be recommended to us by self-love, which makes us perceive that this character, both in ourselves and others, tends most to promote our own private interest; or by reason, which points out to us the difference between one character and another, in the same manner as it does that between truth and falsehood; or by a peculiar power of perception, called a moral sense, which this virtuous character gratifies and pleases, as the contrary disgusts and displeases it; or lastly, by some other principle in human nature, such as the modification of sympathy, or the like.

The different accounts which have been given of the nature of virtue, may be reduced to three different classes. According to some, virtue, or the virtuous temper of mind, does not consist in any one species of affections, but in the proper government and direction of all our affections, which may be either virtuous or vicious, according to the objects which they pursue, the principles and motives that direct the pursuit of them, and the degree of vehemence with which they pursue them. According to these authors, therefore, virtue consists in propriety.

According to others, virtue consists in the judicious pursuit of our own private interest and happiness, or in the proper government and direction of those selfish affections which aim solely at this end. In the opinion of these authors, virtue consists in prudence.

Others again make virtue consist in those affections only which aim at the happiness of others, not in those which aim at our own. According to them, therefore, disinterested benevolence is the only motive which can stamp upon any action the character of virtue.

According to Plato, Aristotle, and Zeno, virtue consists in propriety of conduct, or in the suitableness of the affection from which we act to the object which excites it. In the system of Plato, reason is the judging and ruling faculty; and virtue, according to him, consists in that state of mind in which every faculty confines itself within its proper sphere, without encroaching on that of any other, and performs its proper office with that precise degree of vigour which belongs to it: or, in other words, virtue consists in propriety of conduct.

Virtue, according to Aristotle, (as we have already stated,) consists in the habit of mediocrity, according to right reason; every particular virtue lying in a kind of medium between two opposite vices; and thus, by making

virtue to consist in practical habits, he probably had in view to oppose the doctrine of Plato, who seems to have thought that just sentiments concerning what was fit to be done or avoided were of themselves sufficient to constitute the most perfect virtue. Aristotle, on the contrary, was of opinion, that no conviction of the understanding was capable of getting the better of inveterate habits, and that good morals arose not from knowledge but from action.

Others disallow the Peripatetic notion of virtue, as placed in a habit: for a habit, or habituality, say they, includes two things; a custom, and facility; the first as a cause, and the second as an effect: so that a habit is nothing but a facility acquired by custom. They, therefore, who make virtue a habit of doing well, must, of necessity, ascribe it to a frequent exercise of good actions. But this cannot be; for the virtue must be before the good actions; and the habit, after them. Indeed, whence should the actions proceed, but from virtue? Virtue, therefore, is before the good actions, and, certainly, before a habit, resulting from a frequency of good actions. Hence, they define virtue to be a firm purpose, or resolution, of doing whatever right reason demands to be done. For, though a custom of doing well be required to make a person esteemed good among men; yet it does not follow that that custom, or habit, is the formal cause of that denomination, or the goodness itself.

Besides, from the definition of Aristotle, none can know what virtue is; for what mediocrity is; or what an extreme, in which he supposes vice to consist, can never be determined, till we know what is agreeable to the nature of things; and, moreover, the definition is faulty, because there are some branches of virtue which cannot be carried to an extreme.

In this connection we may observe, that as on various occasions mankind act more from habit than reflection, and that they are in a great degree passive under their habits, the exercise of virtue, the guilt of vice, or the use of moral and religious knowledge, consist in forming and contracting these habits. Hence it appears, that it is in many cases a very important and useful principle of virtue (see *HABIT*); and we shall thus be able to explain the nature of *habitual* virtue. Whatever definition of virtue we may adopt, a man may, in fact, perform many acts that justly merit the denomination of virtuous, without thinking at the time of the principle from which he acts; whether it be rectitude, benevolence, a regard to the will of God, or a view to his own happiness.

According to Zeno and the Stoics, virtue consisted in choosing and rejecting all different objects and circumstances according as they were by nature rendered more or less the objects of choice or rejection; in selecting those which were most to be chosen, when all could not be obtained; and in selecting those which were least to be avoided, when all could not be avoided. This constituted the essence of virtue, and was what the Stoics called to live consistently, to live according to nature, and to obey those laws which nature, or the Author of nature, prescribed for our conduct: and in this course, they required the most perfect apathy, and considered every emotion which might in the smallest degree disturb the tranquillity of the mind, as the effect of levity and folly.

Besides these ancient there are some modern systems, according to which virtue consists in propriety; or in the suitableness of the affection from which we act, to the cause or object which excites it. The system of Dr. Clarke, Mr. Balguy, and other writers, which places virtue in acting according to the relations of persons and

things, in regulating our conduct according to the fitness or incongruity which there may be in the application of certain actions to certain things, or to certain relations: that of Mr. Grove and others, who explain virtue by saying, that it is the conformity of our actions to reason or wisdom; that of many others, who represent it as originating in a regard to the will of God; that of Mr. Wollaston, which places it in acting according to the truth of things, actions as well as words having a language, so that when this action is agreeable to the nature of things, the action is virtuous, and when it implies a false assertion, vicious: that of lord Shaftesbury, which places it in maintaining a proper balance of the affections, and allowing no passion to go beyond its proper sphere, or in a certain just disposition of a rational creature towards the moral objects of right and wrong: are all of them reducible to the same fundamental idea of propriety, as it has been explained.

The first ancient of those systems, which make virtue consist in prudence, is that of Epicurus, who maintained that bodily pleasure and pain were the sole ultimate objects of natural desire and aversion, and were the sources of those of the mind; and who placed the most perfect happiness which man was capable of enjoying in ease of body, and in tranquillity of mind. According to him, virtue did not deserve to be pursued for its own sake, nor was itself one of the ultimate objects of natural appetite, but was eligible on account of its tendency to prevent pain, and to procure ease and pleasure. Among our modern writers on the subject of morality, there have been some who have placed all virtue in a wise regard to our own interest: this seems to have been the opinion of Dr. Waterland, Dr. Rutherford, &c.

The system which makes virtue consist in benevolence, seems to have been the doctrine of most of those philosophers who, about and after the age of Augustus, called themselves Eclectics, who pretended to follow chiefly the opinions of Plato and Pythagoras, and who are commonly known by the name of the later Platonists. In the divine nature, according to them, benevolence was the sole principle of action, and directed the exertion of all the other attributes. The wisdom of the Deity was employed in finding out the means for bringing about those ends which his goodness suggested, as his infinite power was exerted to execute them. Benevolence, however, was a supreme and governing attribute, to which the others were subservient, and from which the whole excellency of the divine operations was ultimately derived. The whole perfection and virtue of the human mind consisted in some resemblance and participation of the divine perfections, and, consequently, in being filled with the same principle of benevolence, which influenced all the actions of the Deity. This system, as it was much esteemed by many of the ancient fathers of the church, was, after the Reformation, adopted by several divines of the most eminent piety and learning, and of the most amiable manners; particularly by Dr. Ralph Cudworth, Dr. Henry More, and Mr. John Smith, of Cambridge. Mr. Bayes has also more lately considered benevolence as the spring of the divine actions; whilst Mr. Balguy referred them all to rectitude, and Mr. Grove to wisdom. The subject was ably canvassed by these writers, and several excellent pamphlets published on the occasion. But of all the patrons of the system of benevolence, the late Dr. Hutcheson pursued it to the greatest extent, and with distinguished acuteness and accuracy. Accordingly, he defines moral goodness to be a quality apprehended in some actions, which produces approbation and love towards the actor, from those who receive no benefit from the action; and he observes, that the mix-

ture of any selfish motive diminishes or altogether destroys the merit which would otherwise have belonged to any action, and, therefore, that virtue must consist in pure and disinterested benevolence alone. Others, and particularly Dr. Cumberland, in his Law of Nature, have placed the whole of virtue in the love of God and our fellow-creatures: to this purpose he observes (De Legat. Nat. cap. i. sect. 4.), the foundation of all natural law is this, that the greatest benevolence of every rational agent towards all forms the happiest state of every and of all the benevolent, as far as is in their power, and is necessarily requisite to the happiest state which they can attain; and, therefore, the common good is the supreme law. Archdeacon Paley, deservedly esteemed as one of our most popular modern writers, defines virtue to be "the doing good to mankind, in obedience to the will of God, and for the sake of everlasting happiness." According to this definition, in our judgment partly just and partly erroneous (see *Moral Philosophy*), but comprehending the sentiments of those who refer virtue to benevolence, to the will of God, and to a regard to their own happiness, the good of mankind is the subject, the will of God the rule, and everlasting happiness the motive of human virtue.

The three systems above recited comprehend the principal accounts which have been given of the nature of virtue. To one or other of these, all the other definitions or descriptions of virtue, how different soever they may appear, are easily reducible. That system which places virtue in obedience to the will of the Deity, may be counted among those which makes it consist in prudence, or among those which make it consist in propriety. When it is asked, why we ought to obey the will of the Deity, the question can admit but of two different answers. It must either be said, that we ought to obey the will of the Deity because he is a being of infinite power, who will recompense or punish: or it must be said, that, independent of any regard to our own happiness, or to rewards and punishments of any kind, there is a congruity and fitness that a creature should obey its Creator, and a limited imperfect being submit to one of infinite perfection. In the first case, virtue consists in prudence, or in the proper pursuit of our own final and supreme interest; since it is upon this account that we are obliged to obey the will of the Deity: and in the latter case, virtue must consist in propriety; since the ground of our obligation to obedience is the suitableness or congruity of the sentiments of humility and submission to the superiority of the object which excites them. That system which places virtue in utility, coincides too with that which makes it consist in propriety.

All the systems above recited suppose, that there is a real and essential distinction between virtue and vice, whatever these qualities may consist in. There is a real and essential difference between the propriety and impropriety of any affection; between benevolence and any other principle of action; between real prudence and short-sighted folly or precipitate rashness. And the general tendency of all these systems is to encourage the best and most laudable dispositions and habits.

There are, however, some other systems, which seem altogether to annihilate the distinction between vice and virtue, and the tendency of which is, therefore, wholly pernicious: such are the systems of Rochefoucault, and Mandeville, who ascribes actions commonly accounted virtuous to the frivolous motive of vanity: treating every thing as vanity that has any reference to what are, or ought to be the sentiments of others; and by means of such sophistry he establishes his favourite conclusion, that private vices are public benefits.

After the enquiry concerning the nature of virtue, the next

next question of importance in moral philosophy concerns the principle of *approbation* (which see), or that faculty of the mind which renders certain characters agreeable or disagreeable to us, makes us prefer one tenor of conduct to another, denominate the one right and the other wrong, and consider the one as the object of approbation, honour, and reverence, and the other as that of blame, censure, and punishment. Three different accounts have been given of this principle of approbation. According to some, we approve and disapprove both of our own actions and of those of others, from self-love only, or from some view of their tendency to our own happiness or disadvantage. (See *UTILITY*.) According to others, reason, the same faculty by which we distinguish between truth and falsehood, enables us to distinguish between what is fit and unfit both in actions and affections; according to others, this distinction is altogether the effect of immediate sentiment and feeling, and arises from the satisfaction or disgust with which the view of certain actions or affection inspires us.

Those who account for the principle of approbation from self-love, differ in their representation of its influence. According to Mr. Hobbes, and many of his followers, man is driven to take refuge in society, not by any natural love which he bears to his own kind, but because without the assistance of others, he is incapable of subsisting with ease or safety: virtue being the great support, and vice the great disturber of human society, whence the former necessarily pleases, and the latter is as naturally offensive. Moreover, a state of nature, according to Mr. Hobbes, being a state of war, so that antecedent to the constitution of civil government, there could be no safe and peaceable society among men; to preserve society was to support civil government, and the support of civil government depends upon the obedience that is paid to the supreme magistrate; hence it was inferred, that the laws of the civil magistrate ought to be regarded as the sole ultimate standard of what was just and unjust, right and wrong. See *HOBBSISM*.

In order to confute so odious a doctrine, it was necessary to prove, that antecedent to all law or positive institution, the mind was naturally endowed with a faculty, by which it distinguished in certain actions and affections the qualities of right, laudable, and virtuous, and in others, those of wrong, blameable, and vicious. This faculty was reason, which pointed out the difference between right and wrong, in the same manner in which it did between truth and falsehood. Right and wrong, it is argued, denote simple ideas, and are, therefore, to be ascribed to some immediate power of perception in the human mind, which power is the understanding. Besides, all actions have a nature; some character belongs to them, and there is something that may be affirmed of them, *i. e.* some are right and others wrong. But if our actions are, in themselves, either right or wrong, or any thing of a moral and obligatory nature, which can be an object to the understanding, it must follow that in themselves they are all indifferent. From such reasoning it follows, that morality is eternal and immutable: because right and wrong denote what actions are; and whatever any thing is, that it is not by will, or decree, or power, but by nature and necessity. No will can render any thing good and obligatory, which was not so antecedently and from eternity; or any action right, that is not so in itself. In this view of it, morality appears not to be, in any sense, factitious, or the arbitrary production of any power, human or divine; but equally everlasting and necessary with all truth and reason. Some have supposed, however, that, in men, the rational principle, or the intellectual discernment of right and wrong, should be aided by somewhat instinctive. Of this number is Dr. Price,

who, in his reasoning concerning the original of our ideas of the *beauty* and *deformity* of actions, observes, that in contemplating the actions and affections of moral agents, we have both a perception of the understanding, and a feeling of the heart; and that the latter, or the effects in us accompanying our moral perceptions, are deducible from two springs; they partly depend on the positive constitution of our natures, but the most steady and universal ground of them is the essential congruity or incongruity between the object and faculty; in other words, *placet juxta natura—virtus*: Sen. or, *Etiam si à nullo laudetur, natura est laudabile*. Tully. See *COMMON SENSE*.

This leads us to mention those systems which make sentiment the principle of approbation; these may be distributed into two different classes.

According to some, the principle of approbation is founded upon a sentiment of a peculiar nature, upon a particular power of perception exerted by the mind at the view of certain actions and affections; some of which affecting this faculty in an agreeable, and others in a disagreeable manner, the former are stamped with the characters of right, laudable, and virtuous; the latter with those of wrong, blameable, and vicious.

This sentiment being of a peculiar nature, distinct from every other, and the effect of a particular power of perception, they give it a particular name, and call it a moral sense.

Dr. Hutcheson, having taken great pains to prove that the principle of approbation was not founded on self-love, and that it could not arise from any operation of reason, supposed it to be a faculty of a peculiar kind, with which nature had endowed the human mind, in order to produce this particular and important effect. This power, which he called a moral sense, he supposed to be somewhat analogous to the external senses.

According to his system, the various senses or powers of perception, from which the human mind derives all its simple ideas, were of two different kinds, of which one were called the direct or antecedent, the other the reflex or consequent senses. The direct senses were those faculties from which the mind derived the perception of such species of things, *e. gr.* sounds and colours, as did not pre-suppose the antecedent perception of any other quality or object. The reflex or consequent senses, were those faculties from which the mind derived the perception of such species of things as pre-supposed the antecedent perception of some other; such as harmony and beauty.

The moral sense was considered as a faculty of this kind. That faculty, which Mr. Locke calls reflection, and from which he derived the simple ideas of the different passions and emotions of the human mind, was according to Dr. Hutcheson a direct internal sense. That faculty again, by which we perceived the beauty or deformity, the virtue or vice of those different passions and emotions, was a reflex internal sense.

Dr. Hutcheson endeavoured still farther to support this doctrine, by shewing that it was agreeable to the analogy of nature, and that the mind was endowed with a variety of other reflex senses exactly similar to the moral sense; such as a sense of beauty and deformity in external objects; a public sense, by which we sympathize with the happiness or misery of our fellow-creatures; a sense of shame and honesty, and a sense of ridicule.

To this system it has been objected, that it makes virtue an arbitrary thing, depending on the positive constitution of our minds; that right and wrong are only qualities of our minds and sensations, depending on the particular frame and structure

structure of our natures, which have no other measure or standard besides every one's private structure of mind and sensations; that it implies, that a creature with intelligence, reason, and liberty, could not have performed one good action, without that instinctive affection to which Dr. Hutcheson ascribes every good action; that it makes brutes capable of virtue, because they are capable of affections; that it estimates the excellency of characters by the strength of passions, by no means in our power; and that, upon the whole, it gives us a much less honourable idea of virtue than other systems, which make it to consist in the agreement of the actions of an intelligent being, with the nature, circumstances, and relations of things, and of which reason is the judge.

We shall only add, that the opinion of those who maintain our ideas of morality to be derived from sense, is far from being entirely modern. There were, among the ancients, philosophers, particularly Protagoras and his followers, who entertained a like opinion, but extended it much farther, that is, to all science, denying all absolute and immutable truth, and asserting every thing to be relative to perception.

According to others, who ascribe the principle of approbation to sentiment, there is no occasion for supposing any new power of perception; nature acting in this, as in all other cases, with the strictest economy, and producing a multitude of effects from one and the same cause; and therefore, sympathy, they say, a power which has always been taken notice of, and with which the mind is manifestly endowed, is sufficient to account for all the effects ascribed to this peculiar faculty. Of this number is Dr. Adam Smith: (See SYMPATHY.) See also Smith's Theory of Moral Sentiments, passim; and particularly part i. sect. 1, 2, 3.

The term *obligation* of virtue, or moral obligation, frequently occurs among moral writers; and it is very differently defined and explained. Mr. Balfour defines obligation to be a state of the mind into which it is brought by perceiving a reason for action; but an excellent writer observes, that this is the effect of obligation perceived, rather than obligation itself.

Other writers, with Dr. Cumberland, have defined obligation the necessity of doing a thing in order to be happy; but if this be the only sense of obligation, what is meant when we say, a man is obliged to study his own happiness? In this case we can only mean, that it is right to study our own happiness, and wrong to neglect it.

Dr. Warburton maintains, that moral obligation always denotes some object of will or law, or implies some obliger; and accordingly, the word obligation signifies only the particular fitness of obeying the divine will, and cannot properly be applied to any other fitness, which is restraining the sense of the word in a manner unwarranted by the common use of it.

Moral obligation, says Dr. Paley, is like all other obligations; and all obligation is nothing more than an *inducement* of sufficient strength, and refusing, in some way, from the command of another. As the will of God is our rule, to inquire what is our duty, or what we are obliged to do, in any instance, is, in effect, to inquire, what is the will of God in that instance? This is to be determined either by his express declarations, which must be sought for in scripture, or by the light of nature, *i. e.* what we can discover of his designs and disposition from his works; and therefore it is absurd to separate natural and revealed religion from one another.

Mr. Hume, in his fourth Appendix to his Principles of Morals, has been pleased to complain of the modern scheme of uniting ethics with the Christian theology. They who

find themselves disposed to join in this complaint will do well to observe what Mr. Hume himself has been able to make of morality without this union. And for that purpose, let them read the second part of the ninth section of the above essay; which part contains the practical application of the whole treatise,—a treatise, which Mr. Hume declares to be “incomparably the best he ever wrote.” When they have read it over, let them consider, whether any motives there propounded are likely to be found sufficient to withhold men from the gratification of lust, revenge, envy, ambition, avarice, or to prevent the existence of these passions. Unless they rise up on this celebrated essay, says archdeacon Paley, with stronger impressions upon their minds, than it ever left upon mine, they will acknowledge the necessity of additional fancies. But the necessity of these fancies is not now the question. If they be *in fact established*, if the rewards and punishments held forth in the gospel will actually come to pass, they *must* be considered. Such as reject the Christian religion are to make the best shift they can to build up a system, and lay the foundations of morality without it. But it appears to be a great inconsistency in those who receive Christianity, and expect something to come of it, to endeavour to keep all such expectations out of sight in their reasonings concerning human duty.

Dr. Hutcheson says, a person is obliged to an action, when every spectator, or he himself, upon reflection, must approve his action, and disapprove omitting it. Obligation to act, however, and reflex approbation or disapprobation, do, in one sense, always accompany and imply one another; yet they seem as different as an act and an object of the mind, or as perception and the truth perceived. After all it may be observed, that however variously and loosely this word may be used, its primary and original signification coincides with rectitude: right implies duty in its idea, so that to perceive an action to be right, is to see a reason for the doing it in the action itself, abstracted from all other considerations whatever; and this perception, this acknowledged rectitude in the action, is the very essence of this obligation, or that which commands the approbation and choice, or binds the conscience of every rational being. See Price's Review of the Principal Questions, &c. in Morals, chap. vi.; Adams's Sermon on the Nature and Obligation of Virtue; and Paley's Principles of Moral and Political Philosophy, vol. i.

Moralists usually distinguish four principal, or, as they are vulgarly called, *cardinal virtues*; *viz.* *prudence, justice, fortitude, and temperance*: the reason of which division is founded in this: that, for a man to live virtuously and honestly, it is necessary he know what is fit to be done; which is the business of *prudence*. That he have a constant and firm will to do what he judges best; which will perfect the man, either as it restrains too violent perturbations, the office of *temperance*: or as it spurs and urges on those that are too slow and languid, which is the business of *fortitude*: or, lastly, comparatively, and with regard to human society; which is the object of *justice*.

To these four all the other virtues are referred, either as parts, or as concomitants.

Some ethical writers divide virtue into *benevolence, prudence, fortitude, and temperance*; by others it is distinguished into two branches only, *prudence and benevolence*; the former attentive to our own interest, and the latter to that of our fellow-creatures, both directed to the increase of happiness, and taking equal concern in the future as in the present: but the division that is now most common, is into duties towards God, as piety, reverence, resignation, gratitude, &c.; towards other men (relative duties), as justice, charity, fidelity, loyalty,

loyalty, &c.; towards *ourselves*, as chastity, sobriety, temperance, preservation of life, of health, &c.

VIRTUES, in the *Celestial Hierarchy*, the third rank, or choir, of angels, being that in order between *dominations* and *powers*.

To these is attributed the power of working miracles, and of strengthening and reinforcing the inferior angels in the exercise of their functions.

VIRTUES of *Plants*, in the history of *Botany*, are generally understood to be certain qualities, appropriated to every plant, and inherent in its constitution, by which it is rendered effectual in the cure of particular diseases. The discovery of such qualities was, doubtless, at first, in every country, casual, or empirical; and the history or knowledge of them traditional. Such knowledge, acquired to any considerable extent, rendered its possessor an important personage in human society; and when combined with skill in the discrimination of diseases themselves, completed the character of a physician. Such was the science of Hippocrates and Dioscorides; the former having been best versed in the knowledge of diseases; the latter in a practical acquaintance with their reputed remedies. This kind of practical knowledge makes up the whole history of ancient medicine. How soon hypothetical enquiries, or opinions, may have arisen, it is scarcely possible to learn, or even to conjecture. Among these, the supposed influence of the heavenly bodies upon the properties of plants, particularly with respect to the time when they ought to be gathered in order to be the most effectual, seems one of the most ancient hypotheses. When the imagination was once let loose, and theory took place of experience, mankind were disposed to run headlong into this, like every other superstition or folly. The complete history of such, is buried in the darkness of antiquity; but its traces are abundantly visible in the medical records of every ancient nation, especially of China, Hindoostan, Arabia, and Greece; nor are they quite effaced among the most enlightened people. Into these it is by no means our present purpose to enter.

At that memorable era in the history of mankind, emphatically termed the revival of learning, the first object of learned physicians was to inform themselves of the opinions of the ancients, on every subject connected with their science, and above all, on the Medical Virtues of Plants. No one presumed to have an opinion which was not authorized by a Greek or Latin, or perhaps an Arabian, writer. So that here the science of medicine, philosophically considered, made a complete stand, and became once more traditional and empirical.

We have, under the article ODONTITES, spoken of one method, which was systematically used, to investigate the qualities of plants; a comparison of their outward form with certain parts of the human body, on which they were supposed specifically to act. Some traces of this notion may be found in Dioscorides; in his account of the *Orchir*, for instance; which plant is indeed so remarkable for the figure of its root, that one cannot wonder at any fancies it may have excited, nor that supposed qualities, founded thereon, should have been handed down to our times. The celebrated restorative properties of Salep rest, we believe, on no firmer foundation, whatever may be the effect of the wine, sugar, or aromatics added to make that mucilaginous substance palatable, or whatever nutriment it may, as a mucilage, contain. If however there be, in this instance, some casual coincidence between the shape and the specific virtue of the plant, the same will scarcely be believed to exist between heart-shaped leaves, or roots, and the human heart; or between herbs with capillary stalks, like ferns or mosses,

and the hair of our heads. A person raging with the tooth-ache would not twice recur for a cure, to the various kinds of Toothwort, because of their notched roots, though one of them, *Lathraea Squamaria*, be ever so good an imitation of the fore teeth. Yet these, and many other vain imaginations, are found in the elaborate book of Baptista Porta. So far we might take him for an honest enthusiast. But when he purposely delineates the roots of *Doronicum* or *Arnica*, with the precise shape of a scorpion, to prove the plants a cure for its sting; we can scarcely believe he intended to deceive himself, and therefore he must have had some other aim, not worth inquiring into. Few persons will be led by this author, to believe in any connection between the hooked prickles of a Bramble, and the teeth of a Viper, or the scales of a Lily-root, and those of a Fish. We shall detain the reader no longer on this part of our subject.

Chemical analysis has proved absolutely useless to detect the properties of plants. The world is obliged to Geoffroy, Chomel, and their pupils, who with this aim have analysed nearly two thousand different species; because their labours, having led to no discovery whatever, except of their own futility, no man in future will have any inducement to waste his time in this pursuit.

Linnaeus was, if we mistake not, the first person who suggested an enquiry into the qualities of plants, on the principle of botanical affinity, or technical characters. That vegetables of one great obvious natural class, such as Grasses, Leguminous or Umbelliferous plants, should have a general agreement with each other, is probable at first sight. Each class may be expected to be throughout salutary or dangerous, and they generally prove so, with certain limitations. The Dandelion is almost a solitary instance of any thing pernicious among Grasses; Umbellate plants in a dry soil are aromatic and wholesome; in a wet one, acrid and highly dangerous. The *Convolvulus* genus affords several eminently purgative roots, nor would any rational botanist venture to use them without caution; though the operations of cookery render one of this genus, *C. Batatas*, wholesome and delicious. The acrid qualities of one species of *Euphorbia*, as being a most decidedly marked, and very peculiar, genus, are found in more or less activity, in all. Agreement in the parts of fructification is therefore, with great reason, set forth by the learned author of the sexual system, as the index to a similarity of properties. Thus the *Stellate* are diuretic, the *Asperifoliae* emollient, the *Luride* narcotic and dangerous, the *Bicornes* astringent, the *Verticillate* fragrant and harmless, the *Compositae* bitter, greatly meliorated by culture and cookery. All these, though named from various characters, are distinguished by their fructification. The different insertion of parts sometimes indicates a difference of quality, of which the class *Icosandra* is a memorable and often repeated example. The insertion of its *stamens* into the *calyx*, is attended with a wholesome fruit, and the same insertion in other classes, may be safely trusted in that respect. Plants which have a *nectary* distinct from the *petals*, are always to be mistrusted. So are milky plants in general, yet not without exception. A dry soil usually renders plants aromatic and wholesome, and abounds most with such; moisture, or much wet, nourishes viscid, acrid, poisonous tribes, of various descriptions. Sweet-smelling and agreeably-flavoured vegetables are, for the most part, wholesome, for it were a sort of treachery in Nature to have made them otherwise. Fetid herbs and nauseous fruits are revolting to our senses, and warn us of danger. Linnaeus observes that a pale colour indicates insipidity, at least in the herbage; yellow is a sign of bitterness or acrimony;

mony; red, of acidity or astringency; black, of a noxious quality. Even this last however is overruled by the infection of the flames into the calyx; witness *Prunus* and *Ribes*.

Such are a few of the hints given by Linnæus. They are well worthy of consideration, and may be extended or modified by practical observation. Exceptions, of course, will present themselves, but scarcely more than occur in any other department of natural science.

It is hardly necessary to say that the above rules relate exclusively to the human constitution. Some animals feed on what are fatal poisons to others. The Goat and Deer browse on the *Clematis*, which would blister our throat, or even our skin; and delight in the nauseous virulent seed of the Horse Chestnut. Insects thrive on the most bitter or burning milky herbs or shrubs, which no quadruped could taste with impunity. Nature teaches every animal what is salutary to itself, and what is dangerous; but man is capable of reason and science, to make experiments and observations, and to enlarge the sphere of his knowledge by drawing general conclusions.

VIRTUOSO, A man possessed of talents in any of the fine arts is called a virtuoso, but particularly in music, where it usually implies a professor of talents.

Among us, the term seems appropriated to those who apply themselves to some curious and quaint, rather than immediately useful art or study: as antiquaries, collectors of rarities of any kind, microscopical observers, &c.

VIRTZ, in *Geography*, a lake of Russia, in the government of Riga, about forty miles in circumference; 96 miles N.E. of Riga.

VIRUCINATES, in *Ancient Geography*, a people of Vindelicæ, denominated Rucinati by Hardouin, who is justified in this reading by Ptolemy.

VIRUELA, in *Geography*, a town of Spain, in Aragon; 6 miles from Tarracena.

VIRUESCA. See **BIRVIESCA**.

VIRULENT, a term applied to any thing that yields a virus, that is, a contagious or malignant pus.

The gonorrhœa virulenta is what we popularly call a *clap*.

VIRUNI, in *Ancient Geography*, a people of Germany, placed by Ptolemy with the Teutonari, between the country of the Saxons and that of the Suevi.

VIRUNUM, a town situated in the northern part of Germany, probably belonging to the Viruni, and supposed by Cluvier to be the present Waren, in Mecklenburg.—Also, a town of Norica, or Isle of Norica, in the middle of the Danube, upon the route from Aquileia to Lauriacum, between Santicum and Candalica, according to Anton. Itin. In the table of Peutinger it is named Varenum. It is thought that the emperor Claudius established a colony in this place. Cellarius supposes that this is the present Volckmarck, in Carinthia.

VIRUPAKSHA, in *Mythology, a name of the Hindoo deity *Shiva*; which see. It is said to mean *with three eyes*, similar to *Trilokan*; which see. The epithet *Sri*, or divine, is commonly prefixed to this name. See **SRI** and **SRI-VIRUPAKSHA**.*

VIS, or **VISAY**, in *Commerce*, a weight in the East Indies, which is the eighth part of the maund. See **MAUND**.

Vis, in *Physiology*, a term employed to denote the vital powers: thus, *vis instita* is the contractile power of a muscle, so named because it is inherent in the organization of the part, and not dependent on any other influence: it is equivalent to *vis irritabilis*. *Vis nervæ* is that power of contraction which depends on the nerves. *Vis vite* is a general expression for the vital power altogether. See **LIFE**, **MUSCLE**, and **NERVOUS System**.

Vis, a Latin word, signifying force or power; adopted by physical writers, to express divers kinds of natural powers or faculties. See **FORCE**.

This is active and passive; the *vis activa* is the power of producing motion; the *vis passiva*, that of receiving or losing it. The *vis activa* is again subdivided into *vis viva* and *vis mortua*.

Vis Absoluta, or *absolute force*, is that kind of centripetal force which is measured by the motion that would be generated by it in a given body, at a given distance, and depends on the efficacy of the cause producing it.

Vis Acceleratrix, or *accelerating force*, is that centripetal force which produces an accelerated motion, and is proportional to the velocity which it generates in a given time.

This is different at different distances from the same central body; and depends not on the quantity of matter that gravitates, being equal in all sorts of bodies at equal distances from the centre. See **ACCELERATION**.

Vis Impressa is defined by Sir Isaac Newton to be the action exercised on any body to change its state, either of rest or moving uniformly in a right line.

This force consists altogether in the action; and has no place in the body after the action has ceased. For the body perseveres in every new state by the *vis inertia* alone.

The *vis impressa* may arise from divers causes; as from percussion, pressure, and centripetal force.

Vis Inertia, *power of inactivity*, is defined by Sir Isaac Newton to be a power implanted in all matter, by which it resists any change endeavoured to be made in its state, *i. e.* whereby it becomes difficult to alter its state, either of rest or motion.

This power, then, coincides with the *vis resistendi*, power of resisting, by which every body endeavours, as much as it can, to persevere in its own state, whether of rest or uniform rectilinear motion; which power is still proportional to the body, and only differs from the *vis inertia* of the mass, in the manner of conceiving it.

Bodies only exert this power in changes brought on their state by some *vis impressa*, force impressed on them. And the exercise of this power is, in different respects, both resistance and impetus; resistance, as the body opposes a force impressed on it to change its state; and impetus, as the same body endeavours to change the state of the resisting obstacle. Phil. Nat. Princ. Math. lib. i.

The *vis inertia*, the same great author elsewhere observes, is a passive principle, by which bodies persevere in their motion, or rest, receive motion, in proportion to the force impressing it, and resist as much as they are resisted.

For the effect of the *vis inertia*, in resisting and retarding the motion of bodies, &c. see **RESISTANCE**.

Vis Instita, or *innate force* of matter, is a power of resisting, by which every body, as much as in it lies, endeavours to persevere in its present state, whether of rest or of moving uniformly forward in a right line.

This force is ever proportional to that body whose force it is, and differs nothing from the *vis inertia* but in our manner of conceiving it.

Vis Centripeta. See **CENTRIPETAL Force**.

Vis Centrifuga. See **CENTRIFUGAL Force**.

Vis Motrix, or *moving force*, of a centripetal body, is the tendency of the whole body towards the centre, resulting from the tendency of all the parts, and is proportional to the motion which it generates in a given time, so that the *vis motrix* is to the *vis acceleratrix*, as the motion to the celerity; and as the quantity of motion in a body is estimated by the product of the celerity into the quantity of matter, the

the *vis motrix* arises from the *vis acceleratrix*, multiplied by the quantity of matter.

The followers of Leibnitz use the term *vis motrix* for the force of a body in motion, in the same sense as the Newtonians use the term *vis inertia*; this latter they allow to be inherent in a body at rest; but the former, or *vis motrix*, is a force inherent in the same body whilst in motion, which actually carries it from place to place, by acting upon it always with the same intensity in every physical part of the line which it describes. See FORCE and MOTION.

Vis Viva, in *Mechanics*, a term used by Leibnitz and his disciples for *force*, (which see,) which they distinguish into two kinds, *vis mortua*, and *vis viva*; understanding by the former any kind of pressure, or an endeavour to move, insufficient to produce actual motion, unless its action on a body be continued for some time, and by the latter, that force or power of acting which resides in a body in motion.

VISAKNA, or SALZBURG, in *Geography*, a town of Transylvania, famous for its salt-works; 4 miles N. of Hermanstadt.

VISANDONE, a town of Italy, in Friuli; 5 miles S.W. of Udine.

VISBECK, or FISCHBECK, a town of Westphalia, in the county of Schauenburg, with an imperial free Lutheran abbey for ladies, on the Wefer; 8 miles E. of Rinteln.

VISBURGH, in *Ancient Geography*, a people of Germany, N. of the Hercynian forest. Ptol. According to Cluvier, they are the same people with those placed by Ptolemy in Sarmatia, and named Burgiones. He thinks they inhabited the mountains of Sarmatia and the Vistula, and that from the name of this river they were called Thiwisselburgs, which the Latins corrupted into Visburgi, and others into Burgiones.

VISCAGO, in *Botany*, from *viseum*, bird-lime, and *ago*, to produce or bear, a name borrowed by Dillenius, in Hort. Elth. 416, from Cæsalpinus and Camerarius, and applied to such species of the old genus of *Lychnis*, as have several cells in the capsule. These come chiefly under *SILENE*; see that article. The above name alludes to the viscosity of these plants, and is synonymous with their English appellation, Catchfly.

VISCAGO is also used by some pharmaceutic writers to express a mucilage.

VISCARDO, in *Geography*, a sea-port town on the N. coast of Cephalonia, opposite to the island of Teaki, which gives name to a narrow strait that separates the two islands.

VISCARIA, in *Botany*, a word of the same import as VISCAGO; see that article. It was originally applied by Tabernæmontanus to the common Lobel's Catchfly, *Silene Armeria*; and has been retained by Linnæus, as the specific name of the German Catchfly, *Lychnis Viscaria*. He always wrote it with a capital letter, as if it had previously been used for a generic or proper name, which not being the case, it had better have been considered as an adjective, and made *viscaria*.

VISCERA, in *Anatomy*, a term originally applied to the bowels or intestines, but now used indiscriminately for the organs contained in any cavity of the body. Thus, the heart, lungs, &c. are called the thoracic viscera; the liver, spleen, pancreas, stomach, and intestines, the abdominal viscera, &c.

The term is formed of *vesci*, to feed; by reason eatables, called in Latin *vesca*, undergo divers preparations in the viscera.

The word is also frequently used singularly, *viscus*, to express some particular part of the entrails, because the word *entrails* has no singular.

VOL. XXXVII.

The different internal organs, comprised under the general designation of viscera, are described under their respective heads: see HEART, LUNGS, THYMUS, STOMACH, INTESTINES, LIVER, SPLEEN, PANCREAS, EPIPLOON, and GENERATION.

We have only to add, in the present article, an explanation of the references in the plates representing the anatomy of the viscera.

ANATOMY (*Viscera*). Plate I.

Fig. 1. is a front view of the chest and abdomen in a newly born child; the sternum and neighbouring part of the ribs, with the corresponding pleuræ, the front of the abdominal parietes and diaphragm, having been cut through and removed.

1. Os hyoides.
2. 2. Portion of the sterno-hyoideus and omo-hyoideus muscles.
3. 3. Portion of the sterno-thyroideus turned back.
4. Thyroid cartilage.
5. 5. Hyo-thyroideus.
6. 6. Thyroid gland.
7. Trachea.
8. 8. Portion of the sterno-cleido-mastoideus.
9. 9. Clavicle.
10. 10. First rib.
11. 11. Ninth rib.
12. Thymus.
- 13—15. Right lung: 13. Its superior lobe; 14. Middle lobe; 15. Inferior lobe.
16. 17. Left lung: 16. The superior lobe; 17. The inferior lobe.
18. Pericardium.
19. 19. Diaphragm.
20. 21. Liver: 20. The right lobe; 21. The left lobe.
22. Suspensory ligament of the liver.
23. The umbilical vein turned back.
24. The spleen.
25. 26. Great omentum: 25. Its portion lying on the mesocolon; 26. Loose portion.
27. 27. Arch of the colon.
28. Left portion of the colon.
29. The right portion.
30. 30. The jejunum, filled partly with meconium, partly with air.
31. 31. The ileum.
32. Urinary bladder, with its fundus turned forwards.
33. 33. Umbilical artery.
34. Urachus.
35. Internal surface of the peritoneum.
36. 36. Internal jugular vein.
37. 37. Thyroid vein.
38. 38. Subclavian vein.
39. 39. Common carotid artery.
40. 40. Subclavian artery.
41. Oesophagus.

Fig. 2. exhibits the same view as the last, except that the thymus and pericardium have been removed, and the liver turned up towards the right, so as to expose the stomach.

- 1—4. The heart: 1. Appendix of the right auricle; 2. Pulmonary ventricle; 3. Appendix of the left auricle; 4. Aortic ventricle. (The outline of the heart is marked by a dotted line on the surface of the liver.)
5. Pulmonary artery.

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6. Aorta.

VISCERA.

6. Aorta.
7. Left subclavian artery.
8. Left carotid.
9. Arteria innominata.
10. Right carotid.
11. Right subclavian artery.
12. Superior vena cava.
13. 14. Right internal jugular vein: 13. Portion in the chest; 14. Portion in the neck.
15. Right subclavian vein.
16. 17. Left internal jugular vein: 16. Thoracic portion; 17. Cervical portion.
18. Left subclavian vein.
- 19—22. Concave or under surface of the liver: 19. Right lobe; 20. Square portion; 21. Left lobe; 22. Lobulus Spigelii, seen through the small omentum.
23. Part of the superior or convex surface.
24. 24. Thin edge.
25. 25. Thick edge.
26. Umbilical vein cut through and turned back.
27. The pons covering the notch of the umbilical vein.
28. Gall-bladder.
29. Part of the diaphragm.
30. Spleen.
31. Œsophagus entering the stomach.
32. Œsophagus in the neck.
33. Stomach.
34. Pylorus.
35. Duodenum.
36. 36. Transverse portion of the colon.
37. Right portion of the colon. The other parts are the same as in the preceding figure.

ANATOMY (*Viscera*). Plate II.

Two views from a subject of the same age, as that from which the figures of *Plate I.* are taken, to shew the more deeply seated parts.

Fig. 1. The heart and large vessels only are seen in the chest, the other parts having been removed. The small intestine is removed from the abdomen, and the arch of the colon is turned upwards.

1. Right or pulmonary ventricle of the heart.
2. Aortic or left ventricle.
3. Appendix of the right auricle.
4. Appendix of the left auricle.
5. Pulmonary artery.
6. Aorta.
7. Arteria innominata.
8. Right carotid.
9. Right subclavian.
10. Left carotid.
11. Left subclavian.
12. Inferior vena cava covered by the pericardium.
13. Superior vena cava.
14. Right internal jugular vein.
15. Left internal jugular vein.
16. Trachea.
17. 17. Thyroid gland.
18. Thyroid cartilage.
19. 19. Thyro-hyoideus.
20. 20. Sterno-thyroideus detached and turned back. (The sterno-hyoideus is removed.)
21. 21. Part of the sterno-cleido-mastoideus.
22. 22. Clavicle.
23. 23. First rib.
24. 24. Second rib.

25. 25. Cut edge of the diaphragm.
26. Arch of the colon.
27. Right portion of the colon.
28. Part of the left colon.
29. Transverse mesocolon.
30. Stomach seen obscurely through the mesocolon.
31. Left or great extremity of the stomach.
32. Spleen.
33. Right kidney.
34. Right portion of the colon.
35. Cæcum and appendix vermiformis.
36. End of the ileum.
37. Commencement of the jejunum.
38. Mesentery.
39. 39. Sigmoid flexure of the colon.
40. Its mesocolon.
41. Rectum.
42. Urinary bladder turned forwards and downwards.
43. 43. Umbilical arteries.
44. Urachus.

Fig. 2. All the thoracic viscera are removed; also the diaphragm, and the small intestine, excepting the duodenum. The peritoneum is cleared from the kidney and larger vessels.

1. 1. Thyroid gland.
2. 2. Portion of the sterno-cleido-mastoideus.
3. 3. Sterno-thyroideus detached and turned back. (The sterno-hyoideus is removed.)
4. 4. Thyro-hyoideus.
5. Thyroid cartilage.
6. 6. Clavicle.
7. Trachea.
8. 8. Œsophagus; its longitudinal muscular fibres are exposed.
- 9—11. Stomach moderately distended.
9. The cardia.
10. The blind pouch.
11. Pylorus.
- 12—14. Duodenum: 12. The first curvature; 13. The second; 14. The third.
15. Pancreas.
16. Spleen.
17. Right kidney.
18. Left kidney.
19. Right renal capsule.
20. Portion of diaphragm.
21. Arch of the aorta with its three great branches. See *fig. 1.* N^o 7. 10. 11.
22. Canalis arteriosus.
23. Descending thoracic aorta.
24. Descending abdominal aorta.
25. Right iliac artery.
26. Left iliac artery.
30. 30. Spermatoc artery and vein.
31. 31. Ureter.
32. The cut orifice of the rectum.
33. Urinary bladder turned down.
34. 34. Umbilical artery.
35. Urachus.
36. 36. First rib.

ANATOMY (*Viscera*). Plate III.

Views of the thoracic and abdominal viscera from behind.

Fig. 1. The muscles of the neck and back, the back of

VISCERA.

of the ribs, and the spinous processes of the vertebrae, are removed.

1. 1. First rib.
2. 2. Eleventh rib.
3. 3. Twelfth rib, with the diaphragm and abdominal muscles still attached. The ribs are gently drawn aside, to expose the lungs
4. 4. Sixth cervical vertebra.
5. 5. Sacrum.
6. 6. Gluteus maximus.
7. 7. Gluteus medius.
8. 8. 8. The vertebral theca of the dura mater.
9. The same, covering the cauda equina.
10. 10. The scapulae a little drawn aside.
11. 12. The left lung: 11. Superior lobe; 12. Inferior lobe.
- 13—15. Right lung: 13. Superior lobe; 14. Middle lobe; 15. Inferior lobe.
- 16—18. Diaphragm: 16. Covering the left lobe of the liver, stomach, and spleen; 17. Covering the right lobe; 18. 18. Attached to the twelfth rib.
19. Right renal capsule.
20. Left kidney.
21. Right kidney.
22. Inferior surface of the right lobe of the liver.
23. Left part of the colon.
24. Sigmoid flexure of the colon.
25. Portion of the ileum.

Fig. 2. The vertebral column, together with part of the os innominatum, is removed.

1. 1. First rib.
2. 2. Eleventh rib.
3. 3. Scapula drawn aside.
4. 4. Internal jugular vein.
5. 5. Common carotid artery.
6. 6. Subclavian artery.
7. 7. Inferior thyroid artery.
8. Part of the aortic arch.
9. 10. Descending aorta: 9. Thoracic; 10. Abdominal.
11. Division of the aorta into the common iliacs.
12. Middle sacral artery. The intercostal, renal, and lumbar arteries are not numbered.
13. Vena azygos cut off.
14. Inferior vena cava.
15. Left renal vein.
16. Right renal vein, double in this subject.
17. Union of the iliac veins to form the inferior cava.
18. 18. Par vagum.
19. 19. Thyroid gland; the blood-vessels are drawn aside by a hook on the left side.
20. Lower part of the pharynx.
21. 21. Thyroid cartilage.
22. 22. Oesophagus.
23. 23. Oesophagus entering the stomach.
24. Part of the stomach.
26. 27. Superior and inferior lobes of the left lung.
28. 29. 30. Superior, middle, and inferior lobes of the right lung.
31. 31. 31. Diaphragm.
32. 32. Abdominal muscles.
33. Spleen.
34. Part of the pancreas.
- 35—37. Left and right lobes, and processus caudatus of the liver.
38. Left renal capsule.
39. Right renal capsule.

40. Left kidney.
41. Right kidney.
42. Left ureter.
43. Right ureter.
44. 44. Spermatic vessels.
45. Left portion of the colon.
46. Sigmoid flexure.
47. Part of the jejunum seen through the peritoneum.
48. Rectum.
49. Portion of the ileum.

ANATOMY (*Viscera*). Plate IV.

Four views of the heart, two of which represent its external appearance; the other two, its cavities laid open.

Fig. 1. The convex or superior surface.

1. Right auricle.
2. Its appendix.
3. Left auricle.
4. Its appendix.
5. 6. Left pulmonary veins.
7. Superior vena cava.
8. Place from which the pulmonary artery has been cut off.
9. Aorta.
10. Arteria innominata.
11. Left carotid artery.
12. Left subclavian artery.
13. Right or inferior coronary artery.
14. Left or superior coronary artery.
16. Anterior branch of the great coronary vein.
17. A small vein of the heart opening into the right auricle.

Fig. 3. The heart and its blood-vessels seen on the inferior or flat surface.

1. Right auricle.
2. Inferior vena cava cut off and tied.
3. Superior vena cava.
4. Left auricle.
5. Its appendix.
6. 7. Right pulmonary veins.
8. One of the left pulmonary veins.
9. Right coronary artery.
10. Circumflex branch of the left coronary artery.
12. Great posterior branch of the great coronary vein.
13. 14. Smaller posterior branches.
15. Small branch from the right auricle.
16. Trunk of the great coronary vein ending in the right auricle.

Fig. 3. The left side of the heart exposed.

- 1—5. Left auricle.
4. The appendix.
5. Septum auricularum.
- 6—12. Left ventricle.
6. 6. Auriculo-ventricular opening.
7. 8. 8. Mitral valve.
7. Superior or larger portion.
8. 8. Inferior or smaller portion cut through.
9. 9. 9. Fleishy column, connected to the valve.
10. 10. Reticulated muscular columns.
11. Ventricular septum.
12. Tube placed in the mouth of the aorta.

Fig. 4. The left ventricle and beginning of the aorta laid open.

1. 1. Part of the right ventricle exposed.

2. 2. The septum ventriculorum divided to expose the left ventricle.
3. Cavity of the left ventricle.
4. Part of the mitral valve.
5. 6. 7. Sigmoid or semi-lunar valves.
8. 8. 8. Corpora semioideia Arantii.
9. 10. Orifices of the coronary arteries.
11. Cavity of the aorta.
12. 13. 14. Orifices of its three great superior branches.

VISCERA, *Wounds of the*. See WOUNDS.

VISCERALIA, a term used by physicians to denote such medicines as impart strength and firmness to the sanguineous viscera, such as the liver, spleen, &c.

VISCERATIONES, among the Romans, a feast consisting of the entrails of animals, given to the people at the burial of great men in Rome.

VISCHAR, in *Geography*, a town of Persia, in the province of Irak; 20 miles S.E. of Hamadan.

VISCHER'S ISLAND, a small island in the Pacific ocean, near the E. coast of Morty. N. lat. 2° 21'. E. long. 128° 39'.

VISCHERA, a river of Russia, which runs into the Kama, 16 miles N. of Solikamsk, in the government of Perm.—Also, a river of Russia, which runs into the Vitchehga, 20 miles E. of Nebdankoi, in the province of Utiug.

VISCHMA, a town of Russia, in the government of Tobolsk; 268 miles S.W. of Tobolsk. N. lat. 62° 36'. E. long. 60° 14'.

VISCHNEIVOLOGOK, a town of Russia, in the government of Tver, on a canal, which forms a communication between the Msta and the Tvertza; 60 miles N.W. of Tver. This place is remarkable for the extensive canals on which the great inland navigation of Russia is carried on. The communication just mentioned is by a navigable canal of at least 500 versts, uniting the Caspian with the Baltic. N. lat. 57° 8'. E. long. 34° 54'.

VISCIDITY, or VISCOSITY, the quality of something that is *viscid*, or *viscous*, i. e. glutinous and sticky, like bird-lime; which the Latins call by the name *viscus*.

Viscid bodies are those which consist of parts so implicated within each other, that they resist, a long time, a complete separation, and rather give way to the violence done them by stretching, or extending each way.

The too great viscosity of foods has very ill effects; thus meals, or farinae not fermented, jellies, &c. of animals, tough cheese, or curd too much pressed, produce a weight, or oppression in the stomach; wind, yawnings, crudities, obstructions of the minuter vessels in the intestines, &c. Hence an inactivity of the intestines themselves, a swelling of the abdomen; and hence a viscosity of the blood, from the reunion of the viscid particles; obstructions of the glands, pænies, coldness, tremors, &c.

VISCO, in *Geography*, a village of Italy, in Friuli; 2 miles E. of Palma Nuova.

VISCONTI, CATERINA, of Milan, in *Biography*, an opera singer of great reputation in her day, arrived here in 1742, at the beginning of lord Middlesex's regency, and performed with Monticelli in the operas of Galuppi and Lampugnani, &c. till the year 1745, when the breaking out of the rebellion occasioned an interdict against the whole opera band, vocal and instrumental.

The Visconti had a shrill flexible voice, and could run divisions faster than the violins of those times could follow her. And *bravura* or execution was then so new, that she pleased more in rapid songs than she could have done in those that required high colouring and pathos, if she had been possessed

of either. She was so fat, that her age being the subject of conversation in a company where lord Cheltenham was present; when a gentleman, who supposed her to be much younger than the rest, said she was but two-and-twenty; his lordship, interrupting him, said, "you mean *stone*, sir, not years." She was engaged a second time in the Haymarket for the season of 1753 and 1754; but having been heard in her better day, her talents were pronounced on the decline, which occasioned a declension in the public favour. And at the end of a heavy season she gave way to Mingotti, who, in the autumn of 1754, revived the favour of our lyric theatre, and for two or three seasons gave it a considerable degree of splendour.

VISCOUNT. See VICOUNT.

VISCUM, in *Botany*, so called by Pliny, and by some Latin writers *Viscus*, derives its name from the Greek *ἰσος*, altered by the Æolians into *βισκος*. The transition is easy enough to the Latin, though scarcely to the English appellation of this plant, Milletoe, so famous in the history of our superstitious and barbarous ancestors. We have hinted, under the biographical article SIBTHORP, that this learned traveller and botanist, though he reckoned our *V. album*, still called *ἰσος*, to be the *ἰσος* of Dioscorides, nevertheless suspected latterly that the *Loranthus europæus* might have been considered by the ancients as a more genuine or perfect kind. The latter grows in Arcadia on the Oak; our *Viscum album* on the Silver Fir only. Hence perhaps the Druids, not knowing the *Loranthus*, or true Milletoe of the Oak, attached such importance to the particular plants of the *Viscum* found on this tree; in which over-curious persons, who see with the eyes of tradition and prejudice, rather than with their own natural organs, still affect to perceive something peculiar. We submit this point to the consideration of the learned, not being aware of its having ever been suggested by any one before.—Linn. Gen. 517. Schreb. 680. Willd. Sp. Pl. v. 4. 737. Mart. Mill. Dict. v. 4. Sm. Fl. Brit. 1074. Prodr. Fl. Græc. Sibth. v. 2. 256. Ait. Hort. Kew. v. 5. 371. Swartz Ind. Occ. 266. Pursh 114. Juss. 212. Tourn. t. 380. Lamarck Dict. v. 3. 55. Illust. t. 807. Gaertn. t. 27.—Clas and order, *Dioclea Tetrandra*. Nat. Ord. *Aggregate*, Linn. *Caprifolia*, Juss.

Gen. Ch. Male, *Cal.* none. *Cor.* Petals four, calyx-like, ovate, equal, dilated and connected at the base. *Stam.* Filaments none; anthers four, oblong, pointed, dotted, each attached to the disk of one of the petals.

Female, *Cal.* a slight four-cleft border. *Cor.* Petals four, superior, small, ovate, sessile, calyx-like, deciduous. *Pist.* Germen inferior, oblong, three-sided, crowned with the obsolete calyx; style none; stigma obtuse, scarcely notched. *Peric.* Berry globose, smooth, of one cell. *Seed* solitary, heart-shaped, compressed, obtuse, fleshy, lodged in viscid pulp.

Ess. Ch. Male, Calyx none. Petals four, calyx-like, dilated and cohering at their base. Anthers sessile upon the petals.

Female, Calyx a slight border. Petals four, calyx-like, dilated at the base. Style none. Berry inferior, with one seed.

Obs. The analogy, or natural affinity, of this genus has always induced us to follow Jusseu, rather than Linnaeus, in denominating the principal, or only, integument of its flowers a *corolla*, rather than a *calyx*. All the known species are parasitical, and though probably to be cultivated, if sown on the branches or stems of particular trees, like our only English one, provided we could have their berries fresh, none of them has yet been introduced into any garden, except that species. Their habit is rigid and coriaceous;

leaves, if present, simple, undivided, entire, on short stalks, opposite as well as the branches. *Flowers* in axillary heads or spikes, sessile or stalked, generally greenish and inconspicuous. The species are by no means well understood. We follow Willdenow, who has given the best account of them.

1. *V. album*. Common Mistletoe. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1451. Willd. n. 1. Fl. Brit. n. 1. Engl. Bot. t. 1470. Mill. Illustr. t. 87. Woodv. Suppl. t. 270. (Viscum; Matth. Valgr. v. 2. 161. Camer. Epit. 555. Ger. Em. 1350.)—Leaves lanceolate, obtuse, ribblefs. Stem forked. Flowers five together, in terminal, sessile heads.—Found throughout Europe, on the branches of old apple-trees, hawthorns, lime-trees, oaks, Scotch fir, or the silver fir, as above mentioned, flowering in the spring, and ripening its large white berries late in autumn. The plant forms large, smooth, perennial, bushy tufts, of a pale green, becoming yellowish, and therefore most conspicuous, in winter. The stems are round, repeatedly forked. Leaves about an inch, or inch and half, long, thick and leathery, smooth, tapering down into short thick footstalks. Flowers crowded, yellowish. Anthers singularly and beautifully dotted, almost as large as the petals on which they lie. The sweetish viscid pulp of the pearly berries makes an indifferent sort of bird-lime. This Mistletoe, the golden bough of Virgil, which was Æneas's passport to the infernal regions, and the sacred plant of the Druids, still retains some respect in our churches and kitchens at Christmas, intermixed with Holly, which last, if we mistake not, is Virgil's *Acanthus*.

2. *V. macrostachyon*. Long-spiked Mistletoe. Jacq. Coll. v. 2. 109. t. 5. f. 3. Willd. n. 2.—Leaves linear-lanceolate, obtuse, ribblefs. Spikes axillary, slender, many times longer than the leaves. Flowers remote.—Gathered by Jacquin on trees in Martinico. Branches and leaves smooth, not unlike the foregoing, but the long, slender, articulated spikes abundantly distinguish this species. The flowers are either opposite, or solitary, having but three petals; at least the female ones, according to Jacquin.

3. *V. orientale*. East Indian Mistletoe. Willd. n. 3.—Leaves elliptic-oblong, obtuse, three-ribbed; tapering at the base. Stalks axillary, aggregate, about three-flowered.—Native of the East Indies. We have specimens from the author, as well as from the Rev. Dr. Rottler. The branches are angular when dry. Leaves an inch or more in length, and full half as broad, on short stalks. Flowers either solitary or three together, on very short stalks, as well as crowded into a sort of axillary whorls. Berries red. Willdenow.

4. *V. pauciflorum*. Hoary Cape Mistletoe. Linn. Suppl. 426. Thunb. Prodr. 31. Willd. n. 4.—“Leaves oblong, obtuse, three-ribbed, hoary, smooth; tapering at the base. Flowers axillary, solitary.”—Gathered by Thunberg, at the Cape of Good Hope. The plant is described as hoary, though not downy. The ribs do not extend beyond the middle of the leaf, and escaped the observation of the younger Linnaeus. We have seen no specimen.

5. *V. rubrum*. Red Mistletoe. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1451. Willd. n. 5. (“V. foliis longioribus, baccis rubris; Catfish. Car. v. 2. t. 81.”)—“Leaves obovato-lanceolate, obtuse. Spikes axillary, whorled.”—Found upon trees in Carolina. Catfish alone appears to have seen this species.

6. *V. purpureum*. Purple Mistletoe. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1451. Willd. n. 6. (“V. foliis latioribus, baccis purpureis, pediculis infidentibus; Catfish. Car. v. 2. t. 95.”)—“Leaves obovate, obtuse, obscurely three-ribbed. Spikes axillary, shorter than the leaves. Flowers opposite.—Native of Carolina. Berries purple.

7. *V. buxifolium*. Box-leaved White Mistletoe. Willd. n. 7. (“V. purpureum β ; Linn. Sp. Pl. 1451. V. baccis niveis racemosis, foliis buxi luteis; Plum. Ic. 256. t. 258. f. 3.”)—Leaves obovate, obtuse, single-ribbed. Spikes axillary, nearly the length of the leaves. Flowers opposite.—Native of trees in the West Indies. Berries white. We suspect this may be the first *Viscum* in Browne's Jamaica, p. 356, which he mistook for the *verticillatum* of Linnæus, a widely different plant. But Browne's specimen has occasionally traces of three ribs in the leaves, and he has confounded with it the *flavens* of Swartz.

8. *V. myrtilloides*. Bilberry Mistletoe. Willd. n. 8.—Leaves obovate, obtuse, five-ribbed. Spikes solitary, axillary. Flowers whorled.—Native of trees in Martinico. Leaves an inch long, coriaceous, with five ribs, the lateral ones least conspicuous. Spikes opposite, rather longer than the footstalks. Willdenow. We have West Indian specimens answering to these characters, except that the leaves are three inches long, and rather elliptic-lanceolate than obovate.

9. *V. rotundifolium*. Round-leaved Cape Mistletoe. Linn. Suppl. 426. Thunb. Prodr. 31. Willd. n. 9.—Leaves nearly orbicular, acute, ribblefs. Flowers somewhat whorled.—Found by Thunberg on trees at the Cape of Good Hope. Willdenow says the flowers are either solitary, on simple, aggregate, axillary stalks; or many together, on solitary stalks.

10. *V. antarcticum*. Antarctic Mistletoe. Forst. Prodr. 70. Willd. n. 10.—“Leaves oblong, tapering at each end, obtuse, ribblefs. Clusters terminal, of about five flowers.”—Native of trees in New Zealand.

11. *V. capense*. Naked Cape Mistletoe. Linn. Suppl. 426, excluding the synonym. Willd. n. 11. Thunb. Prodr. 31.—Stem leafless, obscurely quadrangular, roughish, rugose. Flowers whorled, sessile.—Gathered at the Cape of Good Hope by Dr. Sparmann. The stem is much branched, jointed, roughish to the touch, each joint crowned with two scales, like a *Salicornia*. Leaves none. Anthers two or four, dotted with minute excavations. Berries opposite, sometimes three together, sessile, crowned with a small, angular, hardly four-cleft, calyx.

12. *V. vaginatum*. Sheathed Mistletoe. Willd. n. 12.—“Stem leafless, quadrangular. Branches compressed, semi-cylindrical. Joints sheathing.”—Gathered by Humboldt and Bonpland, on trees on the mountains of Mexico. Stem round below, angular upwards. Joints each crowned with a tubular permanent sheath. Leaves none. Berries in the bottom of the sheaths, opposite, solitary. Willdenow.

13. *V. opuntioides*. Wedge-jointed Mistletoe. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1452. Willd. n. 13; excluding Plumier's synonym. (V. opuntioides, ramulis compressis; Sloane Jam. v. 2. 93. t. 201. f. 1.)—Stem profliferous, much branched, leafless. Joints wedge-shaped, furrowed, compressed.—Native of trees in Jamaica, and the Isle of Bourbon. The flat joints at once distinguish this species. Each joint is an inch or inch and half long, of a yellowish-green. “Flowers small, terminating each joint, in pairs. Berries white, resembling our English Mistletoe.” Sloane. Plumier's t. 258. f. 1, must surely be *Cactus pendulus*, Ait. Hort. Kew. v. 3. 178, which is *Cafsytha baccifera* of Solander, in Mill. Illustr. t. 29.

14. *V. obscurum*. Elliptical Cape Mistletoe. Thunb. Prodr. 31. Willd. n. 14.—“Leaves elliptical, smooth. Stem shrubby.”—Gathered at the Cape of Good Hope, on trees, by Thunberg. Nobody else appears to have seen it.

15. *V. flavens*. Yellowish Mistletoe. Swartz Ind. Occ. 266. Willd. n. 15. Pursh n. 1? (V. aliud racemosum, foliis

foliis latifimis; Plum. Ic. 256. t. 258. f. 4. *V. racemosum*; Aubl. Guian. v. 2. 895.)—Leaves ovate, five-ribbed, veiny. Spikes axillary, from one to four at each side. Flowers whorled.—Found on trees in the West Indies, especially near the sea. Two feet high, with round, livid, roughish branches. Leaves two inches or more in length, bluish, of a livid hue. Spikes stalked, sometimes solitary.

16. *V. latifolium*. Broad-leaved Mistletoe. Swartz Ind. Occ. 268. Willd. n. 16.—Leaves roundish-ovate, acute, flat, obscurely veined. Spikes axillary, stalked, solitary or in pairs.—On trees in Jamaica. Two feet high, smooth. Leaves contracted at each end, brownish-green, on very short stalks. Flowers minute. Berries oblong.

17. *V. verticillatum*. Whorled Mistletoe. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1452. Willd. n. 17; excluding the synonyms of Browne and Plumier. (*V. ramulis et foliis longis, densissimis, stratis et radiatis*; Sloane Jam. v. 2. 93. t. 201. f. 2.)—Ultimate branches aggregate, imperfectly whorled, toothed at the end.—Native of Jamaica, where it hangs from the branches of trees. The main stem is divided, angular, striated, smooth, beset here and there with whorls of simple spreading branches, an inch and half or two inches long, destitute of leaves, tipped with a few scales. Nothing is known of the fructification, so the genus is very doubtful. It may turn out a *Cassia*, or at least of the same genus as *C. pendulus* above-mentioned under n. 13. What we here describe is, however, the plant intended by Linnæus, though he has confounded with it one altogether different, and has thence perverted the specific character.

18. *V. capitellatum*. Capitate Mistletoe.—Leaves wedge-shaped, concave, obtuse. Berries capitate, on axillary stalks.—Gathered in Ceylon by Koenig, who sent specimens to Linnæus, but the plant has remained hitherto undescribed, though certainly very distinct. The stems are three inches high, branched, roughish to the touch. Leaves an inch long at most, smooth, fleshy. Flower-stalks rather shorter, crowned with two thick bractæ under the little head of four or five flowers. Berries oval, crowned with a blunt calyx.

Willdenow rightly observes that *V. terrestre*, Linn. Sp. Pl. 1452, is no other than *Lyfimachia stricta*, Willd. Sp. Pl. 818. Ait. Hort. Kew. v. 1. 314. (*L. bulbifera*; Curt. Mag. t. 104.)—Kalm gathered it in Philadelphia, and whether the mistake were his own, or his great preceptor's, it is one of the most reprehensible that ever was made.

Several species of *Viscum* probably are still undescribed among the botanical treasures of the West, and perhaps East, Indies.

VISCUM, in Gardening, furnishes a plant of the under-shrub, evergreen, curious, parasitic kind, of which the sort made use of is, the white-berried or common mistletoe (*V. album*).

It has a woody branchy growth and yellowish-green appearance, producing white transparent berries of a considerable size, which ripen themselves in the winter.

It is a remarkable plant, as not growing in the earth or soil, but upon the trunks or branches of other plants, mostly on those of the soft-wooded tree sorts, being often found in woods and orchards, on the ash, the hazel, the maple, the crab, and the apple-tree.

Method of Culture.—It is for the most part increased by the seeds which are accidentally dispersed and deposited upon some parts of the trees by means of birds, commonly taking root and fixing themselves on the under sides of the boughs or branches, to which parts they have been washed by the rains or in other ways, being kept in such situations until they strike root, or plant their radical fibres in the bark between it and the wood, by their soft glutinous quality;

the young plants growing downwards in a pendulous manner. The plants may also be propagated in garden or orchard plantations, by procuring some fully ripened berries or seeds in the winter, and sticking or rubbing them on the smooth parts of the under sides of the branches of some of the above kinds of trees, where they will grow as already noticed. The outer bark, in some cases, is cut or rubbed off in the part before this is done, in order to make it more certain.

The want of success, in particular instances, is to be ascribed to the defective fecundation of the plants from which the berries or seeds were taken which are employed. They should of course always be gathered from plants where different sorts grow together.

They are chiefly grown for curiosity; but sometimes for medicinal purposes.

VISCUM is also used for bird-lime. This was esteemed a poison among the ancient Greeks, and is seldom omitted under the class of deleterious things enumerated in their writings.

It is called by these authors *ixias*; but this word has occasioned great errors in late writers, the word *ixias* having been applied to the white chameleon thistle, not because of any poisonous quality it had, for they all declare it to be innocent, but because of its yielding a viscous or clammy juice. The black chameleon thistle was always esteemed poisonous among them; and hence some have supposed the word *ixias* to be applied to that, and the poison *ixias*, mentioned by the Greeks, to be the root of that plant. Paulus Ægineta, indeed, seems to have understood it so, the poison *ixias* being by him placed among the roots; but Galen, who calls it a slow poison, and says that it kills by stopping up and gluing together the intestines, plainly enough means bird-lime, not the root of any plant.

VISCUM Caryophylloides, a name given by sir Hans Sloane, and many other authors, to a genus of plants of a very peculiar kind.

They are called *viscum*, from their growing upon other trees, in the manner that the mistletoe does with us; and *caryophylloides*, from their leaves, in some degree, resembling those of our pinks or carnations; but the plant itself, in all its species, is wholly different, both from the mistletoe and pink, in all other respects.

The several species of these plants differ greatly, also from one another; the most fragrant species in Jamaica is a very large one, called by the common people the white pine. See the description of it in Phil. Transf. N° 252. p. 114.

VISCUS, and *VISCOSITY*. See *VISCERA* and *VISCIDITY*. *WISEGLIA*, in *Geography*. See *BISEGLIA*.

VISENTIUM, or *VISENTUM*, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Italy, in Etruria, upon the western bank of the lake Thrasimené. Pliny suggests that this town belonged to the Visentini who inhabited the vicinity of the Vulcanian lake: it is the present Bisentio.

VISET, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Ourthe, situated on the E. side of the Meuse. It was surrounded with walls in the year 1338, by Adolphus de la Mark, bishop of Liege. John de Heinsberg, the fifty-second bishop, granted it many privileges, in the year 1429; among others, the liberty of choosing their own magistrates; 6 miles S. of Maëtricht.

UISEU, a town of Portugal; in the province of Beira. This town was founded by the Romans, and by them called "Visontium." It is the see of a bishop, contains three parish churches, an hospital, and three convents. In 1027, Alphonso V. king of Leon, was killed by an arrow before this

this town, as he attempted to take it from the Moors; 27 miles S. of Lamego. N. lat. 40° 45'. W. long. 17° 46'.

VISHIANARY, a town of Hindoostan, in Tinevelly; 18 miles S.E. of Palamcottah.

VISHNU, in *Mythology*, is one of the chief deities of the Hindoo trimurti or triad. He is reckoned the second person of this mysterious unity, being a personification of the *preserving* power of the deity. On the whole, Vishnu may be called the chief of the Hindoo gods; as either in himself, or through his consort, or active energy, Lakshmi, or in his various incarnations, he is, perhaps, the god most extensively worshipped: if the numerous facts that indirectly adore him be included, he certainly is. Like the gods and goddesses of other polytheistic people, all the deities of the Hindoo Pantheon are resolvable ultimately into one; that one is the sun, and he, the Hindoo theologians affirm, is merely a symbol of that "infinitely greater light which alone can irradiate our intellects." This eiotic doctrine is of course unknown to the multitude who address and adore Vishnu, as well as the other deities, in the grossness of idolatrous superstition.

Under the article SIVA it is shewn that Vishnu, in a strictly mythological view, is the *preserving* attribute: he represents also the *wisdom* of the deity, as Brahm does his *power*, and Siva his *justice*. Extending our view, we find that Vishnu metaphysically is a personification of *space*; *matter* and *time* being assignable to his coeternal associates in the Hindoo triad. In physics, Vishnu is *water*, or the humid principle generally: thus he is the *air*; and in a degree of relationship less intimate, he is the *earth*. He is also *time*; and, as before said, the *sun*. See LAKSHMI, the name of the *fakti*, or consort of Vishnu; SARASWATI, the consort of the *creative* Brahma; and PARVATI, the active energy of the *destroying* Siva, for farther particulars of this *preserving* attribute of the inseparable Hindoo triad. These female divinities, which we indiscriminately call the active energy, or power, or consort of their respective lords, are generally termed their *Sakti*; which see. See also MATRI.

As well as wives, or active helpmates, the Hindoo gods have severally *vehicles* assigned them. These are termed *Vahan*; which see. Vishnu, the Jove of India, has his eagle, like his brother of Greece and Rome. The Hindoo bird is named Garuda and Superna. Under the latter word an account of him will be found.

The whole race of Hindoos may be theologically comprehended under the two denominations of *Saivas* and *Vaishnavas*, or worshippers of Siva and Vishnu; either directly of the god himself, or of his *fakti*; or indirectly of a symbol, or through the intervention of an incarnation. This, however, opens a door to diversity and schism. Under the article SECTS of Hindoos, we have endeavoured to class them in a triple arrangement, of *theological*, *civil*, and *philosophical* sectarists. To that article, to SAIVA, VAISHNAVA, and PHILOSOPHY of the Hindoos, with others therein referred to, connected with and farther explaining them, we beg to refer the reader inquisitive on points relating to this branch of the mythology of the Hindoos. See also the Hindoo Pantheon.

Representations of Vishnu are very common in all parts of India; in metallic casts, in carvings in wood, stone, or ivory, and in pictures. See the plates of the work just named. When in his own person, he is depicted young and handsome; sometimes two, but commonly four-handed. In his hands are usually seen a club or mace, called *gada*, a shell or shank, a lotos or padma, and a discus or quoit, called *chakra* or *vajra*.

The *chakra* is a discus or quoit, with a hole in its centre, on which Vishnu is fabled to turn it round his fore-finger so

vehemently, that irresistible fire flames from its periphery. It is said to be a missile still used; but whatever mythological mischief may have ensued from its effects; it does not seem capable of producing much sent from a mortal finger. With the Hindoos now, as with the Egyptians of old, this is a very mysterious symbol; the word in Sanscrit means a *wheel*, or something rotatory; and has a like meaning in several spoken dialects of India. *Chakra-varti*, or the Chakra-whirler, is a name of Vishnu, and is sometimes given to other deities and mythological heroes.

The notion of incarnations of their deities is very common among the Hindoos. This terrestrial manifestation they call *avatara*, meaning a *descent*. The avatars of Vishnu have been very numerous; but ten of them are of great celebrity; and the histories of them form the principal subject of several of the sacred poems called *Purana* (which see), and of a great many books in all the languages of the East. We subjoin the names of these ten descents, or *dasa-avatara*, as they are called in Sanscrit; with some incidental remarks in addition to what we have offered under several of their names. 1. Matsyavatara. This, as the name implies, was a descent in the form of a *fish*; and is represented by a figure of Vishnu, half man half fish; reminding us strongly of the pisciform god of the Assyrians; "sea-monster, Dagon named, upwards man and downwards fish," as well described by Milton. This incarnation and the next are supposed to have allusion to the flood, and representations of half man half fish to Noah. 2. Kurmavatara, or the descent in the form of a *testoie*. 3. Varahavatara, in the form of a *boar*. 4. Narasingha, or *man-lion*. 5. Vamana, or the *dwarf*. 6. Parasu Rama, a hero so named. 7. Rama, surnamed Chandra. 8. Krishna. 9. Boodhi or Budha, or Saky. 10. Kalki is the last, and is yet to come, when Vishnu will appear mounted on a white horse; and, as mentioned under the article KALKI, end the present iron or kali age, and renovate the creation with an era of purity, called Satya or Sati. See KALI and SUTTEE.

These are the chief of the descents of Vishnu, called pre-eminently *dasa-avatara*. The reader will see them very ingeniously discussed in Maurice's Indian Antiquities and Ancient History of India.

Besides these grand incarnations, Vishnu has descended in various places and times, usually accompanied by his *fakti* or consort Lakshmi, also incarnated for that purpose; sometimes retaining her own name and sometimes taking another.

In the spirit of Grecian mythology, these avatars, as the Hindoos more decorously describe them, would appear as the *sons* of Jove. But we have not convenience to pursue, in this place, these analogies of eastern and western fable.

Vishnu, like Siva, and others of the Hindoo deities, has many names. He is said to have a thousand; but this may mean merely a great many. They are strung together in a sort of metrical arrangement, and are mentally recited in some species of worship; the votary sometimes holding in his hand a rosary, and dropping a bead as each name and the excited idea occur: to aid abstraction, the hand and rosary are put into a bag. This silent adoration is called *jap*; which see. Among the names of Vishnu are the following: *Janardana*, said to mean the devourer or absorber of souls. Vishnu being the sun, this may have some solar allusion: otherwise we do not see its applicability to the *preserving* energy. *Heri*, a name also of Krishna, who is, indeed, by sectaries, identified with Vishnu. *Heriputra*, meaning beloved of *Heri*, is a name of Lakshmi. In other avatars, a *portion* only of his essence is said to have been incarnated; but in that of Krishna the whole deity, in all his plenitude of potentiality. *Bhagawan*, alluding to the lord of nature:

Bhaga

Bhaga and Bharga are names of Siva, of like allusion: *Padmanabha*, meaning lord of Padma; the latter being a name of Lakshmi, and of the lotos, the appropriate symbol of a deity who is a personification of the humid principle. Lakshmi is the queen of beauty, and the lotos is the proverbial type of female loveliness. (See *LOTOS* and *PADMA*.) *Prabhu*: this name may allude to Vishnu's solar godhead; for a word of the same root, *Prabha*, implies *brighness*, *splendour*, *effulgence*; and is a name of the consort of the sun. See *PRAHA* and *SURYA*, in which last article, being the name of the Hindoo Phoebus, are many particulars explanatory of the solar Vishnu. *Narayana*, meaning moving on or abiding in the waters, is a name applied to Vishnu by his sectaries, and to other deities by theirs. (See *SECTS OF HINDOOS*.) Although Vishnu hath this *aqueous* name and character, he does not agree with the Neptune of the West so intimately as Siva. (See *SIVA*, *TRISULA*, and *VARUNA*.) *Sri* is a name or epithet meaning holy or divine, given to gods, goddesses, and men; among them to Vishnu; but it is not discriminative. *Kesava* is a name of Krishna and Vishnu, said to allude to the fineness of the hair of the incarnated deity. *Madhava* is derived from a giant named Madhu, destroyed by Vishnu: it is a name also of Krishna, as is *Murari* of both. *Trivikera*, or *Trivikrama*, alluding to *three steps*, taken by Vishnu in the Vamanavatara, is a designation by which he is not unfrequently called. *Pitamba*, or *Pitamber*, descriptive of a yellow coloured garment worn by Krishna, is sometimes given as a name to him and to Vishnu. See *PRITHU*, for some account of that name and form of the deity now under our consideration, and *WITTOBA* for another. *Shyamula*, meaning *black-faced*, is a name applied to Parvati as well as to Vishnu, in his form of Krishna, who is usually black or blue-faced. *Syama* has the like derivation. Vinkateishi, Vinkatramna, Viratarupa, and Yadava, are other names of Vishnu. *Yama*, the judge of departed souls, is sometimes called an emanation of him. The name Vishnu is said to come from the root *vis*, which means to *penetrate* or *pervade*; and may allude to him more particularly in his form of Surya, or the sun. (See *SURYA*.) All these names of Vishnu, and a great many others, are discussed, as to their derivation and mystical properties, in a Sanscrit poem called "Sahasra Nama."

The name of this important mythological personage is variously pronounced in different parts of India, and variously written by Europeans: Bishen, Vishnu, Vishnoo, &c.

These may suffice of the names of Vishnu. Like other Hindoo gods, he has a particular abode assigned him: his is called *Vaikontha*; which see.

VISHWARUPA, is the father of the two wives of Ganesh, the god of prudence and policy; called also *Pollar*, which see. The names of these wives were Sidi and Budhi. (See *SIDI*.) Vishwarupa, or Vifwarupa, is said to be the son of *Twashta*, or *Vifwakarma*. See those articles.

VISIAPOUR, in *Geography*. See *BEJAPOUR*.

VISIAPOUR, *Vifapour*, or *Bejapour*, a country, and at a former period a considerable kingdom, of Hindoostan, bounded on the N. by Dowlatabad, on the E. by Golconda, on the S. by Myfore, and on the W. by the Gauts, or mountains which separate it from Concan: formerly governed by kings of the Patan race; afterwards conquered by Aurungzebe, and now in possession of the Mahrattas.

VISIBLE, *VISIBLE*, something that is an object of sight, or vision; or something by which the eye is affected, so as to produce a sensation. See *SIGHT* and *VISION*.

The school philosophers make two kinds of visibles, or visible objects; the one *proper*, or *adequate*, which are such

as are no other way perceivable but by sight alone; the other *common*, which are subject to divers senses, as the sight, hearing, feeling, &c.

Again, the first, or *proper object of vision*, is of two kinds, *viz. light and colour*; for these two are only sensible by sight. The first, and primary, *viz. light*, they make the formal, and *colour*, the material object.

The Cartesians think they philosophize better, when they say that light alone is the proper object of vision; whether it flow from a luminous body through a transparent medium, and retains its first name, *light*, or whether it be reflected from opaque bodies, under a certain new modification, or habitude, and exhibit their images; or, lastly, whether in being reflected, it is likewise refracted, after this or that manner, and affects the eye with the appearance of *colour*.

But, agreeable to Sir Isaac Newton's sentiments, colour alone is the proper object of sight; colour being that property of light by which the light itself is visible, and by which the images of opaque bodies are painted on the retina.

Aristotle (*De Anima*, lib. ii.) enumerates five kinds of common visibles, which are usually received for such in the schools, *viz. motion, rest, number, figure, and magnitude*.

Others maintain nine, as in the verses:

"Sunt objecta novem visus communia: quantum,
Inde figura, locus, sequitur distantia, situs,
Continuumque et discretum, motusque, quiesque."

Authors reason very variously as to these common objects of vision; there are two principal opinions among the schoolmen.

The adherents to the first hold, that the common visibles produce proper representations of themselves, by some peculiar species, or image, by which they are formally perceived, independently of the proper visibles.

But the second opinion prevails most, which imports, that the common visibles have not any such formal peculiar species to become visible by; but that the proper objects are sufficient to throw themselves in this or that place or situation, and in this or that distance, figure, magnitude, &c. by the circumstances of their conveyance to the sensory.

In effect, since these common visibles cannot be represented alone (for whoever saw place, distance, figure, situation, &c. of itself?), but are always conveyed along with the images of light and colour to the organ; what necessity is there to conceive any such proper images by which the common visibles should be formally perceived by the soul? It is much more probable, that from the peculiar manner in which the sensitive faculty perceives a proper object, it is apprized of its being in this or that situation or place; in this or that figure, magnitude, &c. How this is effected may be conceived from what follows:

1. The situation and place of visible objects are perceived without any intentional species of them, merely by the impulse being made from a certain place and situation, either above or below, on the right or left, before or behind, by which the rays of the proper visibles are thrown upon the retina, and their impression is conveyed to the sensory.

For, since an object is seen by those rays which carry its image to the retina, and in that place to which the visible power is directed by the rays it receives, as it perceives the impulse of the rays to come from any place, &c. it is abundantly admonished of the objects being in that place and situation. See *APPARENT PLACE*.

Philosophers, in general, had formerly taken for granted, that the place to which the eye refers any visible object, seen by reflection or refraction, is that in which the visual ray meets a perpendicular from the object upon the reflecting or the

the refracting plane. That this is the case with respect to plane mirrors is universally acknowledged; and some experiments with mirrors of other forms seem to favour the same conclusion, and thereby afford reason for extending the analogy to all cases of vision.—If a right line be held perpendicularly over a convex or concave mirror, its image seems to make one line with it. The same is the case with a right line held perpendicularly within water; for the part which is within the water seems to be a continuation of that which is without, at least when it is viewed with no more than common attention, and in some positions. But Dr. Barrow called in question this method of judging of the place of an object, and thereby opened a new field of enquiry and debate in this branch of science. This, with other optical investigations, he published in his *Optical Lectures*, first printed in 1674. Having, as he imagined, refuted the common hypothesis concerning the place of visible objects, he substitutes another rule, by which, he says, our judgments are actually directed in this case. According to him, we refer every point of an object to the place from which the pencils of light, that give us the image of it, issue, or from which they would have issued, if no reflecting or refracting substance intervened. Pursuing this principle, Dr. Barrow proceeded to investigate the place, in which the rays, issuing from each of the points of an object, and which reach the eye after one reflection or refraction, meet; and he found, that if the refracting surface was plane, and the refraction was made from a denser medium into a rarer, those rays would always meet in a place between the eye and a perpendicular to the point of incidence.

If a convex mirror be used, the case will be the same; but if the mirror be plane, the rays will meet in the perpendicular, and beyond it if it be concave. He also determined, according to these principles, what form the image of a right line will take when it is presented in different manners to a spherical mirror, or when it is seen through a refracting medium.

Dr. Barrow, however, mentions an objection against the maxim which he endeavoured to establish, concerning the supposed place of visible objects, and candidly owns that he was not able to give a satisfactory solution of it. The objection is this; let an object be placed beyond the focus of a convex lens, and if the eye be close to the lens, it will appear confuted, but very near to its true place. If the eye be a little withdrawn, the confusion will increase, and the object will seem to come nearer; and when the eye is very near the focus, the confusion will be exceedingly great, and the object will seem to be close to the eye. But in this experiment the eye receives no rays but those that are converging; and the point from which they issue is so far from being nearer than the object, that it is beyond it; notwithstanding which, the object is conceived to be much nearer than it is, though no very distinct idea can be formed of its precise distance.

The first person who took much notice of Dr. Barrow's hypothesis, and the difficulty attending it, was Dr. Berkeley, who, in his *Essay on a New Theory of Vision*, p. 30, observes, that the circle formed upon the retina by the rays which do not come to a focus, produces the same confusion in the eye, whether they cross one another before they reach the retina, or tend to it afterwards: and therefore, that the judgment concerning distances will be the same in both the cases, without any regard to the place from which the rays originally issued; so that in this case, as, by receding from the lens, the confusion, which always accompanies the nearness of an object, increases, the mind will judge that the object comes nearer. See *Apparent Distance*.

M. Bouguer, an ingenious writer on Optics, in his *Traite d'Optique*, p. 104, adopts the general maxim of Dr. Barrow, in supposing that we refer objects to the place from which the pencils of rays seemingly converge at their entrance into the pupil. But when rays issue from below the surface of a vessel of water, or any other refracting medium, he finds that there are always two different places of this seeming convergence: one of them of the rays that issue from it in the same vertical circle, and, therefore, fall with different degrees of obliquity upon the surface of the refracting medium, and another of those that fall upon the surface with the same degree of obliquity, entering the eye laterally with respect to one another. Sometimes, he says, one of these images is attended to by the mind, and sometimes the other; and different images may be observed by different persons. An object, plunged into water, affords an example, he says, of this duplicity of images.

G. W. Krafft has ably supported the opinion of Dr. Barrow, that the place of any point seen by reflection from the surface of any medium, is that in which rays issuing from it, infinitely near to one another, would meet; and considering the case of a distant object, viewed in a concave mirror by an eye very near to it, when the image, according to Euclid and other writers, would be between the eye and the object, and the rule of Dr. Barrow cannot be applied; he says, that in this case, the speculum may be considered as a plane, the effect being the same, only that the image is more obscure. *Com. Petropol.* vol. xii. p. 252. 256. See Prieftley's *Hist. of Light*, &c. p. 89. 688, &c.

From the principle above illustrated, several remarkable phenomena of vision are accounted for: as,

1. That if the distance between two visible objects be an angle that is insensible, the distant bodies will appear as if contiguous: whence a continuous body being the result of several contiguous ones; if the distances between several visibles subtend insensible angles, they will appear one continuous body; which gives a pretty illustration of the notion of a continuum.

Hence parallel lines, and long vistas, consisting of parallel rows of trees, seem to converge more and more, the farther they are extended from the eye; because the apparent magnitudes of their perpendicular intervals are perpetually diminishing, while, at the same time, we mistake their distance. When two parallel rows of trees stand upon an ascent, the more remote parts appear farther off than they really are, because the line that measures the length of the vistas now appears under a greater angle than when it was horizontal; the trees, in such a case, seeming to converge less, and sometimes, instead of converging, seeming to diverge. See *PARALLELISM of Rows of Trees*.

The proper method of drawing the appearance of two rows of trees that shall appear parallel to the eye, is a problem that has exercised the ingenuity of several philosophers and mathematicians. That the apparent magnitude of objects decreases with the angle under which they are seen, has always been acknowledged; and it is also acknowledged, that we learn to form a judgment both of magnitudes and distances only by custom and experience; but in the application of these maxims to the above mentioned problem, all persons, before M. Bouguer, made use of the real distance instead of the apparent one, by which only the mind can form its judgment. And it is manifest, that if any circumstances contribute to make the distance appear otherwise than it is in reality, the apparent magnitude of the object will be affected by it, for the same reason, that if the magnitude be misapprehended, the idea of the distance will vary. For want of attending to this distinction,

tion, Tâcquet pretended to demonstrate, that nothing can give the idea of two parallel lines to an eye situated at one of their extremities, but two hyperbolic curves, turned the contrary way; and M. Varignon maintained, that, in order to make a vista appear of the same width, it must be made narrower, instead of wider, as it recedes from the eye. M. Bouguer observes, that very great distances, and those that are considerably less, make nearly the same impression upon the eye. We, therefore, imagine great distances to be less than they are, and on this account the ground plan of a vista always appears to rise. The visual rays come in a determinate direction, but as we imagine they terminate sooner than they do, we necessarily conceive that the place from which they issued is elevated.

Every large plane, therefore, as A B (*Plate XX. Optics, fig. 5.*) viewed by an eye at O, will seem to lie in such direction as A b; and consequently lines, in order to appear truly parallel, on the plane A B, must be drawn so as that they would appear parallel on the plane A b, and be from thence projected to the plane A B. To determine the inclination of the apparent ground plane A b to the true ground plane A B, M. Bouguer directs us to draw upon a piece of level ground two straight lines of a sufficient length, making an angle of three or four degrees with one another. Then a person placing himself within the angle, with his back towards the angular point, must walk backwards and forwards till he can fancy the lines to be parallel. In this situation, a line, drawn from the point of the angle through the place of his eye, will contain the same angle with the true ground plane which this does with the apparent one.

M. Bouguer also shews other more geometrical methods of determining this inclination, and says, that by these means, he has often found it to be four or five degrees, though sometimes only two, or two and a half degrees; the determination of this angle being variable, and depending upon the manner in which the ground is illuminated, and the intensity of the light, the colour of the soil, the conformation of the eye, and the part of the eye on which the object is painted.

In looking towards a rising ground, the difference between the apparent ground plane and the true one, he says, will be much more considerable, so that they will sometimes make an angle of 25 or 30 degrees. *Ac. Par. 1755. M. 156.*

2. If the eye be placed above an horizontal plane, objects, the more remote they are, the higher will they appear, till the last be seen in a level with the eye. Whence it is that the sea, to persons standing ashore, seems to rise higher and higher the farther they look.

3. If any number of objects be placed below the eye, the most remote will appear the highest; if they be above the eye, the most remote will appear the lowest.

Thus the remoter parts of a horizontal walk, or long floor, will appear to ascend gradually; whereas, the ceiling of a long gallery appears to descend.

M. Bouguer observes, that when a man stands upon a level plane, it does not seem to rise sensibly, but at some distance from him: the apparent plane, therefore, has a curvature in it, the form of which is not very easy to determine; so that a man standing upon a level plane of infinite extent, will imagine that he stands in the centre of a basin. The case is the same with a person standing upon the level of the sea.

4. The upper parts of high objects appear to stoop, or incline forwards; as the front of churches, towers, &c. And statues at the tops of buildings, to appear upright,

must incline; or bend backwards. See farther under the articles of REFRACTION and HORIZON.

II. The mind perceives the distance of visible objects, from the different configurations of the eye, and the manner in which the rays strike the eye, and in which the image is impressed on it. For the eye disposes itself differently, according to the different distances it is to see; viz. for remote objects the pupil is dilated, and the crystalline brought nearer the retina, and the whole eye is made more globular; on the contrary, for near objects, the pupil is contracted, the crystalline thrust forwards, and the eye lengthened.

Philosophers are agreed, that we have a power of altering the form of our eyes, so as to make the rays of any pencil to converge at different distances from the pupil: and hence we are capable of viewing objects with almost equal distinctness, though they are placed at considerably different distances; but with regard to the alteration that takes place in the eye, and the mechanism by which it is produced, different accounts have been given.

It was the opinion of Kepler, that the contraction of the processus ciliaries changes the form of the eye, and by the elongation of it, places the crystalline at a greater distance from the retina; whereas Des Cartes imagined, that the curvature of the crystalline itself suffers an alteration by the contraction of those ligaments.

M. de la Hire maintained that, in order to view objects at different distances, there is no alteration but in the size of the pupil, or the aperture of the eye; and he made a curious experiment, which, he thought, proved his assertion.

M. Le Roi, a member of the Royal Academy at Montpellier, has lately attempted to defend the opinion of M. de la Hire, which had long been exploded by all philosophers; and he says, that the accommodation of the eye to the view of objects, placed at different distances, by the contraction or dilatation of the pupil only, does not consist in the change of the place of the crystalline, by means of the ligamenta ciliaria, the strength of which is inadequate to the purpose. Besides, he observes, that they are not attached to the edge of the capsula, as has been supposed, but that they extend a considerable way along the interior surface of it, without any close adherence to it. He is also of opinion that these fibres are not muscular, but are only ramified vessels, which, according to all appearance, he says, answer no other purpose than that of secreting an aqueous humour, to lubricate the surface of the crystalline.

That nothing is requisite but the contraction of the pupil in order to view the nearest objects with distinctness, is evident, he says, from experiment. For when an object is placed so near, that the eye cannot bear as great a degree of contraction as is necessary for viewing it distinctly, the same end is obtained by an artificial pupil. For if a small hole be made in a card, the nearest object may be viewed through it with the greatest ease and distinctness.

That the variation of the pupil is sufficient for the purpose of viewing objects at all distances, he also thought he could demonstrate by experiment with an artificial eye; for when, with a large aperture, the images of near objects were confused, and ill defined upon the retina of this instrument, they became very distinct, and well defined, by contracting the aperture. *Ac. Paris, 1755. M. p. 920.*

But the most satisfactory discussion of this subject we owe to Dr. Porterfield, who proved, by a series of experiments,

ments, in which an object was viewed through small slits in a thin plate of iron, at a less distance than the diameter of the pupil (which, therefore, was of no use in this case), that we are possessed of a power of changing the conformation of our eyes, and of adapting them to various distances; and that this change always follows a similar motion in the axes of vision, with which it has been connected by use and custom. Porterfield on the Eye, vol. i. p. 411. 415. 421.

However, among those who suppose a conformation of the eye for this purpose, independent of a variation in the aperture, it is by no means agreed in what it consists. Some have said, that the crystalline becomes more or less convex for this purpose, by the action of certain muscular fibres which enter into its composition. But Dr. Porterfield (ubi supra, p. 442.) observes that, though the crystalline, when dry, appears to consist of many thin concentric laminae, or scales, their disposition is but ill qualified for changing the figure of the crystalline; or if they were so, it is not easy, he says, to prove that these fibres are muscular, and capable of contraction.

His own opinion is, that the crystalline has a motion by means of the ligamentum ciliare, by which the distance between it and the retina is increased or diminished, according to the different distances of objects. The structure and disposition of the ligamentum ciliare, he says, excellently qualify it for changing the situation of the crystalline, and removing it to a greater distance from the retina, when objects are too near for us; because, when it contracts, it will not only draw the crystalline forward, but also compress the vitreous humour lying behind it, so that it must press upon the crystalline, and push it towards the retina.

He adds, that the crystalline, being moved forwards, must, at the same time, press the aqueous humour against the cornea; by which means that membrane, which is flexible, will be rendered more convex, and enable us still better to see near objects distinctly.

That the situation of the crystalline is made use of in conforming the eye to the distinct view of objects placed at different distances, Dr. Porterfield thinks, is very evident from what is observed concerning persons who have cataracts couched; for the same lens is not useful to them for seeing all objects distinctly, but they are obliged to make use of glasses of different degrees of convexity, in proportion to the nearness of the object.

To the objection of M. de la Hire, and others, among whom are the celebrated anatomists Haller and Zinn, that the ciliary ligament is not muscular, and consequently has no power of contraction, he observes, that they have been led into this mistake by apprehending that the colour of muscles is always red; whereas this is not the case universally, for the muscular fibres of the intestines and stomach have hardly any redness in their colour. It is also certain, he says, that the pupil contracts and dilates itself according as objects are more or less luminous, and yet none of the fibres which perform that action are in the least red. Ubi supra, vol. ii. p. 434. 447. 450.

Dr. Jurin (Ess. on distinct, &c. Vision; p. 143.) supposes, that when the eye is to be suited to greater distances than fifteen or sixteen inches, the ligamentum ciliare contracts, so as to draw part of the anterior surface of the capsula of the crystalline, into which the fibres of it are inserted, a little forwards and outwards, on which the water within the capsula must flow from under the middle towards the elevated part of it; and the aqueous humour must flow from above the elevated part of the capsula to the middle.

In consequence of this, the whole anterior surface, within the insertion of the ciliary ligament, will be reduced to a less convexity. When this contraction ceases, the capsula will return to its former situation, by its own elasticity. To this hypothesis it has been objected, that unless the water within the capsula has a greater refractive power than the aqueous humour, the retiring of it from one place to another to make room for that humour, will have no effect upon the pencils of rays.

Dr. Jurin, however, not attending to this circumstance, and seeming to consider the water within the capsula as having the same refractive power with the crystalline itself, attempts to shew by calculation, that this change in the convexity of it is quite sufficient to extend the natural distance of distinct vision from fifteen inches to fourteen feet five inches, without the least motion of the crystalline itself, and a very small one of the anterior surface of the capsula.

M. Muschenbroeck, or rather Albinus (whose Anatomical Observations on the Eye he has published in his *Introd. ad Phil. Nat.* vol. ii. p. 759.), supposes, that the change of conformation in the eye is performed by means of the zona ciliaris, in the following manner. In viewing a very near object, in consequence of which the pencils of rays tend to a focus beyond the retina, the zona ciliaris, and the anterior membrane of the capsula, as also the vitreous humour, being driven forward by the compression of the coats of the eye, push the crystalline, and make it recede from the retina. At the same time the crystalline, pushing the aqueous humour into the cornea, makes it more prominent. Perhaps, also, he says, the crystalline may be made rounder, so that, on these accounts, the pencils will come to their foci sooner than otherwise. On the other hand, when the object is too remote for distinct vision, so that the pencils come to their foci too soon, the zona ciliaris becomes tense, and, with the anterior membrane of the capsula, pushes the crystalline farther within the vitreous humour. By this pressure the crystalline becomes flatter, so that, on these several accounts, the foci of the pencils are carried farther. The zona ciliaris, and the anterior membrane of the capsula, can only push the crystalline into the vitreous humour one half of its own thickness, which he shews is not sufficient to make vision distinct at a competent distance, and therefore concludes, that some change must take place in the form of the crystalline, as, he says, Dr. Pemberton has well demonstrated. He supposes, that the provision for suiting the eye to different distances is the same in all animals, and does not depend on the change of the sclerotica in any of them, which is hard, and incapable of being compressed. Priestley's *Hist. of Light*, &c. p. 638—652. See *Apparent Distance*. See also *EYE*.

It seems to be now pretty generally allowed, that the change, by which the eye accommodates itself to different distances, is produced by an increase of the convexity of the crystalline lens, arising from an internal cause. The arguments in favour of this conclusion are of two kinds; some of them are negative, derived from the impossibility of imagining any other mode of performing the accommodation, without exceeding the limits of the actual dimensions of the eye, and from the examination of the eye in its different states by several tests, capable of detecting any other changes if they had existed: for example, by the application of water to the cornea, which completely removes the effect of its convexity, without impairing the power of altering the focus, and by holding the whole eye, when turned inwards, in such a manner as to render any material alteration of its length utterly impossible. Other arguments

gements are deduced from positive evidence of the change of form of the crystalline, furnished by the particular effects of refraction and aberration which are observable in the different states of the eye; effects which furnish a direct proof that the figure of the lens must vary; its surfaces, which are nearly spherical in the quiescent form of the lens, assuming a different determinable curvature when it is called into exertion. The objections which have been made to this conclusion are founded only on the appearance of a slight alteration of focal length in an eye from which the crystalline had been extracted; but the fact is neither sufficiently ascertained, nor was the apparent change at all considerable; and even if it were proved that an eye without the lens is capable of a certain small alteration, it would by no means follow that it could undergo a change five times or ten times as great.

The motion of the optical axes serves likewise, as we have already observed, to assist us in judging of the distance of objects. These axes, or the directions of the rays falling on the points of most perfect vision, naturally meet at a great distance; that is, they are nearly parallel to each other; and in looking at a nearer object, we make them converge towards it, wherever it may be situated, by means of the external muscles of the eye; while in perfect eyes the refractive powers are altered, at the same time, by an involuntary sympathy, so as to form a distinct image of an object at a given distance. This correspondence of the situation of the axes with the focal length is in most cases unalterable; but some have perhaps a power of deranging it in a slight degree, and in others the adjustment is imperfect: but the eyes seem to be in most persons inseparably connected together with respect to the changes that their refractive powers undergo, although it sometimes happens that those powers are originally very different in the opposite eyes.

These motions enable us to judge pretty accurately, within certain limits, of the distance of an object; and beyond these limits, the degree of distinctness or confusion of the image still continues to assist the judgment. We estimate distances much less accurately with one eye than with both, since we are deprived of the assistance usually afforded by the relative situation of the optical axes; thus we seldom succeed at once in attempting to pass a finger or a hooked rod sideways through a ring, with one eye shut. Our idea of distance is usually regulated by a knowledge of the real magnitude of an object, while we observe its angular magnitude; and on the other hand, a knowledge of the real or imaginary distance of the object often directs our judgment of its actual magnitude. The quantity of light intercepted by the air interposed, and the intensity of the blue tint which it occasions, are also elements of our involuntary calculation: hence, in a mist, the obscurity increases the apparent distance, and consequently the supposed magnitude of an unknown object. We naturally observe, in estimating a distance, the number and extent of the intervening objects; so that a distant church in a woody and hilly country appears more remote than if it were situated in a plain; and for a similar reason, the apparent distance of an object seen at sea, is smaller than its true distance. Young's Course of Lectures on Natural Philosophy, &c. vol. i.

Accordingly, in judging of the distance of a visible object, we must take into our account the angle which the object makes, with the distinct or confused representation of the object; and the briskness or feebleness, or the rarity or spiffitude of the rays.

To this it is owing, 1. That objects which appear obscure, or confused, are judged to be more remote; a principle which the painters use to make some of their figures

appear farther distant than others on the same plane. Thus, supposing the eye to be accommodated to a given distance, objects at all other distances may be represented with a certain indistinctness of outline, which would accompany the images of the objects themselves on the retina; and this indistinctness is so generally necessary, that its absence has the disagreeable effect called hardiness. The apparent magnitude of the subjects of our design, and the relative situations of the intervening objects, may be so imitated by the rules of geometrical perspective as to agree perfectly with nature, and we may still further improve the representation of distance by attending to the art of aerial perspective, which consists in a due observation of the loss of light, and the blueish tinge, occasioned by the interposition of a greater or less depth of air between us and the different parts of the scenery.

We cannot indeed so arrange the picture, that either the focal length of the eye, or the position of the optical axes, may be such as would be required by the actual objects; but we may place the picture at such a distance, that neither of these criterions can have much power in detecting the fallacy; or, by the interposition of a large lens, we may produce nearly the same effects in the rays of light, as if they proceeded from a picture at any required distance. In the panorama, which has lately been exhibited in many parts of Europe, the effects of natural scenery are very closely imitated: the deception is favoured by the absence of all other visible objects, and by the faintness of the light, which assists in concealing the defects of the representation, and for which the eye is usually prepared, by being long detained in the dark winding passages which lead to the place of exhibition. Young, *ubi supra*. See *Apparent Magnitude*.

2. To this it is likewise owing, that rooms, whose walls are whitened, appear the smaller; that fields covered with snow, or white flowers, shew less than when clothed with grass; that mountains covered with snow, in the night-time, appear the nearer; and that opaque bodies appear the more remote in the twilight.

III. The magnitude or quantity of visible objects is known chiefly by the angle comprehended between two rays drawn from the two extremes of the object to the centre of the eye. An object appears to be as large as the angle it subtends; or bodies seen under a greater angle appear greater; and those under a less, less, &c. Hence the same thing appears now bigger, and now less, as it is less or more distant from the eye. This we call the *Apparent Magnitude*; which see.

Now, to judge of the real magnitude of an object, we consider the distance; for, since a near and remote object may appear under equal angles, the distance must necessarily be estimated; that if it be great, and the optic angle small, the remote object may be judged great; and *vice versa*.

The magnitude of visible objects is brought under certain laws, demonstrated by the mathematicians; as,

1. That the apparent magnitudes of a remote object are as the distances reciprocally; or rather, in a somewhat less ratio.

2. That the co-tangents of half the apparent magnitudes of the same objects, are as the distances; hence the apparent magnitude and distance being given, we have a method of determining the true magnitude; the canon is this. As the whole sine is to the tangent of half the apparent magnitude, so is the given distance to half the real magnitude. The same canon, inverted, will, from the distance and magnitude given, determine the apparent one.

3. Objects seen under the same angle, have their magnitudes proportional to their distances.

4. The

4. The subtense A B (*Plate XX. Optics, fig. 6.*) of any arc of a circle appears of equal magnitude in all the points D C E G, though one point be vastly nearer than another; and the diameter D G appears of the same magnitude in all the points of the periphery of the circle. Hence some have derived a hint for the most commodious form of theatres.

5. If the eye be fixed in A (*fig. 7.*), and the right line B C be moved in such manner, as that the extremes of it always fall on the periphery, it will always appear of the same magnitude. Hence the eye, being placed in any angle of a regular polygon, the sides will appear equal.

6. If the magnitude of an object directly opposite to the eye be equal to its distance from the eye, the whole object will be taken in by the eye, but nothing more. Whence the nearer you approach an object, the less part you see of it.

IV. The figure of visible objects is estimated, chiefly, from our opinion of the situation of the several parts of it.

This opinion of the situation, &c. enables the mind to apprehend an external object under this or that figure, more justly than any similitude of the images in the retina, with the object, can; the images being frequently elliptical, oblong, &c. when the objects they exhibit to the mind are circles, squares, &c.

The laws of vision, with regard to the figures of visible objects, are:

1. That if the centre of the pupil be exactly against, or in the direction of a right line, the line will appear as one point.

2. If the eye be placed in a direction of a surface, so that only one line of the perimeter can radiate on it, it will appear as a line.

3. If a body be opposed directly towards the eye, so as only one plane of the surface can radiate on it, it will appear as a surface.

4. A remote arc, viewed by an eye in the same plane, will appear as a right line.

5. A sphere, viewed at a distance, appears a circle.

6. Angular figures, at a distance, appear round.

7. If the eye look obliquely on the centre of a regular figure, or a circle, the true figure will not be seen; but the circle will appear oval, &c. See *Apparent Figure*.

V. The number of visible objects is perceived, not only by one or more images formed in the fund of the eye; but also by such a position of those parts of the brain whence the optic nerves spring, as the mind has been used to, in attending to a certain place; and that either single or manifold.

Accordingly, when either of the eyes, with the contiguous part of the brain, are forced out of their just parallelism, with the other, *v. gr.* by pressing it with the finger, &c. all things appear double; but when they are in the requisite parallelism, though there be two images in the fund of the two eyes, yet the object will appear single. Again, one thing may appear double, or even manifold, not only with both eyes, but even with only one of them open; by reason the common concourse of the cones of rays reflected from the object to the eye, either falls short of the retina, or goes much beyond it.

VI. Motion and rest are seen when the images of objects represented in the eye, and propagated to the brain, are either moved, or at rest; and the mind perceives these images either moving or at rest, by comparing the moved image to another, with respect to which it changes place; or by the situation of the eye to the object being continually changed. So that motion is only perceived, by perceiving the images

to be in different places and situations; nor are these changes perceived unless effected in time. So that to perceive motion, a sensible time is required. But rest is perceived by the visual faculty, from the reception of the image in the same place of the retina, and the same situation for some sensible time.

Hence the reason, why bodies moving exceedingly fast appear at rest; thus, a live coal, swung briskly round, appears a continual circle of fire; the motion not being commensurate with visible time, but much swifter than the same; so that, in the time the soul requires to judge of any change of situation of the image on the retina, or that it is moved from this place to that, the thing itself performs its whole circuit, and is in its own place again.

Laws of vision, with regard to the motion of visibles, are:

1. That if two objects unequally distant from the eye move from it with equal velocity, the more remote one will appear the slower; or, if their celerities are proportionable to their distances, they will appear to move equally swift.

2. If two objects, unequally distant from the eye, move with unequal velocities in the same direction, their apparent velocities are in a ratio compounded of the direct ratio of their true velocities, and the reciprocal one of their distances from the eye.

3. A visible object, moving with any velocity, appears to be at rest, if the space described in the interval of one second be imperceptible at the distance of the eye. Hence it is, that a near object, moving very slowly, as the index of a clock; or a remote one very swiftly, as a planet; seem at rest.

4. An object moving with any degree of velocity, will appear to rest, if the space it runs over in a second of time be to its distance from the eye, as 1 to 1400: nay, in fact, if it be as 1 to 1300.

5. The eye proceeding straight from one place to another, a lateral object, not too far off, either on the right or left, will seem to move the contrary way: the eye, in this case, being sensible of its motion, distant objects will seem to move the same way, and with the same velocity.

6. If the eye and the object move both the same way, only the eye much swifter than the object, that last will appear to go backwards.

7. If two or more objects move with the same velocity, and a third remain at rest, the moveables will appear fixed, and the quiescent in motion the contrary way. Thus, clouds moving very swiftly, their parts seem to preserve their situation, and the moon to move the contrary way.

8. If the eye be moved with a great velocity, lateral objects at rest appear to move the contrary way. Thus, to a person sitting in a coach, riding briskly through a wood, the trees seem to retire the contrary way; and to people in a ship, &c. the shores seem to recede.

9. An object moving very swiftly is not seen, unless it be very luminous. Thus, a cannon-ball is not seen, if it is viewed transversely; but if it be viewed according to the line it describes, it may be seen, because its picture continues long on the same place of the retina, which, therefore, receives a more sensible impression from the object.

10. A live coal swung briskly round in a circle, appears a continued circle of fire, because the impressions made on the retina of light being of a vibratory, and consequently of a lasting nature, do not presently perish, but continue till the coal performs its whole circuit, and returns again to its former place.

11. If a person turns swiftly round, without changing his place, all objects about him will seem to move round in a circle the contrary way; and this deception continues not

only

only while the person himself moves round, but, which is more surprising, it also continues for some time after he ceases to move, when the eye, as well as the object, is at absolute rest.

The reason why objects appear to move round the contrary way, when the eye turns round, is not so difficult to explain; for though, properly speaking, motion is not seen, as not being itself the immediate object of sight, yet by the sight we easily know when the image changes its place on the retina, and thence conclude that either the object, or the eye, or both, are moved. But by the sight alone we can never determine how far this motion belongs to the object, how far to the eye, or how far to both.

If we imagine the eye at rest, we ascribe the whole motion to the object, though it be truly at rest. If we imagine the object at rest, we ascribe the whole motion to the eye, though it belongs entirely to the object: and when the eye is in motion, though we are sensible of its motion, yet if we do not imagine that it moves so swiftly as it really does, we ascribe only a part of the motion to the eye, and the rest of it we ascribe to the object, though it be truly at rest.

This last, says Dr. Porterfield, is what happens in the present case, when the eye turns round; for though we are sensible of the motion of the eye, yet we do not apprehend that it moves so fast as it really does; and, therefore, the bodies about appear to move the contrary way, as is agreeable to experience.

But the great difficulty still remains, *viz.* why, after the eye ceases to move, objects should, for some time, still appear to continue in motion, though their pictures on the retina be truly at rest, and do not at all change their place.

This, Dr. Porterfield imagined, proceeds from a mistake with respect to the eye, which, though it be absolutely at rest, we nevertheless conceive it as moving the contrary way to that in which it moved before; from which mistake, with respect to the motion of the eye, the objects at rest will appear to move the same way which the eye is imagined to move; and consequently will seem to continue their motion for some time after the eye is at rest. Porterfield on the Eye, vol. ii. p. 422, 424.

VISBLE Horizon, Place, and Species. See the substantives.

VISIER, VIZIER, or Visir, an officer or dignitary in the Ottoman empire, of which there are two kinds; the first called by the Turks *visir azem*, that is, *grand visir*, first created in 1370, by Amurath I., in order to ease himself of the chief and weightier affairs of the government.

The *grand, or prime visir*, is the prime minister of state of the whole empire, and presides at the divan, or great council. Being the lieutenant of the sultan, in whose name he governs, and from whom he holds the seal, invested with the greatest authority, and entrusted with all the power of execution, the visir may strike off the heads of persons receiving salaries who oppose the progress of the government, who throw obstacles in the way of its administration, who do not obey its orders, or do not execute them according to its pleasure; he commands the armies in person; he disposes of the finances; he names, or causes persons to be named, to all the administrative and military employments. Nothing, in a word, is foreign to his powers, but the interpretation of the law entrusted to the ulemas.

But the greater the power of the grand visir, the greater is his responsibility. He is accountable, both to the sovereign and to the people, for the acts of injustice which he commits, for the unfortunate result of his administration, for the extortions which he does not repress; he is accountable, above all, for the unexpected dearth of provisions, for

too frequent fires, and for the defeats of the armies: all the misfortunes of the state are attributed to him. The sword, always suspended over his head, strikes him equally whether he displease the people, or disoblige the sultan.

In the frequent excursions which he makes incog. in the city, for the purpose of having an eye to good order, of informing himself of the state of the articles of food, examining the weights and measures, and inspecting the conduct of agents appointed for the distribution of provisions, the visir, accompanied by a public executioner, and some officers disguised like himself, orders delinquents to be apprehended and punished on the spot: he calls out, if necessary, the guard of the quarter; he directs the *bastinado* to be given to the shop-keepers who vend aliments of bad quality; he causes him who is found with false weights to be nailed by the ear against the door of the shop; he even punishes with death relapses or malversations of too serious a nature. During fires, he orders to be struck off the head of the thief caught in the very fact; but, in those cases, the law has pronounced before-hand the penalty of death. Charged to listen to the complaints of individuals, to cause justice to be done to all, the visir cannot, under any pretext, dispose legally of the life and fortune of citizens. It is not that he does not too frequently abuse his authority; it is not that he does not sometimes yield to perfidious advice, that he does not suffer himself to be led away by motives of hatred and revenge, that the thirst of gold does not impel him to arbitrary acts; but woe be to him if his injustice be too revolting! When he too frequently puts himself above the laws, the people, in their turn, trample him under foot, unless the sultan be expeditious in administering justice. Thus circumstanced, it is extremely rare for a visir to grow old in the post which he occupies.

The title of visir is given to all the pachas with three tails. Six of these ordinary visirs, whose reputation for wisdom and intelligence was universally allowed, formerly composed the divan or council of the grand visir. The visir asked their opinion when he thought it necessary. Soon after the accession of Selim to the throne, he composed this council of twelve persons the most distinguished by their office. The visir and the mufti are presidents of it; the one in his quality of lieutenant-general of the empire for temporal affairs; the other as vicar of the sultan for the interpretation and depository of the laws. The other ten members are the *kiaya-bey*, the *reis-effendi*, the *tefterdar-effendi*, the *tchélébi-effendi*, the *terfana-émini*, the *tchiaoux-bachi*, two *ex-reis-effendi*, and two *ex-tefterdars-effendi*. See **BASHAW, BEY, KIAYA-BEY, &c.**

The first of those above enumerated is the lieutenant of the visir; the second is secretary of state, or high chancellor of the empire; the third is the minister of the finances; the fourth is the receiver-general of the tax on wine, estates, and most articles of merchandize, and the administrator of these funds, &c.; the fifth is the minister of marine; the sixth secretary of state.

Renegade Christians have been sometimes raised to the visirate; such were Khairédain, surnamed Barbarossa; Ulug Ali, Cuprolé, &c.

VISIGAPATAM, in *Geography*, a town of Hindoostan, in the circar of Cicacole, on the coast. Near the town is a pagoda, dedicated to monkeys, which abound in the neighbourhood: they are fed by the priests, and regularly assemble at certain hours; 50 miles S.W. of Cicacole. N. lat. 17° 40'. E. long. 83° 30'.

VISIGNANO, a town of Ithria; 11 miles N. of Rovigno.

VISINA, a town of Ithria; 42 miles S.E. of Umago.

VISION,

VISION, *Visto*, the act of seeing, or perceiving external objects by the organ of sight.

Vision is well defined to be a sensation, by which, from a certain motion of the optic nerve, made in the bottom of the eye by the rays of light emitted or reflected from objects, and hence conveyed to the common sensory in the brain, the mind perceives the luminous object, its quantity, quality, figure, &c.

The phenomena of vision, the causes of it, and the manner in which it is effected, make one of the greatest and most important articles in the whole system of natural knowledge. Indeed, a great part of the physical, mathematical, and anatomical discoveries and improvements of the moderns, terminate here, and only tend to set the business of vision in a clearer light.

Hitherto refer what Sir Isaac Newton and others have discovered of the nature of light and colours; the laws of inflection, reflection, and refraction of the rays, the structure of the eye, particularly the retina and optic nerves, &c.

It is not necessary we should here give a minute detail of the process of vision from its first principles; the greatest part is already delivered under the respective articles. The eye, the organ of vision, we have described under the article *EYE*; and its several parts, tunics, humours, &c. under their proper heads, *CORNEA*, *CRYSTALLINE*, &c.

The immediate and principal organ of vision, *viz.* the retina, according to some, and the choroides, according to others, are also distinctly considered; as also the structure of the optic nerve, which conveys the impression to the brain; and the texture and disposition of the brain itself, which receives them, and represents them to the soul. See *RETINA*, *CHOROIDES*, *OPTIC NERVE*, *BRAIN*, *SENSORY*, &c.

By means of this arrangement of the various refracting substances, many peculiar advantages are procured. The surface of the cornea only, if it had been more convex, could not have collected the lateral rays of a direct pencil to a perfect focus, without a different curvature near its edges; and then the oblique pencils would have been subjected to greater aberration, nor could they have been made to converge to any focus on the retina. A second refraction performs both these offices much more completely, and has also the advantage of admitting a greater quantity of light. If also the surfaces of the crystalline lens, thus interposed, had been abrupt, there would have been a reflection at each, and an apparent haziness would have interfered with the distinct view of every luminous object; but this inconvenience is avoided by the gradual increase of density in approaching the centre, which also makes the crystalline equivalent to a much more refractive substance of equal magnitude; while, at the same time, the smaller density of the lateral parts prevents the usual aberration of spherical surfaces, occasioned by the too great refraction of the lateral rays of direct pencils, and causes also the focus of each oblique pencil to fall either accurately, or very nearly, on the concave surface of the retina, throughout its extent.

Again, the nature of light, which is the medium or vehicle by which objects are carried to the eye, is laid down at large under the articles *LIGHT* and *COLOURS*; and the chief properties thereof concerned in vision, under *REFLECTION*, *REFRACTION*, &c.; and also many of its circumstances under *RAY*, *MEDIUM*, &c. What remains for this article, therefore, is only to give a general idea of the whole process, in which all the several parts are concerned.

VISION, different Opinions or Systems of. The Platonists and Stoics held vision to be effected by the emission of rays out of the eyes; conceiving that there was a sort of light thus darted out; which, with the light of the external air,

taking, as it were, hold of the objects, rendered them visible; and thus returning back again to the eye, altered and new modified by the contact of the object, made an impression on the pupil, which gave the sensation of the object.

The reasons by which they maintain their opinions are derived, 1. From the brightness and lustre of the eye. 2. From our seeing a remote cloud, without seeing one with which we are encompassed (the rays being supposed too brisk and penetrating to be stopped by the near cloud, but growing languid at a greater distance, are returned to the eye). 3. From our not seeing an object laid on the pupil. 4. From the eye's being weary with seeing; *i.e.* by emitting great quantities of rays. And lastly, from animals which see in the night, as cats, lions, moles, owls, and some men.

Our own countryman, Roger Bacon, distinguished as he was in a variety of respects, does not hesitate to assent to the opinion that visual rays proceed from the eye; giving this reason for it, that every thing in nature is qualified to discharge its proper functions by its own powers, in the same manner as the sun, and other celestial bodies. *Opus Majus*, p. 289.

The Epicureans held vision to be performed by the emanation of corporeal species, or images from objects; or a sort of atomical effluvia continually flying off from the intimate parts of objects to the eye.

Their chief reasons are, 1. That the objects must necessarily be united to the visive faculty; and since it is not united by itself, it must be so by some species that represents it, and that is continually flowing from bodies. 2. That it frequently happens, that old men see remote objects better than near ones; the distance making the species thinner, and more commensurate to the debility of their organ.

The Peripatetics hold, with Epicurus, that vision is performed by the reception of species; but they differ from him in the circumstances; for they will have the species (which they call *intentionales*) to be incorporeal.

It is true, Aristotle's doctrine of vision, delivered in his chapter "De Aspectu," amounts to no more than this; that objects must move some intermediate body, that by this they may move the organ of sight. To which he adds, in another place, that when we perceive bodies, it is their species, not their matter, that we perceive; as a seal makes an impression on wax, without the wax's retaining any thing of the seal.

But this vague and obscure account the Peripatetics have thought fit to improve. Accordingly, what their master called *species*, the disciples understanding of real proper species, assert, that every visible object expresses a perfect image of itself, in the air contiguous to it; and this image another, somewhat less in the next air; and the third, another, &c. till the last image arrives at the crystalline, which they hold for the chief organ of sight, or that which immediately moves the soul. These images they call *intentional species*.

The modern philosophers; as the Cartesians and Newtonians, give a better account of vision. They all agree, that it is performed by rays of light reflected from the several points of objects received in at the pupil, refracted and collected in their passage, through the coats and humours, to the retina; and thus striking, or making an impression, on so many points thereof; which impression is conveyed, by the correspondent capillaments of the optic nerve, to the brain, &c.

Baptista Porta's experiments with the camera obscura, about the middle of the 16th century, convinced him, that
vision

vision is performed by the intermixture of something into the eye, and not by visual rays, proceeding from the eye, as had been the general opinion before his time; and he was the first who fully satisfied himself and others upon this subject, though several philosophers still adhered to the old opinion.

As for the Peripatetic series or chain of images, it is a mere chimæra; and Aristotle's meaning is better understood without than with them. In effect, setting these aside, the Aristotelian, Cartesian, and Newtonian doctrines of vision are very consistent; for Sir Isaac Newton imagines, that vision is performed chiefly by the vibrations of a fine medium, which penetrates all bodies excited in the bottom of the eye by the rays of light, and propagated through the capillaments of the optic nerves, to the sensorium. And Descartes maintains, that the sun pressing the materia subtilis, with which the world is filled every way, the vibrations and pulses of this matter reflected from objects are communicated to the eye, and thence to the sensorium; so that the action or vibration of a medium is equally supposed in all.

VISION, *Modern Theory of.* In order to vision, we are certain, it is required, that the rays of light be thrown from the visible objects to the eye. What befalls them in the eye will be conceived from what follows.

Suppose, *e. gr.* Z the eye, and ABC the object (*Plate XX. Optics, fig. 8.*); now, though every point of an object be a radiant point, that is, though there be rays reflected from every point of the object to every point of the circumambient space, each carrying with it its respective colour, (which we falsely imagine to be those of the object,) yet, as only those rays which pass through the pupil of the eye affect the sense, we shall here consider none else but these.

And again, though there be a great number of rays passing from one radiant point, as B, through the pupil; yet we shall only consider the action of a few of them, as BD, BE, BF.

Now, then, the ray BD, falling perpendicularly on the surface EDF, will pass out of the air into the aqueous humour, without any refraction, and proceed right to H, where, falling perpendicularly on the surface of the crystalline humour, it will go on, without any refraction, to M; where, again falling perpendicularly on the surface of the vitreous humour, it will proceed straight to the point O, in the fund or bottom of the eye.

Again, the ray BE, passing obliquely out of the air upon the surface of the watery humour EDF, will be refracted, and approach towards the perpendicular EP; and thus, proceeding to the point G, in the surface of the crystalline, it will be there refracted still nearer to the perpendicular. So also EG, falling obliquely out of air into an harder body, will be refracted towards the perpendicular GR, and, falling on the point L of the surface of the vitreous humour, it will still be brought nearer to M.

Lastly, GL, falling obliquely out of a denser, upon the surface of a rarer body LMN, will be refracted, and recede from the perpendicular LT; in receding from which, it is evident, it approaches towards the ray BDO, and may be so refracted, as to meet the other in O. In like manner, the ray BF, being refracted in B, will turn to I, and thence to N, and thence to the others in O. But the rays between BE and BF, being somewhat less refracted, will not meet precisely in the same point O.

Thus will the radiant point B affect the fund of the eye, in the same manner as if the pupil had no breadth, or as if the radiant itself had only emitted one single ray, such as were equal in power to all those between BE and BF.

In like manner, the rays proceeding from the point A, will be so refracted in passing through the humours of the eye, as to meet near the point X; and the rays from any intermediate point between A and B, will nearly meet in some other point in the fund of the eye between X and O.

Upon the whole, it may be asserted universally, that every point of an object affects one point in the fund of the eye; and, on the contrary, that every point in the fund of the eye only receives rays from one point of the object. Though this is not to be understood with the utmost rigour.

Now, if the object recede from the eye, in such manner as that the radiant point B does not decline from the line BD; the rays which would proceed from B, not enough divaricated, would be so refracted in passing the three surfaces, as that they would meet before they reached the point O; on the contrary, if the object should be brought nearer the eye, the rays passing from the point to the pupil, being too much divaricated, would be refracted so, as not to meet till beyond the point O; nay, the object may be so near, that the rays proceeding from any point may be so divaricated, as that they shall never meet at all. In all which cases, there would be no point of the object but would move a pretty large portion of the fund of the eye; and thus the action of each point would be confounded with that of the contiguous one.

And this would commonly be the case, but that nature has provided against it; either by contriving the eye so that its bulk may be lengthened, or shortened, as objects may be more or less distant; or, as others will have it, so as that the crystalline may be made more convex, or more flat; or, according to others, so as that the distance between the crystalline and the retina may be lengthened or shortened.

The first expedient has been thought by some to be the most probable; on the footing of which, when we direct our eyes to an object so remote, as that it cannot be distinctly viewed by the eye in its accustomed figure, the eye is drawn back into a flatter figure, by the contraction of four muscles; by which means the retina, becoming nearer the crystalline humour, receives the rays sooner; and, on the other hand, when we view an object too near, the eye, being compressed by the two oblique muscles, is rendered more globular; by which means the retina, being set farther off from the crystalline, does not receive the rays of any point before they meet. See *VISIBLE*.

Those who maintain the opinion now stated farther allege, that this access and recede of the crystalline is so necessary to vision, that whereas, in some birds, the coats of the eye are of such a bony consistence, that muscles would not have been able to contract and distend them; nature has taken other means, by binding the crystalline down to the retina, with a kind of blackish threads not found in the eyes of other animals. Nor must it be omitted, that of the three refractions above-mentioned, the first is wanting in fishes; and that, to remedy this, their crystalline is not lenticular, as in other animals, but globular. Lastly, since the eyes of old people are generally worn flatter than those of young ones, so that the rays from any point fall on the retina before they become collected into one, they must exhibit the object somewhat confusedly; nor can such eyes see any but remote objects distinctly. In others, whose eyes are too globular, the case is just the reverse. See *PRESBYTIA* and *MYOPS*.

From what has been shewn, that every point of an object moves only one point of the bottom of the eye; and, on the contrary, that every point in the fund of the eye only receives rays from one point of the object, it is easy to conceive, that the whole object moves a certain part of the retina;

retina; that in this part there is a distinct and vivid collection of all the rays received in at the pupil; and that as each ray carries its proper colour along with it, there are as many points painted in the fund of the eye as there were points visible in the object. Thus is there a species, or picture, on the retina, exactly like the object: all the difference between them is, that a body is here represented by a surface, a surface frequently by a line, and a line by a point; that the image is inverted, the right-hand answering to the left of the object, &c. and that it is exceedingly small; and still the more so, as the object is more remote.

What we have shewn, under other articles, of the nature of light and colours, readily accounts for this painting of the object on the retina. The matter of fact is proved by an easy experiment; long since tried by Des Cartes, thus: the windows of a chamber being shut, and light only admitted at one little aperture; to that aperture apply the eye of some animal newly killed, having first dexterously pulled off the membranes that cover the bottom of the vitreous humour, *viz.* the hind part of the sclerotica, choroides, and even part of the retina; then will the images of all the objects, without doors, be seen distinctly painted on any white body, as on an egg-shell, that the eye is laid upon. And the same thing is better shewn by an artificial eye, or a camera obscura.

The images of objects, then, are represented on the retina; which is only an expansion of the fine capillaments of the optic nerve, and from which the optic nerve is continued into the brain. Now, any motion or vibration, impressed on one extreme of the nerve, will be propagated to the other: hence the impulse of the several rays, sent from the several points of the object, will be propagated as they are on the retina, (*i. e.* in their proper colours, &c. or in particular vibrations, or manners of pressure, corresponding thereto,) to the place where those capillaments are interwoven into the substance of the brain. And thus is vision brought to the common case of sensation.

For such, we know, is the law of the union between the soul and body, that certain perceptions of the first do necessarily follow certain motions of the last; but the different parts of the object do separately move different parts of the fund of the eye; and those motions are propagated to the sensory: it follows, therefore, that there must arise so many distinct sensations at the same time. See SENSATION.

Hence, 1. We easily conceive, that the perception, or image, in the mind, must be the clearer, and more vivid, the more rays the eye receives from the object; and consequently, the largeness of the pupil will have some share in the clearness of vision.

2. Considering only one radiant point of an object, we may say, that that point would move the sense more weakly, or be seen more obscurely, as it is more remote; because the rays coming from any point, like all qualities propagated in orbem, are always diverging; and therefore the more remote, the fewer of them will be received in at the pupil. But the pupil dilating itself more, as the object is more remote, takes in more rays than it would otherwise do.

3. The distinctness of vision is somewhat concerned in the size of the image exhibited in the fund of the eye. For there should be, at least, as many extremes of capillaments, or fibres of the optic nerve, in the space that image possesses, as there are particles in the object that send rays into the pupil; otherwise every particle will not move its separate capillament; and if the rays from two points fall on the same capillament, it will be the same as if only one point had fallen there; since the same capillament cannot be differently

moved at the same time. And hence it is, that the images of very remote objects being very small, they appear confused, several points of the image affecting each capillament; and hence, also, if the object be of different colours, several particles affecting the same capillament at the same time, only the brightest and most lucid will be perceived. Thus, a field, furnished with a good number of white flowers, among a much greater quantity of green grass, &c. at a distance, appears all white. See *Distinct Vision*, infra.

Our seeing of objects *single*, though with two eyes, in each of which is a separate image, or picture; and our seeing of them *erect*, whereas the picture is really inverted, are two great phenomena in vision; which we have considered under the article SEEING.

For the manner of seeing and judging of the distance and magnitude of objects, see VISIBLE, MAGNITUDE, &c.

VISION, in *Optics*. The laws of vision, brought under mathematical demonstrations, make the subject of *Optics*, (which see,) taken in the greatest latitude of that word: for, among the writers of mathematics, optics is generally taken, in a more restrained signification, for the doctrine of *direct* vision; catoptrics, for the doctrine of *reflected* vision; and dioptrics, for that of *refracted* vision.

VISION, *Direct* or *Simple*, is that performed by means of direct rays; that is, of rays passing directly, or in right lines, from the radiant point of the eye. Such is that explained in the preceding article, VISION.

VISION, *Reflected*, is that performed by rays reflected from specula, or mirrors. The laws of this kind of vision, see under REFLECTION, and MIRROR.

VISION, *Refracted*, is that performed by means of rays refracted, or turned out of their way, by passing through mediums of different density; as air and water, and chiefly through glasses and lenses. The laws of this, see under the article REFRACTION.

VISION, *Arch* of. See ARCH.

VISION, *Distinct*, denotes that by which an object is seen distinctly. An object is said to be seen distinctly, when its outlines appear clear and well defined, and the several parts of it, if not too small, are plainly distinguishable, so that we can easily compare them one with another, in respect to their figure, size, and colour.

In order to fix this distinct vision, it has hitherto been commonly thought, that all the rays of a pencil, flowing from a physical point of an object, must be exactly united in a physical, or, at least, in a sensible point of the retina. But it seems certain, from the experiments mentioned by Dr. Jurin, that such an exact union of rays is not always necessary to distinct vision.

Hence the doctor divides distinct vision into two species, *viz.* into vision *perfectly distinct*, or *perfect* vision, and vision *imperfectly distinct*; which he calls simply by the name of *distinct* vision. The former is that in which the rays of each pencil are collected into a single physical, or sensible point of the retina; the other species is that in which those rays occupy some larger space upon the retina, yet so as the object is distinctly perceived.

Perfect vision in a given eye, and a given disposition of that eye, depends only upon the distance of the object; it has no dependence upon the magnitude of the object; but *distinct* vision, in a given eye, and a given disposition of the eye, depends upon the distance and magnitude of the object jointly. There appearing, therefore, a real difference between *perfect* vision, and what we call *distinct* vision, the learned doctor has enquired very particularly into the reason why an object may be seen distinctly without perfect vision.

He shews that objects may be seen with sufficient distinctness, though the pencils of rays issuing from the points of them do not unite precisely in the same point on the retina; but that since, in this case, pencils from every point, either meet before they reach the retina, or tend to meet beyond it, the light that comes from them must cover a circular spot upon it, and will, therefore, paint the image larger than perfect vision would represent it. Whence it follows, that every object, placed either too near, or too remote for perfect vision, will appear larger than it is by a penumbra of light, caused by the circular spaces, which are illuminated by pencils of rays proceeding from the extremities of the object. All the varieties occasioned by this circumstance he traces with great accuracy, and he applies his observations upon it to the explanation of many phenomena in vision. See *Circle of DISSIPATION*.

Dr. Jurin observes, that when objects are large, they will appear tolerably distinct at a much less distance than small objects, because the penumbra will not interfere so much; and on this account, a large print may be read much nearer to the eye than a small one. In this case the former will appear only ill defined, but sufficiently distinct, when the latter is quite indistinct, the penumbra of one letter interfering with that of another, and thereby making marks altogether unlike any that are in the book. The dispersed light of these penumbrae, he says, is of different densities; and Mr. Robins, in his Remarks on Dr. Jurin, p. 279, observes, that the whole circle made by the confused image of any print, will be proportioned to the diameter of the pupil of the eye, which limits the whole pencil.

The smallest distance of perfect vision, or that in which the rays of a single pencil are collected into a physical point on the retina in the generality of eyes, Dr. Jurin, from a number of observations, states at five, six, or seven inches. The greatest distance of distinct and perfect vision he found to be more difficult to determine; but by considering the proportion of all the parts of the eye, and the refractive power of each, together with the interval that may be discerned between two stars, the distance of which is known, he fixes it, in some cases, at fourteen feet five inches, though Dr. Porterfield had confined it to twenty-seven inches only, with respect to his own eye.

When vision is indistinct, Dr. Jurin thinks that there are two methods of rendering it distinct. One is for the eye to apply the same power, by which it conforms itself to the view of objects placed at different distances, so as to obtain perfect vision; and the other is the contraction of the pupil by the lesser muscular ring of the uvea, which is chiefly made use of in a strong light, and which will sometimes render the other means altogether unnecessary. In a weak light, he says, the pupil is so far from contracting, that there is rather a necessity for dilating it, to take in more light. But upon this Dr. Whytt (Ess. on vital and involuntary Motions, p. 133.) observes, that in the same, or a less degree of light, the pupil will be contracted, in order to view a nearer or a smaller object. For other observations on this subject, see Jurin's Ess. on distinct and indistinct Vision, at the end of Dr. Smith's Optics; and Robins's Remarks on Dr. Jurin, in his Math. Tracts, vol. ii. p. 278, &c.

VISION, Field of. See *FIELD*.

VISION, among Divines, is used for an appearance, which God occasionally sent to his prophets and saints; either by way of dream, or in reality.

Such were the visions of Ezekiel, Amos, &c.; the vision of St. Paul, lifted up to the third heaven, &c.; of Joseph, by which he was assured of the purity of the Virgin, &c.

Some have represented our blessed Lord's temptation in the wilderness, Matt. v. 1, &c. as a vision. Mr. Farmer, in particular, considers it as a divine vision, representing the trials he was to endure, and designed to prepare him for encountering and vanquishing them. See *TEMPTATION*.

Many among the Romish saints have pretended to visions: as St. Theresa, St. Bridget, St. Catharine de Sienna, &c.

Hence the word has come into disrepute, and become a common name for all chimeras, or spectres, which either our folly or fear possesses us with: and hence, a person that frames to himself wild romantic notions, is called a *visionary*. Quevedo's *Visiones* are descriptions of what passed in the imagination of that author.

VISION, Beatific, denotes the act by which the angels and blessed spirits see God in Paradise.

VISIR, VISIER, or Visier. See *VISIER*.

VISITATION, VISITATIO, an act of jurisdiction, by which a superior or proper officer visits some corporation, college, church, or other public or private house, to see that their respective laws and regulations be duly observed.

Among us, the bishop of each diocese is obliged to hold a visitation every third year, and the archdeacon the other two years; to see that the discipline be well observed, the people well instructed, and to take care that neither the church, nor the pastors of it, receive any detriment. For the first 600 years after Christ, the bishops in their own persons visited all the parishes within their respective dioceses every year; but since the law and practice of triennial visitations have been established, the bishop is not only not obliged by law to visit annually, but he is restrained from it.

The business of parochial visitation, in order to inspect and take account of the fabrics and mansions, ornaments and utensils, vestments and books of the church, peculiarly belongs to the archdeacon. In all visitations of parochial churches made by bishops and archdeacons, the law hath provided, that the charge of them shall be defrayed by the procurations then due, and payable by the inferior clergy; in which custom, as to the quantum, shall prevail. These procurations are due to the person visiting of common right; and although originally due by reason of visitation only, yet the same may be due without actual visitation. They are suable only in the spiritual court, and are merely an ecclesiastical duty; and they may be levied by sequestration, or other ecclesiastical process. Free chapels and donatives (unless such donative hath received the augmentation of queen Anne's bounty) are exempt from the visitation of the ordinary, and of course pay no procurations; the first being visitable only by commission from the king, and the second by commission from the donor. And there are also other churches and chapels exempted, which belonged to the monasteries; which by 25 Hen. VIII. c. 21. were made visitable by the king, or by commission under the great seal.

Anciently the regarder's office was expressed to be the *visitacion of manners*. See *REGARDER*.

The lawyers hold it a branch of the king's prerogative, to visit the universities; to enquire into the statutes, and the observation of them; to expel delinquents, &c. But some of the colleges disallow this privilege, and plead themselves, by royal charters, exempt from all civil and royal visitations.

With regard to all ecclesiastical corporations, the ordinary is their visitor, so constituted by the canon law, and thence derived to us. The pope formerly, and now the king, as supreme ordinary, is the visitor of the archbishop or metropolitan: the metropolitan has the charge and coercion of all

his suffragan bishops; and the bishops in their several dioceses are in ecclesiastical matters the visitors of all deans and chapters, of all parsons and vicars, and of all other spiritual corporations. With respect to all lay corporations, the founder, his heirs or assigns, are the visitors, whether the foundation be civil or eleemosynary; for in a lay corporation the ordinary neither can nor ought to visit. In general, the king being the sole founder of all civil corporations, and the endower the perfect founder of all eleemosynary ones, the right of visitation of the former results to the king, and of the latter to the patron or endower. The king being constituted by law the visitor of all civil corporations, the law has also appointed the place in which he shall exercise this jurisdiction; which is the court of king's bench, where, and where only, all misbehaviours of this kind of corporations are enquired into and redressed, and all their controversies decided. Accordingly this is the meaning of lawyers, when they say that these civil corporations are liable to no visitation; viz. that the law having by immemorial usage appointed them to be visited and inspected by the king their founder, in his majesty's court of king's bench; according to the rules of common law they ought not to be visited elsewhere, or by any other authority.

As to eleemosynary corporations, by the dotation the founder and his heirs are of common right the legal visitors, to see that property is rightly employed, which might otherwise have defected to the visitor himself: but if the founder has appointed and assigned any other person to be visitor, then his assignee so appointed is invested with all the founder's power, in exclusion of his heir. Eleemosynary corporations are chiefly hospitals, or colleges in the university. With regard to hospitals, it has long been held, that if the hospital be spiritual, the bishop shall visit; but if lay, the patron. This right of lay patrons was indeed abridged by 2 Hen. V. cap. 1. which ordained, that the ordinary should visit all hospitals founded by subjects: though the king's right was reserved, to visit by his commissioners such as were of royal foundation. But the subject's right was in part restored by stat. 14 Eliz. cap. 5. which directs the bishop to visit such hospitals only, when no visitor is appointed by the founders of them; and all the hospitals founded by virtue of the stat. 39 Eliz. c. 5. are to be visited by such persons as shall be nominated by the respective founders. But still, if the founder appoints nobody, the bishop of the diocese must visit. Colleges in the universities were formerly considered by the popish clergy, under whose direction they were, as ecclesiastical, or at least as clerical, corporations; and therefore the right of visitation was claimed by the ordinary of the diocese. In some of our colleges, where no special visitor is appointed, the bishop of that diocese, in which Oxford was formerly comprised, has immemorially exercised visitatorial authority; which can be ascribed to nothing else but his supposed title as ordinary to visit this, among other ecclesiastical foundations. And it is not impossible, that the number of colleges in Cambridge which are visited by the bishop of Ely, may in part be derived from the same original. But whatever might be formerly the opinion of the clergy, it is now held as established common law, that colleges are lay corporations, though sometimes totally composed of ecclesiastical persons; and that the right of visitation does not arise from any principles of the canon law, but of necessity was created by the common law. In a disputed case it was held by lord chief justice Holt, that by the common law the office of the visitor is to judge according to the statutes of the college, and to expel and deprive upon just occasions, and to hear all appeals of course; and that from him, and him only, the party grieved ought to have redress; the

founder having reposed in him for entire a confidence, that he will administer justice impartially, that his determinations are fixed, and examinable in no other court whatsoever.

To this leading case all subsequent determinations have been conformable. But where the visitor is under a temporary disability, then the court of king's bench will interpose, to prevent a defect of justice. Also it is said, that if a founder of an eleemosynary foundation appoints a visitor, and limits his jurisdiction by rules and statutes, if the visitor in his sentence exceeds those rules, an action lies against him; but otherwise, where he mistakes in a thing within his power. Blackitt. Comm. book i.

Among the Romanists, the general of each religious order is obliged to visit the several monasteries of his order.

In abbeys, that are chiefs of their orders, there are particular officers, called visitors; who are dispatched into all the houses and congregations depending on them, to see that the regular discipline is observed.

In Spain there is a visitor, and inquisitor-general. The visitation of the cloister belongs to the ordinary.

VISITATION, in a moral and religious sense, is also applied to the afflictions that befall mankind; as coming from the hand of God, to try or prove them. In which sense, the plague, among us, is frequently called the visitation.

VISITATION of the *Virgin Mary*, is a feast instituted in memory of the visit paid by the Virgin to Elizabeth, first established by Bonaventure, general of the order of St. Francis, by a decree of the general chapter, comprehending the churches of his own order, held at Pisa in 1263; and afterwards extended to the whole church, by pope Urban IV. in the year 1379, and ordained to be kept on the 2d of July.

VISITATION is likewise an order of monks founded by Francis de Sales and his mother Chantal.

VISITORS. See VISITATION, supra.

VISITORS of the *Inquisition*. See INQUISITION.

VISITZ, in *Geography*, a town of Austria; 4 miles S.E. of Bavarian Waidhoven.

VISIVE, VISIVUS, in the *School Philosophy*, a term applied to the power of seeing. See VISION.

Authors are exceedingly divided about the place where the visive faculty resides: some will have it in the retina; others, in the choroides; others, in the optic nerve; others, as sir Isaac Newton, in the place where the optic nerves meet, before they come to the brain; and others, in the brain itself.

VISKAIA, in *Geography*, a fort of Russia, in the government of Upha; 64 miles W.S.W. of Tchelabinsk.

VISKAIA, *Uss*, a fort of Russia, in the government of Upha, near the Tobol; 38 miles S.E. of Tchelabinsk.

VISMEA, in *Botany*, received its name from the younger Linnaeus, who erroneously called it *Vifnea*, in honour of Mr. De Vifme, a merchant at Lisbon. Willdenow retains the latter orthography; Schreber, better instructed, uses the former. This name, though not rumbling with consonants, like some with which our science is encumbered, is nevertheless most irreconcilable to Latin pronunciation; nor ought such to be admitted, but when supported by the highest possible pretensions, which in this case are not conspicuous. The worthy Maffon, personally informed on the subject, used vehemently to exclaim against the above name, and the French botanists have preferred its barbarous synonym *Mocanera*, by which the shrub in question is known in the Canary islands. Mr. De Vifme, it seems, was a mere amateur; but as he endeavoured to diffuse a taste for plants among the Portuguese, who were previously little disposed to any such elegancies, or to any thing useful or praiseworthy

in their stead, we cannot but think him full as deserving of commemoration as many of our own horticulturists, who do but follow a fashion, and therefore are not entitled to literary honours, in a science which they perhaps "ignorantly worship." If they study its principles, they rank as botanists, and render eminent services to those who have not the means of promoting the game pursuit in the same way.—Linn. Suppl. 36. Schreb. Gen. 327. Willd. Sp. Pl. v. 2. 926. Mart. Mill. Dict. v. 4. Lamarck Dict. v. 4. 208. (Mocanera; Juss. 318.)—Class and order, *Dodecandria Trigynia*. Nat. Ord. *Galycanthemae*, Linn. *Onagra*, Juss.

Gen. Ch. *Cal.* Perianth half superior, of five lanceolate, recurved, permanent leaves, the three outermost hairy. *Cor.* Petals five, equal, elliptical, undivided, spreading, longer than the calyx. *Stam.* Filaments twelve, inserted into the receptacle of the flower, erect, thread-shaped, shorter than the petals; anthers erect, quadrangular, each tipped with a bristle. *Pist.* Germen half inferior, hairy, taper-pointed; styles three, thread-shaped; smooth; stigmas simple. *Peric.* Nut ovate, pointed, smooth, of two or three cells, half inferior, coated, or covered, above half way up, with what might be called the tube of a monophyllous calyx, and surrounded with its converging segments. *Seeds* solitary.

Efl. Ch. Calyx half inferior, of five leaves. Petals five. Stigmas simple. Nut of two or three cells, coated below. *Seeds* solitary.

1. *V. Mocanera*. Linn. Suppl. 251. Willd. n. 1.—Gathered by Mr. Masson, in the mountainous woods of the Canary islands. A small shrub, with a round, rugged, or somewhat warty, stem. *Leaves* alternate, erect, on short stalks, coriaceous, elliptical, veiny, ferrated, very smooth. *Flower-stalks* axillary, solitary, drooping, scarcely longer than the footstalks, naked, each bearing one small yellow flower. After impregnation the stalks become erect, the calyx closes and thickens, its three outer segments turning brown and hairy. This, the only known species, is a stranger to our gardens.

VISNAGA, Matth. Valgr. v. 1. 477. t. 479. Rivin. Pentap. Irr. t. 84, an herbaceous plant of the south of Europe, is the *Daucus Visnaga* of Linn. Sp. Pl. 348. Gärtnern, t. 21, establishes it as a genus by itself. Desfontaines, and the author of this article, in Prodr. Fl. Græc. Sibth. v. 1. 186, have referred the plant to *Ammi*. There is some reason to believe it the *γννιδιον* of Dioscorides. See GIN-
GIDIUM.

VISNAVITRA, in *Biography*. See VISWAMITRA.

VISNE, VISNETUM, in *Law*, a neighbouring place; or a place near at hand. See VENUE.

VISNEA, in *Botany*, Linn. Suppl. 36. See VISMEA.

VISNIZA, in *Geography*, a town of European Turkey, in Moldavia; 30 miles N. of Suzcava.

VISO, EL, a town of Spain, in New Castile; 25 miles S.E. of Ciudad Real.

Viso, a mountain of France, in the department of the Stura, supposed to be one of the highest parts of the Alps.

Viso *Marjò*, a town of Naples, in Calabria Citra; 13 miles W.N.W. of Scalea.

VISOKICH, a town of Russia, in the government of Irkutsk, on the Lena; 8 miles N.N.W. of Orlenga.

VISON, a town of France, in the department of the Tanaro; 3 miles E.S.E. of Acqui.

VISONTIUM, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Hispania Citerior, belonging to the Pelendones. Ptol.—Also, a town of Higher Pannonia, of the number of those which were remote from the Danube.

VISP, in *Geography*, a town of the Vallais, and chief place of a diocin, or tything; 22 miles E. of Sion.

VISPE, or USPE, in *Ancient Geography*, a town belonging to the Saracens, in the vicinity of the Bosphorus of Thrace; and not far from the river Pania. Tacitus says that it was strongly fortified. The Romans besieged it and were repulsed. When they afterwards attacked the place by escalade, the inhabitants sent a deputation to petition for the life of free persons, with an offer of 10,000 slaves. The besiegers rejected these conditions, and revolting at the cruelty of massacring persons who voluntarily surrendered themselves, and imprisoning to great a number of persons, they recurred to the right of war, which exhibits a horrible example of the ferocity of the Romans. They gave the signal for escalade, but afterwards entered into treaty. In consequence of this event, which was attended with the destruction of Vispe, no record of it remains.

VISPELLIONES, among the Romans, were slaves who could not be manumitted.

VISRAVA, in *Mythology*, a name of the Hindoo Plutus, who is more commonly called *Kuvera*; which see. See also VAISRAVA, another mode of pronouncing this name, which is likewise given to the father of Kuvera and of his half-brother Ravena. (See RAVENA.) These two last named half-brothers are also called Paulastya, or Pulastya. Visrava, or Vaisrava, is sometimes named Viswafava and Visravana. VISRUTI, one of the three daughters of Swayambhuva, a personage of importance in their fabulous legends. Some notice of him occurs under his name in this work.

VISSE, in *Geography*, a town of the Popedom, in the marquisate of Ancona; 15 miles S. of Camerino.

VISSEGRAD, a town of Bosnia; 40 miles S.E. of Bofnaferai.

VISSEGRAD. See VICEGRAD.

VISSEHOVEDE, a town of Germany, in the county of Verden; 19 miles E. of Verden.

UIST, NORTH, one of the islands of the Hebrides, in the shire of Inverness, Scotland, is of a very irregular shape, and extends in length about twenty miles, and from twelve to eighteen in breadth. The word *Uist* is said to be taken from the Scandinavian word *uisl*, which signifies *west*, and was given by the Danes, when in possession of these countries, on account of its westerly situation. The western part of the coast, which is washed by the Atlantic, is inaccessible to vessels, or even to fishing-boats, except in the calmest weather, on account of rocks and shoals. On the eastern coast are several inlets of the sea, which form safe and commodious harbours. Of these, the best is loch Maddie, which affords good anchorage for vessels of any burden. Along the coast round these harbours the ground is barren, hilly, and almost uninhabited. The western and northern parts of the island, almost the only cultivated parts, are low and level for about a mile and a half from the sea, when the surface becomes moory, with hills of small height covered with black heath. It has mostly a sandy soil, which, as it approaches the moorlands, is a thin black loam, on a gravelly, or on a free-stone bottom. In favourable summers, the cultivated parts yield luxuriant crops of oats and barley; but as there are no trees to afford shelter during the inclemency of winter, the appearance is then greatly changed, and verdure is scarcely to be seen; so that the cattle, in these seasons, are fed partly on straw, and partly on sea-weed thrown up by storms. The number of cows kept on the island is about 2000, of which 300 are annually exported; the number of horses is about 1600. Agriculture is in a low state; and the implements of husbandry, with a few exceptions, are the same kind that were used a century past. Here are numerous fresh-water lakes, abounding with excellent trout, and frequented by innumerable

able flocks of aquatic fowls. Kelp is manufactured to a considerable extent, the annual produce being about 1200 tons; of which the greater part belongs to lord Macdonald, the sole proprietor of the island, from which he derives a yearly rent of 2100*l.* sterling, besides the profits of the kelp. A parochial school is established here, from which one scholar is annually sent to the university. The parish of North Uist comprehends several adjacent isles. In the year 1811, the population was estimated at 3773. Here are the remains of several Danish forts: and also of some Druidical temples, which are described by Dr. Smith, in his History of the Druids.—*Beauties of Scotland*, vol. v. Invernesshire, 1808. *Gazetteer of Scotland*, 1806. *Carlisle's Topographical Dictionary of Scotland*, 1813.

Uist, *South*, another of the Hebride islands, also included in the shire of Inverness, is in length about thirty miles, and the greatest breadth may be estimated from seven to nine miles; affording an area of about 40,000 acres, capable of cultivation. Towards the west and north-west, where it is bounded by the ocean, the soil is light and sandy, and most part rendered useless by the severity of the storms: further inland is a series of lakes, which abound with a variety of fish; and to the east are high and rugged mountains, covered with heath and a partial degree of verdure, which afford pasturage in the summer and autumn months for black cattle, horses, sheep, and goats; but the grain produced on the island does not serve the inhabitants more than nine months in the year. About 7000 sheep are generally kept here, and about 3000 cows; but the greatest source of emolument (as well as in North Uist) is the manufacture of kelp, to the amount of 1100 tons annually: its first introduction into these islands was in the year 1750, by Mr. Macleod, who brought it from Ireland, where it had been carried on for several years. The parish of South Uist, which includes some small contiguous isles, contained, in the year 1811, a population of 4825; being more than doubled since the year 1755, notwithstanding numerous emigrations.—*Beauties of Scotland*, vol. v. Invernesshire, 1808. *Carlisle's Topographical Dictionary of Scotland*, 1813. *Gazetteer of Scotland*, 1806.

VISTAMENTE, in the *Italian Music*, is used to give notice to play or sing quick, briskly, &c.

VISTE, in *Botany*, a name given by some authors to the common white mountain coralloides: it is the Lapland name for the same plant; the rein-deer and many other creatures feeding on it, when all other vegetables are destroyed.

VISTER, in *Geography*, a town of European Turkey, in Bulgaria; 44 miles S.W. of Hmail.

VISTNOU, VISTNU, or *Vishnu*, in the *Modern History of Mythology*, a name given in the theology of the Brahmins, to one of the three great gods of the first class, which are the objects of worship to the inhabitants of Hindoostan: the other two are *Brahma* and *Ruddren*.

According to the Veda, these three gods were created by the Supreme Being, to be his ministers in nature. *Brahma* is represented as the creator, *Vistnou* as the preserver, and *Ruddren* as the destroyer of beings. However, there are some sects which maintain, that *Vistnou* is superior to *Brahma*, and that he gave him existence. *Vistnou*, it is said, distributed mankind into three classes, the rich, the poor, and those of middle state; and created many worlds, inhabited by spirits destined for the preservation of other beings. *Vistnou* is most respected in the kingdom of Carnata, *Brahma* in the Mogul empire, and *Ruddren* in Malabar. *Un. Hist.* vol. vi. 8vo. See *VISHNU*.

VISTRITZA, in *Geography*, a river of European

Turkey, which runs into the Vistritza, 16 miles E.S.E. of Edeffa, in Macedonia.

VISTRIZA, a river of European Turkey, in Macedonia, which runs into the Varder, 25 miles N.W. of Saloniki.

VISTULA, a river which rises in the south-east part of Silesia, on the borders of Poland, passes by Cracow, Sandomirz, Zawichost, Warlaw, Wladislaw, Thorn, Culmi, &c. and runs into the Baltic, at Dantzic.

VISUAL, something belonging to the sight, or seeing.

VISUAL Angle. See ANGLE.

VISUAL Line. See LINE.

VISUAL Point, in *Perspective*, is a point, in the horizontal line, in which all the ocular rays unite. See POINT.

Thus, a person standing in a straight long gallery, and looking forwards; the sides, floor, and ceiling, seem to meet, and touch one another in a point, or common centre.

VISUAL Rays, are lines of light, imagined to come from the object to the eye. See RAY.

All the observations of astronomers and geometers are performed by means of the visual rays, received in at the fights, or pinnule, or alidades.

VISUM. See *HABERE facias visum*.

VISURGIS, the *Weser*, in *Ancient Geography*, a very considerable river of Germany; it made a separation between the Romans and Cherusci, according to Pliny, and became celebrated by the defeat of the Roman army on its banks, according to Velleius Paterculus.

VISWADEVA, a sacrifice or oblation offered by pious Hindoos to all their gods collectively. The word means all the gods. "One oblation to the assembled gods, thence named *Vishwadeva*, is ordained both for evening and morning." *Init. of Menu*, iii. 121. (See *MENU*.) Of other sacrifices of the Hindoos, see *BRADHA*.

VISWAJENNI, in *Mythology*, a name of the Hindoo goddess *Parvati*; which see. It means *all-prolific*, and is applied to her in her character of *Prakriti*, or nature. See *PRAKRITI*.

VISWAKARMA, is a personage of considerable importance, and his name frequently occurs in Hindoo books. Sir W. Jones (*As. Res.* vol. i.) thinks *Vishwakarma* to be the Vulcan of the Greeks and Romans; being, like Vulcan, the forger of arms for the gods; and inventor of the *Ag-nialtra*, or fiery shaft, used in the wars between them and the *Daityas*, or Titans. He is deemed the architect of the universe, and chief engineer of the gods. He revealed the fourth *Upaveda* in various treatises on sixty-four mechanical arts, for the improvement of such as exercise them; and he is the inspector of all manual labours and mechanical arts. See *VEDA*.

It is fabled that *Vishwakarma* was employed by Krishna to build for him the city of Dwarka, in Guzerat; and it is not unusual for any very magnificent or stupendous work of antiquity to be attributed to him: the excavations at Ellora, for instance. (See *ELLORA*.) Between *Vishwakarma* and the Pandus, the labour and honour of the excavations at Ellora, Elephanta, Karly, &c. are shared. See *ELEPHANTA*, *KARLY*, and *PANDU*.

Vishwakarma is the reputed son of *Bhuvana*, and a daughter of his is sometimes mentioned, named *Barhismati*; but their names seldom occur. A son of the divine artist is named *Vishwanarupa* (which see), father of the wives of Ganefu, or Poller. Under our article *TARA* is a ridiculous, but characteristic legend of *Vishwakarma* having, like most of the other Hindoo deities, begotten an ape! *Twashta* is another

another name of this divine architect, and also of the sun. See TWASHTA.

VISWAMITRA, in *Biography*, is the name of a very celebrated and fancified personage in the theological legends of the Hindoos. His age is anterior to authentic research, since his name occurs frequently in the Veda, the Hindoo scriptures, which is professed to have been written thousands of years ago. (See VEDA.) He was the Rishi, (see RISHI,) or faint, to and by whom was revealed the hymn in which is contained the holiest verse of the Veda, called the adorable, the ineffable, Gayatri. (Of this see under O'M.) His grandson, named Yajnyawalkya, is the reputed author of a code or institutes of law that is still in use. It is arranged in three chapters, containing 1023 couplets. The commentaries on it are very voluminous. The name of Viswamitra, which means universal friend, or friend to all, occurs very frequently in Sanscrit writings; and indeed not unfrequently in this dictionary. His self-inflicted austerities, and persevering devotions, are the theme of frequent praise. Under the article MENAKA, the Upsara, "of fascinating symmetry of form," as she is described in the Ramayana, it is noticed how the rigid mortifications of the ascetic were interrupted; and their reward averted by the wiles of that damsel employed by Indra. Under RAMAYANA and UPSARA will be found some account of the work, and of the semi-divine, faint-seducing beauties, severally so called. See also INDRA and RHEMBA, the name of the Venus Marina of the Hindoos, and queen of beauty and of beauties. Viswamitra, though not of Brahma, was the guru, or spiritual preceptor of the great Rama; and is the author of much of the moral precept scattered through that curious work the Ramayana; which details the exploits, among much other matter, of its divine hero. (See RAMA.) In the Ramayana, Viswamitra is often called "son of Kashi," and occasionally a person named Gadhi, is called his father. The interesting Sakountala, introduced to the English reader by Sir W. Jones's translation of the Hindoo drama of that title, is spoken of as his daughter. Though not a Brahman by birth, he is said to have become one through his devotion.

Under our article SURABHI an anecdote is given of Viswamitra, which, with that alluded to above, tends to shew that he was tainted with the vice of avarice as well as lust. In our article TAREKA he appears as the tutor of his obedient pupil Rama.

VISWASWARA, a name of the Hindoo god Siva; which see. It means lord of all; and is probably given to him by the sects who exclusively, or especially worship him, of whom see under SECTS of Hindoos. The name does not often occur. In one of the Puranas is this verse. "The Vedas and Sastras all testify that Viswafwara is the first of Devas (or gods), Kashi (Benares) the first of cities, Ganga (the Ganges) the first of rivers, and Charity the first of virtues."

VITA, LIFE. See LIFE.

VITA, Cui in. See CUI.

VITE, Aqua. See AQUA.

VITE Arbor, in *Anatomy*, the appearance produced by a particular section of the cerebellum. See BRAIN.

VITE, Arbor. See TREE of Life.

VITE, Lignum. See GUALACUM.

VITA Longa, a name given by some botanical authors to the piper *Æthiopicum*, or *Æthiopian* pepper.

VITACA, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Africa, in Mauritania Caesariensis. Ptol.

VITAL, VITALIS, in *Anatomy*, something that minis-

ters principally to the constituting or maintaining of life in the bodies of animals.

Thus, the heart, lungs, and brain, are called vital parts. See VIS.

VITAL Air, in *Agriculture, Vegetable Economy*, &c. pure air or oxygen, which is one of the constituent parts of atmospheric air, and of great use in the germination of grain and feeds, and the vegetation and growth of plants, as well as the respiration of animals. But though it is necessary to these and some other functions of vegetables, it is remarked by the writer of a late work on agricultural chemistry, that its great importance in nature is in its relation to the last, or the economy of animals.

It is stated that atmospheric air taken into the lungs of animals, or passed in solution in water through the gills of fishes, loses vital air or oxygen; and that for the vital air or oxygen that is lost, about an equal volume of carbonic acid appears. That the action of the atmosphere on plants differs at different periods of their growth, and varies with the various stages of the development and decay of their organs, as is evident in the progress of their vegetation and decline. As if a healthy feed be moistened and exposed to the air at a temperature not below 45°, it soon germinates or sprouts; and shoots or sends forth a plume which rises upwards; and a radicle that descends. If the air be confined, it is found that in this process the vital air or oxygen of it, or a part of it, is absorbed. As to the other parts, the azote remains unaltered, and no carbonic acid is taken away from it; on the contrary, some is added. Grain and feeds are incapable of germinating or sprouting, except when vital air or oxygen is present. In the exhaled receiver of the air-pump, in pure azote, and in pure carbonic acid, when moistened they swell, but do not vegetate; and if kept in these gases, lose their living powers, and undergo putrefaction. If a grain or feed be examined before germination, it will be found more or less insipid, or at least not sweet; but after germination, or the act of sprouting, it is always sweet. Its coagulated muci-lage, or starch, is converted into sugar in that process; a substance difficult of solution is thus changed into one easily soluble; and the sugar carried through the cells or vessels of the cotyledons of the grain or feeds, is the nourishment of the infant plant.

It is noticed that the absorption of vital air or oxygen by the grain or feed in germination, or the operation of sprouting, has been compared to its absorption in producing the evolution of foetal life in the egg; but that this analogy is only remote. All animals, from the most complete to the least perfect classes, require, it is said, a supply of vital air or oxygen for their production and evolution. From the moment the heart begins to pulsate until it ceases to beat, the aeration of the blood, or the supply of this sort of air, is constant, and the function of respiration invariable; carbonic acid is given off in the process, but the chemical change produced in the blood is unknown; nor is there any reason to suppose the formation of any substance similar to sugar. In the production of a plant from a grain or feed, some reservoir of nourishment is needed before the root can supply sap for it; and this reservoir is the cotyledon, in which it is stored up in an insoluble form, and protected if necessary during the winter, and rendered soluble by agents which are constantly present on the surface. The change of starch into sugar, connected with the absorption of vital air or oxygen, may rather, it is supposed, be compared to a process of fermentation than to that of respiration; it is a change effected upon an organized matter, and can be artificially

artificially imitated; and in most of the chemical changes that take place when vegetable compounds are exposed to air, oxygen or vital air is absorbed, and carbonic acid formed or evolved. Much advantage may be taken of this in the following of different kinds of grain and feeds, and in the tillage cultivation of different sorts of land, as well as in different other practices and processes; the former not being done too deeply in any case, nor the latter too lightly in stiff tenacious soils. See *TILLAGE*.

When the roots and leaves of the infant plant are formed, the cells and tubes throughout its structure become, it is said, filled with fluid, which is usually supplied from the soil of the land, and the function of nourishment is performed by the action of its organs upon the external elements. The constituent parts of the air are subservient to this process; but, as might be expected, they act differently under different circumstances, it is thought. When a growing plant, the roots of which are supplied with a proper nourishment, is exposed in the presence of solar light to a given quantity of atmospheric air, containing its due proportion of carbonic acid, the carbonic acid after a certain time is destroyed, and a certain quantity of vital air or oxygen is found in its place. If new quantities of carbonic acid gas be supplied, the same result occurs; so that carbon is added to plants from the air by the process of vegetation in sun-shine; and vital air or oxygen is added to the atmosphere, as proved by the experiments of Priestley, Ingenhousz, and many others more lately. The absorption of carbonic acid gas, and the production of vital air or oxygen, are performed by the leaf; and leaves recently separated from the tree or plant effect the change, when confined in portions of air containing carbonic acid; and absorb the same acid, and produce vital air or oxygen, even when immersed in water holding carbonic acid in solution. It is supposed that this acid is probably absorbed by the fluids in the cells of the green or parenchymatous part of the leaf; and that it is from this part that vital air or oxygen gas is produced during the presence of light. M. Sennebler, it is said, found that the leaf, from which the epidermis was stripped off, continued to produce vital air or oxygen when placed in water containing carbonic acid gas, and that the globules of air rose from the denuded parenchyma; and it is shewn, by the experiments of the same writer as well as those of Woodhouse, that the leaves most abundant in parenchymatous parts produced most vital air or oxygen in water impregnated with carbonic acid. Some few plants, it is said, will vegetate in an artificial atmosphere, consisting principally of carbonic acid; and many will grow for some time in air containing from one-third to one-third; but they are not so healthy as when supplied with smaller quantities of this elastic substance. Plants exposed to light have been found to produce vital air or oxygen gas in an elastic medium, and in water containing no carbonic acid gas; but in quantities much smaller than when that acid gas was present. In the dark, no vital air or oxygen gas is produced by plants, whatever be the elastic medium to which they are exposed; and no carbonic acid absorbed. In most cases, on the contrary, vital air or oxygen gas, if it be present, is absorbed, and carbonic acid gas is produced. In the changes that take place in the composition of the organized parts, it is supposed probable that saccharine compounds are principally formed during the absence of light; gum, woody fibre, oils, and resins during its presence; and that the evolution of carbonic acid gas, or its formation during the night, may be necessary to give greater solubility to certain compounds in the plant. It was once suspected that all the carbonic

acid gas produced by plants in the night, or in shade, might be owing to the decay of some part of the leaf, or epidermis; but the late experiments of Mr. D. Ellis are opposed to this notion; and it was found that a perfectly healthy plant of celery, placed in a given portion of air for a few hours only, occasioned a production of carbonic acid gas, and an absorption of vital air or oxygen.

It has been supposed by some, it is said, that plants exposed in the free atmosphere to the vicissitudes of sun-shine and shade, light and darkness, consume more vital air or oxygen than they produce, and that their permanent agency upon air is similar to that of animals; and this opinion is countenanced by the inquiries on vegetation of the writer just noticed. But the whole of the experiments brought forward in favour of this notion, and particularly those of this writer, have, it is said, been made under unfavourable circumstances to the accuracy of result. The plants have been confined and supplied with food in an unnatural manner; and the influence of light upon them has been very much diminished by the nature of the media through which it passed. Plants confined in limited portions of atmospheric air soon become diseased; their leaves decay, and by their decomposition they rapidly destroy the vital air or oxygen of the air. In some of the early experiments of Priestley, before he was acquainted with the agency of light upon leaves, air, it is said, that had supported combustion and respiration, was found purified by the growth of plants when they were exposed in it for successive days and nights; and his trials are the more unexceptionable, it is thought, as the plants, in many of them, grew in their natural states; and shoots, or branches from them, only were introduced through water into the confined atmosphere. And some further researches on this subject made by the able writer of the work on agricultural chemistry noticed above, furnish facts which confirm the popular opinion, that when the leaves of vegetables perform their healthy functions, they tend to purify the atmosphere in the common variations of weather, and changes from light to darkness.

In germination, and at the time of the decay of the leaf, vital air or oxygen must, it is said, be absorbed; but when it is considered how large a part of the surface of the earth is clothed with perennial grasses, and that half of the globe is always exposed to the solar light, it appears by far the most probable opinion, that more vital air or oxygen is produced than consumed during the process of vegetation; and that it is this circumstance which is the principal cause of the uniformity of the constitution of the atmosphere. Animals produce no vital air or oxygen gas during the exercise of any of their functions, and they are constantly consuming it; but the extent of the animal, compared to that of the vegetable kingdom, is, it is said, very small; and the quantity of carbonic acid gas produced in respiration, and in various processes of combustion and fermentation, bears a proportion extremely minute to the whole volume of the atmosphere: if every plant during the progress of its life makes a very small addition of vital air or oxygen to the common air, and occasions a very small consumption of carbonic acid, the effect may, it is supposed, be conceived adequate to the wants of nature.

It is supposed that it may occur as an objection to these views, that if the leaves of plants purify the atmosphere, towards the end of autumn, and through the winter and early spring, the air in our climates must become impure, the vital air or oxygen in it diminish, and the carbonic acid gas increase, which is not the case: but there is a very satisfactory answer, it is said, to this objection; the different parts of the atmosphere are constantly mixed together by winds,

winds, which, when they are strong, move at the rate of from sixty to a hundred miles in an hour. In our winter, the south-west gales convey air, which has been purified by the vast forests and savannas of South America, and which, passing over the ocean, arrives in an uncontaminated state. The storms and tempests which often occur at the beginning and towards the middle of our winter, and which generally blow from the same quarter of the globe, have a salutary influence. By constant agitation and motion, the equilibrium of the constituent parts of the atmosphere is preserved; it is fitted for the purposes of life: and those events, which the superstitious formerly referred to the wrath of heaven, or the agency of evil spirits, and in which they saw only disorder and confusion, are, it is said, demonstrated by science, to be ministrations of divine intelligence, and connected with the order and harmony of our system.

The close analogy which some have supposed to exist between the absorption of vital air or oxygen, and the formation of carbonic acid gas in germination, and in the respiration of the fœtus, has been already contended against; and similar arguments will, it is said, apply against the pursuit of this analogy, between the functions of the leaves of the adult plant, and those of the lungs of the adult animal; several of which are ingeniously stated: and it is concluded, that the functions of the leaf must vary according to the composition of the sap passing through it; and according to the nature of the products which are formed from it. When sugar is to be produced, as in early spring at the time of the development of the buds and flowers, it is probable that less vital air or oxygen will be given off, than at the time of the ripening of the seed, when starch, or gums, or oils, are formed; and the process of ripening the seed usually takes place when the agency of the solar light is most intense. When the acid juices of fruits become faccharine in the natural process of vegetation, more vital air or oxygen, there is every reason to believe, it is said, must be given off, or newly combined, than at other times; for all the vegetable acids contain more vital air or oxygen than sugar. It appears probable, it is said, that in some cases, in which oily and resinous bodies are formed in vegetation, water may be decomposed, its vital air or oxygen set free, and its hydrogen absorbed. When the leaves of some plants, and particularly such as produce volatile oils, are exposed in water saturated with vital air or oxygen gas, this air or oxygen is given off in the solar light; but the quantity is very small, and always limited; and the writer has not been able to ascertain with certainty, whether the vegetative powers of the leaf were concerned in the operation, though it seems probable. In all cases in which buds are formed, or shoots thrown forth from roots, vital air or oxygen appears to be uniformly absorbed, as in the germination or sprouting of grain and feeds. This was satisfactorily shewn by trial with the potatoe, which, when placed in proper circumstances, soon threw forth a shoot, which, when half an inch long, had nearly absorbed a cubical inch of vital air or oxygen, and formed about three-fourths of a cubical inch of carbonic acid. There was a sweet taste in the juices of the shoot, when separated from the root; and the absorption of vital air or oxygen, and the production of carbonic acid, were probably, it is thought, connected with the conversion of a portion of starch into sugar. As frozen roots of this kind become sweet when thawed, vital air or oxygen may probably, it is supposed, be absorbed in this operation, and if so, the change may be prevented by thawing them out of the contact of air; as under water lately in the boiling state. See AIR, &c.

These and different other statements that may be seen in

the work noticed above, shew the great importance of vital air or oxygen in the ways that have been mentioned in the beginning of this article, as well as in the economy of vegetables, and for other purposes.

VITAL Functions, or Actions, are those operations of the vital parts by which life is affected; so as that it cannot subsist without them.

Such are the musculous action of the heart, the secretory action in the cerebellum, the respiratory action of the lungs; and the circulation of the blood and spirits through the arteries, veins, and nerves. See FUNCTION and ACTION.

VITAL Principle, or Sublance, denotes a kind of agent or instrument, supposed by Dr. Grew to be employed under the direction and in subordination to the will of the Creator, in the production of plants, animals, &c.

This principle corresponds to the plastic nature of Dr. Cudworth. The supposed existence of these principles produced a dispute between M. Bayle and M. Le Clerc, which the former conceived to favour atheism, though he allows that neither Dr. Cudworth nor Dr. Grew were aware of the consequence; but the latter maintains, that the plastic or vital natures, admitted by these writers, cannot in the least favour the atheists, because they are only instruments in the hand of God, and have no efficacy but what they receive from him, who directs and rules all their actions. Of this dispute Dr. Warburton observes, that Cudworth's plastic life of nature is fully overthrown by Bayle, whose superiority in the controversy with Le Clerc is clear and indisputable. See Grew's *Cosmologia Sacra*, fol. 1701. p. 31, &c.; and Cudworth's *Life*, prefixed to Birch's edition of the *Intellectual System*, vol. i. p. 15, &c.

VITAL Spirits are the finest and most volatile parts of the blood. See SPIRITS.

VITALBA, in *Botany*, a name given by some authors to the viorna, or traveller's joy. See VIORNA.

VITALIA, a name given by some authors to the cardiac medicines.

VITALIANUS, in *Biography*, pope, was born at Segnia, in Campania, and elevated to the pontificate A.D. 657, on the death of Eugenius. When, according to custom, he sent legates to Constantinople, with his confession of faith, to be presented to the emperor Constant and his son Constantine, the Monothelite doctrine was fashionable at the imperial court, and, therefore, the pope was very guarded in his communication. In 663 Constant entered Italy, and advanced towards Rome; and though he was treated with great respect by Vitalian and his clergy, he was not thus prevented from robbing the churches of all the treasure to which he could have access. In 667, Wighard, archbishop-elect of Canterbury, was sent to Rome to receive ordination from the pope; but as Wighard died of the plague in that capital, the pope, notwithstanding the compliment that was paid him by the British kings, took this opportunity of extending the prerogative of the papacy, and of nominating one Theodore, a monk, to supply the place of the deceased prelate. Vitalian, in some other instances, manifested his zeal for the interest and influence of the Romish church, and the authority of its visible head; but after a pontificate of 14½ years, he died in 672. His zeal procured for him a place among the canonized pontiffs. Some letters written by him on ecclesiastical affairs are still extant. Dupin. Bower.

VITALIS, in *Botany*, a name given by some authors to the common telephium, called the English orpine, and living long, from its quality of living and flourishing a long time after it is taken from the root.

VITCHEGDA, in *Geography*, a river of Russia, which rises

wifes in the province of Uftiug, and runs into the Dwina, near Sol Vithegodik.

VITE, TIMOTEO DELLA, DA URBINO, in *Biography*, was born at Urbino in 1470. After having some time studied the art of painting at Bologna, under Francesco Francia, he returned, when about 26 years old, to his native country; and thence went to Rome, to his countryman and relation Raffaele. He there engaged himself to assist that renowned artist, and prepared for him the Sibyls in the church of La Pace, and was permitted by his master to retain the cartoons. He did not remain long at Rome, but returned to Urbino; and there, in conjunction with Girolamo Genga, executed several large works for the cathedral, and other public places.

He brought to Rome a style which was dry and laboured, as of the preceding century, as may be seen in his Madonnas at the palace Bonaventura, in the Capitol at Urbino, and at Pesaro in the Discovery of the Cross. Under Raffaele he improved his style, and acquired much of his grace, attitudes, and colour; though he always remained a timid inventor, and had a certain weakness of pencil, and was more exact than grand. The Conception at the Osservanti in Urbino, and the Noli me Tangere in the church of S. Angelo at Cagli, are perhaps the best remains of Timoteo. He died in 1524, aged 54.

VITEGRA, in *Geography*, a river of Russia, which runs into lake Onezkoï, near the town of Vitegra.—Also, a town of Russia, in the government of Olonetz, at the fourth end of lake Onezkoï; 88 miles E. of Olonetz. N. lat. 60° 55'. E. long. 35° 44'.

VITELLIA, in *Antiquity*, a town of Italy, in Latium, in the country of the Æqui; it took its name from the family of Vitellius.

VITELLIA Via, one of the roads of Italy, which led from the Janiculum to the sea.

VITELLIANI, in *Antiquity*, a kind of tablet or pocket-book, in which people anciently used to write down their ingenious, humorous, and even wanton fancies and impertinences; the same with what, in English, we may call a *trifle-book*. See Martial, lib. xiv. epig. 8.

Some will have them to take their name from *vitellus*, a yolk of an egg; because the leaves were rubbed with it. Others derive the name from one Vitellius, their inventor.

VITELLIO, or VITELLO, in *Biography*, a Polish mathematician, flourished about the end of the 13th century, as we may infer from the dedication of his work on Optics to the pope's penitentiary, William de Morbeta, who lived about the year 1296. His work, though now of little value, was probably in estimation at the early period in which it was written, as it contained a collection of materials furnished by Euclid, Archimedes, Ptolemy, and Alhazen. It was published together with that of Alhazen under the following title: "Opticæ Thesaurus, Alhazeni Arabis Libri VII. nunc primum editi. Item Vitellonis, Thuringo-poloni, Libri X. omnes inaurati, Figuris illustrati et aucti, adjectis etiam in Alhazenum Commentariis, A. Frederico Risnero," Basilæ, 1572. fol. Montucla Hist. Math.

VITELLIUS, AULUS, Roman emperor, was born A.D. 16, and resided in his youth at Capræ, the infamous abode of Tiberius. To Caligula he recommended himself by his skill as a charioteer; and by his passion for play, to Claudius, who made him consul A.D. 48. He likewise presided at the games, in which Nero exposed himself as a musician. At this time Vitellius disgraced himself by his servility and meanness; but in the post of governor of Africa, he obtained some credit. At length, however, he was

reduced to indigence by his licentiousness, and was thus led to practise fraud, with regard to the offerings and ornaments of the temples, by substituting base metal for real silver and gold. On the accession of Galba to the empire, A.D. 68, Vitellius was appointed to the command of the legions in Lower Germany; Galba assigning as a reason for this preference, that a man addicted to gluttony was not to be feared. The German legions were much disaffected to Galba; but Vitellius had contrived to recommend himself to favour. When the day (*viz.* January 1st) arrived, on which the troops were required to renew their oath of fidelity to their emperors, those commanded by Vitellius performed the ceremony reluctantly, and with ill will; but in the army of Upper Germany, two legions openly renounced allegiance to Galba. When this event was communicated to the Lower army, Valens, one of the general officers, came to Cologne, and saluted Vitellius as emperor, who was also recognized under this appellation in other provinces of the empire. At Rome, however, Otho was invested with the imperial dignity, on the murder of Galba; and the two competitors began with negotiation, and proceeded to attempts against each other's life. When Otho put an end to his own life, after the defeat of his troops, Vitellius was recognized without opposition at Rome, in April, A.D. 69. One of the first acts, after receiving the news of his accession, was that of conferring knighthood on a vile freedman, named Asiaticus. Although he treated the general officers of Otho's party with a clemency that did him honour, he incurred reproach by the execution of several of the inferior officers, and by ordering the death of Dolabella, on a false accusation. However, stupid insensibility was his predominant foible, rather than a revengeful spirit; and this was the effect of his insatiable and shameful gluttony. His extravagance in indulging his appetite for costly dishes, covered with all the varieties which he could procure, had no bounds. He is said to have consecrated a silver dish, which on account of its size he called the buckler of Minerva, and to have filled it solely with the livers of a small and delicate fish, the brains of peacocks and pheasants, the tongues of flamingoes, and the roes of lampreys. The expenses of his table, during eight months of his reign, have been estimated at five millions sterling; but Tacitus states this sum as the cost of all his profusions.

On his way to Rome, he visited the field of battle on which Otho had been defeated; and when he saw it strewn with dead and mangled bodies, he did not manifest the least emotion; and when some of his attendants complained of the stench arising from the uninterred carcases, he had the fool-hardiness to utter this observation, "A dead enemy smells well, especially a dead citizen." He entered Rome with great pomp, at the head of troops that massacred a number of the populace who went out to meet him, and pronounced a panegyric on himself, which was applauded by the fervile crowd. He afterwards affected popularity, but his character was so devoid of every virtue, that no act he performed could be thought of any value. "Every evil which Rome had suffered under the worst emperors seemed to be its destiny in the reign of Vitellius." But a deliverance was preparing for the seemingly devoted city. The Eastern army was approaching, and Vespasian was proclaimed emperor. Vitellius was roused from his lethargy, but it was too late; and after the defection of some of his troops, and the defeat of others, he again sunk into his stupefying luxury. Despairing of redress, he determined to abdicate; and with this view negotiated with Flavius Sabinus, brother of Vespasian, who was prefect of Rome. The populace, however, whose compassion was

Not excited

excited by the mournful habit and distressing circumstances in which he left the palace, obliged him to return: Upon this the city-guards attacked Sabinus, who had sought refuge for himself and his adherents in the Capitol. The partisans of Vitellius, yielding to the impulse that had been excited, stormed this sacred place, and in the tumult the temple of Jupiter Capitolinus was consumed by fire. Sabinus was seized, and carried before Vitellius, who wanted to save him; but he was massacred in the most ignominious manner. These outrages were in a little while dreadfully revenged. The victorious army approached the city; and the Vitellian soldiers, well apprized that no mercy awaited them, made a desperate resistance; so that Rome, in the midst of the licentious festivities of the Saturnalia celebrated at this time, was a scene of slaughter and blood. Vitellius took no part in this business, but withdrew to the house of his wife on mount Aventine; from hence he removed again to the palace, and was at length found in the porter's lodge, intreating in the most abject manner that his life might be spared. But all his intreaties were ineffectual. With his hands tied behind him, and a cord about his neck, he was dragged like a common criminal in the midst of insults of every kind. Having escaped the murderous aim of a German soldier, he was at length taken to the Gemonian stairs, down which the body of Sabinus had been thrown, and being dispatched in a barbarous manner, his head was cut off, and stuck upon a spear, to be carried through the city, and his trunk was thrown into the Tiber. Thus he closed a short and ignominious reign in the 55th year of his age, A.D. 69. Suetonius. Tacitus. Crevier. Gen. Biog.

VITEPSK, in *Geography*, a town of Russia, in the government of Polotsk, on the Duna, taken from Poland in the year 1654; 56 miles E.S.E. of Polotsk. N. lat. 55° 15'. E. long. 30° 50'.

VITERBO, a town of the Papedom, and capital of the Patrimonio, given by the empress Matilda to the pope; in memory of which donation, an inscription, on stone, is put up on the town-house. This city lies in a beautiful and fertile valley, is large, the streets, for the greater part, broad and well paved, the houses good, but thinly peopled, the number of the inhabitants being scarcely 15,000, though that of the churches, convents, and hospitals, is not less than 69. The bishop is immediately under the pope. Four popes lie interred in the cathedral. Not far from the city is a warm mineral spring; 34 miles N.N.W. of Rome. N. lat. 42° 25'. E. long. 12° 6'.

VITES, in *Botany*, the seventy-second natural order in Jussieu's system, the twelfth of his thirteenth class, is so called from *Vitis*, one of its genera. For the characters of this class, see GERANIA. The order, which consists of *Cissus* and *Vitis* only, is thus defined.

Calyx of one leaf, (superior,) short, nearly entire. *Petals* definite, four, five, or six, broad at the base. *Stamens* equal in number to the petals, and opposite thereto, with distinct filaments, inserted into the disk, or receptacle of the flower. *Germen* simple; style one, or none; *stigma* simple. *Berry* of one or many cells, with one seed, or several, in a determinate number, whose surface is unequal, and which are inserted into the bottom of the cells. *Coraculum* descending, its lobes straight, destitute of alumen. *Stem* shrubby, or rarely arborescent, trailing, knotty. *Leaves* alternate, with stipulas. The tendrils, or flower-stalks, are opposite to the leaves. These plants are akin to *Aquilicia* (*Leca*) and *Melia* in the broad base of their petals, sometimes in their leaves and inflorescence. On the other hand, some of the shrubby *Gerania* (*Pelargonium*) betray an affinity in habit to the *Vites*,

and like them are occasionally acid in the taste of their herbage.

VITESSA, or VITTESSA, in *Mythology*, a name of the Hindoo Kuvvera, regent of wealth. See KUVVERA.

VITETZ, in *Geography*, a town of Bosnia; 14 miles S. of Serajoz.

VITEX, in *Botany*, an old Latin name, of whose origin Linnaeus professed ignorance, but which evidently comes from *vico*, to bind, and alludes to the flexible nature of the twigs of the original species of this genus, the *aynos* of the Greeks.—Linn. Gen. 326. Schreb. 427. Willd. Sp. Pl. v. 3. 390. Mart. Mill. Dict. v. 4. Ait. Hort. Kew. v. 4. 66. Sm. Prodr. Fl. Græc. Sibth. v. 1. 441. Brown Prodr. Nov. Holl. v. 1. 511. Juss. 107. Tourn. t. 373. Lamarck Dict. v. 2. 611. Illustr. t. 541. Gært. t. 56.—Class and order, *Didymia Angiospermia*. Nat. Ord. *Perfonate*, Linn. *Vitices*, Juss.

Gen. Ch. *Cal.* Perianth inferior, of one leaf, tubular, cylindrical, short, with five broad shallow teeth. *Cor.* of one petal, ringent; tube cylindrical, slender, curved; limb flat, two-lipped; the upper lip in two segments; lower in three, the middle one largest. *Stam.* Filaments four, capillary, rather longer than the tube, two of them shorter than the rest; anthers versatile. *Pist.* Germen roundish, in the bottom of the calyx; style thread-shaped, the length of the filaments; stigmas two, awl-shaped, spreading. *Peric.* Drupa globose. *Seed.* Nut solitary, bony, of four cells, with a solitary kernel in each.

Ess. Ch. *Calyx* with five teeth. Limb of the corolla two-lipped; middle segment of the lower lip largest. Drupa with a nut of four cells.

Obf. Linnaeus, and even Jussieu, misled perhaps by Tournefort's figure, describe the corolla as having six segments. We have never seen more than five in any species, though, if Tournefort be correct, six or seven may accidentally occur.—The species are shrubby or arborescent, with opposite, stalked, almost always digitate, *leaves*, without stipulas. *Flowers* aggregate, numerous, panicled, sometimes whorled, mostly bluish. Jussieu, with great reason, doubts the genus of *V. pinnata*, because of its alternate pinnate leaves.

1. *V. ovata*. Ovate-leaved Chaste-tree. Thunb. Jap. 257. Willd. n. 1. Ait. n. 1. (*V. rotundifolia*; Linn. Suppl. 294).—Leaves simple, ovate.—Native of Japan, near the sea-shore. *Stem* shrubby, trailing, with quadrangular branches, downy when young. *Leaves* on short stalks, elliptical, or roundish, entire, with one rib, and several transverse veins; green and smooth above; white and finely downy beneath. *Panicle* terminal, oblong, silvery, with three-forked branches. *Calyx* hoary. *Corolla* purplish; downy and white on the outside. *Fruit* globular, the size of a pepper-corn, greenish, half covered by the permanent calyx.

2. *V. triflora*. Three-flowered Chaste-tree. Vahl Eclog. fasc. 2. 49.—Leaves ternate, entire, smooth on both sides. Stalks axillary and terminal, three-flowered.—Gathered by Von Rohr, in Cayenne. *Branches* purplish; downy and rusty when young. *Leaflets* elliptic-lanceolate, or obovate, quite entire, from two to five inches long; their common stalks an inch and half. *Calyx* near an inch in length. *Corolla* twice as much, clothed externally with tawny pubescence. *Vahl*.

3. *V. divaricata*. Spreading Chaste-tree. Swartz Ind. Occ. 1078. Willd. n. 3. Vahl Symb. v. 2. 76.—Leaves ternate, entire, smooth on both sides; the middle one very large. *Panicle* forked, divaricate.—Native of the West Indies. Gathered by Masson in St. Lucia; by Ryan in Martinico.

Martinico and Santa Cruz. A tree, with square, smooth branches, ash-coloured when young, most leafy at the extremity. *Leaflets* ovato-lanceolate; the lateral ones an inch long; the odd one three or four times as much. *Flowers* whitish, five-cleft. *Drupa* half an inch long.

4. *V. pubescens*. Downy Chaste-tree. Vahl Symb. v. 3. 85. Willd. n. 4. (Pistacio-vitex; Linn. Zeylon. 195, according to Vahl, from the inspection of Hermann's Herbarium.)—Leaves ternate, downy. Panicles three-forked. Bractæas as long as the calyx.—Native of the East Indies. *Leaflets* near two inches long, ovate, thin, entire; nearly smooth above; ribbed, veiny, and downy, not hoary, beneath. Panicles large, terminal, their lowermost branches axillary. Bractæas oblong, obtuse, hoary. *Flowers* fix or seven on the ultimate branches of the panicle, sessile, alternate, externally downy. *Fruit* the size of pepper.

5. *V. altissima*. Tall Ceylon Chaste-tree. Linn. Suppl. 294. Willd. n. 5. Ait. n. 2. (Mail-Elou; Rheede Hort. Malab. v. 5. t. 1.)—Leaves ternate, pointed, nearly entire; downy beneath. Panicle with racemose whorled branches.—Found in the extensive forests of Ceylon by Koenig, who in his MSS. has indicated the indubitable synonym of Rheede, which the younger Linnæus neglected to quote, and which is likewise omitted in Hort. Kew. and Willdenow. Rheede speaks of this as a tree fifty feet high, found in many parts of Malabar, with a heavy reddish wood, fit for many uses. The *footstalks* are downy, sometimes winged, from one to three inches long. *Leaflets* elliptical, contracted at each end, from two to four inches in length; nearly smooth above; very downy and soft, not hoary, beneath; their margin usually entire; sometimes serrated. *Flowers* small, sweet-scented, bluish, numerous. The lower branches of the panicle are some of them four together. Each branch bears numerous, dense, partly stalked, many-flowered whorls, with downy lanceolate bractæas. Linnæus, after Koenig, describes but three seeds in each *drupa*, but Rheede says there are three or four.

6. *V. latifolia*. Broad-leaved Chaste-tree. Lamarck n. 5. (Katou-Mail Elou; Rheede Hort. Malab. v. 5. 3. t. 2.)—Leaves ternate, ovate, pointed, entire, minutely downy on both sides. Panicle much branched, forked, downy. Bractæas ovate.—Sent by Dr. Roxburgh from Calcutta. The *leaflets* are from two and a half to five inches long, and two or two and a half broad, finely veined; the younger ones soft to the touch. Panicle terminal, with large, opposite, stalked bractæas, downy on both sides. *Calyx*, and unexpanded corolla, very downy.

7. *V. Agnus-castus*. Common Chaste-tree. Linn. Sp. Pl. 890. Willd. n. 6. Ait. n. 3. Woodv. Med. Bot. t. 222. Sm. Fl. Græc. Sibth. t. 609, unpublished. (Vitex; Camer. Epit. 105. Matth. Valgr. v. 1. 177. Ger. Em. 1387. f. 1, 2.)—Leaves digitate, with five or seven lanceolate nearly entire leaflets; hoary beneath. Clusters paniced. Flowers whorled.—Native of low marshy places, about the banks of rivers, in Italy, Sicily and the Levant. Very common throughout Greece, in such situations, flowering in autumn. A low spreading shrub, with long, trailing, tough and pliant branches. *Leaflets* long and narrow, tapering at each end, with partial footstalks, usually quite entire, but sometimes broader and serrated, as in Gerarde's fig. 2. Their upper side is of a greyish-green, with a peculiarly fine velvet-like softness; the under white, and densely downy. Common *footstalks* downy, about half the length of the leaflets. Clusters terminal, long and cylindrical, divided into many dense whorls of numerous, light blue, or

white, flowers. Bractæas lanceolate, solitary under each flower, the length of the calyx. The seeds have been celebrated for a marvellous power of promoting chastity. The scent of the recent plant is, to us, peculiarly unpleasant, causing a degree of nausea or faintness, which may perhaps account for its reputed virtues. The priestesses of Ceres are reported to have made their beds of the boughs of this tree, but whether this arose from the name in Greek being synonymous with chastity, or whether the name was given in allusion to the quality of the plant, no author has recorded, though Dioscorides seems to imply the latter.

8. *V. incisa*. Cut-leaved Chaste-tree. Lamarck n. 2. Willd. n. 7. Ait. n. 4. (V. Negundo; Curt. Mag. t. 364. V. Mill. Ic. 183. t. 175. f. 1, 2.)—Leaves digitate, with three or five pinnatifid leaflets; hoary beneath. Clusters paniced. Flowers whorled.—Native of China. Long known in our gardens, as a greenhouse shrub, by the name of *V. Negundo*. Lamarck, who speaks of this plant as nearly hardy in the open ground at Paris, first distinguished it as a species. It is smaller in every part than the preceding, and differs in having fewer, shorter, broader, deeply cut or pinnatifid leaflets. The flowers are purplish, with rounder segments; the lower one concave and somewhat heart-shaped.

9. *V. Negundo*. Indian Chaste-tree. Linn. Sp. Pl. ed. 1. 638. ed. 2. 890. Willd. n. 12. (Negundo arbor mas; Bauh. Hist. v. 2. 189. Bem-nofi; Rheede Hort. Malab. v. 2. 15. t. 12.)—Leaves digitate, with three or five elliptic-lanceolate, somewhat serrated, leaflets; hoary beneath. Clusters paniced. Flowers loosely whorled.—Native of the East Indies. This appears to be a shrub nearly related to the two last, but rather larger than either, with more decidedly quadrangular branches. The leaflets, more generally three than five, are broader than the last, yet not pinnatifid, but only bluntly, and rather sparingly, serrated. Partial flower-stalks more lax and corymbose. Yet this plant certainly differs from the serrated variety of *V. Agnus-castus*, having fewer, as well as broader, leaflets, and looser whorls. The flowers seem to be smaller than in that species. The synonym of Rumphius, cited by Linnæus, evidently belongs to *V. Leucosylon*. Willdenow and Curtis copy without examination Linnaeus's citation of Bauhin, which ought to be v. 2, not v. 1. The inflorescence in Bauhin's figure is very badly represented, nor are the leaves at all correct; yet there is enough to shew that it may be taken from our plant, though certainly nothing capable of giving a just idea of the species.

10. *V. trifolia*. White-leaved Paniced Chaste-tree. Linn. Sp. Pl. 890. Willd. n. 9. (Cara-nofi; Rheede Hort. Malab. v. 2. 13. t. 11. Lagodium vulgare; Rumph. Amboin. v. 4. 48. t. 18.)—Leaves ternate, sometimes quinate; leaflets ovate, acute, entire; hoary beneath. Cluster compound, with forked, elongated, zigzag branches.—Native of the East Indies. The perfectly entire leaflets, and their ovate or elliptical form, clearly mark this species, which is still more certainly distinguished by the long, spreading, doubly forked branches of its cluster, which assumes the aspect of a panicle, whose common stalk is straight. The calyx is angular. As to the other synonyms quoted by Linnaeus, Plukenet's t. 206. f. 5. may be any thing; and Burm. Zeyl. t. 109. is a *Rhus*, with a prodigious confusion of synonyms not worth unravelling.

11. *V. Leucosylon*. Green-leaved Corymbose Chaste-tree. Linn. Suppl. 293. Willd. n. 8. Ait. n. 5. (V. paniculata; Lamarck n. 3, excluding Plukenet's synonym. Lagodium littorale; Rumph. Amboin. v. 4. 50. t. 19.)

—Leaves ternate or quinate; leaflets elliptical, entire; slightly downy beneath. Panicles repeatedly forked, corymbose.—Native of the forests of Ceylon. *Koenig*. Sent to Kew, by Dr. Roxburgh, in 1793, through the hands of Sir Joseph Banks. The leaves somewhat resemble those of *V. trifolia* in shape and size, but they are not at all hoary, though paler, at the back, with much longer partial stalks to the leaflets. The panicles are totally different, being cymose, or level-topped, downy, but not hoary. As to the "berry," as Koenig and Linnaeus term it, "with a single seed," there is no reason to think it different from the rest of the genus.

12. *V. umbrosa*. Umbrageous Chaste-tree. Swartz Ind. Occ. 1076. Willd. n. 10.—Leaves quinate; leaflets elliptical, pointed, entire, nearly smooth on both sides. Clusters compound, axillary.—Native of mountainous situations in Jamaica. A large and spreading tree, with nearly cylindrical branches, leafy at the summit. Common foot-stalks two or three inches long, flattened, two-edged. Leaflets coriaceous, from three to five inches long and two broad, veiny; paler beneath, but not hoary; neither are they, as Dr. Swartz says, perfectly smooth; but rather roughish to the touch, from very minute hairs scattered over both their surfaces. Clusters from the bosoms of two or three of the uppermost leaves, and about the same length, rather downy, oblong, with simply forked branches. Flowers small. Drupa yellow, the size of a cherry, depressed at the summit.

13. *V. capitata*. Capitata Chaste-tree. Vahl Eclog. fac. 2. 50. t. 18. Willd. n. 11.—Leaves quinate; leaflets lanceolate, entire, smooth. Flowers in capitata umbels, on axillary stalks.—Native of the island of Trinidad. *Ryan*. A tree of a moderate size, with roundish branches, somewhat angular when young. Leaflets four inches long, on partial stalks, the outer pair sessile, and smaller, as in the other species. Flower-stalks axillary, solitary, the length of the footstalks, smooth and slender, each bearing from six to twelve flowers, at first sessile, but subsequently elevated on short partial stalks, forming a kind of umbel. Drupa twice the size of a pea. *Vahl*.

14. *V. pinnata*. Pinnate Chaste-tree. Linn. Sp. Pl. 390. Willd. n. 13. Burm. Ind. 138. t. 43. f. 2.—Leaves pinnate, entire. Panicles triply forked.—Native of Ceylon. A very doubtful species. The Linnaean specimen is certainly only *V. trifolia*; but in Sir Joseph Banks's herbarium is one supposed to be the true *pinnata*. Whether Vahl's *pubescens*, n. 4, be specifically distinct from this last, we are not informed.

14. *V. acuminata*. Pointed Chaste-tree. Brown n. 3.—Leaves ternate or quinate; leaflets ovate-oblong, pointed, smooth, entire. Cluster with forked branches. Calyx nearly without teeth. Stamens shorter than the corolla. Found by Mr. Brown, in the tropical part of New Holland.

15. *V. glabrata*. Smooth Chaste-tree. Brown n. 4.—Leaves ternate or quinate; leaflets ovate, smooth, entire. Flower-stalks axillary and terminal, forked. Calyx without teeth.—Gathered by Mr. Brown in the tropical part of New Holland, but the flowers were over. Corolla in Sir Joseph Banks's plate four-cleft, above an inch long.

16. *V. macrophylla*. Great Simple-leaved Chaste-tree. Brown n. 5.—Leaves simple, ovate-oblong, entire, smooth, with transverse ribs; and two glands at the base. Stem arborescent.—Gathered in the tropical part of New Holland, by Sir Joseph Banks, who sent a plate of this, and the preceding, to Linnaeus. The leaves are six or eight inches

long, and four broad. Panicle terminal, large, with zig-zag, racemose, stout, many-flowered branches. Calyx somewhat two-lipped. Corolla five-cleft, an inch long, apparently white, with a dark purple lip.

VITEX, in Gardening, contains plants of the hardy and under-shrubby kinds; among which the species cultivated are, the official chaste-tree (*V. agnus-castus*); the cut-leaved chaste-tree (*V. incisa*); the three-leaved chaste-tree (*V. trifolia*); and the five-leaved chaste-tree (*V. negundo*.)

The first is a high shrubby plant of the late flowering kind, of which there are varieties with narrow leaves, with broad leaves, with blue flowers, and with white flowers.

The second sort is a low shrubby plant, with bright red flowers.

The third is of a shrubby growth, with violet flowers.

And the last has a small tree-like stem, with purplish flowers.

Method of Culture.—The first sort may be increased by cuttings and layers: the cuttings should be planted in the early spring, in a fresh light soil, being often refreshed with water till they have taken root; afterwards the plants must be kept clear from weeds, and be protected during the following winter with mulch or mats; and about the middle of the following March, when the season is fine, be removed into the places where they are to grow, or into the nursery for two or three years, to become strong; being pruned up to form regular stems.

The layers of the branches may be laid down in the spring, being careful not to split them, watering them in dry weather; when in about a year they may be taken off, and planted out in the same manner as the cuttings.

The second sort may likewise be increased by cuttings, which should be planted in pots, plunged in a moderate hot-bed, covering them with glasses: when well rooted, they may be taken up, and be planted in separate small pots, filled with light earth, putting them in the shade till fresh rooted; afterwards placing them in a sheltered situation, with other greenhouse plants, until the autumn, when they must have protection from frost, and have very little water. They are late in putting out leaves in the spring, so as almost to appear dead.

The third sort is raised from cuttings, which should be planted in pots in the early spring, as April, plunging them in a moderate hot-bed, covering them with hand-glasses, being slightly watered: when they have taken root, they should have free air admitted in a gradual manner; then they may be taken up, and planted out in separate pots filled with light earth, replugging them in the bed, and giving due shade. They should afterwards have plenty of free air, when the weather is suitable; being treated as tender plants. It must be constantly kept in the stove, having free air in the summer season. It retains its leaves all the year. This may also be raised from layers.

The fourth sort may also be raised from cuttings, in the same manner as the second.

The first two sorts may be introduced in the shrubberies, clumps, &c. succeeding well in any common soil and situation; and the latter kinds afford variety in stove and greenhouse collections, among other similar sorts.

VITI CHOREA, in Medicine. See CHOREA.

VITIA, in Ancient Geography, a country of Asia, in the vicinity of Armenia and of the Caspian sea. Strabo.—Also, a country of Asia, in the environs of Media, founded by the Ænians of the Thessaly, according to Strabo, and named Æneiana; which was also the name of the principal city.

VITICES,

VITICES, in *Botany*, one of Jussieu's natural orders, named from *Vitis*, which belongs to it. This order is the thirty-eighth in his system, the fifth of his eighth class, standing between the *JASMINÉE* and *LABIATÆ*. (See those articles, under the last of which the character of this eighth class is indicated.) This same order is now, it seems, called *Verbenacæ* by its author, in *Ann. du Muséum*, v. 7. 63, which name is adopted in Brown's *Prodr. Nov. Holl.* v. 1. 510. The genera which compose it are chiefly found in the latter part of the *PERSONATÆ* of Linnæus. (See that article.) Mr. Brown's definition, as follows, is the latest and best, respecting this order.

Calyx tubular, permanent. *Corolla* inferior, of one petal, tubular, deciduous; the limb mostly irregular. *Stamens* generally four, two long and two short; rarely all of equal length; sometimes only two. *Germen* of two or four cells, the rudiments of seeds erect, solitary or in pairs. *Style* one, either cloven or undivided. *Pericarp* a drupa, or a berry. *Albumen* none, or very small. *Embryo* erect.

The plants of this order are trees or shrubs, rarely herbaceous. *Leaves* without stipulas, usually opposite; either simple or compound. *Flowers* either oppositely corymbose, or alternately spiked; sometimes crowded into a sort of head; rarely axillary and solitary.

Jussieu notes that the *filaments* are sometimes six, of which we find no instance, except casually in *Tædona*, whose filaments are properly five, all nearly equal. The *stigmata* are sometimes unequal. This author makes three sections.

SECT. 1. *Flowers oppositely corymbose.*

Clerodendrum, *Volkameria*, *Ægiphila*, *Vitis*, *Callicarpa*, all Linnæan genera; *Manabea* of Aublet, allied to *Ægiphila*; *Premna* of Linnæus; *Petitia* of Jacquin; *Cornelia*, *Gmelina*, *Tædona* (called *Theka* by Jussieu), and *Avicennia* of all authors. To these are to be added *Pityrodia* of Brown; and also his *Chloanthes*, notwithstanding its solitary flowers.

SECT. 2. *Flowers spiked; alternate.*

Petræa, *Githarexylum*, *Duranta*, *Lippia*, *Lantana*, of Linnæus; *Spielmannia* of Medicus and Jussieu; *Taligalea* of Aublet, which is *Amasonia* of Linnæus; *Tamonea* of Aublet, of which *Verbenia lappulacea* is an example. See *VERBENA* n. 13; and *Perama* of Aublet, Schreber's *Mattuschkea*.

SECT. 3. *Genera akin to Vitices (or Verbenacæ).*

Eranthemum, *Selago*, and *Hebenstretia* of Linnæus. The first of these Mr. Brown has indicated, in his *Prodr.* v. 1. 477, to be very confused in its history, the original type of the genus being next akin to *Jussiaia*, only having a nearly regular, and falver-shaped, corolla, with two of the filaments imperfect. What Jussieu intends under the name of *Eranthemum* are probably certain Cape species of *Selago*, with only two filaments, erroneously referred hither by Linnæus.

The order in question certainly forms a very natural link between the *Jasminæe* and the *Labiatae*, being most akin to the former in habit, scent of the flowers, and other qualities, as well as in the nature of the pericarp; while its filaments, seeds, and quadrangular branches, more obscurely connect it with the latter; to some genera of which, as *Ballota*, its often fœtid herbage, not to mention colour, pubescence, and inflorescence, betray an unexpected relationship.

VITIFERA, in *Ornithology*, a name by which many have called the common crane, a bird well known in England by the name of the wheat-ear.

VITIGUDINO, in *Geography*, a town of Spain, in the province of Leon; 31 miles W.S.W. of Salamanca.

VITILIGO, a disease frequent among the Arabians: it is the same with what is otherwise called alphas.

VITILIGO, in *Botany*, so named from its leprous or scurfy appearance. See *SPILOMA*.

VITIMSKOI, in *Geography*, a town of Russia, in the government of Irkutsk, on the Lena. N. lat. 59° 5'. E. long. 112° 34'.

VITIS, or **UTENS**, in *Ancient Geography*, a river of Italy, in Cispadana, in the neighbourhood of Ravenna, between Sapis and Anemo.

VITIS, in *Botany*, usually derived from *vico*, in allusion to the flexibility of its branches, is traced by De Theis to the Celtic *Gwid*, a tree, or shrub, as being the chief, or best, of trees. This would hardly satisfy us, were not *Gwin* the name of wine in the same language, from whence comes evidently enough, the Greek *oivos*, Latin *vinum*, Anglo-Saxon and French *vin*, English *wine*, &c.—*Linn. Gen.* 112. Schreb. 156. Willd. Sp. Pl. v. 1. 1180. Mart. Mill. Dict. v. 4. Ait. Hort. Kew. v. 2. 51. Sm. Prodr. Fl. Græc. Sibth. v. 1. 161. Pursh 169. Juss. 267. Tourn. t. 384. Lamarck Illustr. t. 145. Dict. by Poiret, v. 8. 594. Gærtn. t. 106.—Class and order, *Pentandria Monogynia*. Nat. Ord. *Hederacæ*, or perhaps *Cucurbitacæ*, Linn. *Vites*, Juss.

Gen. Ch. *Cal.* Perianth inferior, of one leaf, minute, five-toothed. *Cor.* Petals five, small, rude, cohering by their summits, deciduous before they fade. *Stam.* Filaments five, awl-shaped, spreading, a little ascending, deciduous; anthers simple, incumbent. *Pist.* Germen superior, ovate; style very short; stigma capitate, obtuse. *Peric.* Berry large, roundish, of one cell. *Seeds* five, erect, obovate, bony, contracted at the base, deeply furrowed on one side.

Eff. Ch. Petals cohering at the summit, unfading. Berry superior, with five erect obovate seeds.

Obs. The seeds are naturally five, though two or three are generally abortive in our northern climes, which has puzzled some writers. They are described by Linnæus as half bilocular, because the lateral furrows are so deep, as to encroach half way on the cavity of their shell covering. The North American species are said to be all dioecious, which however is not the case with *V. quinquefolia*, nor *V. arborescens*, both improperly removed to *Cissus* by Persoon and Pursh, and referred by Michaux to his new genus *Ampelopsis*, whose characters are not sufficient to separate it from *Cissus* or *Vitis*. *Cissus* is properly distinguished from *Vitis*, not so much by having four-cleft tetrandrous flowers, which circumstance is variable or inconstant, but by the reflexed petals, and the presence of a cup-like nectary, surrounding the germen.

1. *V. vinifera*. Common Vine. Linn. Sp. Pl. 293. Willd. n. 1. Ait. n. 1. Schmidl Ic. 2. 7. Jacq. Ic. Rar. t. 50. Sm. Fl. Græc. Sibth. t. 242, unpublished. Inf. of Georgia, v. 1. 87. t. 44? Matth. Valgr. v. 2. 655. Camer. Epit. 1003. Ger. Em. 875.—Leaves heart-shaped, five-lobed, sinuated, naked.—Found, naturalized at least, in most parts of the more temperate climates of the globe; yet it is not supposed to be a native of America. Mr. Hawkins judged it to be truly wild on the banks of rivers in Greece. The cultivated Vine, sporting in endless varieties of the shape, colour, and flavour of its fruit, and differing much with respect to hardness of constitution, is well known as an important and interesting object of horticulture. (See *VINE* and *WINE*.) Our business here is with the same plant in its native state, as found in Greece, flowering in May or June. The stem is woody, tough, sending out long, trailing, subdivided, furrowed, leafy branches, which climb by means of tendrils to a great extent, and when young are clothed with loose shaggy down. *Leaves* alter-

nate,

nate, on longish stalks, simple, roundish-heart-shaped, notched, coarsely serrated, veiny, divided about half way into five, more or less distinct lobes; when young they are downy like the branches, especially beneath; but otherwise naked and smooth; deciduous. *Tendrils* opposite to each foot-stalk, solitary, spiral, divided, about the length of the leaves. *Clusters* here and there in the place of a tendril, drooping, paniced, much branched, the ultimate stalks somewhat umbellate, or corymbose. Flowers very numerous, small, green, fragrant like Mignonette. *Petals* forced from their base by the filaments, which elevate them in the form of an umbrella, downy at the top. *Berry* small, black. Every part of the plant is acid, with some astringency.—One variety only is particularly noticed by Linnaeus, the *V. corinthiaca*, *sive apyrena*, Bauh. Hist. v. 2. 72, of which a specimen from Madeira is preserved in the Linnaean herbarium. The fruit is said to be very small, without seeds. The late Dr. Sibthorp brought a living plant, supposed to be of this kind, from the ruins of Corinth, with no small trouble and care; but his ignorant gardener threw it away. Whether the Zante Currant be precisely the same is doubtful. This is cultivated at Kew, and in some other curious gardens.

2. *V. palmata*. Palmate Vine. Vahl Symb. v. 3. 42. Willd. n. 2. Pursh n. 6.—“Leaves palmate, smooth; their segments deeply serrated. Umbels racemose.”—Said to be a native of Virginia, but Mr. Pursh met with nothing in North America answering to this description. Vahl had his specimen from the Paris garden. The branches are purplish, smooth. Leaves as broad as long, smooth; heart-shaped at the base; their segments lanceolate, tapering; the lateral ones having lanceolate teeth at their outer margins; the central one deeply serrated at each side. *Stipules* lanceolate. *Clusters* an inch long, composed of small crowded umbels. Vahl. We presume this to be a mere variety of *V. vinifera*, as well as the two following, which therefore we here place near it.

3. *V. laciniosa*. Parsley Vine. Linn. Sp. Pl. 293. Willd. n. 8. Ait. n. 5. (V. folio apii; Bauh. Hist. v. 2. 73.)

β. *V. laciniosis foliis*; Cornut. Canad. 182. t. 183. Schmidel. Ic. 34. t. 8.

Leaves of five many-cleft leaflets, or deep pinnatifid lobes.—Long known in gardens, but no botanist has discovered its native country. The leaves are quite smooth. We know no difference between this and *V. vinifera*, except, which indeed is very remarkable, the leaves being either composed of five deeply cut, partial-stalked leaflets, as in the Linnaean original specimen, and Bauhin's figure; or only very deeply five-lobed and jagged, like the plates of Cornut and Schmidel. We readily allow them to constitute one and the same species with the Common Vine, and probably the following.

4. *V. pinnata*. Pinnate Vine. Vahl Symb. v. 3. 43. Willd. n. 11.—“Leaves pinnate, smooth, with tooth-like serratures.”—Given to professor Vahl by Mr. Schumacher. Its native country is unknown. The branches are purplish, smooth and round. Leaflets five; the middle ones nearly sessile; the rest stalked; the two lowermost often furnished with an accessory lobe at the outer margin, ovate, pointed, with three or four large serratures at each side; pale green beneath, two inches long. Flower-stalks opposite to the leaves, twice compound; partial ones umbellate. Flowers small. This seems an intermediate variety between the α and β of *V. laciniosa*, probably obtained from some garden.

5. *V. indica*. Indian Vine. Linn. Sp. Pl. 293. Willd. n. 3. Ait. n. 2. Swartz Obs. 95. (V. fructu minore

rubro acerbo, folio subrotundo, minus laciniato, subtus albâ lanugine tecto; Sloane Hort. v. 2. 104. t. 210. f. 4. Schembra-valli; Rheede Hort. Malab. v. 7. 11. t. 6.)—Leaves heart-shaped, toothed; downy beneath. Tendrils bearing the clusters.—Native of the East and West Indies. Swartz says the twigs, when cut, distil a cool refreshing watery juice, highly grateful to the natives of the torrid zone. The leaves are sharply toothed, not lobed; very white at the back, according to Sloane; but this is wanting in the Linnaean East Indian specimen, which we suspect rather to belong to *Cissus*. This however is not an original specimen. The fruit is red, or deep purple, the size of currants, and agreeably acid as well as astringent. Sloane.

6. *V. flexuosa*. Zigzag Japan Vine. Thunb. Tr. of Linn. Soc. v. 2. 332. Willd. n. 4. (V. indica; Thunb. Jap. 103.)—Leaves heart-shaped, toothed; villous beneath. Stem zigzag. Panicles elongated.—Native of Japan, where it is called *Itadori*. The leaves are chiefly villous at the ribs underneath. Footstalks slender, as long as the nail. Panicles unattended by tendrils. Thunb.

7. *V. Labrusca*. Downy-leaved Vine, or Fox-grape. Linn. Sp. Pl. 293. Willd. n. 5. Ait. n. 3. Pursh n. 1. “Jacq. Hort. Schoenbr. t. 426.” Sm. Inf. of Georgia, v. 1. 55. t. 28.)—Leaves broadly-heart-shaped, angular or slightly lobed, toothed; white and cottony beneath. Berries few, somewhat depressed.—Native of shady woods, from Canada to Florida, flowering in June and July. Berries black, large, of a disagreeable foxy smell, whence they are commonly called Fox-grapes. A variety with white berries is called Bland's Grape. Pursh. The leaves appear to be sometimes but slightly toothed. Each bunch consists of about six grapes, three-fourths of an inch in diameter, red before they are ripe. We have not seen the fourth volume of Jacquin's Hortus Schoenbrunensis, and are therefore obliged to take our references from Pursh, under this and a few other species.

8. *V. aestivalis*. Summer Grape. Michaux Boreal-Amer. v. 2. 230. Pursh n. 2. “Jacq. Hort. Schoenbr. t. 425,” according to Mr. Pursh. (V. Labrusca; Walt. Carol. 242.)—Leaves broadly-heart-shaped, with three or five lobes, finely toothed; downy and rusty when young. Clusters of fruit oblong.—In fields and woods, from Virginia to Carolina, flowering in May and June. Berries small, dark blue, very agreeable to eat, and frequently converted into very good home-made wine. It is known by the name of Summer Grape. Pursh. This author mentions, by the name of *sinuata*, a variety which he thinks may be a distinct species, and which is thus defined: “Leaves sinuato-palmate, coarsely toothed; each sinus rhomboid.” Can this be the plant figured in Sm. Inf. of Georgia, t. 44. as *V. vinifera*? (See the first species.) We have from the late Rev. Dr. Muhlenberg a specimen answering exactly to the above specific character of Michaux and Pursh, but without any information annexed. Whether it be *Labrusca*, Muhlenb. Cat. 27, as we should guess by that name, or *intermedia* of that work, as indicated by the synonym, there is no possibility of knowing. The leaves in our specimen are glaucous beneath, and clothed with loose, partly rusty, cobweb pubescence, not with dense white cottony down like *V. Labrusca*. The veins terminate in small, acute, marginal teeth. Clusters downy and rusty, as well as the footstalks.

9. *V. vulpina*. Winter Grape, or Chicken Grape. Linn. Sp. Pl. 293. Willd. n. 6. Ait. n. 4. (V. cordifolia; Michaux Boreal-Amer. v. 2. 231. Pursh n. 3. “V. incisa; Jacq. Hort. Schoenbr. t. 427.”)—Leaves heart-shaped, pointed, sharply serrated, smooth on both sides,

sides, with axillary glandular tufts to the veins beneath. Clusters lax, nearly smooth.—On the margins of rivers, and in woods, from Canada to Florida, flowering in June and July. *Berries* green or amber-coloured, small, ripening extremely late, of a very tart taste. *Pursh*. This is certainly the *vulpina* of Linnæus, and consequently of Willdenow, though *Pursh* cites the latter author under the foregoing species. The *leaves* of the present have but a slight indication of a lobe at each side, and are more oblong and pointed than either of the two last; being moreover quite smooth, from the earliest period, except the little axillary tufts of hair on the under side. The *footstalks* and *branches* are smooth.

10. *V. riparia*. Sweet-scented Vine. Michaux Boreal.-Amer. v. 2. 231. *Pursh* n. 4. (*V. odoratissima*; Donn Cant. ed. 5. 53.)—"Leaves unequally and deeply toothed, slightly three-lobed; their margins, ribs, and footstalks, downy."—On the gravelly shores and islands of the rivers, from Pennsylvania to Carolina, flowering from May to July. Female plants are very seldom found north of the Potomac river, though the male extend very far beyond it. The *flowers* have an exquisitely fine smell, somewhat resembling *Roseda odorata*. *Pursh*. We have seen the male plant in blossom in some gardens, though not noticed by Mr. Aiton. The scent is not superior to that of the common *V. vinifera*, which likewise exactly resembles Mignonette.

11. *V. rotundifolia*. Bull or Bullet Grape; sometimes called Muscadine Grape. Michaux Boreal.-Amer. v. 2. 231. *Pursh* n. 5. (*V. vulpina*; Sm. Inf. of Georg. v. 1. 81. t. 41.)—"Leaves kidney-heart-shaped, smooth and shining, nearly equally toothed. Flowers in numerous little heads."—On river sides, and islands, from Virginia to Florida, flowering in June and July. *Berries* very large, dark blue, agreeable, commonly called Bull or Bullet-grapes. *Pursh*. We have seen no specimen. Mr. Abbot, in his drawing for the *Insects of Georgia*, represents the *fruit* full three-quarters of an inch in diameter, dark purple, dotted, few in each cluster. *Leaves* smaller, shorter, more strongly toothed than in the last; apparently quite smooth.

12. *V. heterophylla*. Various-leaved Vine. Thunb. Jap. 103. Willd. n. 7.—"Leaves simple, naked, with three or five deep serrated lobes."—Found near Nagasaki, and on Papenberg, in Japan, flowering in July and August. It is there called *Inu Ganebu*, or Wild Vine. The *stem* is climbing, smooth, branched and knotty. Lowest *leaves* five-lobed; uppermost undivided; all pale beneath, with rough veins. *Panicles* forked. By the description of an annular *nectary*, this seems to be a *Cissus*.

13. *V. hederaea*. Five-leaved Vine, or Virginian Creeper. Ehrh. Beitr. v. 6. 85. Willd. n. 9. Ait. n. 6. (*V. quinquefolia*; Sm. Inf. of Georg. v. 1. 59. t. 30, reversed. *Hedera quinquefolia*; Linn. Sp. Pl. 292. *Edera quinquefolia canadensis*; Cornut. Canad. 99. t. 100. *Ampelopsis quinquefolia*; Michaux Boreal.-Amer. v. 1. 160. *Cissus hederaea*; *Pursh* 170.)—Leaflets five, ovate, pointed, serrated, smooth. Clusters zigzag, corymbose.—On the Alleghany mountains; from Pennsylvania to Virginia, flowering in June and July. Well known in England, where it has long been cultivated, as an ornamental climber, for covering lofty buildings. It flourishes even in the close courts, and pestiferous cemeteries, of the city of London. In autumn, the *leaves*, before they fall, assume splendid tints of red and orange. The *tendrils* attach themselves to the surface of the smoothest flint. The *leaves* are bright green, smooth and shining, of five stalked *leaflets*, about two inches long. Common *footstalks* three inches in length. *Panicles* lateral and terminal, many-flowered, divaricated, smooth. *Flowers*

umbellate, green, destitute of a *nectary*; their *petals* concave, cohering at the summit, and separating from the base, exactly as in a true *Vitis*, so that we cannot but wonder at the confusion of recent authors respecting the genus of this plant, even more than at Linnæus for referring it to *Hedera*. The *berries* are blueish-black, less than a common pea. *Pursh* mentions a variety named *hirsuta*, whose *leaves* are downy on both sides, which he thinks may be specifically distinct. But he had never seen the *flowers*, nor are we further informed on the subject.

14. *V. arborea*. Pepper Vine. Linn. Sp. Pl. 294. Willd. n. 12. Ait. n. 7. ("V. caroliniana, foliis apii, uvâ corymbosa purpurealente; Comment. Bonon. v. 2. part 2. 365. t. 3." *Ampelopsis bipinnata*; Michaux Boreal.-Amer. v. 1. 160. *Cissus flans*; *Pursh* n. 3. *Frutetex scandens*, petioleli foliis, virginianus; Pluk. Mant. 85. t. 412. f. 2.)—Leaves twice or thrice compound; leaflets ovate, partly wedge-shaped, cut.—In shady woods, by river sides, in Virginia and Carolina, flowering in June and July. *Stem* upright. *Pursh*. The *leaflets* are about an inch long, more or less acute, stalked, somewhat hairy, especially the veins, which are furnished with axillary glands beneath. *Tendrils* branched. *Clusters* lateral, corymbose, somewhat forked. Plukenet says this was first raised from seed in England, by Mr. Samuel Reynardson, an eminent merchant of London, at his villa at Hillingdon, before the year 1700. His house and garden still remain, and we have there often admired the largest Cedar of Lebanon in England, blown down about the year 1794.

V. heptaphylla, Linn. Mant. 212, proves by the specimen to be very nearly, if not quite, the same as *Aralia Sciodaphyllum*, Willd. Sp. Pl. v. 1. 1519, nor is there any appearance of its being an East Indian plant.

The late Mr. Donn has a *V. lucida*, Hort. Cant. ed. 5. 53, a new Holland shrub, introduced in 1790, of which we find no other mention.

Vitis, in Gardening, contains plants of the deciduous climbing kind; among which the species cultivated are, the common vine, or grape vine (*V. vinifera*); the Indian vine (*V. indica*); the parley-leaved vine (*V. laciniata*); and the tree or pepper vine (*V. arborea*).

The first sort has a weak brown-coloured stem, and is a native of most of the temperate parts of the world. In very cold regions it refuses to grow; and within 25° or even 30° of the equinoctial line, it seldom flourishes so as to produce good fruit. In the northern hemisphere, the proper wine country is from 25° to 51° of latitude; and, according to Forsyth, the following are the varieties which are in most esteem in this climate for the hot-house, vinery, and the natural wall.

Sorts proper for the Hot-house.

The white muscat of Alexandria, or Alexandrian Frontinac, in which the berries are oval, and the bunches long. It has a rich vinous juice, and is esteemed an exceeding good grape for the hot-house.

The red muscat of Alexandria, which resembles the former, only the berries are of a red colour.

The black muscadell, which has large oval berries of a black colour and pleasant juice.

The red muscadell, which has large red berries of an oval shape, and ripens late. The bunches are very large.

The black Damascus, which has large, round, black-coloured berries; the flesh is rich and well-flavoured. It is an excellent late grape.

The black grape from Tripoli, which has large black berries, and is an excellent grape.

The white Hamburg, which has large oval-shaped berries, and is a pretty good bearer.

The red grape from Syracuse, which is a very fine large grape.

Le cœur grape, or Morocco grape, which has berries of a tawny colour, and is highly esteemed.

The golden Galician grape, which has large oval berries of a yellow colour, and tolerable flavour.

The black raisin grape, which has large black berries of an oval form; the skin is thick, and the flesh firm.

The white raisin grape, which resembles the preceding, only that the berries are white.

The Malvoise, sometimes called the blue Tokay, which has small brownish berries, powdered with a blue bloom; the juice is vinous.

The Syrian grape, which has large, white, oval berries, with a thick skin and hard flesh, and is a good bearer.

The damson grape, which has very large berries of a purple colour.

The Cornichon grape, which has berries of a remarkable shape, long and narrow, of a white colour, with a firm sweet flesh.

The red chasselas, which is very like the chasselas blanc in size and shape, but is of a dark-red colour. It is a very good grape, but ripens later than the white.

Sorts proper for the Vinery.

The red Frontinac, or muscat rouge, which is a very fine grape, and greatly esteemed. It has large brick-coloured berries, and the juice is of a highly vinous flavour.

The large black cluster, which is larger than the former, and has a very rough harsh taste. Mr. Speechley says, that he had this grape from Lisbon, and was assured that it is the grape of which they make red Port wine. He has had the same grape eight or ten years.

The white grape from Alcobaca, which bears large bunches of white juicy berries.

The white parley-leaved grape, or ciotat, which has round berries, white, juicy, and sweet. There is a sort of the parley-leaved grape with red fruit.

The white Corinth grape, which has a small round berry, with a fine juicy flesh of an agreeable flavour.

The St. Peter's grape, which has a large oval berry, of a deep black colour when ripe; the bunches are large, and the flesh juicy. It ripens late.

Sort proper for the Wall.

The white or common muscadine, by some called the chasselas, which resembles the royal muscadine, but the berries are smaller; and although it is not so sweet as the royal, it is the best grape that we have for a common wall, and a great bearer.

Sorts proper for the Hot-house and Vinery.

The black muscadine, which is a good bearer, and the berries are beautifully powdered with a bluish bloom.

The royal muscadine, d'Arboyce, or chasselas blanc, which is an excellent grape; the bunches are large, and composed of round amber-coloured berries of a rich vinous taste. In a fine season it ripens in September.

The white muscat from Lunel, which has large oval berries of an amber-colour, and full of a vinous juice. It is a plentiful bearer, and highly esteemed.

The black Spanish, or Alicante grape, which has black berries of a pleasant flavour.

The black grape from Lisbon, which has large, round,

juicy berries, and the bunches resemble the black Hamburg. It is a good grape.

The black Frontinac, or muscat noir, which has pretty large round berries, black when ripe, and covered with a mealy powder.

The griffy Frontinac, which has round berries, of a colour composed of brown, red, and yellow. It has an excellent flavour.

The black Hamburg, which has the bunches large, composed of large oval black berries, of a pleasant sweet juice and vinous flavour. It ripens in November.

The red Hamburg, which has thin-skinned berries of a dark red. They have a rich vinous flavour, and ripen about the same time with the former.

The white morillon, which has an oval-shaped juicy berry, and the leaves are downy on the under side.

The Aleppo grape, which has middle-sized berries, with a juicy flesh of a very fine flavour. It is a curious grape, frequently striped black and white.

The genuine Tokay, which is a white grape, with a thin skin, delicate flesh, and agreeable juice.

The Lombardy grape, which has fine, large, flame-coloured berries, full of a fine juice; and the bunches grow to a great size, frequently weighing more than six pounds.

The Smyrna grape, which has a large red berry, of a very fine flavour, and is esteemed a very good grape.

The brick grape, so called from its colour, has small berries, but the juice is sweet.

The claret grape, which has small black berries, with a blood-red juice; but the grape is very harsh, if not perfectly ripe.

The cat's grape, which has small berries of a pale-green colour; the flesh is soft and juicy, but of a very disagreeable taste, unless quite ripe.

The Greek grape, in which the berries are of a blueish-white colour; and it is esteemed a fine grape.

The black Corinth, or currant grape, which has a small roundish berry, generally without a stone, of a deep black colour. It has a sweet juice, and ripens in October.

The new muscat of Jerusalem, which has large round berries of a red colour; some of which, in fine seasons, are as large as a gooseberry; but as it does not ripen well on the natural wall in this country, it might be worth while to try it in a hot-house or vinery.

The black Prince, which has fine large berries, and the bunches grow to a large size. Mr. Forsyth has had them, in a favourable season, on the natural wall, weighing a pound and a half: it ripens on the natural wall in October. It deserves a place in the hot-house and vinery.

Sorts proper for the Vinery and Wall.

The July grape, or morillon noir hatif, is a small round black berry of a fugary juice, and is principally esteemed for being early ripe, which is in September.

The Malmsey muscadine somewhat resembles the preceding; the juice is very sweet, and of a high flavour. This is a good bearer, and a very fine grape.

The black sweet-water has a small roundish berry, of a sweet taste; but being apt to crack, is not in much repute. The birds are very fond of this grape, which ripens in September.

The small black cluster has small oval berries; the leaves are covered with a hoary down. This is a very pleasant fruit.

The early white grape from Teneriffe; the berries are of a middling size, and the flesh remarkably sweet and juicy.

The Auverna, or true Burgundy grape, sometimes called the

the black morillon, is an indifferent fruit for the table, but is esteemed one of the best for making of wine.

Sorts proper for the Hot-house, Vinery, and Wall.

The white sweet-water, which has a large berry of a white colour, and very agreeable juice; it is esteemed an excellent grape, and ripens in September.

The white Frontinac, or muscat blanc, which has large bunches composed of round berries: the juice of this grape, when fully ripe, is exquisite.

To this list are added the following sorts, without any descriptions.

The black Frankindale, the black Gibraltar, the black muscat of Alexandria, the Miller grape, the new white sweet-water, the pisse musk, the pearl muscadine, the red Constantia, the red raisin, the fir Abraham Pitcher's fine black, the West's St. Peter, the white Constantia.

And the following are the sorts recommended for a small garden, by the same author.

The white muscadine, white sweet-water, black sweet-water, large black cluster, small black cluster, the Miller grape: the St. Peter's and the black Hamburgh answer well in favourable seasons.

The writer of the Scotch Forcing Gardener remarks, that amongst the numerous varieties of grapes, he does not know above eighteen or twenty kinds worth a place in the vinery, and even that number cannot have places in an ordinary-sized house; but where there are two or three houses, a variety to the extent of twenty-four kinds may be encouraged, without transgressing the bounds of moderation. The following is the list which he advises.

White sweet-water, white muscadine, royal ditto, black ditto, black Frontinac, white ditto, red ditto, Grisy ditto, black Hamburgh, white ditto, white raisin, red ditto, Syrian, white Tokay, flame-coloured ditto, white pisse musque, Grecian, white muscat of Alexandria, black ditto, large black cluster, black Constantia, white ditto, St. Peter's grape, Lombardy.

Out of which, it is thought, the proprietors of grape-houses may choose so as to stock any grape-house.

To the above sorts may probably be added the verdello, which is pronounced *verdello*, as it is said to be the most prevailing grape in the vineyards, and the most famous for producing the best wine of the Madeira kind; though the celebrated white wine obtained from that island is mostly understood to be the production of a mixture of different grapes.

Cuttings of this vine, procured from the above place, are said not only to grow remarkably well and with great vigour in the vinery here, but to be greatly productive of fruit, frequently giving three bunches on a shoot. As it does not, however, form a large bunch, it will probably not be thought worthy of culture here, except by those who are curious in the flavour of their grapes. The berry is small, of an oval shape, and many very small berries without seeds are usually interspersed: these being cut out with scissors, will, it is asserted, much improve the appearance of the bunch. The fruit is said to be very acid until it arrives at the last stage of maturity, when the berries become of a fine amber colour, and of a very rich saccharine flavour. It is supposed that this vine will succeed in favourable situations on the open wall, especially where the soil is light, dry, and shallow; but that in a deep highly manured soil, it will run too much into wood and foliage.

The leaf is very thick, of a dark green colour, and resists the autumnal frosts somewhat longer than the chasselas, and some other kinds; and will therefore, it is supposed, in the

ordinary course of the seasons here, afford protection to the fruit till towards the end of the month of October.

The second species or sort has a woody branching stem, affording small round watery berries of a brownish-green appearance. But it is said to produce a great quantity of black grapes in the lower hills of Jamaica, which are of a rough taste, and would doubtless make an excellent wine, if properly managed. It seems to thrive best on the Red-hills, and is there known by the name of water-withe.

The third species or sort has the stalks and branches like those of the common grape, but has only a few plants, occasionally preferred for the sake of variety.

The last species or sort has the stem woody with slender branches, but does not afford fruit in this climate.

Method of Culture.—The vine may be increased in different ways: as by seeds, cuttings, layers, as well as by grafting and inoculation; but the cutting and layer methods are the most commonly employed.

In raising vines from seeds, they should be sown in the early spring, as about the beginning of March, in small pots filled with mould of the light fresh kind, to the number of three or four seeds in each, plunging the pots in a moderate hot-bed, the mould being gently sprinkled over with water, from a fine-robed watering-pot, every day when the weather is hot and dry, which should be performed in the latter part of the day as the sun disappears from the frame. But when the season is such as to keep the mould in the pots properly moist, the waterings may be omitted. As soon as the waterings have been performed, the frames should be shut down, and be kept in that state during the night, when the heat is not too great.

When the heat of the bed begins to decline, a lining of horse-dung and fresh leaves should be added; or the heat be renewed by stirring the old beds up and making slight additions to them. This should be continued till the plants have acquired sufficient strength to support themselves without bottom heat.

It will be necessary about the end of August, Mr. Forsyth suggests, to take the lights off, that the plants may be hardened before winter, taking care to shelter them in frames covered with mats, which will prevent the frost in the latter end of October and beginning of November from injuring the tender shoots. And when the plants are about six inches high, they should, it is thought, be transplanted singly into deep pots, forty-eights, filled with the same sort of vegetable mould that is directed to be used for vines; taking great care not to hurt the roots, nor to break the leaders; then plunging them again into the hot-beds: but if the heat of the old bed be too much decayed, it will be necessary to have a new one prepared before-hand, to receive the pots as soon as the plants are transplanted. When they grow vigorously, it will also be necessary to shift them into thirty-twos. When the plants are above six inches high, they should be carefully tied to small rods, leaving only one stem for the first year. The rods should be as high as the frame will permit. And when the leaves begin to drop, they should be carefully picked off the pots, to prevent the plants from getting mouldy, which would very much injure their growth.

It is likewise advised, that they should be kept under frames, or put into the greenhouse in hard winters, to shelter them from severe frosts. In the spring, about March or the beginning of April, if from seed ripened in this country, they may be planted out against the walls where they are to remain; but if from seed imported from vine countries, it is advised not to plant above one or two against the wall, or in the hot-house, before a specimen of the fruit has been obtained,

tained, and proof afforded that the vines are worth cultivation. It is likewise recommended, that after they are planted, they should be cut at the third eye, if strong; but at the second, if weakly; at the same time rubbing off the lower bud with the finger and thumb, as directed below.

But where the method by cuttings is made use of, these should be chosen from the shoots that are best ripened, and have the shortest joints; always having one or two joints of the last year's wood, cutting it perfectly smooth and a little rounding at the lower end, and as near to a joint of the old wood as possible. The upper end should also be cut smooth and sloping towards the wall; but if they are planted in beds or borders, the cut should always face towards the north. When cuttings are planted against piers or walls, it should be at about a foot distance from each other, according to the vacant space, and so deep as to have the second eye level with the ground, constantly rubbing off the lower eye; as by this means, where no accident happens to the top bud, there will be a shoot produced from each eye, with a little one under, which should always be rubbed off as soon as it begins to swell; as if suffered to grow to any considerable size, there will be danger of injuring the large one in rubbing the small one off. All the runners and side-shoots should likewise be picked off as directed above, leaving only two shoots, which should be trained at their full length. About the beginning of February they may be pruned, leaving one or two eyes on each, according to the strength of the shoot, which should be managed as explained below.

It is remarked by the above writer, that for the first year, especially if the summer be dry, and proper attention be not paid to the watering of them, they will make but little progress; but in the second year it may be plainly discerned which is the strongest plant, which only should be left to fill up the vacant space on the wall; the rest should be taken up and planted in other situations where they are wanted for fruit.

However, a method is made use of by Mr. Speechley and others, of propagating the vine from one eye, and a few inches of the preceding year's wood, which they prefer to those raised by cuttings in the common way, on these accounts: they have more abundant roots, grow shorter jointed, are more prolific, and will, if permitted, come into bearing the second year.

In regard to the mode of management, it is advised that choice should be made of cuttings after a warm dry season, when the wood ripens well; each cutting having two inches of the old wood, with one eye of the new. When the vines are pruned there is great choice; they should therefore be then selected of a middling size, the wood round and perfectly ripened.

After this, pots are to be filled with rich light mould, that has been well mellowed and prepared some time before. The cuttings being then prepared for planting, by the bottom part being cut perfectly smooth; if any of the old dead snags remain, they should be cut off close to the quick wood, and the top cut sloping towards the back of the hot-house or frame, when placed in them. Mr. Forlyth recommends planting only one cutting in each pot, which as to the size should be a deep forty-eight; by that means he thinks the plants will grow much stronger and quicker than when many are crowded together, and the sun and air will have a freer admission to ripen the wood; for, when many are planted in one pot, they shade one another, and in a considerable degree prevent the sun and air from passing freely among them. When the plants begin to get strong, and the pots full of roots, it will be necessary to shift them from the forty-eights to thirty-twos. This method is, he contends,

best adapted for private gardens; but for nurserymen, &c. who raise plants for sale, and cannot conveniently spare so much room, it may be necessary to plant three or more cuttings in each pot.

And in these cases, the same rules for watering, transplanting, shifting, &c. are to be attended to as was directed for the seedling plants.

The same writer remarks, that it is a method very frequently practised by nurserymen and gardeners, when they wish to have their plants fit for sale the same year, to plant them in pots, and place them in the hot-house among the tan, on the flues, or round the curbs of the pit. And he has seen it employed with great success. In this way they may, it is asserted, be raised either by planting them singly in small pots, or several in a pot, according to its size, planting them out separately when they have taken root, having a hot-bed ready to plunge the pots in as soon as they are transplanted. In this manner they become much forwarded in their growth, and are before the autumn in a state fit for sale.

In raising vines in the layer manner, the method usually made use of is by stools, in the open quarters of the garden, in the same manner as nurserymen propagate forest-trees and shrubs; but the best way, according to Forlyth, is to take layers from these on walls or palings, training the shoots at full length during the summer; when about the month of February some of the finest and strongest shoots should be chosen, laying them across the foot-path into pots (twenty-fours or sixteens) filled with fresh mould, and plunging them in the ground about two inches below the surface; at the same time making an incision or two in the old wood, or giving it a twist just below a joint; and though they will generally take without notching or twisting, it is nevertheless advised, as the surest way, to have that done. The layers should then be cut, leaving two or three strong eyes upon each. And when the shoots begin to run, they should be tied to long stakes, to prevent their being broken by the wind; all the runners and side-shoots being picked off, leaving only two or three fine strong shoots on each plant, which should be trained at full length during the summer season.

As soon as the shoots are laid down, it will be necessary to mulch them with good rotten dung, or rotten leaves, which will keep the mould moist: and in very dry summers, a good watering should be given once or twice a week: this will wash in the dung or leaves about the roots, and induce the layers to shoot with more vigour. The above writer thinks that in this method of laying, two or three rows of layers may be had from one wall: taking care to lay the branches alternately, and to keep the pots plunged about two inches below the level of the ground.

The same writer advises in choosing vines from the nursery, to select those which have the strongest and longest shoots. And he observes, that where the above directions are properly attended to, the plants will be well rooted in the pots before autumn, and fit for planting in vineries, hot-houses, or other situations. And when they are to be planted out, they should, he thinks, be carefully cut off from the mother vine, and carried in the pots to where they are intended to be planted; taking care to preserve the balls as much as possible when they are turned out of them.

It is also added, that if the season be warm and fine, the grapes of the early kinds ripen very well on these layers before they are taken up; and, if properly managed, they will bear some fruit the first year after planting. One of the strongest shoots must be left nearly at full length, cutting it as high as the uppermost full bud, leaving nothing but
round

round well-ripened wood. If there are three shoots, the remaining two should be cut so as to leave only two full eyes upon each, which should be trained at length, as before directed, to produce fine wood for the next year. The shoot which was trained the preceding year should then be cut down, leaving only two strong eyes to produce wood for the following year; and so on every year, cutting the branches alternately: by this means the walls always may be kept covered with fine healthy bearing wood, and a great deal of time be saved in furnishing hot-houses, vineries, and other places. It is remarked, that this method of laying is practised with great success by many nurserymen in the neighbourhood of London.

In producing of vines by grafting, choice should be made of cuttings for grafts, or scyons, from the best-bearing branches of the sorts intended to be propagated at the season of pruning. In general, the bottom part of the last year's shoot is to be preferred; but in well-ripened vigorous wood, any part of the shoot will answer, provided it be not too long jointed. These cuttings should be preserved in pots filled with light sandy earth till the time of grafting.

The periods for performing the operation are different according to the vines; for those in the pine stove, the beginning of January may be proper, but the middle of March for those growing in the open air. In general, they should be grafted about three weeks before they begin to break into bud. And upon small stocks not more than an inch in diameter, cleft-grafting is the most proper; but upon larger stocks, whip-grafting is to be preferred. In both methods, care should be taken in fitting the stock and scyon together, and the operation should be performed with great exactness; fastening them together with bafs matting, and covering them with clay in the usual way. After the operation, the scyon will sometimes begin to push in a few weeks, but it frequently remains dormant two or three months; during this period the stock must be stripped of all its shoots as soon as they appear; and to preserve the scyon in a vegetative state, the clay must be kept moderately moist by wrapping wet moss round it, and by keeping the moss constantly sprinkled with water. And when it has made shoots five or six inches long, the clay and bandage must be carefully taken off.

The method of grafting by approach is advised by some, however, as the best mode of raising vines. In this case, it is necessary to have the plant intended to be propagated in a pot. Strong plants that have been two or three years in pots are to be preferred; but plants from the nursery may be potted, and grafted in the same season, if brought into a hot-house or vinery. It is suggested that fine grapes and good wood may be obtained even the first season by any of these methods, but particularly by the last; in which it is evident the graft has a double support, as from the stock and the plant in the pot.

In this sort of grafting, the clay and bandage should remain two or three months after the graft has formed an union; for if it be taken off sooner, the graft will be very liable to spring from the stock. The pot should be plentifully supplied with water till the month of August, when the graft should be separated from the plant in the pot. Two or three inches of wood below the bottom of the graft may be left, but should be taken clean off at the next pruning in winter.

The Syrian vine is recommended as the most proper for stocks, and plants of this sort raised from seeds are greatly preferable for this purpose to plants either raised from layers or cuttings. See GRAFTING.

The principal advantages of the grafting mode of raising vines are; that if a wall should have been planted with bad kinds, instead of stubbing them up, and making a new border, by which several years must elapse before the wall can again be completely filled; in this way their nature may be changed immediately, as good grapes may be obtained from the same year's graft; and in a hot-house the grafts, if permitted, will frequently shoot thirty or forty feet the first summer; that in small vineries or frames, where great variety could not be had in the common way, it may be procured by this means on the same plant; and that of the improvement of the various kinds, particularly the small ones, which generally make weak wood. The method by inoculation may likewise have advantages in some cases of a similar kind.

When any of the vines that have been raised from seed do not prove of a good flavour, they are proper for grafting or inarching the finer sorts of vines on; for, as the coarser sorts grow more vigorously than the finer, they are on that account more fit for grafting or inarching.

Vines will grow in almost any sort of soil, but succeed the most perfectly in those of the good dry, loamy kind, and where there is a mixture of calcareous materials, or in those of other qualities which are dry and rich. However, where the land is of a wet retentive nature, or of the strong, stiff, clayey quality, it is quite improper for the growing of these kinds of plants, as though they may luxuriate strongly, they will produce an ill-flavoured fruit; and the notion of many gardeners of placing a layer or bed of stones, bricks, lime rubbish, or other similar materials, below their roots, in the view of checking their downward direction, and the over-luxuriance of the plants, thereby rendering them more fruitful, and promoting the ripening and flavour, though it may, in some measure, answer the purpose in particular instances, it is liable to stunt the growth of the trees, and cause the fruit to be small and of little value.

It is further remarked, that the best manure for vines is a mixture of vegetable mould, rotten spit-dung, and fresh loam (turf and all); this should be thrown in a heap, and frequently turned, for a year or two before it is made use of.

In regard to the proper situations for vines, they should constantly have a southern exposure as full to the influence of the sun as possible, never varying from the full south, or a very little to the south-west, as in this climate, this is necessary in order to the ripening and flavour of the fruit. In gardens they are usually trained against walls, or other erections of a similar nature; but in vineyards and other open places, against treillages, stakes, and other similar works, formed in rows on the south sides of them, where possible, choosing a rising ground for the purpose.

For final planting out in these situations, ready-raised plants of two, three, or more years' growth, procured in some of the above modes, are mostly used, being transplanted from the nursery. But in order to form bearers as soon as possible, ready-raised plants of the different varieties may be had at the public nursery-grounds in general, of a proper plantable size, and for immediate bearing, either in good-rooted plants in the full ground, or in pots fit for being planted out with balls of earth about them.

The proper season for performing the work of planting them out is the early autumn, or the very early spring months. The business should be done according to the nature and height of the material against which they are to be trained, in regard to the distance, and other circumstances: those against espaliers and stakes may be planted either together or in mixture with other kinds of fruit-trees,

in rows ten or twelve feet apart, choosing warm dry sandy situations: in all the cases settling the earth about the roots by proper watering.

In all the different sorts of vines, the fruit is produced on the young shoots of the same year, which arise directly from the eyes or buds of those shoots which were afforded in the former year. This is a matter of importance, and deserves much attention in the work of pruning.

Methods of Pruning and Training Vines.—In the management of the vines, after being thus raised and trained, as they rarely produce any bearing shoots from wood that is more than one year old, care should be taken to have such wood in every part of the trees; for the fruit is always produced upon the shoots of the same year, which come out from buds of the last year's wood, as has been already seen. The method practised by gardeners is to shorten the branches of the former year's growth down to three or four eyes at the time of pruning; though some leave these shoots much longer, and think that by this practice they obtain a greater quantity of fruit: but what is gained in quantity is probably lost in quality; therefore the best method is perhaps to shorten the bearing shoots to about four eyes in length, as the lowermost seldom is good, and three buds are sufficient, as each will produce a shoot, which generally has two or three bunches of grapes; so that from each of those shoots there may be expected six or eight bunches, which is a sufficient quantity. These shoots must be laid in about eighteen inches asunder, as where they are closer, when the side-shoots are produced, there will not be room enough to train them against the wall, which should always be provided for; and as their leaves are very large, the branches should be left at a proportionable distance from each other; that they may not crowd or shade the fruit too much.

In the winter pruning of the vines, it is advised to make the cut just above the eye, sloping it backward from it, that if it should bleed, the sap may not flow upon the bud; and where there is an opportunity of cutting down some young shoots to two eyes, in order to produce vigorous shoots for the next year's bearing, it should always be done, as in stopping of those shoots which have fruit upon them as soon as the grapes are formed, which is frequently practised, it often spoils the eyes for producing bearing branches the following year. The usual season for this pruning is the end of October. But about the end of April, or the beginning of the following month, when the vines begin to shoot, they should be carefully looked over, rubbing off all small buds which may come from the old wood, which only produce weak dangling branches; as also when two shoots are produced from the same bud, the weakest of them should be displaced, which will cause the others to be stronger; and the sooner this is done the better. And in the middle of the last month they should be gone over again, rubbing off and displacing all the dangling shoots as before, and at the same time fastening up all the strong branches, so that they may not hang from the wall; for if their shoots hang down, their leaves will be turned with their upper surfaces the wrong way, and when the shoots are afterwards trained upright, they will have their under surface upward; and until the leaves are turned again, and have taken their right position, the fruit will not thrive; so that the not observing this management will cause the grapes to be a fortnight or three weeks later before they ripen: besides, by suffering the fruit to hang from the wall, and be shaded with the closeness of the branches, it is generally retarded in its growth; therefore, during the growing season you should constantly look over the vines, displacing all dangling

branches and wild wood, and fasten up the other shoots regularly to the wall; and towards the middle of June the bearing branches should be stopped, which will improve the fruit, in doing which three eyes should always be left above the bunches. But though this is practised on those shoots which have fruit, it is not to be performed upon those which are intended for bearing the next year, as these must not be stopped until the middle of July, as by stopping them too soon, it may cause the eyes to shoot out strong lateral branches, and in that way injure them. In the summer season care should be taken to rub off all dangling branches, and train up the shoots regularly to the wall as before, which greatly accelerates the growth of the fruit, and admits the sun and air more freely to them, which is necessary to ripen and give the fruit a rich flavour; but the branches should not be too much deprived of their leaves, as is the practice with some.

A late writer, Mr. Forfyth, has, however, attempted another mode of pruning and training vines, from trials made on vines planted against the piers of a fourth wall, among peaches, nectarines, and plums, &c. in which the fruit was so small and hard as to be unfit for the table. They had been trained upright, which induced such a luxuriance of growth, as made the sap to flow into the branches in the place of the fruit. He consequently let, it is remarked, in 1789, two strong branches grow to their full length without topping them in the summer, and in the following year trained them in a serpentine form, leaving about thirty eyes on each shoot, which produced one hundred and twenty fine bunches of grapes, weighing from one pound to a pound and a quarter each. Every one that saw them said that the large ones were as fine as forced grapes; while the small ones produced from branches of the same vine, trained and pruned in the old way, were bad natural grapes, and not above twice the size of large currants. And in order more fully to prove the success of the experiment, he next year trained five plants in the same way, allowing the shoots intended for bearing wood to run to their full length in summer, training them wherever there was a vacancy between the old trees; where there was none, he ran them along the top of the wall, without topping them. In winter he trained them in a serpentine manner, so as to fill the wall as regularly as possible; and they were, it is asserted, as productive as those in the former year. And after a three years' trial, he thought he was warranted to follow the same practice with the whole; when, in the year 1793, he sent, it is remarked, for the use of his majesty and the royal family, three hundred and seventy-eight baskets of grapes, each weighing about three pounds, without planting a single vine more than there were the preceding year, in which he was able to send only fifty-six baskets of the same weight; and those so bad and ill-ripened, that he was ashamed of them, as they were not fit to be sent to the table.

This, he thinks, sufficiently proves the great advantage that the serpentine method of training possesses over the common method. He advises, that the shoots should be brought as near as possible from the bottom of the vine, that the wall may be well covered. When the walls are high, and the shoots from the serpentine branches strong, they are sometimes let remain; but if the walls are low, and the serpentine branches produce weak shoots, they are cut out in the autumnal pruning, and the strongest of the young wood trained up in their room.

It is noticed, that as the size and fineness of the bunches of grapes depend in a great measure on the bearing wood being strong and well ripened, great attention should be paid

paid to these circumstances. Where the vines produce small bunches, they should be cut down to two or three eyes, in order to have strong wood for the ensuing year. And as it has been seen that vines bear their fruit on the wood that was produced the preceding year, when there is a great deal of old naked wood on them, as generally is the case, with some small weak shoots at the extremities, they should always be cut down as near to the ground as possible, in which case there will be no fruit for that year. But another mode is sometimes practised, which is, to cut every other shoot, leaving the old ones to produce some small grapes; when in the following year there will be plenty of fine wood, provided care be taken to nail in the strongest shoots, and pick off all the side-shoots that are produced from the eyes, pinching them off with the finger and thumb, or cutting them off with a sharp penknife close to the bud or eye; but never twisting them; as by twisting them, the bud that produces the grapes the next year is hurt; being always attentive to cut as near to a bud as possible, and taking care to lay in the wood very thin in the summer season, that the sun and air may be freely admitted to ripen it well, as by these means it will grow very strong. Great care should also be taken to keep the shoots nailed to the wall, which will prevent their being broken by high winds; picking off all the slide-shoots every time they are nailed, which should be done several times during the summer months, according to the quickness of their growth. In fine weather they grow to very rapidly, that it is necessary to look them over once every fortnight or three weeks to have them in good order. The vines should never be suffered to run together in a cluster, and mat, as it infallibly ruins them for bearing the succeeding year. The shoots that have been trained in a serpentine manner, are advised by Mr. Forsyth to be topped, as soon as the grapes come to the size of very small green peas, at a joint or two above the fruit; but neither the leading shoot, nor that which is intended to bear fruit the next year, should ever be topped.

In the second year Mr. Forsyth never recommends the pruning of vines to be performed till the beginning of February, except in such seasons as are very forward. It is, however, the common practice with some to begin pruning soon after the fall of the leaf, before the wood becomes hard; but if a frost sets in before the wood is hard, in particular after wet summers and autumns, it is apt to be very much injured; he has frequently seen it almost killed after autumnal pruning. And he observes, that there is often fine weather in the months of October, November, and December, with sun and drying winds, which helps to ripen the wood after wet autumns.

It is likewise advised, when the vine-leaves begin to fall, to take a soft broom and sweep them off upwards in a gentle manner, which will be of great service in assisting to harden the wood. In beginning to prune in February, it is recommended always to make choice of the strongest and longest shoots, leaving them as long as the eyes are found good and plump, and the wood round; but by no means to leave them when they become flat, as in that case they seldom bear fruit; and if they do, it will be very small. Mr. Forsyth never lays in any that has less than fifteen, and from that to thirty good eyes, according to the strength of the shoot, which will produce two bunches from every good eye. He has had seventy bunches of grapes from one shoot. The shoots that have borne fruit in the preceding year should be cut out the next year, except where the wall is to be filled and the shoots are very strong. Plenty of fine healthy young wood is easily provided, if care be taken in the winter pruning; therefore, none should be left but the fine strong wood,

cutting constantly at the second, third, or fourth eye; rubbing the lowest bud off, and that which comes out at the joint between the new and last year's wood. By these means as much fruit will, he contends, be procured from these short shoots, as by the common way of pruning. It is necessary to leave two or three of the strongest shoots for next year's bearing wood, and never to top them. When there is not room to train them, they may be led over the tops of the other trees, if the vines are planted against piers; or be run behind the standards, if there be any, which is generally the case where the walls are high. In this way all the wall will be covered, which will have a very beautiful appearance when the fruit is ripe, besides furnishing a plentiful supply of fine grapes. The shoots at the bottom of the wall may be run behind the dwarf-trees, or be tacked down over the top of the wall on the other side where the walls are low. Mr. Forsyth has had very fine grapes on east and west walls, in good seasons, between peaches, plums, &c. particularly when the trees are young. In these cases he advises to keep cutting in the vines as the other trees grow and fill up the walls. He also trains them over the tops of trees on each side; which, he asserts, never does any harm to the trees below, provided they are kept nailed to the wall. He has also planted vines between trees on north and east aspects, and trained them over the tops of the fourth and west walls to fill the upper parts, till the peaches and nectarines cover them. He then cuts away part of the vines, leaving only as many shoots as he may think necessary. Two years ago, he states, he removed some old apricots that covered a wall about 165 feet long, and planted them against a new wall, leaving five vines that were planted against the piers. These five plants have, in the course of two years, covered the above wall from top to bottom, and bear plenty of fine grapes every year. He remarks that he also moved an old vine on a wall near to the above, and cut it in pretty close, when it has in three years spread twenty-fix yards, and bears very fine fruit. And against one of the piers had, he observes, been planted a black Hamburgh grape, and at the other side of the same pier a muscadine, at the distance of about two feet from each other; he pruned them both according to his method, and the second year after, they produced 1100 bunches of fine grapes. It is added, that he also tried an experiment by taking some shoots from a fourth wall, opening the ground deep enough to lay them in across the footpath at the distance of about four feet from the wall, and tied them to stakes, training them as espaliers, laying in the wood as directed for walls, and keeping them as low as possible, that they might not shade the bottom of the wall; he also pruned them as he does those against walls, laying the shoots in very long, except those that were intended to bear fruit next year, from which he took off all the slide-shoots and runners against the wall and espaliers. In a favourable season these bear, he asserts, very fine fruit, better than what is got from the walls by the old method of pruning.

The use of the composition prepared by him is advised as soon after pruning as possible; for as the vine is very porous, it soon imbibes the wet and moisture, which brings it quickly to decay. He adds further, that if at any time a vine should be cut late in the season, it will be apt to bleed much; in which case the powder should be applied, repeating the application till the bleeding stops. He states, moreover, that he cut two strong vine-branches in the month of June, and three more in July, in very hot weather, on purpose to try the effect of the powder in stopping the bleeding. The sap rose so strong, that it worked out at the top in a froth; he applied the powder, which in a short time entirely stopped it.

it. These directions are chiefly for vines on the natural wall, though the same method has been advised to be practised for forced grapes. The situations in which they are placed should be towards the south, and the earth quite dry and light.

The above writer still further advises, that after the grapes are set and begin to swell, to water them with the barrow-engine, sprinkling them all over the leaves and fruit, pressing the fore-finger over the top of the pipe; by which the water can be thrown as fine as small rain, which will wash all the dust off the vine and leaves, that are frequently covered with it, especially where the garden is near a public road. The insects should likewise be washed off the trees. In fine weather he sprinkles all the wall-trees three times a week, which keeps them clear from insects, and promotes the swelling of the fruit; but this operation must never, he says, be performed when the nights are cold and frothy. The sprinkling of the trees should be begun when the sun is in an oblique direction, or gone off the wall, which may be about four o'clock on a south aspect; as by doing it at this period the leaves will have time to dry before night, and so prevent the frost, if there should be any in the night, from injuring them. In very hot and dry weather the trees should have a good bottom watering once a week, which will forward the swelling of the fruit. Vines require a great deal of watering; but when the fruit is fully swelled, you should leave it off, particularly when the nights begin to get cold, as it would hurt the flavour of the fruit.

In order to preserve the grapes, as soon as the large fly makes its appearance, plenty of bottles a little more than half filled with some sweet liquor should be provided to entice the flies to enter them, where they will be drowned. The bottles should be hung on the nails at proper distances all over the vines, and also some of them placed at the bottom of the walls. The blue fly comes much earlier than the wasp, and is no less destructive to the fruit. It is therefore necessary to hang up the bottles betimes, in order to destroy as many of them as possible before the wasp makes its appearance, to have the bottles ready for this second enemy.

And when the grapes begin to ripen, the birds begin to attack the fruit; when it is necessary to bag some of your fine handsome bunches, but to bag them all would be an endless trouble where there is a full crop and a large garden. Of course where the bunches are very thick, the quickest way is, he thinks, to cover the trees with nets, or buntine (a kind of stuff of which ships' colours are made), which will admit a free air to the grapes, and dry soon after rain. They will also in the spring, he thinks, be a good covering for the trees in cold, wet, or snowy weather. The bunches of grapes should always be kept under the shade of the leaves till they begin to ripen; when you may begin to pick off the leaves which cover the fruit (leaving those a little above it to be a shelter from the wet and frost in the nights): this will assist the ripening of the fruit; and take off only a few leaves at a time, according to the quantity of grapes to be gathered at once: by these means the fruit will continue three times as long in succession as it would if the leaves were picked off all at one time. He has often seen all the leaves taken off from the fruit soon after it was set, which prevents it from swelling, and it becomes hard and small, and generally cracks. When the leaves are not too thick, they admit, he asserts, the rays of the sun to pass through, and a warm glow of heat will be reflected from the wall.

Further, it is often convenient to let the grapes hang as long on the walls as possible; he has often let them hang till the middle of November, only covering them with nets, or buntine. But when the frost begins to set in sharp,

they should then be gathered. Where there are several bunches on one branch it may be cut off, leaving about six inches in length, or more, of the wood, according to the distance between the bunches, and a little on the outside of the fruit at each end; both ends being sealed with some common sealing-wax, such as wine-merchants use for sealing their bottles with, which you may buy at the wax-chandler's; then hang them across a line in a dry room, taking care to clip out with a pair of scissors any of the berries that begin to decay or become mouldy, which if left would taint the others. In this way he has kept grapes till the 6th of February; but if they are cut before the bunches are too ripe, they may be kept much longer than that period.

They may also be kept, he contends, by packing them in jars, (every bunch being first wrapped up in soft paper,) and covering every layer with bran, which should be well dried before it is used, laying a little in the bottom of the jar; then a layer of grapes alternately, till the jar is filled, then shaking it gently, and filling it to the top with bran, laying some paper over it, and covering the top with a bladder tied firmly on to exclude the air; when the top or cover of the jar should be put on, observing that it fits as close as possible, placing them in a room where a fire is kept in wet or damp weather.

Methods of forcing Vines.—This is performed in different sorts of buildings contrived for the purpose; such as hot-walls and vineries, as well as by hot-houses or stoves. See VINERY.

It is suggested by the Scotch Forcing Gardener, that in the former cases, when the borders have been prepared and made up in the manner directed under the head VINERY; when proper plants of one or two years' growth in pots cannot be procured, cuttings should be made use of. Others, however, prefer cuttings in all cases, planting two in each hole, to guard against failure, the weakest, where both grow, being afterwards removed. These should be planted about the beginning of April, being chosen from good-bearing vines, and such shoots as are well ripened, otherwise they never make good plants. The distance they should be allowed to remain is about six feet. In planting them out, holes should be opened with a spade, about eighteen inches deep; the cuttings being laid in the holes a little sloping, the earth being then filled into the holes, and gently pressed with the foot to them, and raised in a heap so as just to cover the uppermost eyes, afterwards applying a little mulch on the surface of the ground about them to prevent the sun and air from drying the earth; and when the spring is very dry, a little water should be given once a week.

Under this management they usually make strong shoots the first summer.

But the above writer, where rooted plants are employed, advises the pits to be half filled with vegetable mould, and the plants to be taken carefully out of the pots with their balls entire, and, unless when rooted, be placed in that manner in the pits, filling them in with vegetable mould, and settling them with a little water. This work, in his opinion, may be performed any time from the beginning of November to the 1st of March, with equal success. But though the above distance of planting may be proper when the vines are full grown, it may be beneficial to have them put in at half that distance at first; as a crop or two may be obtained before it is necessary to thin them out; two of a kind being placed together for the greater convenience of thinning.

The management of the vines, for the three first years after planting, is the same as practised for those against common

common walls, which has been described above, being, however, encouraged as much as possible, and the shoots not left too long, or too many in number on each root, that they may be duly ripened and prepared for bearing the fourth year, which is the soonest they should be forced; when any sorts of fruit-trees are forced by fire too young, they seldom continue long in health; so that what fruit they produce is small, and not well-flavoured. By the middle of June the grapes will be almost full grown, therefore the glasses may be kept off continually in the day-time, unless the season be very cold and wet, in which case they must be kept on, and only opened when the weather is favourable; for as the racy vinous flavour of these fruits is increased by a free air, so during the time of their ripening they should have as large a share as the season will admit to be given them. Mr. Nicol advises in the first and second seasons, to keep the border in a moderately moist state while the plants are growing; but, after their growth begins to abate, particularly the second season, to withhold the waterings by degrees till it is quite stopped, in order to make them harden and ripen their shoots for the production of a crop the third year. Water frequently with the drainings of a dunghill. And wash with the hand-engine twice or thrice a week in the evening, in order to refresh and keep the plants clean. Steaming is, he thinks, unnecessary.

And in the third season, keep the border also in a moderately moist state, till the fruit begin their last swelling. Then give large quantities till they begin to colour; after which, entirely withhold it till the crop is gathered; and then give two or three hearty waterings, to recover the state the border ought to remain in for the winter.

He likewise advises to wash twice or thrice a week till the flowers begin to open, then to withhold till the fruit is fairly set; washing again till they begin to colour, and then withhold entirely for the season. And in the interim of washing, to steam every night when the fire is at the strongest, by pouring water on the flues till you cannot see an object at the distance of two or three yards; and repeat this early in the morning, if the temperature of the house require the making of fires, or if there is a sufficient heat in the flues to produce it, even in a middling degree.

The insects which infest the grape-house are chiefly the green fly, thrips, red spider, and wasp. The two first are, Mr. Nicol conceives, easily destroyed by a fumigation of tobacco; the third is kept under by the engine in summer; and the last, by the destruction of their nests, phials filled with honey and water, or sugar and small beer, and bird-lime. All these methods are, however, sometimes ineffectual for the destruction of wasps, where they abound in great number; and their fondness for grapes renders it sometimes necessary to inclose the bunches in bags of gauze, or silken paper, which is a misfortune; as the grapes, by being so much excluded from the action of the sun and air, fall off very much in flavour. Birds must also be guarded against by some means or other.

All sorts of grapes should continue on the trees till fully ripe. It is advised by some, that these vines should not be forced every year, but under good management every other year, or every third year. Of course, in order to have a supply of fruit annually, there should be a sufficient extent of walling to contain as many vines as are necessary for two or three years; and by having the frames in front moveable, they may be shifted from one part of the wall to another, as the vines are alternately forced. These hot-walls are commonly planted with early kinds of grapes, in order to have them forward in the season; though some think it hardly worth the trouble, in order to have a few grapes earlier by

a month or six weeks, than those against common walls. The sorts of vines most useful in this mode of culture have been mentioned above.

After these vines are grown to full bearing, they must be pruned and managed after the same manner as has been directed for those against common walls, with this difference only, that in those seasons when they are not forced, they should be carefully managed in the summer for a supply of good wood, against the time of their being forced, divesting them of their fruit for the purpose.

But when the vines are forced, the only care is to encourage the fruit, without having much regard to the wood, so that every shoot should be pruned for fruit, and none of them shortened for a supply of young wood; as they may be so managed by pruning in the years of their resting, as to replenish the vines with new wood. Those which are designed for forcing in the spring, should be pruned early in the autumn before, that the buds which are left on the shoots may receive all possible nourishment from the root, and at the same time the shoots should be fastened to the treillis in the order they are to lie; but the glasses should not be placed before the vines till about the middle or end of January, at which time also the fires must be lighted; for if they are forced too early in the year, they will begin to shoot before the weather is warm enough to admit air to the vines, which causes the young shoots to draw out weak, and their joints too far asunder to afford a good and full supply of fruit.

When the fires are made at the above period, the vines begin to shoot the middle or latter end of February, which is six weeks earlier than they usually come out against the common walls; so that by the time that other vines are shooting, these will be in flower, which is early enough to ripen them. The fires should not be made very strong in these walls; as, if the air is heated about ten degrees above the temperate point of the gardener's thermometer, it will be sufficiently warm to force out the shoots leisurely, which is much better than to force them violently. These fires should not be continued all the day-time, unless the weather be very cold, and the sun does not shine to warm the air, at which time it will be proper to have small fires continued all the day; for where the walls are rightly contrived, a moderate fire made every evening, and continued till ten or eleven o'clock at night, will heat the wall, and warm the inclosed air to a proper temperature; and as these fires need not be continued longer than about the end of April, (unless the spring should prove very cold,) the expence of fuel will not be very great, because they may be contrived to burn coal, wood, turf, or almost any other sort of fuel: though where coal is to be had reasonable, it makes the evenest and best fires, and will not require so much attendance. When the vines begin to shoot, they must be frequently looked over, to fasten the new shoots to the treillis, and rub off all dangling shoots; in doing of which great care must be taken; for the shoots of these forced vines are very tender, and very subject to break when any violence is offered. The shoots should also be trained very regular, so as to lie as near as possible to the espalier, and at equal distances, that they may equally enjoy the benefit of the air and sun, which are absolutely necessary for the improvement of the fruit. When the grapes are formed, the shoots should be stopped at the second joint beyond the fruit, that the nourishment may not be drawn away from the fruit in useless shoots, which must be avoided as much as possible in these cases, no useless wood being left to shade the fruit, and exclude the air from it by the leaves.

In speaking of the temperature of the vinery, Mr. Nicol

Nicol recommends, that fire should not be lighted the first season, unless it proves cold or wet, and the wood is not ripened in good time; in which case, a moderate fire heat, from the 1st of September, would greatly encourage the growth, and promote the ripening of the wood. And as the plants will bear gentle forcing the third season, it will be advisable (for that purpose) to forward them the second in a moderate degree. For this purpose, let moderate fires be made about the 1st of April, (by which time the plants will begin to vegetate,) so as to raise the air of the house at six in the morning, and eight at night, to about 55°; in the course of a fortnight increase it to 60°; and in another fortnight to 70°; at which let it continue till the 1st or middle of June, and then be totally discontinued for the season. But in the third season, the forcing may commence on the 1st of March, without injuring the plants; and, if carefully performed, a fair crop of fruit be obtained. Begin then by making and regulating the fires, so that the thermometer may not stand above 50° at seven in the morning, and eight or nine at night; keeping it to till every eye in the house is broken, and then gradually increase it to 60, 65, 70, and when the bloom begins to open, to 75 degrees. He has already hinted, that vegetation in forcing ought to be brought on as it were by stealth; which is the cause of his advising the above gradual and progressive rise in the climate of the house: and where this is not particularly attended to in the first stage of the operation, disappointments will follow, as the plants will not break their eyes (and of consequence not shew fruit) regularly. He advises to keep the air of the house as near to 75°, till the fruit is fairly set, as possible, as grapes in general are found to set best in a moist heat of about 75°. But he has found by experience that all the kinds of frontinacs require a much greater degree of heat, not only when in flower, but from the time the clusters are distinguishable; while those of the white sweet-water, and white royal muscadines, require a much less degree; the former being apt to curl up and become sterile for want of heat, and the latter to produce a greater quantity of small berries in consequence of too much. Therefore, where there is any difference of climate (which is sometimes occasioned by the placing of the fire-places) in the house, this hint should be taken advantage of. But it may then be let down to 70° or 72°; at which endeavour to keep it till the crop is all gathered; after which, no further attention to the climate is necessary. It is added, that in the following season, the forcing may, when requisite, be begun a month or six weeks sooner; as about the middle of January, or 1st of February; in which early season great attention must be paid to the regulation of the fire-heat.

It is further observed, that a month may be gained every season (where there are two or three grape-houses; and it is required to have grapes at a very early season), until you begin to force the first so early as the 1st of October; but where there is but one or two houses, the 1st of March in the one case, and of January in the other, is, he thinks, quite soon enough.

It is advised in the same work, that as the season advances, and the weather becomes warm, there should be a proportionable share of free air admitted to the vines every day, which is absolutely necessary to promote the growth of the fruit; but the glasses should be shut close every night, unless in very hot weather, otherwise the cold dews in the night will retard it. The bunches in some of the forts should be carefully looked over, and the small grapes cut out with very narrow-pointed scissors, in order to thin them. Mr. Nicol also recommends a due portion of

air to be admitted every day after planting, from sun-rise to sun-set, until the buds begin to break; after which a more punctual regulation should be observed, being guided much by the temperature of the weather, and the quantity of sun-shine, but admitting less or more every day, unless the severity of frosty winds renders it imprudent to do so. And as the summer advances, to be very liberal in this article in serene weather; as it greatly tends to the strengthening of the young shoots. It is, he thinks, a practice with many to uncover grape-houses in winter; this he never did, not so much disapproving of the practice, as owing to the expense attending it, not only in removing and putting on, but in breaking the glasses, and waiting the fumes by the extremes of frost and blanching rains. His method is to admit an equal and free circulation of air, by opening the sashes alternately at top, bottom, and middle, to the extent of at least a third part of the whole covering, and letting them remain so day and night; never shutting up for any cause but that of too much wet. In the second season, much the same regulation should be observed as above; and, if fire is applied for the forwarding of the wood, due attention should be paid at that time, as the sudden breaking out of the sun in dull weather, when there is a good deal of fire-heat in the house, is attended with much danger. Supposing the plants to have made good wood for the production of a crop, and that they are to be forced from the 1st of March, let the house be shut up at night from the middle of February, and have the same quantity of air in the day it enjoyed all winter. From the time the fire is lighted, give a moderate quantity every day if possible, till the buds have all broke, to the extent that in sun-shine the thermometer may not rise more than ten degrees above the fire-heat medium; but after the buds have broke, and the temperature of the house is increased, be careful in the admission of frosty, or foul damp air. The latter may be entirely excluded, except perhaps for an hour or two in the middle of the day; and the bad effects of the former, by opening the top sashes only a little way, to pass off the rarefied air occasioned by the sun-heat, which is frequently very intense in clear frosty weather in the months of March and April. In clear sun-shining weather, his mode of practice is to give and take away air by degrees; that is, by giving half air about eight in the morning, full air about ten or eleven, reducing to half air about two or three, and shutting up about four or five in the afternoon, according to the season. It is necessary from the time the fruit begins to colour, to give large portions of air till the crop is all gathered, the flavour being much augmented by it; and afterwards to expose the house night and day for the winter, as directed above; shutting up, however, if much wet or hard frost should happen during the first ten or twelve days after the plants have been pruned for the winter season.

In the latter mode of forcing, or that in hot-houses or pine-stoves, after they have been properly prepared and rendered dry in the bottom parts, the area should be filled up with a compost-mould composed of one-fourth strong loam; one-fourth turf, from a pasture where the soil is a sandy loam; one-fourth sweepings or scrapings of pavements or hard roads; one-eighth rotten cow and stable-yard dung mixed; and one-eighth of vegetable mould from decayed oak-leaves: the grafts must be well rotted, and the whole worked together till it is uniformly mixed. Where sandy loam cannot be had, common sand may be used; and the mould of rotten sticks or old woods, or from hollow trees, may be substituted for the decayed leaves.

When the border has been prepared, if the weather per-
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mit, the vines may be planted at the end of February, or the beginning of March, in the front of the hot-house or stove; having first taken the precaution to put a little moss round the upper part of each item, with two or three folds of paper over it, tied with bafs matting, to prevent the eyes from being injured in putting the plants through the holes in the wall. A hole, two feet over, and one foot deep, should be made opposite to each rafter, and close to the front wall, making the mould taken out of the holes fine, and adding a little of the compost. Then turn the plant carefully out of its pot, and put the upper part through the hole. If the shoot just reach the bottom of the rafter, when planted, it is sufficient; but as the earth may settle a little, it is better to allow two or three inches more. In closing the mould to the plant, care should be taken to preserve the roots; their fibres being exceedingly brittle. Lay a thin coat of rotten dung over the mould, and give the plant a gentle watering; then take off the bandage, and fasten the top of the shoot to the rafter. Only one shoot should remain on each plant. Two may be left for a time; but when one is secure, the other must be taken off, but not close to the old wood, as that would occasion it to bleed, and greatly injure it.

It is observed in addition, that from the time the vines begin to grow, they will require constant watering, especially in dry weather, and before the roots have penetrated sufficiently deep into the border or earth in which they are planted. It is the common practice, in these cases, to train a shoot up to each rafter; and if the rafters be not a sufficient depth to keep the leaves of the vines from touching the glass, to have iron pins, of about nine inches in length, fixed at proper distances under each rafter; which should have a small hole or eye at the bottom, through which a small iron rod or strong wire should be thrust for the support of the branch, which pins or wires should be painted.

Mr. Forsyth, however, remarks, that when vines are trained straight up the rafters in this manner, they only throw out a few eyes at the top, the rest of the branch being naked; he therefore advises the serpentine method, as much preferable.

The plants often bear fruit at one year old, but it should not be suffered to stand, except a single bunch, to ascertain the sort. In the summer season, the shoots should be constantly trained, keeping them regularly fastened to the rafters; diverting them of their wires and lateral shoots, and guarding them well against the red spider and other insects.

The vines may in general be suffered to run two-thirds of the length of the rafters before they are stopped; and those which grow remarkably strong, the whole length. When these shoots are stopped, which is done by pinching off their tops, they will, in general, push out laterals, at three or four eyes on the upper part of the shoot, which should be allowed to grow twelve or fourteen inches before their tops are pinched off; when these in their turn will push out other laterals, which should be pinched off at the second or third joint; and thus the sap may be diverted till the end of the season.

When the leaves begin to fall is the best season for pruning. In the first season, supposing the vines to have grown with equal vigour, the shoots may be pruned alternately to three, four, or five eyes, or about twenty feet; but when they have grown moderately strong, the shoots should be pruned down to about eleven feet; as by this alternate pruning the former shoots will make fine wood for the succeeding season, and the latter will produce a crop of

fruit; after which, these fruit-bearing shoots must all be cut down nearly to the bottom of the rafters. But when any of the plants appear weak, and have not made shoots more than eight, ten, or twelve feet long, it will be proper to prune every shoot down to two, three, or four eyes. In performing the work, the shoots should be taken off with a clean sloping stroke, about half an inch above the eye, making choice of a bold eye to terminate the shoot, and fastening it to the rafter in a complete manner.

The vines in pine-stoves begin to make weak shoots early in January; the house being then kept warm on account of early crops raised in moist hot-houses. But when it is kept to a proper degree of heat for pines during the winter months, they seldom begin to push till about the middle of February. It is usual for them to push only towards the ends of the shoots, the other eyes remaining in a dormant state, and causing a long space of naked wood; but to make them push more generally, as soon as the sap is in motion, the house should be kept for a short time a few degrees warmer than usual. In the morning the thermometer should be five or six degrees above temperature, and in the day-time the house be kept as warm as the weather will permit. It will also be necessary to guard the stem of the vine on the outside against frost; for one severe night would greatly injure, if not totally destroy, the hopes of a crop. This may be done by wrapping the part exposed round with moss, fastened thick with bafs matting; which covering should remain on till spring frosts are over, and then the stem be washed well to clean it. The vines should be divested of the least promising and supernumerary shoots as soon as possible, and great care should be taken not to leave too abundant a crop; as a few bunches in a high state of perfection are preferable to many in a poor state.

At the time of flowering, should the weather prove hot and dry, with brisk winds; to prevent the berries of different sorts from falling off at the time of their setting, it is proper to water the roots of the vines plentifully, to keep the house as close as the weather will permit, and to water the walks and flues in the hot-house constantly, especially late in the evening, when the glasses should be immediately closed, by which a beneficial frost of dew is produced.

In these situations, when the grapes are at their last swelling, are becoming transparent, and change from green to red or black, and till they are nearly on the point of being ripe, plentiful supplies of water, especially if the season prove hot and dry, should be given to the vines.

After the fruit is cut, no other management is required till the pruning season, but that of taking off the lateral shoots in the same manner as in the preceding case. But in the next winter's pruning, all the vines that produced a full crop of fruit should be cut down nearly to the bottom, that is, to the lowermost summer shoot, which should also be cut down to the first or second eye; while all those that were cut down nearly in the preceding season, and which will, in general, have made very strong wood, must be left to the length of twenty-one or twenty-two feet each, with the intention of producing a full crop of fruit the following season.

The management of them during the next summer will be nearly the same as in the preceding; only, as they have increased in strength and size, they will be enabled to produce and support a larger burthen of fruit. But the crop should always be proportioned to the size and vigour of the plants; but whilst they are young, great moderation should be used as to the number of bunches that are allowed to stand and ripen. They should be well thinned when the berries are about the size of a small shot. And the main
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shoulders, as also the left projecting parts of the bunch, should be suspended by small strings to the rafters, and every part raised to a horizontal position. In thinning the berries, great care should be taken to leave all the most projecting ones on every side of the bunch. In very close-growing bunches, it will be necessary to clip out more than two-thirds of the berries; in some one-half; but in the loose-growing kinds, one-third is generally sufficient. By this means the remaining berries will swell well, grow to a great size, and not be subject to rot; as they are apt to do in a hot-house, when they are wedged together in a close manner.

It is observed too, that not only the rafters or roof of the hot-house, but the back wall also above the flue, may be furnished with fruit. For this purpose, let every fourth or fifth vine-plant be trained in one shoot quite to the top of the rafter, and then directed sideways ten or twelve feet along the top of the back wall. At the winter's pruning, bring down the part of the shoot perpendicularly, and cut it off at one foot above the top of the flue. The next spring encourage only two shoots from the two extreme or lowermost eyes of each shoot so brought down, and train them in a horizontal direction one foot above the top of the flue. These shoots, however, will grow with greater readiness, if they are trained upwards during the summer; and they may easily be brought to the desired position at the next winter's pruning. They will then form against the back wall the figure of the letter T inverted. And in the next season the horizontal shoots will produce new wood from almost every eye, provided all the shoots be pinched off from every other part as soon as they appear; laying in the shoots from one to two feet apart, according to the kind of vine. And it is advised in these cases, to train all the shoots in a perpendicular direction, and, provided they are strong and vigorous, to suffer them to grow to the length of five or six feet before they are stopped; but all these must be cut down to two or three eyes at the next winter's pruning. And only one shoot should be permitted to rise from each spur the following season; and though they will in general be sufficiently strong, and produce two or three bunches a-piece, yet only one bunch should remain on each shoot: these will then be large and fine, and the wood will be greatly benefited by such practice. But these shoots must be pruned next winter very differently. One shoot must be left four feet, that next it only a few inches long, and so alternately. It is added that the vines on the rafters will require a management in future seasons nearly similar to that described above; and though it may not be advisable to prune them alternately so near to the bottom of the rafters as was directed for the two preceding seasons, it will be frequently found necessary to cut an old shoot down to the lowermost summer shoot, as near to the bottom of the rafter as can be. The side-shoot on the other rafters should not be permitted to ramble over the adjoining lights; but at the end of every season it will be proper to cut such shoots down to the second or third eye next the old wood, provided the bottom eyes are bold and strong: this must be done not only to strengthen the vines, but also to prevent the roof of the house from being too much crowded with old wood. Whilst the vines are young, one rafter will suffice for a vine-plant; but when they become older, they will require a larger space; especially the strong-growing kinds, which produce large leaves and bunches of fruit. It will be proper therefore to train shoots sideways on the wall-plate, from the stem of the plant, immediately at its entrance into the house. These shoots should be carried up the adjoining rafters, and the plants growing against such

rafters must be taken entirely away; except it should happen that the plant growing against such rafter is trained forward to furnish the back wall. And when a vine-plant occupies two or more rafters, it will be right to prune occasionally, particularly whilst the vine is young, one or more of such shoots down nearly to the bottom of the rafter, as this will not only contribute to strengthen the plant, but afford means to furnish the rafters with a succession of young wood. When the shoots are thus conducted to different rafters, every one may be considered as a separate plant, and be trained up in one shoot; requiring management similar to that mentioned above. Mr. Nicol, however, rejects the method of planting the vines on the outside of the houses, and his reasons are these: first, he thinks it unnatural that one part of a plant should be as it were in Greenland, and the other in the West Indies; and secondly, because he is convinced that no plant (especially the pine) will live and thrive as well under the shade of another, as when exposed to the free sun and air. To obviate these objections, he plants the vines in the lobbies between the stoves and peach and grape houses; introducing them through the partitions, and training them horizontally on trellises fixed against the back walls and upright sashes in front. By which means he renders each of the stoves as good as any grape-house, without being in the least injurious to the pines.

In these cases, he states that the front walls of the lobbies were built on pillars; and a border, both without and within, prepared for the plants, in the same manner as for the grape-house. It is added, that in one trial, the second year after introduction into the stoves, the plants completely filled the whole trellis; and a fine crop, the third year, gave a lustre and richness to the house (in conjunction with a good crop of pines) highly gratifying.

He remarks farther, that the same methods in regard of watering, washing, and steaming, are to be practised here as in the grape-house. Air is admitted solely for the sake, and to answer the nature, of the pines; the temperature of the house is also regulated for their sakes. But the mode of training and pruning is very different from that in the grape-house. Here, you have it not in your power to bring on vegetation in that slow manner as in the grape-house; and consequently, were the shoots to be laid in at as great lengths, they would only break perhaps a few eyes at the extremities, and the rest remain naked. This he found from experience to be the case; although it did not happen for the first three or four years, owing to the youth and vigour of the plants: but when they had exhausted themselves a little by bearing a few crops, they began to break their buds in the manner above slated. He therefore made it a practice to train them only to five or six feet in summer, and shorten them down to one or two in the pruning season; by which they generally broke all their eyes, and produced plenty of fruit. He further states, that in one house he tried, for two seasons, to produce crops by laterals; but found that method attended with more inconvenience than the above, from the difficulty of procuring a proper succession of strong shoots to produce the laterals, without which they bear very insignificant clusters. He also, in the other house, produced a second crop, for two seasons; but finding it to exhaust the plants very much, he discontinued it; the more especially, as, having so many compartments for grapes, the practice of it was the less necessary. The method is, he remarks, this: just about the time the fruit is half ripe, and when the under part of the shoot is also ripe to the length of about two or three feet, and the extremity of it in a growing state, shorten it at about two or three feet above the ripe part. It will push again,

again, and will generally bring two clusters. Sometimes, also, the second and third eye will push, and bring a cluster or two. In winter pruning, shorten down the first, or spring-made part of the shoot, to two or three feet. This method may be repeated, he thinks, with pretty good success once in two or three years: but, if done every year, it will (in the course of three or four years) occasion the cutting of the plants down to the ground, in order to make them put forth a fresh stock of wood. He adds, however, that in the event of severe frost, and the plants being in an early state of vegetation, the border on the outside should be covered with a quantity of stable dung, or long litter, to prevent the roots from being injured by the weather. And unless the plants are wished to produce a second crop, they must not be pruned for good sooner than October, and at the same time, that operation should not be deferred longer than the first week of November, lest, when they begin to vegetate, they should bleed. He concludes by observing, that grape-vines will bear forcing, and last for many years, when under judicious management.

Some useful remarks have lately been offered, by the writer of a paper in the second volume of the Transactions of the Horticultural Society of London, on the management of the grape in forcing-houses, in the view of improving the quality of the fruit. There are some circumstances attending the state of vegetation in forcing-houses, it is said, which are not sufficiently regarded by gardeners in general, a strict attention to which is, however, absolutely indispensable for obtaining good fruit of this sort. When a vine is planted in a forcing-house, it receives, it is said, an increase of warmth from the solar influence operating upon the confined internal air, or from artificial heat communicated by the flues, or conjointly from both these sources. In each such case, when the foliage is expanded, a large portion of moist vapour is, it is maintained, given out from the under sides of the leaves, and becomes mixed with the air in the interior of the house. Plants will not only live, but grow with greater rapidity than ordinary, in a moist atmosphere, if the moisture do not exceed certain bounds. Under these circumstances, however, the annual shoots become large, soft, and spongy, and the fruit, notwithstanding it may have a promising appearance, will prove watery and insipid. A dry atmosphere produces effects, it is said, the reverse of these; the growth in this case is slower, the wood is of a more compact texture, and the fruit, when it arrives at maturity, attains a rich saccharine flavour.

The flavour of the fruit seems, therefore, it is thought, to depend, in a great measure, on the quantity of water daily evaporated from the leaves. Hence the superior strength of the wines made in the warm dry province of La Mancha, in Spain, when compared with those of Portugal. It is from this cause too, it is supposed, that vines growing on the sides of mountains, in the south of Europe, where they experience more ventilation, yield richer grapes, and make better wine, than when cultivated in the neighbouring valleys; though in the latter situation, they experience greater warmth, and the fruit arrives sooner at maturity. Many sorts of common fruit, capable of bearing the open air, on standard trees here too, have it of much better flavour, though of inferior size, than when trained to a wall, owing to the more perfect exposure of the leaves and fruit to the effects of light and ventilation. There is reason to suppose, it is thought, that the injury some varieties of grapes, habitants of warm dry countries, sustain in the hot-houses here, during a continuance of damp and cool cloudy weather, is owing to the accumulation of water in the vessels of the leaves and green fruit, as the writer has frequently

remarked, that an increase of ventilation, during such a state of the atmosphere, will often prevent the injury, particularly if a little warmth be given at the time by the flues. Perhaps, instead of the deep rich composts in which vines are commonly planted, if a light soil, of from eighteen to twenty inches in depth, mixed with stones, or old mortar rubbish was used, the success would be better with the principal summer and autumnal crops of grapes. Vines planted in a soil of this sort will not, it is thought, grow with such exuberant vigour; and that as less water will pass into the plants through the absorbent vessels of the roots; the vines will probably receive less injury in moist cloudy weather, and the fruit will be better flavoured.

When vines are intended to be forced in the winter months, they require to be planted in a deep and rich compost, which should be well drained, for the surface of the soil is then so much chilled by frost, and melting snow, as to prevent the vigorous action of the roots.

The effects of ground heat too have been noticed in houses properly constructed for supplying it. In the early part of the month of February, the natural temperature of the soil, at the depth of thirty inches, is commonly, it is said, about 42° by the thermometer. If the heat of the ground be then raised to 45°, the vines in the course of two days begin to bleed; and when the temperature is gradually raised to 50°, the buds open with as much vigour, as when the forcing is commenced under ordinary circumstances at the latter end of March, when the natural warmth of the ground, owing to the increased excitability of the plant, is fully sufficient.

Forced grapes may be brought to a tolerable degree of perfection, it is said, at almost any season of the year, but in this climate they cannot attain their true flavour, unless they are ripened in the summer or autumn, when the temperature of the external air is such, as to admit of much ventilation, without danger of chilling the vines. It is said that experienced gardeners need not be informed of the necessity of keeping up a regular warmth during the time the vines are in flower, and till the fruit is set; it is, however, a common error, it is believed, which many fall into in the long days of summer, that of closing the lights of the hot-houses they manage too soon in the evening, and not opening them sufficiently early in the morning. In the writer's management, it is the practice, in general, to leave several of the upper lights open about two or three inches all night, from the beginning of July until the middle of October, which prevents that suffocating degree of closeness and musty smell, occasioned by the action of the light on the leaves and condensed water on the inner side of the glass. The flavour of the ripening fruit is greatly improved by allowing this stagnant vapour to escape, and the grapes may by this method be kept from rotting many weeks longer. It is said that in the hands of a judicious gardener, the hygrometer will be found as useful an appendage to the hot-house for grapes as the thermometer. A due degree of moisture during the night, in the early stage of the growth of the plant, accompanied at all times with dry warmth and ventilation in the day time, is a very essential matter to be attended to; as also the avoiding of all artificial moisture, by sprinkling the floor of the house, either in the day or night, in the latter stage when the fruit is ripening. See VINERY.

The same method of management is equally applicable and useful for several other sorts of fruit, such as those of the peach and fig kinds, and many others.

Besides these modes of cultivating vines, they are capable of being grown with advantages under hand-glasses, so as to

produce a few bunches on each plant. This method is now practised in many cases, and found to be very easy and convenient.

The second species requires artificial heat in this climate, and may be increased from seeds, obtained from abroad, which should be sown in small pots, and be plunged into a hot-bed of tanner's-bark. When the plants come up and are fit to remove, they should be each planted out into a separate small pot filled with light earth, and plunged into a fresh hot-bed, shading them from the sun till they have taken new root; when they must be treated in the same way as other tender exotic plants, always continuing them in the stove, otherwise they will not succeed well.

The third should be planted against a wall, and treated in the same way as the common vine, being raised by cuttings or layers in the same manner.

The fourth sort is preserved in some gardens for variety; but it rarely produces flowers in this climate, and has not much beauty. It is increased by laying down the young branches in the spring, which mostly put out roots in one year fit to remove, when they may be taken off and planted out where they are to remain. These require support; and as their young branches are tender, and liable to be killed by frost, they should be planted against a wall, or pale, exposed to the south. The young shoots should be shortened down to two or three buds in the spring, which will cause the shoots of the following summer to be much stronger.

VITIS Idea, in *Botany*. See *VACCINIUM*.

VITISALTUS, a word used by some medical writers for St. Vitus's dance.

VITMANNIA, in *Botany*, so named by Vahl, in honour of the Rev. Fulgentius Vitman, professor of Botany at Milan, author of a kind of *Species Plantarum*, entitled *Summa Plantarum*, in 6 vols. 8vo.—Vahl Symb. v. 3. 51. Willd. Sp. Pl. v. 2. 320. Mart. Mill. Dict. v. 4. (Samadera; Gærtn. t. 156.)—Class and order, *Oleandria Monogynia*. Nat. Ord. akin to *Guttifera* of Juss.

Gen. Ch. *Cal.* Perianth inferior, of one leaf, short, in four rounded concave lobes. *Cor.* Petals four, oblong, equal, obtuse, fleshy, rather concave, externally hoary, many times longer than the calyx. Nectary a small obovate scale at the base of each filament, two opposite ones shortest. *Stam.* Filaments eight, thread-shaped, rather shorter than the petals, smooth; anthers linear, slightly cloven at the base. *Pist.* Germen superior, of four half-orbicular, compressed, slightly connected, lobes, three of which appear to be generally abortive; style central, awl-shaped, the length of the filaments; stigma acute. *Peric.* none? *Seed.* Nut semilunar, compressed, of one cell, with a solitary obovate kernel.

Eff. Ch. Calyx four-cleft. Petals four. Nectary a scale at the base of each filament. Nut crescent-shaped, compressed, with one seed.

1. *V. elliptica*. Oval-leaved Vitmannia. Vahl as above, t. 60. (Samandara; Herm. Zeyl. 5. Linn. Zeyl. 202.)—Native of Ceylon. A tree, with round, smooth, leafy branches. Leaves alternate, on short stalks, elliptical, obtuse, entire, coriaceous, smooth, with one rib, and many fine, transverse, branched veins. *Stipulas* none. *Flowers* in long-stalked lateral umbels, about the ends of the branches. *Petals* not an inch in length. *Nut* various in size, from two to four inches long, sharply two-edged, curved, at first described by Plukenet in his *Manitissa*, p. 12, as a sort of bitter almond. He has misled other authors to cite Rheede's *Nagam*, Hort. Malab. v. 6. 37. t. 21, which is *HERITIERA*, a very different plant. See that article.

VITODURUM, in *Ancient Geography*, a town placed

by the Itin. of Anton. between Vindomissa or Windisch and Fines or Pfin, which, without doubt, was Wintertur.

VITOSCHA, in *Geography*, a mountain of European Turkey, in Bulgaria, on the borders of Romania, at the foot of which are some warm baths.

VITRAGO, in *Botany*, a species of plants, resembling that of which the glass is made. It is otherwise called *helsine*.

VITRE', in *Geography*, a town of France, and principal place of a district, in the department of the Ille and Vilaine; 19 miles E. of Rennes. N. lat. 48° 8'. W. long. 1° 0'.

VITREA TABULA, a name given by some authors to the internal table of the cranium.

VITRESCIBLE, or *VITRIFIABLE*, formed of *vitrum*, *glass*, is a denomination applied to all stones which, joined to alkaline salts, can form glass. In the last century, those stones, which had before been called vitrescible, were called siliceous by Mr. Pott, and after him by Mr. Cronstedt. See *STONE*.

VITREUS HUMOR, or *Vitreous Humour*, in *Anatomy*. See *EYE*.

For the office of the vitreous humour, see *VISION*.

VITREY, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Upper Saône; 6 miles W. of Jussey.

VITRIACO, *PHILIPPUS DE*, in *Biography*, is mentioned with great encomiums by early writers on counterpoint. We found a tract of his writing in the Vatican library, N° 5321, of which we obtained a copy. He is the reputed inventor of the minim, and a composer of motets, which have been very much celebrated by old musical writers. His name very frequently occurs in ancient authors, particularly in England, where he has been commended both in verse and prose. "William Cornish, chapelman to the most famous and noble kynge Henry VII., in a parable between Trouth and Informacion, published in Skelton's works, 12mo. 1736, names him among the greatest musicians upon record.

"And the first principal, whose name was Tuballe, Guido, Boice, John de Muris, Vitriaco, and them all."

An anonymous Latin writer in the Cotton musical manuscript (Brit. Mus.) says he invented the minim, and was a musician universally approved and celebrated in his time. The author of the manuscript in the Bodleian library, attributed to Thomas of Tewkesbury, says the same. Morley, Ravencroft, and Butler, are of this opinion; and Morley tells us, that he used red notes in his motets to imply a change of mode, time, and prolation. Vitriaco, however, makes no mention of such in his tract on counterpoint; and his motets, if they could now be found, which is the transient state of music, would be utterly unintelligible; though Morley tells us, that "they were for some time of all others best esteemed and most used in the church." See *MOTET*.

VITRICIUM, in *Ancient Geography*, a town situated in the Alps, on the route from Italy into Germany, by the Graia Alps, between Eoredia and Augusta Pretoria. Anton. Itin.

VITRIFICATION, or *VITRIFICATION*, the act of converting a body into glass, by means of fire.

Of all bodies, sand, flints, and pebbles, with alkaline salts, vitrify the most easily: accordingly, it is of these that glass is principally made. See *GLASS*.

Gold held, by M. Homberg, near the focus of the duke of Orleans's large burning concave mirror, at first smoked, then changed, all of it that did not go off in fumes, into glass of a deep violet colour. This glass of gold weighs less than gold. Memoirs of the Royal Academy, 1702.

All metals, and even almost all natural bodies, sufficiently heated, vitrify; and this vitrification is the last effect of the fire: after which, the most intense heat of the largest burning-glass will make no farther alteration.

VITRING, in *Geography*, a town of the duchy of Carinthia, with an abbey of Cisterians, on the Wordsee; 4 miles S.W. of Clagenfurt.

VITRINGA, **CAMPEGIUS**, in *Biography*, an eminent Dutch divine, was born at Leewarden in the year 1659, and educated first at Frankfort, and afterwards at Leyden, where he took his doctoral degree in 1679. In 1680 he was admitted to the ministry, and in the same year became professor of the Oriental languages at Franeker. In 1682 he was promoted to the chair of theology; and in 1693, to that of sacred history, in the same university. An apopleptic stroke terminated his life in 1722. He was the author of many learned works in theology and scriptural history; of which one of the most esteemed is his "Observationes Sacre, Lib. VI." 4to. Francf. 1683, and two vols. 4to. 1712. But his most learned work is his "Commentary on Isaiah," in two vols. fol. Leeward. 1714-1720. Vitringa had two sons, *Horace* and *Campegius*, cut off at an early age. The former, who died at 18, published some animadversions on the work of Vorlius on the Hebraisms of the New Testament. The latter, who died in 1723 at the age of 31, was professor of theology at Franeker, and published several works, one of which was "A Summary of Natural Theology." After his decease was published a collection of "Several Dissertations" on criticism and theology. Moreri.

VITRIOL, **NATIVE**, in *Mineralogy*, is a substance of greyish or yellowish-white, apple or verdigris-green, or sky-blue colour; and when decomposed, covered with an ochrey crust. It occurs in mass, disseminated, stalactical, and capillary. Externally it is rough and dull; internally it is more or less shining, with a vitreous or silky structure. Its fracture is generally fine and straight fibrous, sometimes also lamellar and conchoidal. It is soft, brittle, and translucent, and has an acerb metallic flavour. It is more or less soluble in water, and is a mixture in various proportions of the sulphate of iron, copper, and zinc. It is not unfrequently found in caverns and shafts, in argillaceous schistus, and in old mines, especially such as abound in blende and pyrites. Aikin.

Some take the word *vitriolum* to be used *quasi vitri oleum*, because of its shining colour; but Menage rather derives it à *vitreo colore*: the Latins call it *atramentum futurium*; and the Greeks, *chalcantibus*.

It acquires different names, according to the different places where it is dug; and the vitriols of those all differ from each other in denomination and colour; some being *white*, others *blue*, and others *green*.

Roman and Cyprus vitriol, for instance, is blue; and that of Sweden and Germany, commonly called English vitriol, is green; besides which there is also a white kind, called Gollar vitriol.

Vitriol is very commonly called by the manufacturers *copperas*; accordingly, we constantly hear of green, blue, and white copperas. The constituent parts of the different kinds of vitriols were not understood by the ancients so well as they are at present: they seem to have had an idea, that copper was the basis of them all: hence the Greek term for vitriol, *chalcantibus*, the efflorescence of copper, and the Latin one, *cuprosa* or *cupri rosa*, the flower or efflorescence of copper; from which, says Dr. Watson, the French *reuperoise*, and our *copperas*, are evidently derived. See **CABRUS**.

Some moderns take the *chalcitis*, or *chalcantibus* of the ancients, which they supposed to be a native vitriol, that had acquired, according to their opinion, its full perfection in the entrails of the earth, and which is a kind of mineral stone, of a reddish colour, to be the same with that chalcantibus brought from Sweden and Germany; the best of which is of a brownish-red colour, and a vitriolic taste, and dissolves easily in water; and when broken, is of the colour of shining copper. See **VITRIOLIC Minerals**.

The vitriols which nature prepares are never to be met with in commerce; they serve to adorn the cabinets of the curious, but they are neither sufficiently pure for the purposes to which common vitriols are applied, nor are they found in sufficient quantities to answer the demand which is made for them.

VITRIOL, in *Chemistry*, is a term that is now applied to every combination of the acid of sulphur with any metallic substance: three of these combinations, however, are more particularly distinguished, being of great use in various manufactures; viz. *green vitriol* or *sulphate of Iron* (which see), *blue vitriol* or *sulphate of copper* (see **COPPER** and **COPPERAS**), and *white vitriol* or *sulphate of zinc*. (See **ZINC**.) The acid in all these vitriols is the same; the metallic basis of the green vitriol is iron, that of the blue vitriol is copper, and that of the white vitriol, zinc.

According to the analysis of fir Torbern Bergman, (Essays, by Cullen, vol. i. p. 180.) 100 parts of blue vitriol, or vitriolated copper, crystallized, contain 26 of copper, 46 of vitriolic or sulphuric acid, and 28 of water. According to Kirwan, 100 parts contain 30 of real acid, 27 of copper, and 43 of water. The taste is acerecent, æruginous, and caustic; it calcines in heat; one part, in a moderate heat, requires nearly four parts of water, but much less of boiling water. Of white vitriol, or vitriolated zinc, 100 parts contain 20 of zinc, 40 of vitriolic acid, and 40 of water. According to Kirwan, 100 parts contain 22 of acid, 20 of zinc, and 58 of water. In a moderate heat, one part requires more than two of water, but much less of boiling water. Its taste is acerecent, affringent, and caustic. Of green vitriol, or vitriolated iron, 100 parts contain 23 of iron, 39 of vitriolic acid, and 38 of water. According to Mr. Kirwan, 100 parts of it, recently crystallized, contain 20 of real acid, 25 of iron, and 55 of water. In moderate heat, one part requires six of water, but three-fourths of boiling water. In heat it splits into a yellow powder; in the fire, into a ferruginous powder. The taste is acerecent, styptic, and caustic.

Green vitriol is often met with native in our coal-mines. From an old cannel coal-pit, near Wigan in Lancashire, Dr. Watson procured a considerable quantity of it, very well crystallized; and Dr. Ruttly has observed, that the vitriolic water at Haigh, in Lancashire, is the strongest in Britain, yielding 1920 grains of vitriol from a gallon of water. See **VITRIOLIC Waters**.

The *green vitriol*, or sulphate of iron, commonly called English vitriol or copperas, and the Roman vitriol of the Italian writers, is prepared at Deptford, near London, and many other places, from martial pyrites, which is a native sulphuret of iron, and is found in abundance on Sheppey isle, the isle of Wight, and various other parts of the Essex, Kentish, Suffex, and Dorsetshire coasts. By exposing this to the air in large beds, oxygen is absorbed; the sulphur becomes sulphuric acid, and the new-formed salt is separated by washing, &c.

Much after the same manner vitriol is made from the pyrites found among coal: there are manufactories of it near Wigan, at Whitehaven, at Newcastle-upon-Tyne, and in several

VITRIOL.

several other parts of the kingdom. But all the vitriol works have sunk in value of late years; the home consumption of vitriol being much diminished, since the acid, which used to be procured from the distillation of vitriol, has been obtained from the burning of sulphur. For the ancient and modern method of obtaining this acid, we refer to the article *SULPHURIC Acid*.

It is not easy to determine when this method of making vitriol was introduced into England. In the beginning of the reign of queen Elizabeth, a patent was granted to Cornelius Devoz for making alum and coppers; but it was not till towards the end of the 17th century, that this art of making vitriol was brought to so great a perfection as to enable us to export any of it; and indeed Dr. Campbell (*Surv. of Brit. vol. ii. p. 21.*) assures us, that at the latter end of the 17th century we imported annually about five hundred tons of vitriol, and that we now export upwards of two thousand tons. It appears from Sir Charles Whitworth's Register of Trade, N^o 1, that there were exported, from the port of London alone, near four hundred tons of coppers in three months, in 1776. A small quantity of vitriol, perhaps to the annual amount of fifty or sixty tons, says Dr. Watson, is still imported into England; some particular dyers, and other artists, being of opinion, that the foreign vitriol, as containing a little copper, is more useful to them than the English vitriol. It may be easily known whether green vitriol contains any copper, by only rubbing the vitriol to be examined upon a moistened piece of polished iron; for if there is any copper in its composition, the iron will be changed into a copper colour.

Vitriol is also prepared from mineral waters that hold copper in solution, which is precipitated by iron: this solution of iron is afterwards crystallized, and always retains some copper. In Hungary it is prepared from pyritaceous schists, and in many places from a species of calamine; the vitriol of Goslar commonly contains a portion of zinc, as that of Hungary and Saxony does of copper; the English and French vitriols are purer, and yet sometimes contain a small proportion of alum. Turf and peat are sometimes impregnated with vitriol; other earths also often contain vitriol and alum. This vitriol is sometimes found of a white colour, on the borders of the mineral lakes of Tuscany.

Pure vitriol of iron is considerably transparent, of a fine bright, though not very deep, grass-green colour; of a nauseous, astringent taste, accompanied with a kind of sweetishness. Dissolved, and set to crystallize, it shoots into thick rhomboidal masses, a part generally rising at the same time in efflorescences about the sides of the vessel. The solution deposits, in standing, a considerable quantity, and in boiling a much larger one, of the metallic basis of the vitriol, in form of a rusty calx or ochre: iron seems to be the only metallic body that thus separates spontaneously, in any considerable quantity, from the vitriolic acid. On exposing the vitriol itself to a moist air, a similar resolution happens on its surface; which, sooner or later, according as the acid is more or less saturated with the metal, changes its green to a rusty hue. In a warm dry air, it loses a part of the phlegm or water, necessary to its crystalline form, and falls by degrees into a white powder. Exposed to a gentle fire, it liquefies and boils up; but soon changes, on the exhalation of the watery part that rendered it fluid, to a solid, opaque, whitish, or grey mass: this pulverized, and urged with a stronger fire, continues to emit fumes, becomes yellow, being the *vitriolum calcinatum* of the London and Edinburgh Dispensatories; afterwards red, and at length turns to a deep purplish-red calx, called *colcothar of vitriol*, and the *chalcitis factitia* of the Paris Pharmacopœia, revivable

by inflammable substances into iron. This colcothar was formerly sold at Paris for ten-pence a pound, and used for giving the last polish to plate-glass, at the great manufactory in the street St. Antoine. The plate of glass, when first cast, is an inch thick; its asperities are ground away with a coarse kind of grit-stone, with sand and emery, of different degrees of fineness, and it is at last polished by colcothar. Dr. Watson suggested to the proprietors of the plate-glass manufactory, near Prescot, in Lancashire, and to the patentees for polishing marble, at Ashford, in Derbyshire, that colcothar, which is very cheap, might perhaps render the use of putty, or calcined tin, less necessary. From the colcothar of vitriol is prepared the *ens veneris*.

From the green vitriol the vitriolic acid, now called sulphuric acid, has been generally extracted; by distilling the calcined vitriol in earthen long necks, with a strong fire continued for two days or longer; though it is now mostly obtained by collecting the vapour of burning sulphur.

The distilled spirit appears of a dark blackish colour, and contains a quantity of phlegm, greater or less, according as the vitriol has been less or more calcined. On committing it a second time to distillation, in a glass retort placed in a sand-bath, the phlegmatic parts rise first, together with a portion of the acid, and are kept apart under the name of *spirit*, or *weak spirit of vitriol*, *spiritus vitrioli tenuis* of the London Dispensatory: at the same time, the remaining *strong spirit*, or oil, as it is called, loses its black colour, and becomes clear; in which state it is the *acidum vitriolicum* of the Edinburgh Dispensatory, and the *spiritus vitrioli fortis* of that of London; and this is the usual mark for discontinuing the rectification.

The College of Edinburgh now directs a weak vitriolic acid of more certain strength, made by mixing one part of the strong acid with seven parts of water: this is called *acidum vitriolicum tenue*, vulgò *spiritus vitrioli tenuis*. See *SULPHURIC Acid*.

Blue vitriol, or vitriol of copper, is commonly called Roman or Cyprian vitriol, or blue-stone. After being long exposed to the air, it degenerates into a mixture of blue and rusty yellow. It requires about four times its weight of water to dissolve it in the temperature of 60°. Its specific gravity is about 2.23. This salt rarely occurs crystallized, but is often found naturally dissolved in water, in Hungary, Sweden, and Ireland; from which water blue vitriol is generally prepared, by evaporating the water to a proper standard; after which it is let out into coolers, where it shoots into regular and beautiful crystals of a rhomboidal form. See *ZIMENT Water*.

It is also occasionally extracted from sulphurated copper ores after torrefaction, by the application of water, or washed out by rain or subterraneous waters. Mr. Cronstedt says it is seldom free from iron and zinc. If a piece of clean polished iron be dipped into the solution of this salt, it will almost immediately be covered with a cupreous coat: this, together with the deep blue colour arising from mixing it with a volatile alkali, discovers its basis; as its uniform mixture with other vitriolic salts does its acid. Hence it also appears, that the acid of vitriol has a greater affinity with iron than with copper, because it quits copper to unite itself with iron. This fact explains, in a very satisfactory manner, the nature of that transmutation of iron into copper, which was formerly considered as a perplexing phenomenon. Agricola speaks of waters in the neighbourhood of Newfol, in Hungary, which had the property of transmuting the iron which was put into them into copper. In the year 1673, our countryman, Dr. Brown, visited a famous coppermine at Herrn-Grundt, near Newfol; and he informs us, that

VITRIOL.

that he there saw two springs, called the old and new Ziment, which turned iron into copper. The iron in this case is taken up by the water, and remains suspended in it, in the place of the copper: so that this transmutation is nothing but a change of place; and as the copper is precipitated by the iron, so the iron might be precipitated by pot-ash, or any other substance which has a greater affinity with the acid of vitriol than iron has.

The cause of the impregnation of these copper waters in Germany is not difficult to be explained. Most copper-ores contain sulphur, and when the sulphur is in any degree decomposed, its acid unites itself to the copper, and forms blue vitriol, which is the substance with which the waters issuing from the copper-mines are impregnated. The copper contained in these waters has been for some centuries collected in Germany, by putting old iron into pits filled with the coppery water; and thus the iron is dissolved, and the copper is precipitated, and being raked out in the form of mud, it is afterwards melted into very fine copper. The quantity of copper procured by an hundred tons of iron amounts sometimes to ninety tons, and seldom to less than eighty-four. Of late years some successful attempts of this kind have been made in England and Ireland. See COPPER.

In the Isle of Anglesey, near Paris mountain, which abounds in copper ore, the water in which the roasted ore is washed is so strongly impregnated with copper, that they have found it useful to adopt the German method of precipitating it by means of old iron, and they have obtained in one year near a hundred tons of copper, precipitated from this water. The water, after the copper has been precipitated by means of iron, is at present thrown away; whereas, by evaporation, it would yield green vitriol; and as above a hundred tons of iron must be employed in obtaining the forementioned quantity of copper, Dr. Watson suggests, whether a manufactory of green vitriol might not be established at this and at all other places where copper is obtained by precipitation. One hundred tons of iron would yield, at the least, two hundred tons of vitriol, which, at the low price of 3*l.* per ton, would defray the expence of extracting it; more especially as the watery solution might be evaporated by a proper application of part of that heat, which is now lost in all the great smelting houses.

The greatest part of the blue vitriol, now met with in the shops, is prepared in England, by artificially combining copper with its sulphur or its acid. The method of making the preparation by the glass-makers is this: Take little thin pieces of brass, and lay them stratum super stratum in a crucible, with powder of brimstone. When the vessel is full, let it luted and covered in an open wind-furnace, with burning coals over it, and let it stand two hours; then let the furnace cool of itself, and take out the crucible, the mass within will be of an obscure blackish-purple; powder it and sift it fine, and then mixing with every pound of it six ounces of powdered brimstone, take a round vessel of earth, that will bear the fire, place it upon iron bars set across in an open wind-furnace, fill it with coals, and then put in the powder; keep it burning and stirring about till all the brimstone is burnt up; then take out the pan, and powder the calcined mass again; sift it fine, and proceed with it thrice as before; the last time let it stand on the fire till it becomes red. Put a pound of this calcined copper into a glass body, with six pints of water; evaporate two pints or thereabout in a sand heat; the water is then of a fine blue, and must be poured off clear; then filtrate it. Evaporate the water from the remaining sediment of copper left in the glass, and with new sulphur calcine it again and

again; repeat this five or six times, and extract the blue tincture with water as before; filtrate all the waters, and put them together. Evaporate all to a fifth part, or thereabouts, and let it in a cool place, and fine pointed crystals will be formed, resembling emeralds; separate these crystals, and evaporate the water again, till all the crystals be procured. Then put a pound of them into a glass retort, well luted, and fitted to a capacious receiver; let the joints be well closed, and make a moderate fire for four hours; then make it violent for twenty hours, or till no more white fumes arise. The next day open the receiver, and separate the liquor into a glass, where it must be kept carefully sealed up. Neri's Art of Glass, p. 50.

Very great things are to be done in the glass art by means of this liquor; the remainder in the retort exposed to the air for a few days, will acquire a blue colour, and this, mixed with saffer, will give glass a fine sea-green. The vitriol of copper is of an elegant sapphire blue colour; hard, compact, and semitransparent; when perfectly crystallized, of a flattish, rhomboidal decahedral figure; in taste extremely nauseous, styptic, and acrid. Exposed to a gentle heat, it first turns white, and then of a yellowish-red or orange colour; on increasing the fire, it parts, difficultly, with its acid, and changes at length to a very dark red calx, reducible, by fusion with inflammable fluxes, into copper.

Some writers hold vitriol to be the root or matrix of copper; because, in the copper-mines, they never dig deeper than the glebe, out of which the vitriol is drawn. For the use of blue vitriol in medicine, &c. see VITRIOL, in *Medicine*.

The *white vitriol*, or vitriol of zinc, is found native in the mines of Gollar, sometimes in transparent pieces, more commonly in white efflorescences; which are dissolved in water, and crystallized into large irregular masses, somewhat resembling fine sugar; it is also found dissolved in mineral waters, and generally with some proportion to the vitriol of iron and copper: it is in taste sweetish, nauseous, and styptic.

It has been disputed, whether white vitriol is any thing else than green vitriol calcined. But it seems that white vitriol is of a quite different species from either the green or the blue vitriols. Geoffroy, *Mat. Med.* tom. i. p. 124.

In the condition in which white vitriol is usually bought, it contains somewhat both of copper and iron; but being purified by solution, filtration, and crystallization, it is freed from both these metals, and appears to be a native vitriol *sui generis*. See Cramer, *Elem. Art. Docim.* vol. i. p. 302. ed. 2. Med. Ess. Edinb. Abr. vol. ii. p. 472.

If four ounces of alum be put in concoction with two parts of cadmia fossilis pulverized, the earth of the alum precipitates, and its acid takes hold of the earth of zinc, so that a true white vitriol is the result.

This vitriol being precipitated by an alkaline ley, and dried, after its salts are separated in water, and then mixed with charcoal-dust, will give zinc.

The same thing happens in mixing vitriol of iron with two or three parts of lapis calaminaris; but the operation is easier with alum and vitriol of copper. Marggraf, in *Mem. de l'Acad. de Berlin*, 1746.

The white vitriol requires little more than twice its weight of water to dissolve it in the temperature of 60°; its specific gravity is about 2.000. It mixes uniformly with vitriolic neutral salts, but precipitates nitrous or marine selenites from their solutions, which ascertains its acid principle; it is itself precipitated whitish by alkalis and earths, but not by iron, copper, or zinc, which sufficiently indicates its basis: if it contains any other metallic principle, this may be precipitated

VITRIOL.

precipitated by adding more zinc, except iron, which will of itself precipitate by exposure to the air, or boiling in open air. That in common use is mostly prepared at Goslar, from an ore which contains zinc, copper, and lead, mineralized by sulphur and a little iron: the copper ore is first separated as much as possible, and the residuum, after torrefaction and distillation, is thrown red-hot into water, and lixiviated: it is never free from iron.

The common white vitriol of the shops contains a quantity of ferruginous matter; of which, in keeping, a part is extricated from the acid, in an ochrey form, so as to tinge the mass of a yellow hue. On dissolving the whitest pieces in water, a considerable portion of ochre immediately separates: the filtered solution, transparent and colourless, becomes again turbid, and yellow, on being made to boil, and deposits a fresh ochrey sediment; and a like separation happens, though much more slowly, on standing without heat. Hence, when the solution is evaporated to the usual pitch, and set to crystallize, the crystals generally prove foul; unless some fresh acid be added (as an ounce of the strong spirit or oil of vitriol to a pound of the salt) to keep the ferruginous matter dissolved: this addition secures the whiteness of the crystals, and prevents their becoming soon yellow in the air. White vitriol generally contains also a small portion of copper distinguishable by the cupreous stain which it communicates to polished iron immersed in solutions of it, or rubbed with it in a moist state. The quantity of copper is, indeed, very small, and may, if it be thought necessary, be separated by boiling the solution for some time, along with bright pieces of iron, which will extricate all the copper: by continued or repeated coction, the greatest part of the ferruginous matter may also be separated. For the use of white vitriol in medicine and surgery, see *VITRIOL*, in *Medicine*, *infra*.

VITRIOL, in *Medicine* and the *Arts*, has various applications and uses. *White vitriol* is sometimes given, from five or six grains to half a drachm and more, as an emetic, and appears to be one of the quickest in operation of those that can be employed with safety. Its chief use is for external purposes, as a cooling refrigerant and desiccative: a dilute solution of it, as sixteen grains in eight ounces of water, with the addition of sixteen drops of weak vitrollic acid, or the *aqua vitriolica* of the Edinburgh Dispensatory, is an excellent collyrium in defluxions and slight inflammations of the eyes; and, after bleeding and purging, in the more violent ones. A solution of it with alum, in the proportion of two drachms of each to a pint of water, called the *aqua aluminosa Bateana*, is used as a repellent fomentation for some cutaneous eruptions, for cleansing foul ulcers, and as an injection in the fluor albus and gonorrhœa, when not accompanied with virulence. This vitriol is sometimes likewise employed as an errhine, and said to be a very effectual dissolvent of mucous matters; in which intention it is recommended, in the German Ephemerides, against obstructions of the nostrils in new-born infants. See *ZINC*.

Blue vitriol, like the other preparations of copper, acts, in doses of a few grains, as a most virulent emetic. Its use is chiefly external, as a detergent, escharotic, and for restraining hæmorrhages; for which last intention a strong styptic liquor used to be prepared in the shops, and called *aqua vitriolica cerulea*. Blue vitriol has of late been considerably employed as an emetic by some practitioners; and is said to be by no means an unsafe one, as it operates the instant it reaches the stomach, before it has time to injure by its corrosive quality. The peculiar advantage in using it is represented to be, that it has no tendency to become also purgative, and that its astringent power prevents the

tone of the stomach from being impaired after vomiting with it. It is much recommended in the early state of tubercles in the lungs; and the following method of exhibition directed. (See *Simmons* on the Treatment of Consumptions, p. 70.) Let the patient first swallow about half a pint of water, and immediately afterwards the vitriol, dissolved in a cupful of water. The dose may be varied according to age, constitution, &c. from two grains to ten, or even twenty; always taking care to begin with small ones. After the emetic is rejected, another half pint of water is to be drunk, which is likewise speedily thrown up, and this is commonly sufficient to remove the nausea. In still smaller doses, the blue vitriol has been much used by some as a tonic in intermittents, and other diseases. See *COPPER* and *SULPHATE of Copper*.

Pure green vitriol is in no respect different from the artificial *SAL Martis*; which see. It is one of the most certain of the chalybeate medicines, scarcely ever failing to take effect where the calces, and other indissoluble preparations, pass inactive through the intestinal tube. It may be conveniently given in a liquid form, largely diluted with aqueous fluids: two or three grains, or more, dissolved in a pint or quart of water, may be taken in a day, divided into different doses. This vitriol is used also, especially when calcined, as an external styptic: the styptic of Helvetius, and, as it is said, that of Eaton, is no other than French brandy impregnated with the calcined vitriol: a drachm of the vitriol is commonly directed to a quart of the spirit, but only a minute portion of the drachm dissolves in it. (See *STYPTIC*.) As French brandy has generally an astringent impregnation from the oaken casks in which it has been kept, the vitriol changes it, as it does the watery infusions of vegetable astringents, to a black colour; but makes no such change in spirituous liquors that have not received some astringent tincture. See *IRON*, *SULPHATE of Iron*, and *TINCTURE*.

The acid of vitriol, or sulphur (sulphuric acid), largely diluted, is the most salubrious of all the mineral acids. It is mixed with watery infusions, spirituous tinctures, and other liquids, as an antiplogistic; as a refrigerant in hæmorrhages; and as a stomachic and corroborant in weaknesses, loss of appetite, and decays of constitutions, accompanied with slow febrile symptoms, brought on by irregularities, or succeeding the suppression of intermittents by Peruvian bark. In several cases of this kind, after bitters and aromatics of themselves had availed nothing, a mixture of them with the vitrollic acid has taken effect: the form commonly made use of is that of a spirituous tincture; six ounces of oil of vitriol are drop by degrees into a quart of rectified spirit of wine; the mixture digested for three days in a very gentle heat, and afterwards digested for three days longer with an ounce and a half of cinnamon, and an ounce of ginger; this is the *elixir vitrioli* of the Edinburgh Dispensatory. Or, a pint of an aromatic tincture, drawn with proof spirit, is mixed with three ounces of the strong acid, so as to form the *acid elixir of vitriol* of the late London Dispensatory: these liquors are given from ten to thirty or forty drops, in any convenient vehicle, when the stomach is most empty. (See *ELIXIR*.) A mixture of oil of vitriol with spirits of wine alone, in the proportion of one part of the former to three of the latter, digested together for some time, has been used in France as a refrigerant in gonorrhœas, female fluors, and spittings of blood, under the denomination of *aqua Rabelliana*, and *eau de Rebel*. The acid of vitriol, diluted with water, has been given internally with great success in the itch. It was first used for this purpose in the Prussian army in 1756, and has since been much employed in several parts of Germany. The dose recommended is from
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VITRIOL.

an eighth to a fourth of a drachm of the pure acid twice or thrice a day. It is said to succeed equally in the dry and moist itch; and when given to nurses, to cure both themselves and their children.

When oil of vitriol, and rectified spirit of wine, are long digested together, or distilled, a part of the acid unites with the vinous spirit into a new compound, very volatile and inflammable, of no perceptible acidity, of a strong and very fragrant smell, and an aromatic kind of taste: this dulcified part, more volatile than the rest, separates and rises first in distillation, and may thus be collected by itself. The College of London directed this *spiritus vitrioli dulcis* to be made by cautiously and gradually mixing a pound of oil of vitriol, and a pint of rectified spirit of wine, and setting them to distil with a very gentle heat: that of Edinburgh ordered the same quantity of the oil of vitriol to be dropt into four times as much of the vinous spirit, and the mixture to be digested in a close vessel, for eight days, previously to the distillation, with a view of promoting the coalition of the two ingredients. The different proportions of the acid spirit to the vinous, in these prescriptions, make no material variation in the qualities of the product, provided the distillation be duly conducted; for the smallest of the above proportions of acid is much more than the vinous spirit can dulcify, and all the redundant acid remains in either case behind. The true dulcified spirit rises in thin subtile vapours, which condense upon the sides of the recipient in straight fairs; these are succeeded by white fumes, which form either irregular fairs, or large round drops like oil; at the first appearance of which, the process is either to be stopped, or the receiver changed. The spirit which these fumes afford, very different from the dulcified one, has a pungent acid smell, like the fumes of burning sulphur: on its surface is found a small quantity of oil, called the *sweet oil of vitriol* of Hoffman, of a strong, penetrating, and very agreeable smell, readily dissoluble in spirit of wine, to a large proportion of which it communicates the smell and taste of the aromatic or dulcified spirit. The College of Edinburgh, in order to secure against any acidity in the dulcified spirit, ordered it to be rectified, by mixing it with an equal measure of water, in every pint of which a drachm of salt of tartar has been dissolved, and drawing off the spirit again by a gentle heat. This College, in their last Pharmacopoeia, have manifestly shewn how little they conceive the acid to enter as a constituent part of this preparation, and at the same time have directed an effectual method of preventing its presence in it. They order the *acidum vitriolicum vinosum*, vulgò *spiritus vitrioli dulcis*, to be made by simply mixing one part of vitriolic ether with two of rectified spirit. See *Sulphuric Ether*, and *Spirit of Ether*.

This spirit, taken from ten to eighty or ninety drops, strengthens the stomach and digestive powers, relieves flatulencies, promotes urine, and, in many cases, abates spasmodic strictures, and procures rest. It is not essentially different from the celebrated mineral anodyne liquor of Hoffman; to which it is frequently, by the author himself, directed as a substitute. See *Liquor mineralis anodynus*, *Ethereal Spirit*, and *Compound Spirit of Ether*.

The dulcified spirit is sometimes used as a menstruum for certain resinous and bituminous bodies, which are more difficultly and languidly acted upon by pure vinous spirits. It is often mixed with aromatic and stomatic tinctures, in cases where the stomach is too weak to bear the acid elixirs above-mentioned: eight ounces are commonly added to a pint of the official aromatic tincture; or the ingredients of the aromatic tincture are infused in the dulcified acid, instead of

common rectified spirit, in order to form the *sweet elixir of vitriol*. A medicine of this kind was formerly in great esteem, under the name of *Vigoni's volatile elixir of vitriol*, prepared by macerating, in some dulcified spirit of vitriol, free from acidity, a small quantity of mint-leaves carefully dried, till the spirit has acquired a fine green colour: and to prevent the necessity of filtration, during which the more volatile parts would exhale, the mint may be suspended in the spirit in a fine cloth. If the dulcified spirit, rectified from a solution of fixed alkaline salt, be shaken with equal its quantity of a like solution, and the mixture suffered to rest, an ethereal fluid rises to the surface, and great part of the dulcified spirit may be recovered again from the remainder by distillation. Dr. Hadley obtained the largest portion of ether, by using the strongest vitriolic acid of the shops with equal its quantity, by measure, of spirit of wine, and distilling immediately by a heat sufficient to make the mixture boil. By this management, from three pints of oil of vitriol, and six pints of rectified spirit of wine, he obtained two pints and a half of the ether.

The vitriolic acid saturates a larger quantity of fixed alkaline salts than any of the other acids, and dislodges from them such other acids as have been previously combined with them. Of the strong spirit, or oil of vitriol, about five parts are sufficient for eight of the common vegetable fixed alkalies. The neutral salt thus obtained is of a bitterish taste, very difficultly soluble in water, and scarcely fusible in the fire: in small doses, as a scruple, or half a drachm, it is an useful aperient: in larger ones, as four or five drachms, a mild cathartic. This salt has been commonly prepared with the alkali obtained from tartar, and hence called *vitriolated tartar*, and sometimes *sal enixum*, and *arcanum duplicatum*. Some dilute the oil of vitriol with six times the quantity of warm water, and drop into it a solution of the alkaline salt till no effervescence ensues: others use vitriol in substance, which being dissolved in boiling water, any alkaline salt, gradually superadded, till the effervescence ceases, absorbs the pure acid, and throws down the metallic basis of the vitriol: one part of the alkali is nearly sufficient for two of the vitriol.

With the mineral fixed alkali, this acid forms compound salts of a more bitter taste, somewhat less purgative, and much easier of solution, than that with vegetable alkalies: with volatile alkalies, a very pungent ammoniacal salt, whose medicinal effects are not well known. The strong acid, boiled on argillaceous earths to dryness, corrodes a portion of them, and concretes with them into an austere styptic salt. Calcareous earths it does not dissolve into a liquid state, but may be combined with them, by precipitation from other acids, into an indissoluble concrete, seemingly of no medicinal activity. Among metallic bodies, it dissolves zinc and iron readily; copper, silver, quicksilver, lead, and tin, very difficultly: it is fitted for acting on the two first by dilution with three or four times its quantity of water: the others require the undiluted acid, and a heat sufficient to make it boil; when, the more phlegmatic parts exhaling, so much of the pure acid matter remains combined with the metals as to render them, in part at least, dissoluble in water.

The principal use of green vitriol is in dyeing, and in the making of ink. When the vitriol is dissolved in water, the iron contained in it becomes black by the addition of an infusion of gall-nuts. Mr. Lemery, the younger, in order to account for this blackness, imagines, that as the vitriol, of which ink is made, is iron dissolved by an acid, and intimately mixed with it, and as galls are an alkali or absorbent, this alkali, meeting the acids which hold the iron dissolved,

unites with them, and makes them set the iron loofe; which thereupon revivifies, and refumes its natural blacknefs: fo that in ftrictnefs we write with the iron.

In the Swedifh Tranfactions, vitriol is recommended as a yellow for houfe-painting: quicklime, made into a paffe with water, is to be diluted with a folution of vitriol, more or lefs, according as the colour is required deeper or lighter: the mixture appears of a blueifh-green colour, and does not become yellow till it is dry. One part of vitriol is faid to go as far as two of the dearer yellow ochre. This falt is alfo recommended for preferving wood, as particularly the wheels of carriages, from decay: when all the pieces are fit to be joined together, they are directed to be boiled in a folution of vitriol for three or four hours, and then kept for fome days in a warm place to dry. It is faid that wood by this preparation becomes fo hard and compact, that moifture cannot penetrate it. For the ufe of vitriol in agriculture, fee SULPHATE of Iron. See on the fubject of the preceding articles, Neumann's Chem. Works, by Lewis, p. 173, &c. Watfon's Chem. Eff. vol. i. eff. 6. Lewis's Mat. Med. art. *Vitriolum*. Bergman's Eff. vol. i. p. 180, &c. Kirwan's Elem. of Mineral. p. 189, &c.

VITRIOLS, Metallic. All metals, it is to be obferved, may be converted into vitriols, by difolving them with acid fpirits, and letting them ftand to cryftallize.

Faditious vitriols, being only metals difolved and cryftallized in faline menftruums, are frequently called, by way of diftinction, *metallic vitriols*, and *metallic falts*.

VITRIOL of Cobalt is found native in fmall pieces, mixed with a greenifh efflorefcence, in cobalt mines: it is difficultly foluble in water; and both it and its folution are red, which fufficiently diftinguifhes its bafis. Its acid is known by the fame tafte as that of the other vitriols.

VITRIOL of Iron, *Vitriolum Martis*, is a preparation made by difolving iron, or fteel, in oil or fpirit of vitriol; then evaporating or drawing off the moifture, and bringing the matter to crytallize, by fetting it in a cool place. This is alfo called *fal martis*, or *falt of fteel*.

VITRIOL of Lead. See LEAD.

VITRIOL of Luna, or the Moon, is the name given to a falt with a metallic bafis, called alfo *Vitriol of SILVER*; which fee.

VITRIOL of Nickel is found native, efflorefcing on kupfer-nickel, and generally mixed with vitriol of iron. This is difficultly foluble in water: both it and its folution are of a green colour. See NICKEL.

VITRIOL of Quickfilver, the name of a chemical preparation of quickfilver, with acid fpirits, the procefs of which is this: let fo rich a folution of quickfilver be made in fpirit of nitre, or aqua fortis, that no more can be contained; let this folution be made by the affiftance of heat, and the liquor immediately afterwards poured off into a clean and cold glafs. There will, on this, fpontaneoufly fhoot on the bottom of the glafs a faline, white, transparent matter, from which the liquor being poured, it is found to be a fharp, moift, faline fubftance, or true vitriol of mercury, foluble in water, and not fafe to be touched. If the liquor, poured off from this, be evaporated half way, and the remainder fet in a cool place, more cryftals of the fame nature with the firft will fhoot.

Another method of making the vitriol of mercury is this: reduce to powder fome decrepitated fea-falt, and with two parts of this mix one part of crude mercury; diftil the whole in a glafs body, with a ftrong fire continued five or fix hours; when the veffels are cold, break them, and there will be found a folid dry mercury, fublimed to the top and fides of the

body, in form of vitriol. Nay, Boerhaave affirms, that the common mercury fublimata is a true vitriol of mercury, though femi-volatile. Boerh. Chem. part ii. p. 301.

Vitriol of quickfilver is alfo a name given to a falt of mercury, mineralized by vitriolic acid, firft difcovered by Mr. Woulfe, together with the marine falt of mercury, at Obermofchel, in the duchy of Deux-Ponts: they have a fpark-like appearance, and are either bright and white, or yellow or black, mixed with cinnabar in a ftoney matrix: thefe well mixed with one-third of their weight of vegetable alkali, afforded him cubic and octagonal cryftals, that is, falt of Sylvius, and tartar vitriol. Phil. Tranf. vol. lxxi. part ii. p. 618.

VITRIOL of Venus is a folution of copper in fpirit of nitre, evaporated and crytallized, to gain the falt; called alfo *vitriol of copper*.

VITRIOL, *Liquamen*, or *Waf* of, is a name given to the ochrey matter remaining after fucceffive evaporations of the mother of vitriol, which yields no more vitriol. Its tafte is acid and fiery, and the quantity left from a gallon of the well-impregnated liquor from the bed is about a pound. From this may be procured a white pungent falt, by fubfequent evaporations. This is the faline principle of vitriol, according to the chemifts, and is contained in fo large a quantity, that nearly thirteen ounces of it may be feparated from a pound of the liquor; the remaining liquor, after this, is what is called *liquamen vitrioli* by fome chemifts, but not properly. It will never coagulate into falt, but is very fiery and acid to the tafte, and extremely ponderous, not lefs fo than oil of vitriol, nor lefs pungent; and is the ftrongeft liquor any way obtained from a natural fubftance without diftillation. This liquor being expofed to the air in a vefel not clofed, will in a little time attract double its weight of water from it. All corrofive and faline liquors have fomewhat of this property of imbibing moifture from the air, and weakening themfelves by it; but this liquor attracts it fafter and in greater quantity than any other. This liquor receives moft moifture, and increafes moft quickly in wet weather, lefs fo in dry; and this may have given occafion to that error fo common among uninformed chemifts, that feveral preparations of vitriol derive moifture from the moon, and have more or lefs of it, according to her different phases. The changes of the conftitution of the air have effected what, in this cafe, they fuppofed to be done by the different phases of the moon. Phil. Tranf. No. 103.

VITRIOL, *Mother of*. See VITRIOL, in *Chemiftry*, *supra*.

VITRIOL, *Oil of*. See VITRIOLIC Acid, *infra*, and SULPHURIC Acid.

VITRIOLI, *Ros*. See ROS.

VITRIOL, *Saline Principle of*. See SALINE Principle.

VITRIOL, *Spirit of*. See SULPHURIC Acid.

VITRIOLATED, among *Chemifts*, turned into vitriol, or having vitriol infufed in it.

VITRIOLATED Iron. See SULPHATE of Iron, and IRON.

VITRIOLATED Kali. See SULPHATE of Potafh.

VITRIOLATED Magnesia. See SULPHATE of Magnesia.

VITRIOLATED Natron. See SULPHATE of Soda.

VITRIOLATED Tartar. See TARTAR, *Vitriolated*.

VITRIOLATED Zinc. See Sulphate of ZINC.

VITRIOLIC, fomething that has the quality of vitriol, or that partakes of the nature of vitriol.

VITRIOLIC Acid. (See SULPHURIC Acid.) This acid, when firft prepared by art, was diftilled from dried fuphate of iron, or the common green vitriol, or coppas of commerce: it is ftill prepared in Saxony, and many other parts

VITRIOLIC ACID.

of Germany, from the same substance, in the manner described under *SULPHURIC Acid*. Accordingly, when the component parts neither of the salt nor of the acid were known, it was very naturally called "oil of vitriol;" acquiring this denomination probably from its resemblance to oil in adhering to the sides of a vessel containing it, and from its passing gently, or with little noise, from one vessel to another. However, as the name tends to give erroneous ideas of the nature of the acid, which is now known to be formed only of sulphur, oxygen, and water, it ought to be expunged. On account of the inconvenience and expence attending the method of procuring this acid from sulphate of iron, and the time required for the process, the manufacturers were led to the base itself, or the sulphur; which, in conjunction with nitre, was burnt in very large globes of glass, and the product was concentrated by boiling it in retorts or other glass vessels, till the fluid was of a sufficient strength for sale. See *SULPHURIC Acid*.

Mr. Parkes informs us (*Chemical Essays*, vol. ii.) that the process of forming sulphuric acid by the combustion of sulphur, was first adopted in this country by Dr. Ward, well known by his anæsthetic pill, white drop, and some other nostrums which bore his name. Fourcroy, however, attributes this important discovery to two French chemists, Lefevre and Lemery. Dr. Ward obtained a patent for his method of preparing it, and the article which he procured was denominated, by way of distinction, "oil of vitriol made by the bell." It is needless to describe his method, though it gave him for some time a monopoly of this British manufacture: until at length chambers of lead were employed for the combustion of the sulphur and nitre, so contrived that the floor of each might be constantly covered with a sheet of water, capable of absorbing the sulphuric acid gas at the time of its formation. The introduction of this leaden apparatus served to facilitate the manufacture of this acid, and in a short time reduced the price to about a quarter of its former rate. This important improvement is ascribed by Mr. Parkes to the late Dr. Roebuck, an eminent physician of Birmingham, who, in conjunction with his partner, the late Mr. Samuel Garbett, erected, notwithstanding a violent opposition on the part of Dr. Ward, the first leaden chamber for this purpose at Birmingham, about the year 1746: and the same works are now (1815), says Mr. Parkes, in the occupation of their successors, Messrs. Alston and Armitage. The consumption, however, was at first restricted, on account of local circumstances, to Birmingham and its vicinity. The manufacturers, therefore, with a view to a more extensive demand, and to the introduction of the article produced for the purpose of bleaching in the linen manufactories of Scotland and Ireland, established, on an extensive scale, in the year 1749, works at Preston-Pans, on the eastern coast of Scotland. It is observed, however, that Dr. Roebuck was not the sole founder of the works at Preston-Pans, or of the great iron-works at Carron. (See *CARRON*.) Of Dr. Roebuck, an account of whom has been by accident omitted under his name, it will be sufficient to observe, that he was a man of very superior talents, very considerable acquirements, and very amiable manners, highly esteemed at Birmingham, where he resided, and honoured with a peculiar intimacy with the celebrated Dr. Black. He died, much regretted, on the 17th of July, 1794. After this digression, we proceed to relate, that the doctor and his three brothers, together with Mr. Garbett, and Messrs. Cadell and Sons, of Cockenzie, near Preston-Pans, were the original proprietors and founders of the vast works at Carron, to the great prejudice of their respective fortunes. This circumstance,

together with an unfortunate concern in a colliery at Boro'-toness, brought ruin on all the doctor's fair prospects in life. With respect to the manufacture of sulphuric acid, we observe, that for several years Messrs. Roebuck and Garbett carried on their works in England and Scotland successfully and unopposed; and, besides supplying the demands of Great Britain and Ireland, exported very large quantities of sulphuric acid to the continent. At length, in the year 1756, their prospects were clouded by the conduct of a servant, who had the art to induce a Mr. Rhodes, of Bridgenorth, to embark in the business. This person, abandoning Mr. Rhodes, connected himself with Mr. Skey, of Bewdley, who had commenced a manufactory of sulphuric acid on a much larger scale than that at Bridgenorth; and this was the third manufactory for producing the acid by the combustion of sulphur in leaden chambers. In the year 1772, a manufactory was established at Battersea, near London; and upon the failure of this, another manufactory was instituted at Pitworth-Moor, near Eccles, in Lancashire. Soon afterwards another work was established at Leeds; and at length similar works have been founded in various parts of England, Scotland, and Ireland: and it is said, that there are now no fewer than eight considerable manufactories of sulphuric acid at and near Birmingham. When the new method of bleaching by oxymuriatic acid was introduced, about the year 1788, the demand for sulphuric acid was very considerably augmented, so that chambers for the combustion of sulphur of much larger extent than those first constructed became necessary. Chaptal, in his "*Chemistry applied to the Arts*," (vol. iii.) says, that chambers about 20 feet broad, 25 long, and 15 high, seem to be the most advantageous: and it is observed, that the size of the leaden chamber in modern use, is from 20 feet in length and 12 feet in width, to 40 or 60 feet long and 16 or 18 feet wide. One manufacturer in Lancashire, however, says Mr. Parkes, has a leaden chamber of the enormous dimensions of 120 by 40 feet, and 20 feet high, thus forming a space of 96,000 cubic feet. These leaden chambers are technically called "houses," and in some districts "leaden vessels." The sulphuric acid annually consumed in these kingdoms is said to amount to upwards of 3000 tons, the greater part of which is used in a state of dilution, in which state it is consumed in large quantities by bleachers, and by calico-printers, for making what they call "sours;" and also for the purpose of dissolving iron or zinc when diluted with at least five or six times its weight of water.

The uses of sulphuric acid are very numerous. It is employed in large quantities for preparing the bleaching salt; by dyers for dissolving indigo, and for other purposes; by calico-printers for preparing sours; and by the manufacturing and the philosophical chemist, as a test for lead and barytes, and for a great variety of other purposes, some of which only can be enumerated.

The makers of the nitrous and muriatic acids are large consumers of sulphuric acid; as also are the makers of sulphate of zinc, sal ammoniac, phosphate of soda, Glauber and other salts; as well as the manufacturers of Roman vitriol, Prussian blue, and some other colours.

Sulphuric acid is likewise employed by some modern farmers in the preparation of their seed-wheat, to prevent what is called the smut; by the people who purify lemon-juice, when united to lime, in order to separate its acid in a crystalline form for the use of calico-printers and others; and by the makers of glass to convert the muriate of potash, which is one of their residuums, into sulphate of potash, and which has lately been used by them as a substitute for

soda. It is also consumed in large quantities by the makers of tin-plate, by brads-founders, button-makers, japanners and gilders; to all of whom this acid is become absolutely necessary for the removal of the oxyd which forms on the surface of the iron or the copper on which they work, and which, if not removed, would prevent or impede all their operations.

Sulphuric acid is likewise a necessary article to some paper-makers, to fell-mongers, and to tanners;—it is used in considerable quantities by the modern latter in the operation of felting;—and it may be remarked that refiners use it in the process of stripping metals;—oil-merchants, in refining rape-oil, which it effects by carbonizing the farinaceous matter and the mucilage;—and brewers in fining what is called “gray beer;”—that the professors of pharmacy as well as the chemists are constant customers for sulphuric acid;—that it is employed in making the altringent and Atomate water of Rabel, and for other purposes of medicine, as well as surgery;—that distillers and rectifiers of ardent spirits consume it in still larger quantities;—that the makers of vinegar use it for the adulteration of that acid;—that many tons are annually consumed in the preparation of liquid blacking;—and that the aeronaut, at every ascension into the atmosphere, requires many hundred weights of sulphuric acid for the formation of the hydrogen gas, which renders the aerial machine buoyant in that subtle medium.

As the uses of sulphuric acid are become so various, cases may occur of its being taken into the stomach by mistake, and without immediate relief its corrosive properties would produce fatal effects. If magnesia should be at hand, that earth mixed with water and sweetened with sugar, would be the best possible antidote to the poison; but in case this could not be immediately procured, soap-water, which can be furnished by all families, and which is one of the next best remedies, should be drunk plentifully. Parkes, ubi supra.

For an account of the process of manufacturing this acid, and its properties, see the article *SULPHURIC Acid*. For tables, exhibiting the temperatures produced by the mixture of sulphuric acid and water, the specific gravities of the acid, when diluted with different portions of water, taken at the temperature of 60°; and of the variations in the specific gravity of concentrated sulphuric acid, by change of temperature, the barometer being at 29.5 inches, we refer to Parkes's Essays, vol. ii.

VITRIOLIC Acid, in *Agriculture*, is that which is now termed or known by the name of the sulphuric. It is noticed by the writer of the work on the Connection of Agriculture with Chemistry, that all acids are at present named from the peculiar bases or substances of which they are formed, by the combination of pure air or oxygen; the presence of which is necessary in all cases to constitute an acid. This is stated to be the most powerful of all the acids, and that it disengages or expels other acids, when in a state of combination with metallic, earthy, or alkaline substances in the soil or otherwise. When concentrated, it acts in a similar manner to that of alkaline salts, in the resolution or destruction of vegetable substances, as well as those of the animal kind, disengaging from them certain gases, and forming therewith certain saponaceous and saline compounds. These solutions or extracts are of a reddish-brown colour, similar to that produced by the action of alkaline salts on oxygenated peat or peaty earth. The vitriolic acid may, it is said, be used beneficially to decompose and bring into action the soluble matter accumulated in soils, by the combination

of the phosphoric and forceline or oxalic acids with calcareous matter. In this case, the vitriolic acid will join with the calcareous matter, and form gypsum or sulphate of lime; while the phosphoric and forceline or oxalic acids, in consequence of their disengagement, will combine with other matters in the soil, particularly with magnesia, if any be present, forming saline matters which are very soluble, and conducive to vegetation and the growth of plants. The business is to be accomplished by the use of such substances as contain much of this sort of acid in cases where the other sorts of acids prevail.

It is suggested, however, that the endless series of processes employed by nature doth not finish or end here; for, on a supposition that the phosphoric and forceline or oxalic acids had been fully disengaged from the calcareous matter with which they had been formerly united, and that in the states of phosphate and oxalate of potash, soda, ammonia, or magnesia, they had expended themselves in the process of vegetation; still the gypsum or sulphate of lime remaining in the soil would, on a renewed application of dung, urine, animal or vegetable matter, be brought from the state of gypsum or sulphate of lime, which is insoluble, to a state approaching to that of a hepar of lime, which is soluble; and that as the vitriolic acid and calcareous matter are contained in, and form a part of, the compounded residuum of vegetable matters, it may hence be inferred, that these matters were not generated in, but were taken up, when in a state of solution, by the roots of plants. Thus, it is said, may the good effects of gypsum or sulphate of lime in America be accounted for without much difficulty. And to these beneficial effects, from the combination of inflammable substances with gypsum or sulphate of lime, forming what is called a hepar, or liver of sulphur, may be added the large share of nourishment which trefoils, and plants of a certain formation of stem and leaf somewhat of that kind, receive by the hepatic air disengaged from the hepars, when they, by the process of oxygenation, are again returned to the state of neutral salts, of which such hepars had been formed by the combination of inflammable or carbonaceous matter. See *OXYGENATION and SULPHATE of Lime*.

VITRIOLIC Minerals are compound fossil substances, formed of various stony and earthy particles, mixed with others of iron and copper, and that either separately or conjunctly; so that, in effect, they are ores of vitriols.

The different kinds of these minerals are, 1. The chalcitis. 2. The misy. 3. Sory or rufina. 4. Melanteria. 5. Pyrites, or fire-stone. 6. Marcasites. See *CHALCITIS, MISY, &c.*

In Europe, the only use made of chalcitis is as an ingredient of Venice treacle, and even here its place is generally supplied with common green vitriol calcined to a redness. The ancient Greeks used it externally in hæmorrhages, and colliquiums for the eyes; also for the herpes and erysipelas; but never ventured to give it internally.

The ancients used misy for the same purpose as chalcitis, being esteemed milder than this last.

At present it is no where put to any use, nor indeed does it merit it, as containing no other virtues than those of green vitriol, though we are not sure what pernicious substance it may be mixed with.

VITRIOLIC Waters. The countries which abound with mines of copper and iron usually afford a great many vitriolic waters. See *Blue Vitriol*, under *VITRIOL*.

One of the most remarkable springs of this kind, of which we have an account, is that near Paderborn, in Germany; this is a sort of treble spring, having three openings, and all three yielding very different waters. Two of these openings

openings are not more than a foot and a half distant from one another, and yet of so different qualities, that the one is limpid, blueish, milk-warm, and bubbling, and contains sal ammoniac, ochre, iron, vitriol, alum, sulphur, nitre, and orpiment; all these substances having been separated in its analysis. The other is cold as ice, and is turbid, whitish, and much heavier, and stronger to the taste than the other. This holds much orpiment, with some salt, alum, nitre, sal ammoniac, and vitriol. The first of these waters is taken by the people in the neighbourhood, against worms, and disorders of the spleen, as also against epilepsies; the other is poisonous to birds, all that drink of it dying in a very little time. The experiment has been tried on common hens, with the water brought from the springs into other places, and given them to drink.

Those to which salt is given, after the swallowing of this poisonous water, struggle longer before they die by it; and vinegar is found to save them very often from death, after drinking largely of it; but in this case they are sickly for seven or eight days after it, and have the pip, as the good women express it.

In the dissecting of those birds which have died by drinking this water, the lungs are always found quite shrivelled up.

The people of the country have not been deterred by this bad effect of the water from using it in medicine; they take small quantities of it diluted in water, to destroy the worms, and it performs this very well; but gives them a grievous sickness while it operates.

The third stream, or opening, of this remarkable spring, is about twenty paces distant from the others; the water is here very clear, of a greenish colour, and of a sour, but not very disagreeable taste. It is of a middle weight, and of middle qualities between the other two, and is evidently formed of the joining of those two springs with some other fresh water in the way; for a liquor exactly resembling this third kind may be prepared, by mixing equal quantities of the other two with a sufficient quantity of common well-water.

There is a spring in Bafil discharging its water through the Tanners'-street, or Gerber-gasse, which is of a blueish colour, and somewhat turbid. This holds blue vitriol, that is copper, in the form of a salt, and with it bitumen and antimony; but a much larger proportion of the first ingredient than of either of the others. The analysis of it shews, that it contains three parts copper to one of bitumen, and two of antimony. It serves the tanners of the place to good purposes, their skins receiving one of their preparations from this native water.

The same town affords several other springs of peculiar qualities, all owing to the veins of metalline ores with which the earth of the place abounds. The one of these is called Bandalph's well, and affords a water of great use in medicine, several being regularly and perfectly cured of hydropical distempers by it. And another very remarkable one contains, as is found by its analysis, sulphur, nitre, and some gold. These, however, are in such small quantity in it, as not to prevent its being fit for the common uses of life. It is very agreeable to the taste, and is much esteemed for drinking, and sent for all over the town.

Another vitriolic water runs out of a cavern, near Gelfbach, in Alsace. It is a fattish and oily liquor, and is used by the country-people for greasing their wheels, but it is fit for much better purposes. If it be boiled to the evaporation of a third part, there will remain very little water, but a fatty bituminous substance, like tar, will subside to the bottom, and there will swim at the top a yellow, thin, and

limpid liquor, very much resembling linseed-oil; and this, distilled in a sand-heat, yields an oily and watery liquor; the first very good for external uses, for burns and scalds; and the other a good internal medicine in consumptions, and other diseases of the lungs. Phil. Trans. N^o 8.

Some time ago there was a water discovered in England, that gave, on many experiments, an appearance of containing natural and perfect vitriol. This water was found near Eggingham, in Cumberland; and being examined, by adding galls to it, it became absolute ink, much deeper than any of the atramentous waters ever do; when one half the quantity was slowly evaporated, the remainder retained this quality to a higher degree than before; and on evaporating it yet farther, there concentered in it fair crystals of pure and genuine vitriol.

This was an appearance wholly new in England, and not easily accounted for, as we have no mineral, except the common pyrites, which contains vitriol; and it is very well known, that there requires a fermentation in the air, before the vitriol, contained in that stone, will be disentangled from its other principles, so as to be capable of appearing in its own form; and as this stone, lying under water, can never impregnate that water with its vitriol, it did not seem easy to conceive in what manner a genuine vitriol should be communicated to water, where there was no other substance which could give it. The suspicions that these thoughts gave the gentleman who examined this water, occasioned his making a visit to the place where it was produced, when he found that the supposed vitriolic spring was no other than an old drift made for the draining of the water from some old wrought coal-pits; the people who had worked in these remembered to have seen great quantities of pyrites there. This drift was sometimes dry for a considerable time together, and sometimes ran in a plentiful stream; and there is no doubt but that, in these dry seasons, the air acted upon the pyrites, and caused it to shoot its vitriol, which the next tide of water washed away, and it came off dissolved in it, and highly impregnating it.

This proved, therefore, no better a medicinal spring than some of a like kind, described by Mr. Leigh in his "Natural History of Lancashire;" and all these are very little better than the discovery of a medicated water in Old-street, from the remains of an old colour-shop, or Kircher's reckoning the common flowers of Rome among the medicated springs of Italy.

The vitriolic spring which has been so much talked of near Haigh, in Lancashire, is no other than an accidental impregnation of common water, in the same manner: it being only the runnings of an old drift, or drain, made to carry off the water from the pits of cannel-coal; and this, like the other, as it sometimes has water, and at other times is dry, gives time for the pyrites to let go its vitriol while dry, and then imparts it to the waters that pass that way afterwards. These are not to be accounted medicated springs, since neither natural nor continual, and such may be any day made at home, by laying the common pyrites of our clay, or coal-pits, out to moulder in the air, and then pouring water upon it, and, after a short time standing, taking it off again. Phil. Trans. N^o 245. p. 380. See ZIMENT, and VITRIOL, in *Chemistry*.

VITRUM. See GLASS.

VITRUM, in *Botany*, a name given by some of the old writers to the plant we now call *gladium* or *wood*.

This plant has always been a native of England, and was in use among the savage inhabitants of this island, for painting their bodies. Those who have not understood this to be the name of that plant, have been strangely perplexed to

to account for those people painting their bodies with *vitrum*, glass, as they understood it : but the whole meaning of this plant obtaining the name of *vitrum*, seems to have been its staining the skin to a pale blue colour, or, as it was called by many, a glass-colour.

VITRUM Antimonii Ceratum, in *Pharmacy*. See **ANTIMONY**.

This is an infipid, inodorous powder, of a brownish colour : in its operation diaphoretic and cathartic, occasionally exciting nausea and vomiting.

The ordinary dose for adults is ten or twelve grains ; but it is sufficient to begin with six, or even with three or four grains. The quantity of a scruple has been given to a strong man, which wrought gently. The dose for a child of three or four years is two or three grains ; and for one of ten, three or four grains.

This medicine was for some time held a specific in dysenteries ; but the preparation and manner of giving it had been kept a secret, till Dr. Young made it public. Dr. (afterwards sir John) Pringle says, he tried it in a dysentery of four years standing with surprising success ; and, indeed, to him we are principally indebted for the general introduction and use of this medicine ; as he collected and published several cases of its efficacy.

It has been given in dysenteries, with or without a fever, whether epidemic or otherwise, and whether bleeding and vomits have been premised or not. In its operation, it sometimes makes the patient sick, and vomits him ; it purges almost every person ; but it has been known to cure without any evacuation or sickness. It is to be given with an empty stomach, for then it operates most mildly. Nothing is to be drank after it for three hours, unless the patient is very sick, and disposed to vomit ; in which case warm water may be given, as in other vomits.

This medicine should not be given for diarrheas in the end of consumptions. Other diarrheas have been cured with large doses of it ; but in such cases it fails oftener than in dysenteries. During the use of this powder, fermented liquors should be abstained from, and a milk diet is proper. It may be given safely to women with child, and to children on the breast may be given half a grain. This preparation has also been found successful in uterine hæmorrhages, both in young and old.

It has also been tried in colic pains, from viscidities in the intestines, and found a safe and easy purgative, and sometimes a gentle emetic.

The method of giving it is in a bolus, with conserve of roses, diascordium, or theriaca Edinensis. An opiate, after the operation, is proper. (Med. Ess. Edinb. vol. v. art. 15. p. 162, &c.) See an account of its efficacy in bloody fluxes, diarrheas, simple loosenesses, quartan agues, even the most obstinate, and in certain cases of the fluor albus, and observations on the mode of administering it, by M. Geoffroy, in Phil. Trans. vol. lxvii. p. 273, &c.

Later experience, it is said, has proved that it possesses no advantages superior to other antimonials, properly dosed and combined, in the diseases above-mentioned ; and differs from the *vitrum antimonii*, or glass of antimony, only in its milder operation, owing to part of the oxygen being abstracted by the carbonaceous matter of the wax, which appears to answer no other purpose. Thomson's Disp.

VITRUM Archimedeum, *Archimedes's Glass*, a name given by Swedenborg to an instrument which he invented for the examination of mixed metals, and by means of which he could discover the quantities, without the trouble of the apparatus and calculation commonly used for this purpose.

VITRUM Morbinum, *Morbine*, or *Myrrhine Glass*, a name given by Pliny, and some of the ancients, to a sort of

manufacture made in Egypt, which, though truly no other than a kind of glass divested of its transparency, yet was made so nicely to imitate the *myrra* or *morra* of the Indies, so famous among the Romans, under the form of cups and vessels, called *murrhina vasa*, that it was called by some *murrha altera*, another sort of *murrha*, and the cups made of it honoured with the name of *murrhine vessels*. This serves to shew, that the *myrrhina vasa*, properly so called, were not of any precious stone, as vulgarly supposed, but a sort of porcelain. See **MURHINE**.

VITRUM Saturni. See **GLASS of Lead**.

VITRUVIUS, M. POLLIO, in *Biography*, a very distinguished writer on architecture, is supposed to have flourished in the times of Julius Cæsar and Augustus : of his parentage and place of nativity nothing certain is known. Verona claims him ; but the pretensions of Formia, now Mola de Gæta, are more generally allowed. Of his liberal education, and of his travels for information and improvement, we can have no doubt. By the exercise of his profession he had acquired some property ; though perhaps it was not very considerable, as he says of himself that he did not, like the generality of architects, solicit employment. Under the emperor Augustus, or perhaps one of the succeeding princes, to whom he dedicated his work, he occupied the post of inspector of the military engines. But as Pliny the Elder mentions his name, among other authors, in his "Natural History," composed in the reign of Vespasian, his work must have been published before that period. Of edifices planned or constructed by him, one only is mentioned by himself, which was a Basilica at Fano. His work was discovered in MS. by Poggio in the 15th century, and it has ever since been held in high estimation. The ten books into which it is distributed, not only treat on every thing belonging to buildings, public and private, their site, materials, forms, ornaments, conveniences, and the like ; but include much of what would now be termed engineering, civil and military, and even digress to geometrical problems and astronomical inventions. Besides the instruction that may be derived from it, it has afforded much important matter to the antiquary relative to the state of art and science, and the detail of private life, among the Romans.

Some of the most esteemed editions of Vitruvius are "Dan. Barbari," Venet. fol. 1567 ; "J. de Laet," Amst. fol. 1649 ; "Galiani," Neap. fol. 1758 ; with an Italian translation and notes. "Claude Perrault" has given a good French translation, Paris, fol. 1684 ; and we have an English one by "Mr. Newton," Lond. 1791. Gen. Biog.

A magnificent edition of the Civil Architecture of Vitruvius, in two parts, royal folio, has been lately presented to the public by W. Wilkins, jun. A.M., F.R.S., &c. &c.

During the reign of Augustus, except Vitruvius, it does not appear that the Romans had one architect, sculptor, painter, or musician. Vitruvius has given Aristoxenus's system in Latin ; but was obliged to retain the Greek technica, as he was the first Roman writer on the subject of music, and used Greek technical terms as we do Italian. Vitruvius has described the theatrical *vasa* used by the Greeks for the augmentation and continuation of sound (see *ECHEIA*) ; and has given us a description of the organ of the ancients blown by the fall of water. See **ORGAN** and **HYDRAULICON**.

VITRY, JAMES DE. See **JAMES DE VITRY**.

VITRY, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Straits of Calais ; 9 miles N.E. of Arras.—Also, a town of France, in the department of Paris ; 4 miles S.E. of Paris.

VITRY le Brûlé, a town of France, in the department of the

the Marne. This town was, in the 12th century, one of the principal places of the country, when Thibaut, count of Chartres, who took arms against Louis the Young, took it by assault, and set it on fire, by which many persons were burned, and great part of the town destroyed. It was on this account called *Brûlé*. The English and Burgundians in the war with Charles VII. set fire to Vitry, with sixty villages, in the year 1422. It was a third time burned and ruined by the troops of the emperor Charles V.; 3 miles N.E. of Vitry le François.

VITRY le François, a town of France, and principal place of a district, in the department of the Marne, on the Marne; built by Francis I. after the destruction of Vitry le Brûlé by the emperor Charles V.; 16 miles S.E. of Châlons-sur-Marne. N. lat. $48^{\circ} 43'$. E. long. $4^{\circ} 38'$.

VITRY aux Loges, a town of France, in the department of the Loiret; 18 miles N.E. of Orleans.

VITTA, among the Romans, a fillet with which the women in Rome bound their hair. The matrons wore a double one, to distinguish them from the virgins, whose vittæ were single.

Vittæ were also worn by priests and poets, in which case they were made of branches of olive or laurel: the statues of the gods were likewise adorned with the vittæ, as were altars, the doors of temples, victims, and supplicants.

VITTA, among *Anatomists*, *fillet*, or *head-band*, is used for that part of the amnios which sticks to the infant's head when it is just born.

VITTA Cerulea, in *Conchology*, a species of dolium.

VITTA, in *Ichthyology*, a name given by Gaza and some others, to the fish called by others *tania*, and by the Italians *cepole*.

VITTARIA, in *Botany, so called by the writer of this article, from *vitta*, a fillet, or ribbon, in allusion to the shape of the frond.—Sm. Mem. de l'Acad. de Turin, v. 5. 413. t. 9. f. 5. Tracts, 243. t. 1. f. 5. Willd. Sp. Pl. v. 5. 404. Swartz Syn. Fil. 109. Nov. Aët. Soc. Nat. Scrut. Berol. v. 2. 129. Sprengel Crypt. Engl. ed. 77. 114. Brown Prodr. Nov. Holl. v. 1. 153. Ait. Hort. Kew. v. 5. 522. —Clas and order, *Cryptogamia Filices*; sect. *annulata*. Nat. Ord. *Filices dorsifera*.*

Eff. Ch. Fructification in longitudinal continued lines, parallel to the midrib at each side. Involucrum double, uninterrupted; one separating towards the margin, the other towards the rib.

This genus was at first supposed by its author to consist of a solitary species, *Pteris lineata* of Linnaeus; but Swartz and Willdenow have added several others, from their own discoveries or those of Bory de St. Vincent, so that eight in all are now known. Of these, Willdenow has given the most complete view. They are all of tropical origin. The frond is uniformly simple and entire, of a long nearly linear form, and either erect or pendulous; its texture generally coriaceous.

1. *V. lineata*. Linear Tape-fern. Swartz Syn. n. 1. Willd. n. 1. Schkuhr Crypt. 93. t. 101. b. (*V. angustifrons*; Michaux Boreal-Amer. v. 2. 261. *Pteris lineata*; Linn. Sp. Pl. 1530. *Lingua cervina longissima et angustissima foliis*; Plum. Amer. 28. t. 41. Fil. 123. t. 143; copied in Petiv. Fil. t. 14. f. 3.)—Fronds linear, very long. Lines solitary, a little within the margin.—Native of many parts of the West Indies. The perennial root consists of numerous reddish fibres, intermixed with scales. Fronds several, about two or three feet long, and a quarter of an inch wide, acute, coriaceous, smooth, of a bright green. We find no authority for Swartz's character of "pendulous" in the specific definition, except he alludes to the reflexed posture of the upper half of each frond in Plumier's

figure, which seems contrived merely to admit the whole plant into the plate.

2. *V. isefolia*. Quillwort Tape-fern. "Bory de St. Vincent Voy. v. 2. 325." Swartz Syn. n. 2. Willd. n. 2.—Fronds linear-thread-shaped, acute, pendulous, very straight; channelled at the top. Lines solitary, marginal.—Native of the isle of Bourbon, hanging from the trunks of aged trees. Stalks very scaly. Fronds rigid, from ten to eighteen inches long. Involucrum narrow. Capsules pale. Willdenow.

3. *V. filiformis*. Thread-shaped Tape-fern. Cavan. Leccion. 270. Swartz Syn. n. 3. Willd. n. 3.—Fronds thread-shaped, very long, glaucous.—Native of Peru. Fronds numerous, two or three feet in length, and half a line only in breadth. Cavanilles.

4. *V. elongata*. Long-leaved Tape-fern. Swartz Syn. n. 4. 302. Willd. n. 4. Brown n. 1.—Fronds linear, very long, coriaceous, ribbed, pendulous. Lines marginal.—Native of the East Indies, and the tropical part of New Holland. Roots creeping, rigid, with downy rusty fibres. Stalks covered with black, shining, reticulated, hair-pointed scales. Frond three or four feet long, two lines broad, flat, rather rigid, smooth, minutely veined. Swartz.

5. *V. zosterifolia*. Grass-wrack Tape-fern. Willd. n. 5. ("V. angustifrons; Bory de St. Vincent Voy. v. 1. 238, and v. 2. 324.")—Fronds linear, very long, membranous, pendulous. Lines solitary, marginal.—Found on old trees, in the isle of Bourbon. Root creeping, scaly. Fronds five feet long, three or four lines broad, thin; tapering much at the base. Lines very narrow, close to the edges. The plant much resembles a *Zostera*. Willdenow.

6. *V. ensiformis*. Sword-shaped Tape-fern. Swartz Syn. n. 5. Nov. Ac. Berol. n. 3. t. 7. f. 1. "Schkuhr Crypt. 94. t. 101. b." (*V. incurvata*; Cavan. Leccion. 270.)—Fronds linear-sword-shaped, somewhat falcate, erect. Lines solitary, marginal.—Native of the Philippine isles, the Mauritius, and the East Indies. The root resembles that of *V. lineata*. Fronds numerous, six or eight inches high, and two lines broad, curved. Cavanilles.

7. *V. plantaginacea*. Plantain-leaved Tape-fern. "Bory de St. Vincent Voy. v. 2. 325." Willd. n. 7.—Fronds linear-lanceolate, erect. Lines solitary, marginal, in the middle part of the frond.—Native of the isle of Bourbon. Root tufted, clothed with blackish, tapering, most elegantly reticulated scales. Fronds from ten to eighteen inches high, from three to five lines broad, tapering much at each extremity. Lines of fructification thickish, pale brown, but four or five inches long. Willdenow.

8. *V. lanceolata*. Lanceolate Aggregate Tape-fern. Swartz Syn. n. 6. Nov. Aët. Berol. n. 2. t. 7. f. 2. Ind. Occ. 1603. "Schkuhr Crypt. 94. t. 101. b." (*Hemionitis lineata*; Swartz Prodr. 129.)—Fronds lanceolate-linear, erect. Lines numerous.—Found on old trees, on the mountains of Jamaica. Root fibrous, tufted, rusty, covered with shining reticulated scales. Fronds crowded, a foot high, acute, smooth, on short bordered stalks. Lines two, three, or four on each side of the rib, between it and the margin, reaching from top to bottom, each furnished with its double involucrum, though very narrow. Swartz.

VITTEAUX, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Côte d'Or; 9 miles S.E. of Semur en Auxois.

VITTEFLEUR, a town of France, in the department of the Lower Seine; 20 miles N. of Caudebec.

VITTEL, a town of France, in the department of the Vosges; 9 miles S.W. of Mirecourt.

VITTORIA, *LODOVICO*, in *Biography*, author of the most

most pompous publication of motets which we have seen. The parts are printed separate on the opposite pages, and without bars, in such large characters, that the performers of the several parts might sing out of the same choral book. The following is the Latin title of this work: "Thomæ Ludovici Vitoria Abulenſis Motecta Feſtorum totius Anni, cum Communi Sanctorum, a 4, 5, 6, 8 Vocibus." Romæ, 1585.

VITTORIA, in *Geography*, a town of Spain, in the province of Alava. This town was built by Don Sancho, king of Navarre, in memory of a victory obtained over the Moors on the spot. It contains five parishes, four convents, three hospitals, and a college. The inhabitants carry on a considerable traffic in wool and wine; but the principal article of commerce is in sword-blades, of which they manufacture a great number; 42 miles S.S.W. of St. Sebastian. N. lat. 42° 47'. W. long. 2° 41'.

VITTORIA, *La*, a town of Sicily, in the valley of Noto; 20 miles N.W. of Modica. N. lat. 36° 55'. E. long. 14° 38'.

VITTORIOSA, or *Città Vittoriosa*, or *Il Borgo*, a fortified town of the island of Malta, situated on a narrow neck of land, to the left of Valetta; on each side a broad natural canal runs up into the land, and surrounding the town, forms a fine harbour. This canal is on one side called Porto della Renella, and on the other Porto delle Galere. The strong castle of St. Angelo stands on a high rock, and has a communication with the town by a bridge. The number of inhabitants amounts to 3000; formerly the grand master resided here. The palace of the inquisition and the arsenal are reckoned among the principal buildings of this place.

VITULI AQUATICI, in the *History of Insects*, a name given by the German writers to the worms resembling animated horse-hairs. See *AMPHIBÆNA Aquatica*.

VITULUS, *CALF*, in *Zoology*. See *CALF*.

VITULUS Marinus, the *Sea-calf*. See *SEA-Calf*.

VITUS'S DANCE, *St.*, in *Medicine*. See *CHOREA*.

VIU, in *Geography, a town of France, in the department of the Po, on the Stura; 14 miles N.W. of Turin.*

VIVA, or **VIUA**, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Africa Propria, on the route from Carthage to Sufetula, between Carthage and Pulput. Anton. Itin.

VIVA Pecunia was anciently used for live cattle.

VIVA Voce, *q. d.* by word of mouth. See *ORAL*.

VIVACE, Ital. in *Music*, implies lively, gay, animated; not rapid, but an execution free and firm. See *VIF*.

VIVACITY of Style, in *Oratory*, a character of style, depending on the choice of words, their number, and their arrangement.

This quality of style is adapted to please the imagination, and consequently to awaken and fix the attention. With regard to words, they may be considered in three points of view; as proper terms, or rhetorical tropes, or as to the relation which the found may be made to bear to the sense. The chief importance and use of proper terms in their reference to the end proposed is their "speciality," or their being as particular and determinate in their signification as will suit the nature and scope of the discourse. To this purpose it is observed, that in composition, particularly of the descriptive kind, it invariably succeeds best for brightening the image, to advance from general expressions to more special, and thence again to more particular. This, in the language of philosophy, is called descending; but in the language of oratory, it is ascending. With regard to the use of tropes, we refer to that article. Words may farther be considered with regard to their sound, and the affinity to the subject

of which the sound is susceptible. When, as Pope expresses it, "found is made an echo to the sense," there is added, in a certain degree, to the association arising from custom, the influence of resemblance between the signs and the things signified; and this, without doubt, tends to strengthen the impression made by the discourse. In this connection it is natural to enquire, what kinds of things language is capable of imitating by its sound, and in what degree? In reply we may observe, that the imitative power of language must be greatest, when the subjects themselves are things audible. When the subject is articulate found, the speaker or the writer may do more than produce a resemblance; for he may even render the expression an example of that which he affirms. Thus Pope affords an instance.

"These equal syllables alone require,
Tho' oft the ear the open vowels tire;
While expletives their feeble aid do join,
And ten low words oft creep in one dull line."

As to sounds inarticulate, the same author has tolerably succeeded in imitating them.

"Soft is the strain when Zephyr gently blows,
And the smooth stream in smoother numbers flows;
But when loud surges lash the founding shore,
The hoarse rough verse should like the torrent roar."

The same conformity of the sound to the sense is too discernible in the following lines.

"O'er all the dreary coasts!
Dreadful gleams,
Dismal screams,
Fires that glow,
Shrieks of woe,
Sullen moans,
Hollow groans,
And cries of injur'd ghosts."

Nor can we here overlook Milton's description of the opening of hell-gates;—

"—— On a sudden open fly,
With impetuous recoil and jarring found,
Th' infernal doors, and on their hinges grate
Harsh thunder—"

The following is also an excellent specimen from the same author's "Lycidas":—

"Grate on their scranell pipes of wretched straw."

Dyer has also made an excellent attempt in the same way, in his "Ruins of Rome":

"—— The pilgrim oft
At dead of night mid his orison hears
Aghast the voice of time, disparating towers,
Tumbling all precipitate down-dash'd,
Rattling around, loud thundering to the moon."

But the following lines of Pope furnish the best example of this kind:

"What! like fir Richard, rumbling, rough and fierce,
With arms, and George, and Bruntwick crowd the verse,
Rend with tremendous sounds your ears asunder,
With gun, drum, trumpet, blunderbuss, and thunder?
Then all your Muse's softer art display,
Let Carolina smoothe the tuneful lay,
Lull with Amelia's liquid name the nine,
And sweetly flow through all the royal line."

There are other subjects beside found, to which language

is capable of bearing some resemblance. Time and motion, *e. g.* or whatever can admit the epithets of quick and slow, may in some degree be imitated by speech. This appears with particular advantage in verse, when, without any violation of the rules of prosody, a greater or a less number of syllables is made to suit the time. Thus Milton:—

“When the merry bells ring round,
And the jocund reboes found,
To many a youth and many a maid
Dancing in the chequer’d shade.”

The Greek and Latin have here an advantage, at least in their heroic measure, superior to all modern tongues; accordingly Homer and Virgil furnish excellent specimens in this way. Our own tongue and metre, however, afford instances not unworthy of notice. We shall select the translation by our English bard of the following much admired passage from Homer:

“——— λαοὶ αὖν ὠδοῖκε πῶλε λαοῖσι—
Αὖτις ἐπείαε πρὸνδονε κυλινδῶλο λαοὺς ἀνείδων.” Od.

“Up the high hill he heaves a huge round stone;
The huge round stone resulfing with a bound,
Thunders impetuous down, and smokes along the ground.”

Vida, in his “Art of Poetry,” has well exemplified this beauty from his great master, Virgil:

“Ille autem membris, ac mole ignavius ingens
Incedit tardo molimine subfudendo.”

Slowness of motion is admirably exemplified by Pope, in the following lines:

“A needless Alexandrine ends the song,
That, like a wounded snake, drags its slow length along.”

In representing uncommon speed, he thus expresses himself:

“Not so when swift Camilla scours the plain,
Flies o’er th’ unbending corn, and skims along the main.”

Thus Dryden:

“Which urg’d, and labour’d, and forc’d up with pain,
Recoils, and rolls impetuous down, and smokes along the plain.”

There are also other affections of motion, besides swiftness and slowness, which may, to a certain degree, be imitated in the sound of the description: but our limits will not allow us to introduce examples. Size or magnitude, difficulty and ease, are subjects of imitation in language. For an instance of difficulty, we produce the following couplet from Pope:

“When Ajax strives some rock’s vast weight to throw,
The line too labours, and the words move slow.”

Moreover, the agreeable in things may be adumbrated to us by smooth and pleasant sounds, and the disagreeable by such as are harsh and grating.

With regard to the species of beauty which we have been describing and exemplifying, we may observe, that it is, in many cases, more the creature of the reader’s fancy than the effect of the writer’s ingenuity; and as it occupies the lowest rank in the scale of rhetorical excellence, it ought always to give place to the other virtues and ornaments of elocution, and not *vice versa*. The cases in which it ought to be aimed at are comparatively few.

Vol. XXXVII.

Compositions in prose, those excepted which are intended to persuade, and which aim at a certain vehemence of style and sentiment, should hardly ever be allowed to exemplify the resemblance above-mentioned; and even in poetry, this beauty seems naturally adapted only to the most pathetic passages, and most descriptive parts. In poems in which it is most suitable, it should be admitted only in a few passages, when it is the author’s intention to describe something that is peculiarly striking.

In the inquiry how far vivacity may be affected by the number of words that are used, our author concurs with others in laying it down as a maxim, that the fewer the words are, provided neither propriety nor perspicuity be violated, the expression is always the more vivid. “Brevity,” says Shakspeare (Hamlet), “is the soul of wit.” Of whatever kind the sentiment be, witty, humorous, grave, animated, or sublime, it is certain that the more briefly it is expressed, the energy is the greater, or the sentiment is the more enlivened, and the particular quality for which it is eminent the more displayed.

Among the Lacedæmonians, who were remarkable for conciseness, to use few words, to speak energetically, and to be laconic, were almost synonymous. Pope has in a peculiar degree studied conciseness, and rendered it conducive to vivacity. The following example will be sufficient:

“See how the world its veterans rewards!
A youth of frolics, an old age of cards;
Fair to no purpose, artful to no end;
Young without lovers, old without a friend:
A fox their passion, but their prize a fox;
Alive ridiculous, and dead forgot.”

The principal offences against brevity of diction are, *tautology*, *pleonasm*, and *verbosity*; which see respectively.

Another circumstance upon which vivacity of elocution depends is the arrangement of words: and this might be considered as it respects simple and compound sentences. (See SENTENCE and PERIOD.) We shall here observe, that composition and arrangement in sentences, though nearly connected, are not entirely the same. Composition includes arrangement, and something more. When two sentences differ only in arrangement, the sense, the words, and the construction are the same; but when they differ also in other articles of composition, there must be some difference in the words themselves, or at least in the manner of constructing them. See Campbell’s Philosophy of Rhetoric, vol. ii. p. 158, &c.

VIVALDI, DON ANTONIO, in *Biography*, the most popular composer for the violin, as well as player on that instrument, of his time. He was maestro di capella of the conservatorio of La Pietà, at Venice. (See CONSERVATORIO.) Besides sixteen operas which he set for the Venetian theatres, and several others for different parts of Italy, between the year 1714 and 1737, he published eleven different works for instruments, of which a list is given in Walther, without including his pieces called “Stravaganze,” which among flashy players, whose chief merit was rapid execution, occupied the highest place of favour. His Cuckoo concerto, during our youth, was the wonder and delight of all frequenters of country concerts; and Woodcock, one of the Hereford waits, was sent for far and near to perform it. If acute and rapid tones are evils, Vivaldi has much of the sin to answer for. His title of Don was derived from his clerical character. “It is very usual,” says Mr. Wright in his Travels through Italy, from 1720 to 1722, “to see priests play in the orchestra. The famous Vivaldi, whom they call the *Prete Rosso*, very well knows among

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among us for his concertos, was a topping man among them at Venice."

VIVAR, in *Geography*, a town of Spain, in Old Castile; 6 miles from Burgos.—**Alfo**, a town of Italy, in Friuli; 5 miles N.E. of Aviano.

VIVARAIS, before the revolution a province of France, in Lower Languedoc, on the right side of the Rhône, of which Viviers was the capital; now the department of the Ardèche.

VIVARIO, a town of the island of Corfica; 10 miles S. of Corte.

VIVARO, a small island in the Mediterranean, a little to the east of Ithia.

VIVARY, **VIVARIUM**, in our *Law-Books*, is sometimes used for a park, warren, or fish-pond, in which living creatures are kept.

VIVER, in *Geography*, a town of Spain, in the province of Valencia; 8 miles N.W. of Segorbe.

VIVERO, a town of Spain, in Galicia, on the river Vivero or Landrova; 18 miles N.W. of Mondonedo.—**Alfo**, a river of Spain, in Galicia, which runs into the sea; 12 miles E. of Cape Ortegal.

VIVEROL, a town of France, in the department of the Puy de Dôme; 9 miles S.S.W. of Ambert.

VIVERON, a town of France, in the department of the Dora, on a lake; 10 miles S. of Ivrea.

VIVERRA, in *Zoology*. See **FERRET** and **MUSTELA**.

VIVERRA, in the *Linnean System*, is a distinct genus of the order *Feræ* (though united by Pennant and Shaw to the genus *Mustela*; which see), the characters of which are, that it has six cutting-teeth, the intermediate being shorter; one of the canine teeth on each side longer than the rest; the grinders more than three; the tongue bending backwards, often aculeated; and the nails extended. Gmelin reckons twenty-seven species, which are as follow.

ICHNEUMON; **Grey Ichneumon**. With distant thumbs, and tail gradually tapering from a thick base, and tufted at the end. This is called the rat of Pharaoh. See **ICHNEUMON**.

MUNGO; **Rufous-grey Ichneumon**. With distant thumbs, and untufted tail, gradually tapering from a thick base: the Indian ichneumon of Edwards; the quill or quipele of Ray; and the mangoutte of Buffon. Shaw suggests that this may be a variety of the former; and he observes, that the ichneumon is a species of which there seem to be two distinct varieties, one of which (*viz.* the latter) is a native of India, and the other (or former) of Africa: they are alike in general appearance, but the Egyptian variety is considerably larger than the Indian, and has its tail tufted at the end, and thus differing from the Indian. In India, as well as in Egypt, the ichneumon is regarded as one of the most useful and estimable of animals; as it is an inveterate enemy to serpents, rats, and other noxious creatures which infest those regions. (See **ICHNEUMON**.) In India, it attacks with great eagerness and courage that most dreadful reptile, the cobra de capello, or hooded snake, and easily destroys it. For such purposes it is domesticated as the cat is in Europe. It is said to swim and dive occasionally, like the otter, and to continue for a long time under water. This animal is found, not only in various parts of India, but in the Indian islands, as Ceylon and others. It occurs also in various parts of Africa besides Egypt, as in Barbary and the Cape of Good Hope, &c.

CAFRA; **Yellowish-brown Weasel**. With tail gradually tapering from a thick base, and black at the tip. This animal, resembling, in its general form, the pole-cat, and nearly the length of the otter, with blackish feet and very

short ears, covered with woolly fur, is a native of the Cape of Good Hope.

ZENIK; **Four-toed Grey Weasel**. With ten transverse black bands on the body, and deep chefnut-coloured tail, black towards the tip; it is about the size of a water-rat, with a long snout, and two incisive and six canine teeth in each jaw; it has five toes on each foot; the claws on the fore-feet being very long, and almost straight; and those on the hind-feet are small and crooked. It is described by Sonnerat as a Caffrarian species, being found in the country of the Hottentots.

TETRADACTYLA, or **SURIKATTE**; the **Grey-brown Weasel**. With four-toed feet, and long moveable snout, and ferruginous tail, black at the tip: the furcate of Buffon, and four-toed weasel of Pennant. It is an inhabitant of the Cape of Good Hope, where it is called Meer-rat. It feeds on flesh, and preys on mice and other small animals. It commonly sits erect like the squirrel, and when pleased, makes a rattling noise with its tail, from which circumstance it has obtained, among the Dutch inhabitants of the Cape, the name of Klappermaus. It is also found in the island of Java, where the Dutch call it Surikatje, on account of a peculiar acid scent which it is said to emit.

NASUA; **Rufous Weasel**. With tail annulated with white, and lengthened moveable snout: the coat of Margrave, and coati-mondi of others, and Brasilian weasel of Pennant. Its size is equal to that of a cat; its colour cinereous-brown, with a cast of reddish, and tail annulated with distinct circles of black. Like the pole-cat, it preys on the smaller quadrupeds, birds, &c. It is a native of South America. Some animals are distinguished by a prolongation of the skin at the back of the head into several horny processes, about a quarter of an inch in length; and the upper part of the tongue is marked with several furrows, disposed so as to resemble the fibres of a leaf.

NARICA; **Brownish Weasel**. With tail of the same colour, and lengthened moveable snout: the coati-brun of Buffon, and dusky weasel of Pennant; reckoned a variety of the former both by him and Shaw. However, it is larger than the former, of a browner colour, and without any very distinct variegations on the tail. It feeds on animals and vegetables; goes into the water, and also climbs trees. It is found in South America.

VULPECULA; **Dark-chefnut-coloured Weasel**. With lengthened snout: the coasse of Buffon, and stifling weasel of Pennant. It is about the size of the pole-cat, of a deep or blackish chocolate colour, that of the tail sometimes mixed with white. This animal is a native of Mexico, and many other parts of America, and when attacked or irritated in pursuit, emits very powerfully offensive effluvia.

QUASSE; **Chefnut-coloured Weasel**. Beneath yellowish, with prolonged snout and annulated tail; is found at Surinam, and feeds on worms, insects, and fruits, and is fed. Probably a variety of the coati-mondi, or Brasilian weasel.

PUTORIUS; **Blackish Weasel**. With five parallel, white, dorsal stripes: the striated weasel of Pennant, and conepate of Buffon: supposed to be the female of the *V. vulpecula*. Found in North America. It is sometimes tamed, and rendered domestic. See **MUSTELA Putorius**.

CONEPATL; **Blackish Weasel**. With two white dorsal lines extending along the tail. It is a native of New Spain, and probably a variety of the preceding.

MEPHITIS; **Brown Weasel**. With white back, marked with a longitudinal black stripe: the skunk weasel of Pennant, and chinche of Buffon. In manners and smell this species resembles the two preceding.

The *V. Chinge* of Molina, or black weasel, with a changeable cast of blue, and a row of white spots from head to tail, resembles in shape and general form the *chinch* just mentioned; but its colour is black. It is a native of Chili. According to Molina, its smell proceeds from a greenish oil, ejected from a follicle or receptacle near the tail. The Indians are said to value the skin of this species on account of its beauty, and to use it for various purposes, quilts, &c.

ZORILLA. Weasel variegated with black and white: the zorilla of Buffon; the mapurito and mafutiqui of Gumbell, &c.; smaller than the three preceding. A native of Peru and other parts of South America. The ground-colour is black; the tail as bulky and elegant as that of the mephitic weasel. It possesses the same faculty with the three former species.

MAPURITO; Black Weasel. With snow-white band from the forehead to the middle of the back, and without any external ears. This is the *V. putorius* of Mütis. Its tail is nine inches long, and whitish at the tip. It inhabits New Spain, burrows under ground, feeds on worms and insects, and may, perhaps, be a variety of the mephitic weasel.

VITTATA; Blackish Weasel. With a broad white band from the forehead to each shoulder: the grifon of Buffon; a native of Surinam, and found at Pamplona, in New Spain, and probably in every part of South America.

ZEYLANICA; Cinereous Weasel. Mixed with brown; whitish beneath; resembling the martin, and suspected by Schreber to be the same with the Ceylonese dog of Vofmaer. It is found in Ceylon, and probably in the Philippine Isles.

CAPENSIS; Black Weasel. With grey back edged with white. This is the flinkbinken of Kolbe, and ratel weasel of Pennant. It is one of the larger animals of the genus; cinereous-grey above, and brownish-black below, the two colours being separated along the whole length of the animal, from the base of the nose to the tail, by a stripe of black and white; when pursued it ejects a fetid liquid, accompanied with the intolerable smell of that of the American weasels, or skunks, and producing the same effects. It is found at the Cape of Good Hope, and in Guinea.

MELLIVORA. With cinereous back, with a black lateral band; the abdomen black; the claws long, hollow beneath, and formed for burrowing. This is the ratel of Sparrmann, feeding principally on the honey of wild bees, and found about the Cape of Good Hope. This honey-weasel has a very tough and loose skin, with thick hair, supposed to be given to it as a natural defence against the stings of bees. Mr. Pennant seems to have confounded this animal with the *V. capensis*; both species feed on honey; but Mr. Sparrmann does not mention any offensive effluvia in his description.

CIVETTA; Ash-coloured Weasel. Spotted with black, with chestnut-coloured mane, and dusky tail spotted towards the base. This is the felis zibethi of Gesner and Aldrovand, and the civette of Buffon, and commonly known by the name of the civet cat. It is a native of several parts of Africa and India. It is of a mild disposition, preys on birds and small quadrupeds, and produces the drug called *civet*; which see.

ZIBETHA; Ash-grey Weasel. Striated with black undulations, and an annulated tail. It is the felis zibethi of Gesner, and zibet of Buffon. Pennant regards it as the same species with the former, but it is generally considered by modern naturalists as distinct. It is found in India, and the Indian islands, and may be called the Indian, whilst the former is denominated the African civet cat. In disposition

and manners they both seem to agree; as well as in the secretion of the perfume before-mentioned, which is collected from both animals in the same manner.

HERMAPHRODITA; Dark-grey Weasel. With three black dorsal stripes, and long tail with black tip. Schreber has described this species from Dr. Pallas. It is a native of Barbary.

GENETTA; Fulvous-grey Weasel. With the body marked with rows of black spots, and annulated tail. It is the genet of Buffon, and one of the most beautiful animals of the genus, and about the size of a small cat. Its disposition is mild, and it is easily tamed. In various parts of the East, and particularly at Constantinople, it is domesticated like the cat, and no less serviceable in clearing houses from rats and mice. It is a cleanly animal, and has a slight musky smell. It is a native of the western parts of Asia, and is said likewise to occur in Spain, and in some parts of France. The French variety, however, is less elegantly and distinctly spotted than the Oriental genet; and Mr. Pennant considers it as a distinct species, under the name of "Pilofello."

FOSSA; Ash-coloured Weasel. Spotted with black, and with annulated tail. This is the fossane of Buffon, and so nearly allied to the genet, and of the same size, that it might be taken for a variety of the same animal. It is a native of Madagascar, Guinea, Bengal, Cochin-China, and the Philippine islands: it is fierce, and with difficulty tamed. It destroys poultry like the common weasel: when young, it is said to be good food.

TIGRINA; Yellowish-grey Weasel. With brown variegations; annulated tail tipped with black or brown, and a black stripe from head to tail. This is the chat-bizaam of Vofmaer, and the blotched cat of Pennant; of the size of the cat, and of mild manners. Mr. Pennant has referred it to the genus Felis, but Mr. Schrader makes it a Viverra. It is found at the Cape of Good Hope. Gmelin suggests that it may be a variety of *V. fossa*.

CAUDIVOLVULA; Yellow Weasel. Shaded with dusky, with prehensile tail: the yellow macuaco and yellow weasel of Pennant, and le kinkajou potot of Buffon. It is an animal of gentle manners, active and playful, and hangs by its tail occasionally, like the prehensile-tailed monkeys. Supposed to be a native of Jamaica. The kinkajou of Buffon is supposed by Pennant to be a distinct species, and called Mexican weasel. It was brought from New Spain; and is described as fond of vegetables of various kinds, and delighted with fugar and different sweets; and would seize on birds, and suck the blood without tearing its prey. It slept much by day, and was lively during the night; exhibited the actions of a monkey, and had various cries, sometimes a kind of barking note, at other times hissing, or variously modified.

FASCIATA; Grey Weasel. With six longitudinal black bands, beneath white; the hairs of the tail long, black and reddish. This is the chat sauvage à bandes noires des Indes of Sonnerat, who first described and figured it. It is a native of India.

MALACCENSIS; Grey Weasel. Dotted above with black, with four round spots above the eyes, and three black bands on the neck and rump, and long tail annulated with black. It is a native of Malacca, described by Sonnerat; of the size of a domestic cat, and much allied to the genet and the fossane. It lives by chase, is nimble in climbing trees, and so fierce, that if it be only wounded when shot, it will turn back and attack the aggressor. It diffuses a powerful musky odour, from a receptacle like that of the civet cat. The Malays collect the fluid there secreted, and pretend that it is stimulant and stomachic. It is much

cited for these qualities by the Chinese, who purchase it of the Malays. Of this species there are some varieties.

For other species of weasel, we refer to *MUSTELA* and *WEASEL*.

VIVES, a disease of the glandular kind among animals, especially those of the horse kind. In it there is an inflammation of the glands under the ear, which produces a swelling, that gradually enlarges and forms a tumour, that sometimes terminates in suppuration. It is occasionally accompanied with a slight fever, but not constantly. It is mostly caused by cold and other circumstances which have a tendency to produce inflammation.

In these cases, when the inflammatory appearances and fever are moderate, the size of the tumour not large, but after suppurating discharges itself externally, there is little danger; while on the contrary, when the inflammation is more deeply seated, and the swelling breaks and discharges its contents internally, there is more danger to be apprehended.

In the removal of the disease, where the appearances of the fever and inflammation are rather high, it may sometimes be necessary to take away a little blood, as a pint or two, or more, according to the size of the animal, keeping the bowels properly open by the use of suitable food and clysters; and at the same time, the inflamed and swelled gland or part has a fomentation or wash of Goulard's water and camphorated spirit frequently applied to it, by means of a cloth of the flannel or other kind; or, in some cases, where there is a tendency to suppuration, a bran or linseed poultice made up with the same water may be more effectual. A powder composed of nitre and aniseed, in the quantity of an ounce or an ounce and a half of each, may likewise be given at night in a quart of oatmeal gruel.

In case matter be formed, and it can be plainly felt by the gentle pressure of the finger upon the part, the tumour may be opened with a lancet in the most depending part, which will prevent any ulceration of the skin. In cases where the tumours have been very large, a seton is sometimes introduced, in order to support the discharge until the cavity which contained the matter be filled up. In this case, the fomentation need only be continued a few days afterwards, when the wound may be dressed with common digestive ointment spread upon lint. As the wound begins to heal, the seton may be withdrawn.

Where the tumours break inwardly, the animals may often be greatly benefited by breathing occasionally for some time through a nose-bag of scalded bran.

When the animals do not recover their strength in a proper manner, but become weaker and weaker in consequence of the discharges from the opened tumours, bark of the oak or other similar kinds should be given in large quantities, with opium, and aromatic seeds in fine powder, for some length of time.

In the more early stages of the disease, the animals should have masses of bran and oatmeal, with warm water or thin gruel often given them, and in case the masses should be refused, the gruel should be more frequently given. And in the latter, when their strength will permit, they should have walking exercise daily, and be well taken care of in their whole management.

While the tumours tend towards suppuration, it is often useful and necessary to keep them warmly covered about the heads and necks, but in other cases this may sometimes be hurtful.

When their strength is fully restored, a dose or two of calomel is often beneficial in completely removing all danger of the complaint.

VIVES, JOANNES LUDOVICUS, in *Biography*, was born at

Valencia in Spain in 1492, and having laid the foundation of literature in his own country, went to Paris, where he studied the fashionable scholastic philosophy, which he afterwards condemned. From Paris he removed to Louvain, devoting himself there to the study of Greek and Latin literature, and publishing a work intitled "Contra Pseudo-Dialecticos." In this university he became professor of belles-lettres, and acquired a degree of reputation which caused him to be chosen preceptor to William de Croy, afterwards cardinal. He also studied divinity, and wrote a commentary on St. Augustine's book "De Civitate Dei," which he dedicated, in 1522, to Henry VIII. king of England. In consequence of this work he received an invitation, in 1523, to undertake the instruction of the prince of Wales, which he accepted. During his residence in England, he composed for the use of his pupil a tract, "De Ratione studii puerilis," and by command of queen Catharine, his treatise "De Institutione Fœminæ Christianæ." At Oxford, where he spent much of his time, he read lectures on law and also in the classics, and was admitted to the degree of D.L.L. Vives forfeited the king's regard by opposing in conversation and writing the divorce of queen Catharine, and was also confined for six months in prison. As soon as he was at liberty he left England, and settled at Bruges, where he married. He was highly esteemed by his contemporaries among men of literature; and so high was his reputation, that he was popularly named with Erasmus and Budæus, as one of the triumvirate at the head of literature at that period. From an epitaph it is inferred that he died after he had completed his 48th year. His works were both various and numerous. In divinity, his treatise "De Veritate Fidei Christianæ," in five books, is represented by Dupin as a learned and judicious performance. His Commentary on St. Augustine displays much erudition, but the Louvain doctors censured some passages as too bold and free, and in their edition of the commentary they were omitted. Dupin is of opinion that his other theological and devotional writings display more of the orator than of the divine; and that Erasmus excelled him in judgment. The principal of his grammatical and critical works were his "Exercitatio Linguae Latine;" "De Corruptis Artibus;" "De tradendis disciplinis." Brucker says of these works; "they discover great strength of judgment, an extensive knowledge of philosophy, much enlargement of conception, uncommon sagacity in detecting the errors of ancient and modern philosophers, particularly of Aristotle and his followers, and, in fine, a mind capable of attempting things beyond the standard of the age in which he lived." The works of Vives were printed collectively in 2 vols. fol. at Basil in 1555. Dupin. Moreri. Brucker by Enfield.

VIVIANI, VINCENIO, an eminent mathematician, was born of noble parents, at Florence, in the year 1622. Manifesting at an early period his genius for mathematics, he was recommended by Ferdinand II., grand duke of Tuscany, to Galileo, under whose tuition he made very rapid progress in geometry and the new philosophy. After his death, he was invited by Torricelli to assist him in his experiments on the barometer. But he was chiefly devoted to the study of geometry, and his attention was particularly directed to the ancient geometricians. His first object, at the age of 23 years, was to supply the last work of a contemporary of Euclid, "De Locis Solidis;" and he then proceeded to accomplish the same design with regard to the "Conics of Apollonius;" for an account of which we refer to the article **APOLLONIUS**. Viviani projected the restoration of the 5th book; with this view he prosecuted his labour with great diligence, and in the year 1659 published his divination of Apollonius. When this work was afterwards

afterwards compared with that of the Greek mathematician, it was discovered that Viviani had not only formed new theories, but that he had discovered many new properties of the conic sections, so that his work may be considered as a supplement to the ancient theory of these curves. In the years 1664 and 1665, he was engaged, in concurrence with Caffini, in concerting means for preventing the inundations of the Tiber, by altering the course of certain rivers: and in their survey of the country for this purpose, they were led to a variety of collateral observations on the insects found in the gall-nut, on marine shells, partly petrified and partly in their natural state, dug up in the mountains, and also on Etruscan vases and inscriptions. In 1666, the grand duke of Tuscany honoured Viviani with the title of his mathematician, which had been previously enjoyed by Galileo; and in 1673 he commenced printing the work of Aristeus, an ancient mathematician, the restoration of which he had at an early period of his life contemplated: but infirmities and other engagements prevented his proceeding with it. In the following year he published, in a small quarto, some works of Galileo, and particularly his Treatise on Proportion, for illustrating the 5th book of Euclid. In 1676, three problems were proposed by M. de Comiers, provost of the collegiate church of Ternant, two of which related to the trisection of an angle, for the solution of which Viviani had discovered three methods, which he now determined to publish. His work on this subject, dedicated to the memory of his friend Chapelain, appeared in 1677. In 1692 he proposed, in the Acts of Leipzig, a problem relating to the art of piercing an hemispherical arch with four equal windows, in such a manner that the remainder of the surface should be absolutely squareable. This problem, which he called a geometrical enigma, was solved by Leibnitz, J. Bernouilli at Basle, the marquis de l'Hospital in France, and by Dr. Wallis and David Gregory in England. Viviani himself published the problem and his own geometrical solution of it in a work, in which he treats, both as a geometer and architect, of the arches of the ancient Romans, and proposes a new arch to be called the Florentine. In 1664 Louis XIV. had settled on him an annual pension, in consideration of his distinguished merit; and in 1669 he was appointed one of the eight foreign associates of the Academy of Sciences. Thus noticed, he was led in 1701 to publish his divination of Aristeus, in three books, dedicated to his benefactor. Part of his pension was devoted by him to the construction of a magnificent edifice at Florence, which he called "Ædes a Deo date," and over the gate he placed a bust of Galileo, with several inscriptions in honour of him. In his old age he amused himself with the solution of several problems relating to chances on dice. He also published, for facilitating the study of geometry, an edition of Euclid's Elements, both plane and solid. Viviani, desirous of rendering mathematics in connection with the arts practically useful, was consulted both by his countrymen and foreigners on various public works; and it is stated, that, among other benefits which he conferred on his country, he contributed, by the introduction of new terms in his mathematical and philosophical writings, to render the Tuscan language more copious; but his style is said to be inferior in elegance to that of his master Galileo. After a life of usefulness and honour, prolonged to his 81st year, he died of an apoplexy, in October 1703.

Bayle has accused him of atheism: but Fabroni has refuted the charge. Fontenelle says, "he had that innocence and simplicity which are commonly preferred by persons who have more intercourse with books than with men,

without that haughtiness and boisterous rudeness which are often acquired by them. He was affable, modest, sincere, and faithful in his friendships; and what includes many virtues in one, he was grateful, in the highest degree, to those from whom he received favours." His works were numerous. To some of them we have already referred. Fabroni. Montucla. Fontenelle Eloges, &c. Gen. Biog.

VIVIEN, JOSEPH, a French painter, who, though a pupil of Le Brun, practised his art mostly in crayons, and obtained a degree of reputation, which few who have worked in those perishable materials have arrived at. He was born at Lyons, in 1657. His portraits were fresh and vigorous, and obtained for him considerable employment, and the favour of the elector of Bavaria, who made him his state painter, and gave him a pension. His portrait is among those of distinguished artists at Florence. He died in 1735.

VIVIER, LA, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Ille and Vilaine; 3 miles N. of Dol.

VIVIERS, a town of France, in the department of the Ardèche, on the right bank of the Rhône. Before the revolution, the see of a bishop, and capital of a province, called Vivarais, now the department of the Ardèche; 16 miles S.S.E. of Privas. N. lat. 44° 29'. E. long. 4° 46'.

VIVIFICATION, in *Medicine*, the art of *vivifying*, that is, of contributing to the action that gives life, or maintains life.

The chemists also use the word in speaking of the new force, vigour, and lustre, which, by their art, they give to natural bodies, particularly to mercury; which, after having been fixed, or amalgamated, they restore to its first state. See REVIVIFICATION.

VIVIPAROUS, VIVIPARUS, in *Natural History*, an epithet applied to such animals as bring forth their young alive and perfect; in contradistinction to such as lay eggs, which are called *oviparous* animals.

The females of all the quadruped class are *viviparous*, and those of the bird class are all *oviparous*.

The laws of nature in the larger animals are, therefore, in a great measure, fixed and certain; but it is not so in the insect tribes, nor in the fishes; for of these, some are viviparous, and others oviparous; and those of genera nearly allied to one another.

Among insects, the much greater number are oviparous; but there are many which are not so, as the pucerons, proglan insects, cochineal, &c. The millepedes and scorpions are also well known to be so; all the females of the butterfly, and of some other classes, lay only eggs; but the most singular and remarkable inconsistency in nature, if we may be allowed the expression, is that in the fly kingdom; the same class of insects, and even the same genus, will furnish us with some which are viviparous, and others which are oviparous: the two-winged flies give us instances of this; but these are not singular in that respect; for among the reptile world, there are other creatures which are subject to the same varieties; and Swammerdam has observed a viviparous snail.

The species of viviparous two-winged flies are much more rare than the oviparous; and among the four-winged class they are yet more uncommon. It is not certain, that any of the latter, beside the winged pucerons, are of this kind; but among the former there are six or seven species which are known always to produce living worms, and probably many more will be discovered, by a more close attention than has hitherto been given them.

It is easy to find about our houses one of these species of viviparous

viviparous flies; the creature is always buzzing about the places where meat is kept, and loves to deposit her young, as the common blue flesh-fly does its eggs, on meat. Its way of carrying its wings is the same with that of the blue fly, and its antennæ are of the same form. It at least equals the blue fly in length, but its body is less thick, and is a little bent at the hinder part; its colour is grey; its legs are black; its petty wings whitish, and its reticular eyes reddish.

There are, beside this species, two other of the viviparous flies, which are not uncommon. Both these, in a great measure, resemble the former, but their bodies are shorter, and, in the whole, they much more than the other approach to the form of the blue flesh-fly. They are also smaller than the former species: the one of them, however, on the whole, is not so much fo, and, though shorter, yet is much thicker both in the corcelet and body. They are both, though smaller than that kind, yet tolerably large flies, and are bigger than the common horse-fly.

On the leaves of ivy also there are often seen, about autumn, two other species of viviparous flies, which are easily distinguished from all the others. Those of one of these species are larger than the great blue flesh-fly, and have a shorter and thicker body than that kind. The manner of carrying the wings is also the same in both; but though both have antennæ of the battledore kind, yet they are evidently distinguished by this, that the extremities of the one are lenticular, and those of the other prismatic. Near the origin of each wing these have a brownish spot, as have those oviparous flies which usually have in their body only two large eggs at a time, and which are produced of the yellow worms, so common in cow-dung. But these viviparous ones differ from those flies, in that they are larger, and of a deep, but dead brown; whereas the others are black, or nearly so.

The other species is not much unlike this in form, but is smaller, being not more than of the bigness of the blue flesh-fly, and of a bluish-black; so that it might easily be mistaken for one of the common flesh-flies, were it not for the two brown spots at the insertion of the wings; and both this and the former species are plainly distinguished from the cow-dung fly before described, by their wanting the gold-coloured down which that has on the fore-part of its head. Reaumur, *Hist. Insect.* vol. iv. p. 405, seq.

Vipers are distinguished from snakes, in that the latter lay eggs in dunghills, to be hatched by the warmth of them; but the former are viviparous, that is, they keep their eggs within their bellies, and bring forth live vipers.

In the Philosophical Transactions we have an account of a viviparous fly of the cestrum or gad kind. Dr. Lister tells us, he opened several females of this class, and found, in each, two bags of live white worms. The like is hinted by Aldrovandus. Lister even suspects, that all in this tribe are, in some measure, viviparous.

VIVIPAROUS SHEEP *Fescue Grass*, in *Agriculture*, a sort which is found on the tops of high mountains, and which is particularly worthy of the notice of the flock-farmer, as it is of a very nutritious quality for sheep, and is said to abound in Spain, and to contribute in producing the fine wool of that country. See *FESTUCA* and *GRASS*.

UJUM RAJAH POINT, in *Geography*, a cape on the north coast of Sumatra. N. lat. $4^{\circ} 58'$. E. long. $96^{\circ} 31'$.

VIVO, in *Architecture*, the shaft or fult of a column.

The term is also used, in a more particular sense, for the naked of a column, or other part.

VIVOIN, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Sarthe; 14 miles N. of Le Mans.

VIVONNE, a town of France, in the department of the Vienne; 6 miles E. of Luignan.

VIVUM LINUM. See *LINUM*.

VIVUM SULPHUR. See *SULPHUR*.

VIX, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Vendée; 6 miles S. of Fontenay le Comte.

VIXEN, or FIXEN, among *Sportsmen*, denotes a fox's cub.

VIZA, or BIZIA, in *Geography*, a town of Romania; 50 miles W. of Adrianople.

VIZAPOUR, a town of Hindoostan, in Baglana; 13 miles S.E. of Chandor.

VIZARD, or VIZOR. See *MASQUE*.

VIZERABAD, in *Geography*, a town of Hindoostan, in Lahore; 16 miles N. of Ameenabad.

VIZERABY, a town of Hindoostan, in the Baglana country, celebrated for its hot springs; 20 miles N.E. of Basseen.

VIZEROY, a town of Hindoostan, in the circar of Ellore; 10 miles N. of Ellore.

VIZIAMANGALUM, a town of Hindoostan, in Myfore; 13 miles S.W. of Erroad.

VIZIANAGRAM, a town of Hindoostan, in the circar of Cicacole; 108 miles N.E. of Rajamundry. N. lat. $18^{\circ} 5'$. E. long. $83^{\circ} 36'$.

VIZIANAGUR, a town of Hindoostan, in the circar of Cicacole; 33 miles W.S.W. of Ganjam.

VIZIER. See *VISIER*.

VIZILLE, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Ilerc; 7 miles S.S.E. of Grenoble.

VIZINI, a town of Sicily, in the valley of Noto; 20 miles N.W. of Syracuse. N. lat. $37^{\circ} 2'$. E. long. $14^{\circ} 53'$.

UK, a river of Russia, which runs into the Uda, 16 miles N. of Udinsk.

UKDE, a town of Arabia, in the province of Yemen; 8 miles S. of Abu-Arifch.

UKELEY, a river of Brandenburg, which runs into the Rega, near Plate.

UKENSKOI, a town of Russia, in the government of Tobolsk, at the conflux of the Irtisch and the Oby; 196 miles N. of Tobolsk. N. lat. $61^{\circ} 10'$. E. long. $69^{\circ} 14'$.

UKERATH, a town of the duchy of Berg. In 1796, the Austrians established here a strong post.

UKIKITSCHA, a river of Russia, in the government of Irkutsk, which runs into the Olenek, N. lat. $69^{\circ} 20'$. E. long. $117^{\circ} 21'$.

UKINSKOI, a town of Russia, in the peninsula of Kamtschatka; 80 miles N. of Niznei Kamtschatkoi. N. lat. $57^{\circ} 55'$. E. long. $160^{\circ} 14'$.—Also, a cape of Russia, on the eastern coast of Kamtschatka; 60 miles N.E. of Udinkoi. N. lat. $58^{\circ} 36'$. E. long. 162° .

UKIPEN, a small island in the North Pacific ocean, so called by the Russians, probably the same with that called Sledge island by Capt. Cook. N. lat. $64^{\circ} 22'$. E. long. 211° .

UKKASS, a town of Algiers; 10 miles W. of Tipfa.

UKLI KARAGAISKATA, a fortress of Russia, in the government of Upha; 56 miles W. of Troitsk.

UKRAINE, a name given to a very fertile country, situated on both sides of the river Dnieper, and so fertile, that by the Poles it was always called the "Land of Milk and Honey." It forms now a part of the Russian government of Ekaterinoflav. See *COSSACKS*.

UKSA, a town of Russia, in the government of Viborg; 44 miles

44 miles N. of Serdopol.—Also, a river of Russia, which runs into lake Ladoga; 40 miles N.W. of Olonetz.

ULA, in *Surgery*, a gumboil, or a small abscess of the gums.

VLACO, ADRIAN, in *Biography*, a Flemish mathematician of Ghent, commenced with Napier and Briggs in facilitating, by means of logarithms, the application of trigonometry to scientific and practical purposes. The service which he rendered to this branch of science appears partly under the article BRIGGS. But besides his addition to the work of Briggs, he extended his tables to sines, tangents, and secants, and their logarithms from 10 to 10 seconds. These new and ample tables were published in 1633, with the logarithms of the natural numbers from unity to 20,000.

VLADIMIR, in *Geography*, a town of Russia, and capital of a government, at the conflux of the Kiazma and the Nerl; 100 miles E. of Moscow. N. lat. 55° 50'. E. long. 40° 22'.

VLADIMIR, *Order of St.*, or as it is expressed in the patents, of the prince equal to an apostle Vladimir, a Russian order of knighthood, founded by the empress Catharine II. on the 22d of September 1782, being her 20th coronation day, for men of merit in the civil or military stations. It has four classes, of which the senior knight receives a pension, in the first class 600, and in the fourth 100 rubles. Any person who has served faithfully for 35 years may apply for this order; it is worn to a ribband, red in the middle, and on each side a black stripe: the knights of the two first classes, as in the other high orders, wear a star on the breast. The star is of eight points, interchangeably of gold and silver, having a red area, bearing a cross, with the Russian letters C. P. K. B. "Свѣтло Ревноапостолѣно Кнѣзъ Владимиръ," i. e. the holy apostle-like prince Vladimir. Round the badge are the words "Полъ, Тѣстѣ і Слава," utility, honour and fame, with a ribband of two black and one red stripes. The chapter of this order is held in the church of St. Stephen. In 1790 the number of knights was 716.

VLADIMIRSKOE, in *Geography*, a government of Russia, bounded on the N. by the governments of Jaroslavl and Kostrom, on the E. by the government of Nizgorod, on the S. by the governments of Tambov and Riazan, on the W. by Molkovkaia, and on the N.W. by Tverlkoe; about 160 miles from E. to W. and 80 from N. to S. N. lat. 55° 20' to 57° 10'. E. long. 38° to 43°.

VLADISLAUS I., surnamed *Herman*, in *Biography*, king of Poland, succeeded his brother Boleslaus in the year 1082. As Boleslaus had been excommunicated by pope Gregory VII., and the kingdom laid under an interdict, the pope would allow Uladislaus no other title than that of duke. The defection of Russia, Prussia, Pomerania, and other provinces at the commencement of this reign, obliged Uladislaus to have recourse to arms; and he succeeded at length in subduing the Pomeranians. Soon afterwards, he was involved in a civil war by the rebellion of his sons; but the archbishop of Gnesna effected a reconciliation, and prince Boleslaus defeated the Prussians and Pomeranians who had taken a part against the king during the civil contests. In 1103 Uladislaus died, at the age of fifty-nine, with the character of a pious and mild sovereign, too much under the dominion of parasites and favourites. Mod. Un. Hist. Moreri.

VLADISLAUS II., king of Poland, son of Boleslaus III. succeeded his father in 1139. Being under the influence of his queen Christina, sister of the emperor Henry V., she engaged him in a plan for gaining entire possession of Poland, part of it having been distributed among his brothers

in separate duchies by the testament of their father. He convened the states, but notwithstanding his eloquent harangue, they refused concurring in his project. At length Uladislaus took up arms and attacked his brothers; he expelled two of them from their dominions; but uniting together, they fell suddenly on the royal army and totally defeated it. The king, deserted by the Russians who had engaged to assist him, retired into Germany to the emperor Conrad. At length he was solemnly deposed by the diet, after an inglorious reign of seven years, and succeeded by his brother Boleslaus. Uladislaus, in consequence of the intercession of the emperor Frederic Barbarossa, obtained Silesia, which was thus separated from the crown of Poland, and has never been re-annexed to it. Uladislaus died in 1159. Mod. Un. Hist. Moreri.

VLADISLAUS III., king of Poland, surnamed from his small stature *Loketak*, or cubit's length, having expelled Premislaus II. in 1296, obtained possession of the kingdom. But the people were so oppressed by his tyranny and the licentiousness of his soldiers, that the states deposed him in 1300, and elected Wenceslaus, king of Bohemia, to supply his place. He retired first to Hungary, then to Rome; but hearing of the discontents that prevailed in Poland, he put himself at the head of a considerable army: and whilst he was making conquests, Wenceslaus died, and he was restored to the throne in 1305; with powers limited and restrained. The Teutonic knights having taken possession of a great part of Pomerania, he commenced a war with them, which, after alternate defeats and victories, terminated in his recovery of the territories which they had usurped; Uladislaus, during the progress of the contest, having displayed great military talents, combined with humanity and generosity. He then directed his attention to the arts of peace, and having in the course of fifteen years established his reputation, he indulged himself and his queen in a magnificent coronation, with the full consent of the states and of the see of Rome. Soon afterwards he fell into a chronic disease, which closed his life in 1333, the states having previously promised to elect his son Casimir as his successor. Mod. Un. Hist. Moreri.

VLADISLAUS IV., king of Poland, obtained the crown by the interest of his wife, Hedwiga, daughter of king Lewis, to whom the states had offered the crown on the death of her father, provided that she married with the consent of her subjects, and that her husband would reside in the kingdom. Jagello, duke of Lithuania, was the suitor of the princess, who consented to embrace the Christian religion, to oblige his subjects to be baptized, and to annex Lithuania inseparably to Poland, and to reconquer Pomerania and the territories usurped by the Teutonic order. The Poles approved his liberal offers, and interposed to gain the consent of Hedwiga, who was attached to William of Austria. At length Jagello's person and vivacity, together with the urgent persuasion of the people, overcame her reluctance, and she gave her hand to him in 1386, when he was baptized by the name of Uladislaus and elevated to the throne. By this alliance, not only Lithuania, but the duchies of Samogitia and Black Russia, were annexed to the Polish crown. The Teutonic knights became indignant, and revolted; and having recourse to arms, took several fortresses before the king was aware of their designs. However, he soon expelled them, and reduced the palatine of Bosnia, who had revolted, to submission. He then undertook the conversion of the Lithuanians, who were gross idolaters. With this view he cut down their sacred forests, extinguished their fires, demolished their temples, established a body of Christian clergy, and erected an archbishopric at its capital, Wilna.

Wilna. Leaving his brother Skirgello as his viceroy, he returned to Poland. Skirgello by his barbarity, and the Teutonic knights by their unwarrantable practices, soon occasioned a rebellion, that was not terminated without much bloodshed. This event was followed by a war with the Tartars, in which the lieutenant of Lithuania was defeated by a lieutenant of Tamerlane, and by wars between Poland and Prussia, in which Uladiflaus took the field in person, and penetrating into Pomerania, gained a great victory over the knights near Marienburg. Failing to take the town, he consented to grant the knights an advantageous peace. The reputation of Uladiflaus induced the Hussites of Bohemia to offer him the crown, but he declined accepting it. After a reign of forty-eight years, generally prosperous and at length tranquil, he died at a very advanced age in the year 1434, highly honoured and much regretted. Mod. Un. Hist. Moreri.

ULADISLAUS V., king of Poland, was the son of the preceding. See LADISLAUS IV. king of Hungary.

ULÆ, in *Ancient Geography*, a people of Asiatic Sarmatia, upon the coast of the Caspian sea. Ptol.

ULAK, in *Geography*, a mountain of Bosnia; 20 miles S.S.W. of Zwnick.

ULAMA, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Palestine, S.E. of Dio Cæsarea, at the distance of about 12 miles.

ULAMIRSKA, in *Geography*, a town of Russia, in the government of Tobolsk; 48 miles E.S.E. of Yalutovik.

VLARDINGEN, or VLAERDINGEN, a town of Holland, formerly the seat of the counts, situated on the N. side of the Meuse; 2 miles W. of Schiedam.

ULATHA, in *Ancient Geography*, a town placed by Josephus between Galilee and the Trachonitis.

ULAU, in *Geography*, a town of Bengal; 45 miles W.N.W. of Ramgur.

ULBACH, a river of the duchy of Baden, which runs into the Elzach, 4 miles N.W. of Elzach.

ULBO, a small island in the Adriatic, near the coast of Dalmatia; 4 miles W. of Pago.

ULCAMI, or ULCUMI, a kingdom of Africa, on the coast of Guinea, N. of Adra.

ULCER, in *Surgery*. The word *ulcer*, as professor Thomson rightly observes, does not easily admit of a satisfactory definition. It has, says he, sometimes been used in a more extensive, and at other times in a more limited sense. By some it has been defined to be a solution of continuity in the solid parts of the body, accompanied with the discharge of a purulent fluid. According to this definition, the term ulcer is synonymous with the words *fore*, *suppurating wound*, and *open abscess*. Dr. Thomson thinks this use of the term *ulcer* too general and indefinite. By others, the term *ulcer* has been employed to express only those solutions of continuity, from which an ichorous, sanious, or vitiated matter is discharged, attended with a loss of substance in the part. Although professor Thomson thinks more favourably of this definition than the former, we confess our decided preference of the other, for the reasons which this judicious surgeon has himself explained. If we object to calling suppurating wounds, and such abscesses as have burst, ulcers, as long as they discharge healthy pus, what particular reason is there for approving of their receiving this name only when the matter from them happens to be of a bad quality? The healthy or unhealthy state of the discharge from a *fore* or an abscess, is an accidental circumstance, depending upon the favourable or unfavourable condition of the parts to admit of the process by which they are to be healed. If the preceding capricious method

of defining an ulcer were to be sanctioned, every ulcer would cease to be one, when the discharge from it becomes healthy pus; nor could there be any such ulcer as that which has usually been described by the name of the *simple*, *purulent*, and *healthy ulcer*.

In all the foregoing cases, whether sores, suppurating wounds, or open abscesses, the parts can be healed only by one and the same process,—the formation of granulations; and the principal difference in these examples is, that in suppurating wounds and abscesses, there is not always a loss of substance, as in the instances of ulcers. In these, a chasm or breach is actually produced in the part affected by the action of the absorbent vessels in the process of *ulceration*; which see.

The causes of ulcers, says Dr. Thomson, are extremely various. Some of these causes operate more, others less directly; some are limited in their operation to the parts to which they are immediately applied, while the influence of others extends to the general system; and hence a distinction of ulcers, which is in common use, and which must ever continue to be made of ulcers, into local and constitutional. It is only, however, within certain limits, as professor Thomson observes, that even this distinction is well founded; for an ulcer which was at first completely local, may in time affect the system so as to become constitutional; and ulcers which derived their origin from some general affection of the system, may remain after the constitutional affection has been removed, by which they were originally produced.

When an ulcer arises from an internal cause, it is, as professor Thomson has accurately explained, the immediate effect of the process of ulcerative absorption (see ULCERATION); but when a wound, a burn, or an abscess, becomes an ulcer, it is by no means necessary that the process of ulcerative absorption should in any degree whatever have taken place. A suppurating surface, when it is long in healing, or when it is changed from a healthy to an unhealthy state, may, according to the use that is at present made of the term *ulcer*, become an ulcer, without the process of ulceration having ever been induced. Every suppurating surface, or abscess of long continuance, may, in this extended sense, be regarded as an ulcer; at least, the period at which they cease to be wounds or abscesses, and when they become ulcers is not very distinctly marked. So true, indeed, is this, that in defining and classifying ulcers, authors have always found it necessary to set out from a healthy state of the suppurating surface, or, in other words, to begin the consideration of the subject of ulcers, with what they term a healthy or a simple purulent ulcer.

Ulcers, continues Dr. Thomson, have usually been distinguished from each other, as Fallopius very justly remarks in his treatise upon this subject, by the causes by which they are induced, by the symptoms which they exhibit, and by the parts of the body in which they occur. The want of a disposition to heal in a suppurating surface may depend upon some specific action in the cause from which it proceeds; upon something peculiar in the constitution of the patient in whom it exists; or merely upon an improper mode of management. Hence, the distinction that has long been made of ill-conditioned sores, or ulcers, into those which are specific in their nature, and into those which are simple.

Specific sores, or ulcers, may be occasioned by specific poisons, or by particular diatheses. The sores, or ulcers, which arise from specific poisons, may be either local, that is, confined, like a primary syphilitic ulcer, to one part; or constitutional, that is, liable to occur in any part, texture,

or organ, such as secondary syphilitic ulcers. Of diatheses predisposing to ulcers, we have examples in the scrophulous, scorbutic, and arthritic diatheses, and also in the syphilitic diathesis, or that which arises not unfrequently in those who have had syphilis, from the too free and injudicious use of mercury.

In addition to the foregoing observations, selected from the valuable lectures on inflammation, lately published by professor Thomson of Edinburgh, we subjoin from the same excellent authority a few more general remarks on the subject of ulcers.

The appearances, says Dr. Thomson, which different ulcers exhibit, seem at first view to afford an excellent foundation for distinctions among them; and so they undoubtedly do in many respects. Surgeons have accordingly endeavoured to observe, arrange, and classify, the various morbid appearances which occur in ulcers, and to give to these appearances appropriate and peculiar names. It is probable that every morbid affection, to which the human body is liable, possesses characters, or exhibits appearances, which are peculiar to itself. To discover these appearances in the symptoms of diseases, and in the various modes of their commencement, progress, and termination, is at all times the great object which the scientific practitioner proposes to himself. It is to be regretted, however, that the characters upon which the distinctions of ulcers, as well as of many other local diseases, are founded, are neither very uniform in their appearance, nor very easily distinguishable from one another. Not only are the local appearances, which present themselves in simple ulcers, liable to great variations in the different stages of the same individual affection, but they are often apparently the same with, or at least not easily distinguishable from, those which occur in specific diseases, and which require for their cure peculiar modes of treatment. It is this circumstance which renders it so necessary for us, in endeavouring to distinguish and to cure ulcers, to avail ourselves of all the information which we can procure from the history of the ulcer, from the nature of the exciting cause by which it has been induced, and from the effects of the remedies which have been employed, as well as from the particular appearances which the ulcer itself exhibits. But though the distinctions, which are taken from the appearances of ulcers, may not at all times enable us to distinguish those which are simple in their nature from others which arise from specific causes, they are not, says professor Thomson, to be regarded as unimportant or useless; for, he believes, it will be found, that similar appearances in ulcers require in general, though not always, the same local applications, and similar modes of management, whether the ulcers be of a simple or specific nature.

Specific diseases render some parts more liable than others to attacks of ulceration. Thus, secondary syphilis appears most frequently in the throat; scurvy in the gums; cancer in the lower lip; and lupous and scrophulous ulcerations in the upper lip, or in the nose. Cancer seldom or never appears primarily in the upper lip; but syphilis, when it attacks this part, puts on many of the appearances of cancer; a fact which professor Thomson first learned from Mr. Pearson, and which he has since had several opportunities of seeing confirmed.

Ulcers upon the lower extremity, *cæteris paribus*, are longer in healing than sores in other parts of the body. This comparative backwardness of ulcers of the legs to heal is probably owing to three principal circumstances: first, the distance of these parts from the source of the circulation; secondly, the retardation of the venous blood in them in the

erect position of the body; and, thirdly, the disturbance and irritation to which such ulcers are frequently exposed, by the patient imprudently walking about, and neglecting himself. The common position of the lower extremities is also very unfavourable to the quick passage of the lymph through the trunks of the absorbents; and this may be the reason why even the slightest injuries of the lower extremities are often accompanied with a considerable degree of œdematous swelling.

Sir Everard Home, in his Practical Observations on the treatment of ulcers of the legs, mentions several facts, which seem to prove that ulcers are more common in tall than in short men; and that ulcers of the legs heal with more or less difficulty, according as they are seated nearer to, or more remote from, the feet. Ulcers, unconnected with any specific disease in the constitution, may occur on the legs, as well as other parts of the body, from external or from internal causes. Among the external causes, says professor Thomson, we may rank contusions, wounds, burns, and the application of every substance capable of exciting inflammation. Among the internal causes we ought probably to rank the predisposing causes. Of these, we have not only the distance from the heart, and retrograde motion of the blood, but peculiarities of constitution, such as temperaments, diatheses, and idiosyncrasies; which often become manifest only from the effects to which they give rise. Thus, the slight scratch, or excoriation, which in one person will heal without any trouble; in another, though placed in circumstances precisely alike, becomes a disagreeable and troublesome ulcer. An ulcer, also, which is produced in the leg of a person of a scrophulous diathesis, though the disease may never have appeared in the general system, often discovers a backwardness to heal, and in some instances exhibits symptoms that are peculiar to itself. The age, mode of life, and habits of the patient, are circumstances also which will modify the appearances, and tend to increase the backwardness to heal and the obliquity of ulcers. Thus, the aged, the sedentary, and the dissipated, are known to be more liable to ulcers of the lower extremities, than the young, active, and sober. See Thomson's Lectures on Inflammation, p. 426—433.

We shall next endeavour to describe the several principal varieties of ulcers, and the most approved methods of treatment.

Simple purulent or healthy Ulcers.—The ulcers, termed *simple purulent* by Mr. Benjamin Bell, sir Everard Home denominates *ulcers in parts, which have sufficient strength to carry on the actions necessary for their own recovery*. As Dr. Thomson has observed, the descriptions, which have been given of these ulcers by different authors, will soon apprise us, that they differ in no respect from healthy suppurating surfaces. The pus is of a white colour, thick consistence, and readily separates from the surface of the sore. When diluted, and examined with a microscope, it is found to be composed of small globules, which swim in a transparent fluid. The granulations of a healthy ulcer are small, florid, and pointed at the top. As soon as they have risen to the level of the surrounding skin, those which are next to the old skin become smooth, and covered with a thin, transparent film, which is afterwards rendered opaque, and converted into cuticle.

The main indications in the treatment of healthy ulcers are, to keep the surface, and especially the adjoining integuments, clean, and to prevent the natural processes from being interrupted. According to sir Everard Home, this will in general be best accomplished by the application of dry lint, in order to absorb and retain the secreted matter,

which serves as a soft covering for the granulations. A pledget of simple ointment must also be laid over the lint, for the purpose of hindering the evaporation of the fluid parts of the pus. By this means, the dressings will continue soft and moist, be prevented from becoming adherent to the surface of the fore, and kept in a state in which they can always be removed without pain, or irritation.

In some particular examples of healthy ulcers, sir Everard Home has found rollers or bandages disagree, causing uneasiness in the part, and making the sores lose their healthy appearance. This, however, is not the usual effect of a roller in such cases; but, whenever it is observed to be so, the bandage must of course be discontinued.

In a few other instances, ointments are found to irritate and inflame the neighbouring skin, so that it becomes necessary to leave them off. In such cases, the surgeon may apply over the lint a compress of fine linen, wet with water, or the lotio plumbi acetatis.

There are also certain superficial ulcers, which will not heal, while kept in a moist state, unexposed to the air; but which readily heal when allowed to become dry, and covered with a scab. Sir Everard Home has made the following general remarks on the subject of dressings for healthy ulcers.

1. Applications in the form of vapour, and fomentations, should never be employed, as they render the texture of the granulations looser, and diminish the disposition to form skin.

2. With respect to fluid applications, sir Everard Home also very properly condemns poultices, as well as fomentations. He speaks of alcohol, as being an application, which promotes the formation of a scab, when this mode of cure is chosen.

3. In regard to ointments, their only use, in cases of healthy ulcers, is to keep the matter from evaporating. The most simple ointments are the best for the purpose, particularly the one composed of white wax and olive oil.

The great objections to the common simple ointments are, that they sometimes disagree with the skin, even when recent, and free from all rancidity. When they have acquired the latter quality, they still more frequently create a greater degree of irritation.

4. With respect to applications in the form of powder, sir Everard Home remarks, that when it is desirable to form a scab on the ulcer, any inert powder may be sprinkled on the fore; but he prefers dry lint. Nothing should touch the powder, or lint; and to prevent this circumstance, sir E. Home recommends applying a little bolster on each side of the fore, and over them a roller, which will go from one bolster to the other, in the manner of a bridge.

For healthy ulcers, dry lint is to be regarded as being, upon the whole, the most eligible application. When the fore does not secrete pus enough in twenty-four hours to moisten the lint, the dressings are only to be changed every other day.

When a moderately tight bandage is not forbidden by constitutional peculiarities, it is useful, both in supporting the muscles and skin, which are often in a flabby state, from the unexercised state of the limb, and in defending the newly formed parts.

We shall presently have occasion to speak of Mr. Baynton's plan of dressing old ulcers of the leg with strips of adhesive plaster. This method is now not confined to old ulcers, but often adopted with advantage in cases of simple healthy sores upon the lower extremities.

Of irritable Ulcers.—These are called by Mr. Benjamin Bell *simple vitiated ulcers*; and by sir Everard Home, *ulcers*

in parts, whose actions are too violent to form healthy granulations, either from the state of the parts, or of the constitution. Mr. Bell characterizes this species of ulcer chiefly by the vitiated state of the discharge; while the other gentleman ranks all ulcers under the denomination of irritable, which require sedative applications for their cure.

According to the observations of the latter writer, an irritable and an indolent ulcer cannot always be distinguished from each other by mere appearances, though they can be so in a few instances. The disposition of an ulcer, like the disposition of a constitution, can only be accurately ascertained by determining the actions, which arise from the different impressions made upon it.

The following appearances, however, are said to afford a decisive indication of the irritable nature of an ulcer. The margin of the surrounding skin is jagged, and terminates in an edge, which is sharp and undermined. The bottom of the fore exhibits concavities of different sizes. There is no distinct appearance of granulations, but a whitish spongy substance is seen, covered with a thin ichorous discharge. Every thing which touches the surface gives pain, and very commonly occasions hemorrhage. The discharge is altered from common pus to a thin fluid, in proportion to the degree of irritability communicated to the fore by constitutional causes. The pain of an irritable fore in general gradually diminishes. When it is not constant, but comes on in paroxysms, chiefly in the evening, or night-time, with great violence, convulsive motions of the limb are apt to occur, and to extend to various other parts.

When the foregoing signs of an irritable ulcer are not present, we must form a judgment of the nature of the fore, by attending to the history of the case, and the effects of various applications upon the disease. But when such information cannot be obtained, it is the advice of sir Everard Home, that the treatment should always begin with the supposition of the ulcer being of an irritable nature.

When an ulcer occurs just over the malleolus externus, it is generally of an irritable kind, in consequence of the nature of the part on which it is situated, quite independently of any constitutional or local disposition to irritability. Sir Everard Home conceives that the periosteum, which here lies immediately under the skin, becomes the seat of the ulcer, is the cause of its being very difficult to heal, and gives it an irritable appearance. The fact, that sores situated upon the ligament of the patella, and over the periosteum of the anterior surface of the tibia, assume a similar appearance, and are equally difficult to heal, made the above gentleman more confirmed in his sentiment.

1. On the subject of applications to irritable ulcers, sir Everard Home entertains a favourable opinion of those which are in the form of vapour. The steam of warm water has very beneficial effects; but it is not often used alone; and, what seems curious, its utility is said to be greater in these cases, when the water is mixed with spirits. Fomentations, containing opium, are also described as producing considerable benefit. The tincture of opium, sprinkled on flannel wrung out of hot water, and flannels wet with a warm solution of the extract of opium, or with a decoction of poppy-heads, are enumerated as eligible applications. A decoction of chamomile flowers, the tops of wormwood, or henlock leaves, may also be used with advantage.

There are some particular irritable ulcers, however, specified by sir Everard Home, which are rendered more painful by warm applications. These sores are represented as being generally attended with a mottled purple discolouration of the limb for some distance from them, and a coldness

of the lower part of the leg. They are likewise said to have a tendency to mortification, and it is remarked that this disagreeable event seems to be promoted by warm applications.

2. With respect to moist applications, the linseed-meal poultice is the most simple, and most easily prepared; and as it does not necessarily require any addition of oil, it is to be prepared when the latter ingredient appears not to agree with the fore.

The lotio plumbi acetatis sometimes makes an useful fluid for the composition of poultices for irritable ulcers; but it does not always agree with these sores; and Sir Everard Home states, that if it be used a long time, it is apt to excite a kind of paralysis, known by the appellation of the lead colic, or colica pictonum.

In cases of irritable ulcers, the decoction of poppy-heads should not be forgotten, as it is a very excellent liquid for poultices. The carrot poultice is also found to agree better, than most other things, with a large number of irritable ulcers.

If poultices be employed, their use is to be continued as long as the granulations are small, and the ulcer is rapidly diminishing in size, even till the cicatrization is complete. When the granulations become large, and loose in their texture, poultices should no longer be used.

When the weight of a poultice cannot be borne, the surgeon may try the application of lint dipped in one of the following lotions, and covered with a pledget of any simple ointment:—a solution of the extract of opium; a decoction of poppies; the tincture of opium; a decoction of cicuta; the lotio plumbi acetatis compoſita; or a diluted solution of the nitrate of silver.

Professor Thomson observes with respect to poultices, that, notwithstanding all that has of late years been said against their use in the treatment of ulcers, he is still very partial to their employment in a great proportion of the morbidly inflamed and irritable states into which ulcers are so liable to pass. He declares, that he has often seen irritable ulcers, which had resisted all other means of cure, heal up under the continued use of these applications. Lectures, &c. p. 444.

3. Applications in the form of powders are generally found to be too stimulating for irritable ulcers. Carbon has sometimes been thought to do good; and so has powdered extract of opium, mixed with an equal quantity of carbon, or linseed flour. However, opium sometimes affects the constitution by being absorbed, and sometimes it produces a great deal of pain, irritation, and sloughing.

4. Ointments cannot be said to be frequently proper applications for irritable ulcers; as they are always more or less rancid, and generally disagree with the skin in such cases. Sir E. Home recommends cream as a very useful application, especially in those examples in which warmth is found to do harm. As a substitute for it, the same writer mentions an ointment, composed of hog's-lard, purified by repeated washing in spring water, and then mixed with a small quantity of white wax and rose-water.

The observations made respecting solutions of lead, apply to the unguentum plumbi acetatis.

5. If the horizontal position be necessary in the cure of simple ulcers of the leg, it is still more so in every instance of an inflamed or irritable fore.

6. Irritable sores cannot generally bear the pressure of bandages. According to Sir E. Home, however, a slight degree of pressure does good to certain ulcers which arise from weakness, and are somewhat irritable.

7. In the treatment of ulcers in general, and of irritable sores in particular, the surgeon will often find immense ad-

vantage from frequently changing the kind of dressing employed. Few cases will continue to heal favourably longer than a certain time under the employment of one sort of application. The surgeon ought therefore to be acquainted with the effects of many different kinds, in order that he may make an alteration as frequently as the state of the case requires.

Of the Fungous Ulcer.—In some cases, as Dr. Thomson observes, the inflammation of the surface of an ulcer is followed by an excess in the growth of granulations; in some, by the death or sloughing of the granulations, and of the parts which surround them; and in others, portions of the surface and edge of the ulcer are removed by the process of ulcerative absorption. The extremes of these states form sores, which are termed *fungous*, *putrid* or *sloughing*, and *ulcerative* or *phagedenic* ulcers. In most instances, however, the surface of an old sore upon the legs manifests but little disposition, after an attack of inflammation, to pass into the state of granulation, or of ulceration. It often remains long in a stationary condition, forming what has been termed an *indolent* or *callous* ulcer.

When the granulations of an ulcer, instead of being small, red, and firm, become large, pale, loose, soft, and flabby; and when, instead of rising to, and remaining on a level with, the surface of the surrounding skin, they rise much higher; the case is technically called a *fungous ulcer*, or *ulcer with hyperſarcoſis*. This is the case which Sir Everard Home has chosen to name the *ulcer in parts*, which are too weak to carry on the actions necessary for their recovery. It is the disease which Mr. Burns describes under the name of the *over-acting* ulcer. We think that professor Thomson, of Edinburgh, is perfectly right in regarding the old name of *fungous*, as less exceptionable than those which have been more recently proposed as substitutes for it. The old name, as this gentleman observes, involves no hypothesis respecting the state or action of the vessels, and merely expresses the fact, that in some suppurating surfaces, the granulations are spongy in their consistence, and too luxuriant in their growth. Lectures, &c. p. 437, 438.

The granulations of these sores are larger, more round on their external surface, and of a less compact texture than those formed on ulcers in healthy parts. Sir E. Home has also noticed their semi-transparent appearance. When they have filled up the cavity of an ulcer to a level with the surface of the body, they do not readily form skin, but, rising up in a still higher manner, often lose altogether the power of producing new cutis. When the parts are still weaker, the granulations sometimes continue gradually to fill up the hollow of the ulcer, and then, all on a sudden, are suddenly absorbed, so as to leave the fore as deep as it was before.

Ulcers may be weak from the first, or become so in the progress of the cure. Even granulations of the most healthy kind, if they are not skinned over in a certain time, gradually lose their primitive strength.

Sores on the legs are greatly under the influence of all natural peculiarities of the constitution, and every thing which affects the health. When the constitution becomes in the least weaker or stronger, the appearance of the granulations becomes changed accordingly, and this effect of constitutional weakness or strength on ulcers, is greater in proportion as the sores are further from the source of the circulation.

While the constitution is undergoing any kind of disturbance, the healing of an ulcer is suspended. Mental anxiety is very apt to retard cicatrization.

Such effects of the constitutional kind on ulcers are
S f 2 greater

greater in weak and delicate persons, than in the strong and robust. Change of weather has considerable influence over the healing of sores. Sir E. Home mentions, in proof of this fact, that when there were several hundreds of ulcers in the Naval Hospital at Plymouth, in 1778, every time the weather changed from a dry to a moist state, the ulcers universally assumed an unhealthy appearance; but put on a better aspect when the weather became dry again.

In the treatment of this kind of ulcer, tonics are to be exhibited, particularly bark and steel; and every thing which disagrees with the constitution is to be avoided. Wine and cordial medicines are also usually preferred. Porter, however, is deemed better than wine, for working people.

Sir E. Home observes, that the first object in the local part of the treatment, is to keep the granulations from rising above the edge of the surrounding skin. This gentleman very judiciously represents the greater propriety of preventing the granulations from ever becoming too high by the employment of proper applications, than following the common plan of destroying the high granulations with escharotics, after they have risen to an improper height. There cannot be the smallest doubt, that if the granulations could always be prevented from rising up too much, the patient would suffer a great deal less pain.

Instead of applying to the surface of the ulcers, now under consideration, lunar caustic, blue vitriol, red precipitate, &c. Sir E. Home prefers mixing these escharotics with other substances, so as to render them only strong stimulants, and using them in this latter form. He conceives that, when the high granulations are destroyed with escharotics, the disposition of the surface underneath to reproduce them is increased, but that this is not the case when the luxuriant parts are only stimulated so as to become absorbed.

The same gentleman seems to think, that when animal substances grow with great rapidity, they are, like vegetable ones, weaker than when produced in a slower manner. Hence Sir E. Home is of opinion, that the growth of granulations ought to be checked in the early stage of their formation, by some resistance which they are just able to overcome, under which circumstances they derive strength from the limited increase of action which they are obliged to undergo.

On the same principle, according to Sir E. Home, the pressure of tight bandages is advantageous; and ulcers which heal while the patient is walking about, are not so apt to break out again as when healed while the parts are in a state of rest.

In the treatment of these ulcers, when the granulations have come to a proper height, and do not form a thin semitransparent pellicle upon their surface, they are to be considered as weak parts, and treated accordingly. Sir E. Home thinks, that in this circumstance, the best plan, when no particularity of constitution forbids, is pressure made with a thin piece of lead over the dressings, and supported with a tight bandage.

Although, strictly, we have no topical applications which can directly communicate strength to granulations, there are certainly some which prevent the granulations from exhausting themselves by luxuriant growth, and stimulate them to draw more blood from the arteries, which effects, as Sir E. Home remarks, render such granulations stronger.

1. This gentleman very properly condemns, as applications to weak ulcers, all relaxing fomentations commonly employed; and recommends instead of them the use of

spirits of wine and the decoction of poppies, in equal proportions, not however to be applied hot.

2. With regard to moist applications, the same gentleman expresses his disapprobation of poultices, and mentions a weak solution of the *argemum nitratum* as the most eligible application in an aqueous form.

3. On the subject of powdered substances, as applications to weak ulcers, Sir E. Home says he has often tried bark, and the *lapis calaminaris*, without perceiving that the former had any power of strengthening granulations, or the latter any virtue in disposing them to form new skin; properties commonly imputed to these applications.

Sir E. Home entertains no better an opinion of plaster of Paris, or powdered chalk, employed with a view of promoting the formation of skin. Powdered carbon, he speaks of, as being more adapted to irritable, than weak ulcers. He praises powdered rhubarb, as particularly applicable to the latter kind of ulcer, because it represses the luxuriant growth of the granulations, renders them small and compact, and disposes them to form skin. When, however, the granulations have risen above the level of the skin, it is not powerful enough to reduce them. When the rhubarb is too stimulating, it is to be mixed with a fourth part of crude opium in powder.

A piece of lint, a little less than the sore, is always to be put over the powder, and covered with a pledget of simple ointment.

4. Ointments, according to Sir E. Home, are particularly apt to disagree with weak ulcers. When other applications fail, however, greasy ones may be tried, and the above gentleman gives a preference to the ung. *hydrarg. nitrat.* mixed with hog's-lard, in the proportion of one to five, or else to common cerate, blended with a small quantity of the *hydrarg. nitrat. ruber.*

Of Indolent or Callous Ulcers.—When the edges of the skin surrounding an ulcer become thick, prominent, smooth, and rounded, and when the bottom of the ulcer is covered with smooth and glossy raw flesh, which, as Dr. Thomson remarks, can scarcely be said to be raised into granulations, the case is called an *indolent* or *callous* ulcer. This is the disease which Sir E. Home has denominated an *ulcer in parts, whose actions are too indolent to form healthy granulations.*

Under the name of callous or indolent ulcer, as professor Thomson observes, authors have included by far the greater number of ulcers which affect the lower extremities. This is the ulcer which, of all the varieties to be mentioned, is perhaps the most deserving of attention; for the callous or indolent state is that into which almost all ulcers of the lower extremities have a tendency to pass, and in which they often continue stationary, or nearly so, for months or even for years. Most of the general rules which have been laid down by practical authors, respecting the treatment of ulcers of the legs, and most of the improvements which have of late years been introduced into this branch of surgery, relate chiefly, if not solely, to the treatment of the callous or indolent ulcer. The parts surrounding this ulcer may be inflamed or uninfamed. If uninfamed, the case is simply a callous ulcer; but if inflamed, it then becomes a callous ulcer in an inflamed, vitiated, or irritable state. This last is the state in which most patients, affected with ulcers of long standing, apply to medical men for advice and assistance. It is the state in which patients affected with this complaint are almost always found, upon their admission into public hospitals. Lectures, &c. p. 438, 439.

According to Sir E. Home, the indolent ulcer forms in

ULCER.

its appearance a complete contrast to the irritable one. The edges of the surrounding skin are thick, prominent, smooth, and rounded. The surface of the granulations is smooth and glossy. The pus is thin and watery, being composed of a mixture of pus and coagulating lymph. The lymph consists of flakes, which cannot be easily separated from the surface of the sore. The bottom of the ulcer forms quite a level, or nearly so, and the general aspect conveys an idea that a portion of skin and parts underneath has been for some time removed, without the exposed surface having begun any new action to fill up the cavity. When, however, the indolence of the ulcer is not so strongly marked, the sore does not correspond to the preceding description, but resembles in appearance the ulcer which possesses an inferior degree of irritability, and it can only be discriminated from it by the circumstance of its receiving no benefit from soothing applications.

When an indolent ulcer does form granulations, these in some cases are all on a sudden absorbed, and in the course of twenty-four hours the sore becomes as much increased in size, as it had been previously lessened in as many days or weeks.

Two varieties of indolent ulcers have received distinct names. In one of these cases, the ulcer is connected with one or more apertures, leading into hollow fuppurating cavities: this forms what has been sometimes termed a *fistulous*, and at other times a *sinuous* ulcer. The other variety of callous or indolent ulcer is that which is accompanied with a permanently enlarged, or varicose state of the veins of the limb. This case is often called the *varicose* ulcer, and is frequently very difficult of cure. The practical observations which apply to this particular form of disease, will be found in another article. See *VARICOSE VEINS*.

In the treatment of indolent ulcers, the indication is not merely to heal them, but to render the cure as permanent as possible. This is to be effected by changing the nature of the granulations, and using such dressings as will give them a more vascular healthy appearance. When an ulcer, which has existed six months, has been dressed with poultices for a week, the granulations will have partly filled up the hollow of the sore; but they will be found to be large, loose, and glossy. Should the poultice be now discontinued, and some proper stimulating application be used for another week, the granulations at the expiration of this time will have become smaller, more compact, redder, and free from the glossy appearance. Now experience proves that the ulcer, when healed by the latter application, will not be so likely to break out again, as when healed with large, loose, flabby, glossy granulations. Indeed, Sir E. Home assures us, that the number of indolent sores which heal under the use of stimulating applications, and do not break out again, are, in comparison with similar cases treated with mild dressings, as four to one.

The callous, or indolent ulcer, as Dr. Thomson observes, changes very readily into an inflamed or irritable one; and the sore is generally in the latter state, when patients first apply to surgeons for relief. Their ulcers are commonly in a temporary state of irritation from neglect, exercise, excels, &c.

We have already stated, that medicines, in the form of vapour, cannot heal indolent sores, so as to effect a durable cure. Such remedies, however, are proper, when these ulcers assume a foul appearance, and are in a temporary state of irritation. Hence, for the first few days after the commencement of regular surgical treatment, poultices and fomentations are the best applications.

The fomenting liquor may be a decoction of poppy-heads, or chamomile flowers, or simple warm water, which answers equally well. The best poultices are those of bread and milk, linseed meal, and oatmeal. The most advantageous time for fomenting the sore is while the poultice is preparing, which should be changed twice a day.

When an indolent ulcer does not appear to be attended with any particularity, a solution of the nitrate of silver is considered by Sir E. Home as one of the best watery applications. It stimulates the granulations, and makes them put on a more healthy appearance. Its strength is to be increased according to circumstances. An ulcer, which at first cannot bear this solution above a certain strength without pain, and an absorption of the granulations, becomes able, after the application has been used about ten days, or a fortnight, to bear it twice as strong: a proof of the granulations having acquired strength.

The tincture of myrrh, a decoction of walnut-tree leaves, and the diluted vitriolic acid, have all been tried as applications for indolent ulcers, and with advantage. A scruple of nitrous acid, mixed with eight ounces of water, forms also another useful local remedy, which, according to Sir E. Home, promotes, in a very uncommon manner, the progress of the cure. The first application of diluted nitrous acid gives a good deal of pain, which, however, ceases in about half an hour.

When an indolent sore heals with the diluted nitrous acid, the process of skinning is accomplished with more rapidity, than when other applications are employed; and the new skin is said by Sir E. Home to be more completely formed.

The only application, in the form of powder, ever much employed for indolent ulcers, is the pulv. hydrarg. nitrico-oxidi. It cannot be used, however, except for the most indolent sores, as in fact it is an escharotic, and, if applied too freely, destroys every attempt at the formation of granulations upon the surface of the ulcer. When too often used upon a sore of any material size, it will also sometimes produce a violent salivation of the patient. The writer of this article has seen many patients unintentionally salivated in this manner.

Ointments, containing ingredients which are more or less stimulating, have been at all times the favourite dressings for indolent ulcers. "Ointments containing resin, or oil of turpentine, in their composition, to which a small portion of some metallic oxyd, or metallic salt, has been added, were (as professor Thomson observes) till very lately the most approved applications in the management of callous ulcers. Every variety and form of these stimulating ointments had its partisans and recommenders among practitioners; but the truth is, that this kind of ulcer occasionally got well under every diversity in the form and composition of the ointments employed." (Lectures on Inflammation, p. 446.) According to Sir E. Home, one of the best ointments for indolent ulcers consists of one part of the unguentum hydrargyri nitrati, mixed with three of hog's-lard. Its strength, however, must be increased, after it has been used a certain time for the same ulcer. This ointment is said to have the good effect of quickly removing the thickening of the edges of indolent ulcers, and the surrounding dark red colour of the skin. It also seems to possess extraordinary efficacy in making the granulations assume a small healthy appearance, and the ulcer, when healed with such granulations, is less likely to break out again. Sir E. Home thinks that the resins and turpentine are not so powerful as the acids and metallic salts, in giving the granulations a healthy appearance, and a disposition to resist being absorbed.

Camphorated

Camphorated ointments are represented as being particularly applicable to cafes, in which there is present a degree of indolent thickening.

Befides ointments somewhat stimulating in their nature, bandages have been found particularly serviceable to indolent ulcers. The laced stocking was much used, and is particularly recommended by Wifeman. As Dr. Thomson remarks, however, it is in appearance only, that this mode of bandaging in ulcerated, or varicose legs, has any advantage over that by the common circular roller. The use of the circular bandage, with dressings composed of unguentum resinofum and red oxyd of mercury, in different proportions, was some years ago recommended in a particular manner to the attention of the English public in a very useful treatise, which Dr. Underwood published upon the treatment of old ulcers of the legs. He allowed his patients to go about their ordinary occupations, under this mode of treatment, first, because it was inconvenient for many of them to be confined; and secondly, because it was found, that many of those patients whose ulcers were healed up during rest, broke out again as soon as they began to take exercise. It must be acknowledged, that many indolent ulcers do get well under the mode of management recommended by Dr. Underwood. In many persons the bandaging, and that degree of cleanliness which is occasioned by the regular dressing of their sores, are of infinite service; but it is a mode of treatment which does not answer in all old and indolent ulcers; for many of them, according to the experience of Dr. Thomson, become inflamed and irritable under its use. He observes, also, that the recurrence of ulcers in persons who begin to take exercise after being cured, has appeared to him to be often occasioned by their leaving off the bandaging, by their standing or walking too much, and by accidental injuries. The part which has been healed up during rest is weak, and requires support and careful defence, which it very seldom receives from the class of individuals who are most liable to this species of ulcer. Lectures on Inflammation, p. 447.

The treatment of ulcers with bandages has had of late years a very zealous advocate in Mr. Whateley, who, in the year 1799, published strongly in favour of the plan, in his Practical Observations on the Cure of Wounds and Ulcers on the Legs, without rest. In the cafes adduced in this essay, very little variety of dressing was employed; and, with some exceptions specified by the author, pressure was principally relied upon as the means of cure. This gentleman gives a preference to fine flannel rollers, somewhat less than four inches wide.

But of all the improvements which have of late years been introduced into the treatment of old indolent ulcers of the legs, that which was first proposed and practised by Mr. Baynton, of Bristol, is by far the most interesting and important.

Mr. Baynton acquaints us, that the means proposed by him will, in most instances, be found sufficient to accomplish cures in the worst cafes, without pain or confinement. After having been repeatedly disappointed in the cure of old ulcers, Mr. Baynton determined on bringing the edges of old ulcers nearer together by means of slips of adhesive plaster. To this he was chiefly led, from having frequently observed, that the probability of an ulcer continuing found, depended much on the size of the cicatrix which remained after the cure appeared to be accomplished; and from well knowing, that the true skin was a much more substantial support and defence, as well as a better covering, than the frail one which is obtained by the assistance of art. But when he had recourse to the adhesive plaster, with a view to lessen

the probability of those ulcers breaking out again, he little expected, that an application so simple would prove the easiest, most efficacious, and most agreeable means of treating ulcers.

Although the first cafes in which Mr. Baynton tried this practice were of an unfavourable nature, yet he had soon the satisfaction to perceive that it occasioned very little pain, and materially accelerated the cure, while the size of the cicatrices were much less than they would have been, had the cures been obtained by any of the common methods.

At first, however, the success was not quite perfect; as, in many instances, he was not able to remove the slips of plaster, without removing some portion of the adjacent skin, which, by occasioning a new wound, proved a disagreeable circumstance, in a part so disposed to inflame and ulcerate, as the vicinity of an old sore. He therefore endeavoured to obviate that inconvenience, by keeping the plasters and bandages well moistened with spring-water, for some time, before they were removed from the limb. He had soon the satisfaction to observe, that the inconvenience was not only prevented, but that every succeeding case justified the confidence which he now began to place in the remedy. He also discovered, that moistening the bandages was attended with advantages which he did not expect: while the parts were wet and cool, the patients were much more comfortable in their sensations, and the surrounding inflammation was sooner removed, than he had before observed it to be.

By the mode of treatment here recommended, Mr. Baynton found, that the discharge was lessened, the offensive smell removed, and the pain abated in a very short time. But besides these advantages, he also found, that the callous edges were in a few days level with the surface of the sore; that the growth of fungus was prevented, and the necessity of applying painful escharotics much lessened, if not entirely done away. Mr. Baynton gives the following description of his method.

"The parts should be first cleared of the hair, sometimes found in considerable quantities upon the legs, by means of a razor, that none of the discharge, by being retained, may become acrid, and inflame the skin, and that the dressings may be removed with ease at each time of their renewal, which, in some cafes, where the discharge is very profuse, and the ulcers very irritable, may perhaps be necessary twice in the twenty-four hours, but which I have, in every instance, been only under the necessity of performing once in that space of time.

"The plaster should be prepared by slowly melting, in an iron ladle, a sufficient quantity of litharge plaster, or diachylon, which, if too brittle, when cold, to adhere, may be rendered adhesive by melting half a drachm of resin with every ounce of the plaster: when melted, it should be stirred till it begins to cool, and then spread thinly upon slips of smooth porous calico, of a convenient length and breadth, by sweeping it quickly from the end, held by the left hand of the person who spreads it, to the other, held firmly by another person, with the common elastic spatula used by apothecaries; the uneven edges must be taken off, and the pieces cut into slips, about two inches in breadth, and of a length that will, after being passed round the limb, leave an end of about four or five inches. The middle of the piece so prepared, is to be applied to the sound part of the limb, opposite to the inferior part of the ulcer, so that the lower edge of the plaster may be placed about an inch below the lower edge of the sore, and the ends drawn over the ulcer with as much gradual extension as the patient can well bear; other slips are to be secured in the same way, each

above

above and in contact with the other, until the whole surface of the fore and the limb are completely covered, at least one inch below and two or three above the diseased part.

"The whole of the leg should then be equally defended with pieces of soft calico, three or four times doubled, and a bandage of the same, about three inches in breadth, and four or five yards in length, or, rather, as much as will be sufficient to support the limb from the toes to the knee, should be applied as smoothly as can be possibly performed by the surgeon, and with as much firmness as can be borne by the patient, being first passed round the leg, at the ankle joint, then as many times round the foot as will cover and support every part of it, except the toes, and afterwards up the limb till it reaches the knee, observing that each turn of the bandage should have its lower edge so placed as to be about an inch above the lower edge of the fold next below.

"If the parts be much inflamed, or the discharge very profuse, they should be well moistened, and kept cool with cold spring-water poured upon them as often as the heat may indicate to be necessary, or, perhaps, at least, once every hour. The patient may take what exercise he pleases, and it will be always found, that an alleviation of his pain and the promotion of his cure will follow as its consequence, though, under other modes of treating the disease, it aggravates the pain, and prevents the cure.

"These means, when it can be made convenient, should be applied soon after rising in the morning, as the legs of persons affected with this disease are then found most free from tumefaction, and the advantages will be greater than when they are applied to limbs in a swollen state. But at whatever time the applications be made, or in whatever condition the parts be found, I believe it will always happen, that cures may be obtained by these means alone, except in one species of the disease, which seldom occurs, but which will hereafter be described. The first application will sometimes occasion pain, which, however, subsides in a short time, and is felt less sensibly at every succeeding dressing. The force with which the ends are drawn over the limb, must then be gradually increased, and when the parts are restored to their natural state of ease and sensibility, which will soon happen, as much may be applied as the calico will bear, or the surgeon can exert; especially if the limb be in that enlarged and incompressible state which has been denominated scorbutic; or if the edges of the wound be widely separated from each other."

In adopting the preceding method, Mr. Baynton sometimes observed a breaking of the skin near the ulcers; a circumstance which sometimes proved troublesome, and arose partly from the mechanical effect of the adhesive plasters, and partly from the irritating quality of the plaster. Mr. Baynton, however, only considers such sores of serious consequence, when they are situated over the tendon of Achilles, in which situation they are sometimes several weeks in getting well. In order to prevent them, Mr. Baynton recommends a little bit of soft leather to be applied to the parts which are in danger of being affected.

The cures will generally be accomplished very well by the mere application of the slips and bandage; but when the parts are much inflamed, the secretion great, or the season hot, Mr. Baynton states, that the frequent application of cold water will be found a valuable auxiliary. See A Descriptive Account of a New Method of Treating Old Ulcers of the Legs, by Thomas Baynton, 2d edit. 1799.

Of the Malignant or Putrid Ulcer; or Hospital Gangrene.
—This is a disease which is of a very peculiar nature, and its history must be highly interesting to every practitioner, whose avocations make him likely to have the care of a

large number of patients who are afflicted with ulcers or wounds, and collected together in one building. The surgeons of the army and navy in particular, and those of great hospitals and prisons, ought to be fully acquainted with the subject; for they are all liable to be suddenly called upon to exert their skill in checking the ravages of this severe complaint, the treatment of which is far from being either simple, or well determined.

The symptoms by which the malignant ulcer, or hospital gangrene, is characterized, are partly of a local, and partly of a constitutional nature. According to professor Thomson, these two classes of symptoms are not invariable in the order of their appearance; but his own observations lead him to believe, that the constitutional symptoms usually precede the local. He observes, that, in the progress of the constitutional symptoms, a general uneasiness is felt before any visible change takes place in the wound, or sore, which is attacked with hospital gangrene; the tongue becomes foul, with a sensation of bitterness in the mouth; the appetite decreases, and the patient begins to loathe his food; the pulse becomes very quick, but is in general rather weak than strong; the skin feels hot; and the patient in the progress of the disorder becomes affected with great anxiety and restlessness.

The local appearances of wounds, sores, and ulcers, are soon altered after the commencement of an attack of hospital gangrene. Their surfaces become pale; the discharge of pus becomes less copious and less healthy than formerly; their edges swell, inflame, and become exceedingly painful; they are sometimes ragged; at others reverted, and exhibit a soft spongy appearance. A dusky red-coloured circle of inflammation, having more or less of a livid tinge, extends from these edges into the surrounding integuments, and is often the forerunner of gangrene and sphacelus. Inflamed lymphatic absorbent vessels are sometimes to be observed, extending from the surfaces affected with hospital gangrene, to the contiguous, or communicating, cervical, inguinal, or axillary glands.

The local affection in hospital gangrene seldom occupies at first the whole surface of extensive wounds or sores. It more frequently appears in the form of dirty white ash-coloured sloughs, occupying only one, two, or more small spots, and from these, it gradually extends itself over the whole of the diseased surface. In some instances, hospital gangrene begins in the form of a small inflamed pimple, or vesicle, without our being able to perceive any previous injury of the part in which it appears. More frequently, however, it attacks parts which have been scratched, bruised, or wounded, or which have had the integuments injured by ulceration, burns, or blisters. Specific sores, or ulcers, seem to be less liable to attacks of hospital gangrene, than those which are of a simple nature. Dr. Thomson has seen it, however, repeatedly attack cancerous sores and venereal ulcers. In some instances, it has been said to have produced a cure of these diseases, destroying by mortification the parts on which they were situated. In severe cases of hospital gangrene, the surface of the wound, or sore, which it attacks, is soon changed into sphacelus, and covered with dirty white-coloured sloughs. During the separation of these sloughs, an ill-coloured and sanious discharge, having a peculiar fetid smell, takes place from the surface of the wound, or sore. This surface is often seen covered with a tenacious viscid pus, which firmly adheres to the surface from which it is secreted. In mild cases, the destructive effects of hospital gangrene are confined to the skin and subjacent cellular membrane; but it often extends its ravages beyond these textures, destroying tendinous

fasciæ, muscles, ligaments, and tendons, together with the nerves and blood-vessels. Artery seems to be the texture which resists most powerfully the destructive action of hospital gangrene, as well as of most other species of mortification. When, in the progress of hospital gangrene, adhesive inflammation does not occur, hemorrhage is liable to take place, and, in some instances, to prove fatal. Even in cases in which distinct hemorrhage does not occur, a thin bloody fœces is often discharged, which has a very offensive smell; and the pus, which begins to appear during the separation of the slough, or mortified part, often continues for days to be reddened by an admixture of blood.

The severity and progress of the symptoms in hospital gangrene, as well as the duration of the disease, are extremely different in different individuals. In some, the fever continues with unabated violence for a period of one or two weeks. After suffering an abatement, it is liable to recur; and the patient sometimes sinks under a second or third attack. When the affection has been very severe, has continued long, or has returned frequently, the patient becomes at last generally affected with fever and obstinate diarrhœa. This is a state, from which, if patients recover, it is always in a very slow and tedious manner. See Thomson's *Lectures on Inflammation*, p. 458—461.

Hospital gangrene (says Boyer) is a species of humid gangrene, which attacks in some degree *epidemically* the wounds and ulcers of patients, who happen to be crowded together in an unhealthy place.

Its occasional causes are; the situation of an hospital upon a low marshy ground; the vicinity of some source of infection; the uncleanness of the individuals, or of the articles for their use; the crowded state of the wards, especially when they are small and badly ventilated; lastly, every thing that tends to corrupt the air which the patients breathe. An infected atmosphere may produce in the moist simple wounds unfavourable changes, partly, as Boyer conceives, by its immediate action on the surface of the wound, but, no doubt, principally by its hurtful influence upon the whole animal economy. The foregoing causes have also sometimes produced alarming and obdurate gangrenes of an epidemic kind, or, at least, a state of the constitution, under the influence of which all wounds and ulcers constantly took on a bad aspect, and were often complicated with the most gangrenous mischief. M. Vigaroux saw such an epidemic disease prevail for twenty months in the two hospitals of Montpellier, and he states, that the most powerful antiseptics were of little avail against the disorder, which often invaded the slightest scratches.

In general, this epidemic species of gangrene is not observed in new-built hospitals, nor in those which are erected out of the central parts of cities, upon high ground. Hospital gangrene may occur in any season; but it is most common after the sultry heat of summer. It complicates, without distinction, every kind of solution of continuity. However, it never attacks those of all the patients in the same ward. It manifests itself in different degrees on the majority of them, and it is remarked, that the more extensive the solution of continuity is, the more it is exposed to the disorder. But, occasionally, the disease is confined to a part of the surface of such solution of continuity, while the rest continues to make progress towards cicatrization. Patients, who have escaped infection once, are not on that account exempt from the danger in future.

A bilious constitution, mental trouble, unwholesome or insufficient food, a scorbutic diathesis, great debility, and fevers of a dangerous type, may become so many predisposing causes of hospital gangrene.

The observations of Pouteau, and those of some other practitioners, convincingly prove, that hospital gangrene may be communicated to the moist simple wound, or ulcer, in a subject of the best constitution, and breathing the purest air, by merely putting into contact with such wound, or ulcer, sponges, lint, or charpie, impregnated with the infection of this peculiar disorder. But this inoculation is conceived to be more alarming, and to take effect the more quickly, in proportion as patients have been more exposed to the influence of such causes, as are themselves capable of producing the disease, and also in proportion as the kind of constitution predisposes to it.

Although the contagious nature of hospital gangrene has been generally admitted by all the best informed writers on the subject, we ought to notice, that the doctrine was not considered by Dr. Trotter as having a good foundation. Modern authors, however, have not joined this latter gentleman, and both Dr. J. Thomson and Delpech believe that the disorder is infectious. "The contagious nature of hospital gangrene (says professor Thomson) appears to me to be sufficiently proved, first, by the fact that it may be communicated by sponges, charpie, bandages, and clothing, to persons at a distance from those infected with it. Secondly; by its having been observed to attack the slight wounds of surgeons, or their mates, who were employed in dressing infected persons; and that even in circumstances where the medical men so employed did not live in the same apartment with the infected. Thirdly; by our being able often to trace its progress distinctly from a single individual through a succession of patients. Fourthly; by its attacking recent wounds as well as old sores, and that in a short time after they are brought near to a patient affected with the disease. Fifthly; by our being able to prevent the progress of the disease in particular situations, by removing the infected person, before the contagion, which his sores emit, has had time to operate. Sixthly; by its continuing long in one particular ward of an hospital, or in one particular ship, without appearing in other wards or ships, if pains be taken to prevent intercourse between the infected and uninfected." (*Lectures on Inflammation*, p. 484.) But although there can be no doubt of the disease spreading partly by its contagious nature, it appears to us equally certain, that the number of cases is also often increased by the continued operation of the same causes which produce the earliest instance of the disorder in any particular hospital. If this were not the case, upon what principle could we account for the origin of the disease at all, since the commencement of the first instance cannot possibly be referred to contagion?

It is alleged, that when once a patient has taken the infection, he cannot avoid the consequences, whatever precautions he may adopt. Thus, Boyer informs us that he has seen hospital gangrene take place in wounded patients, who, in the hope of escaping this epidemic affection, had quitted the infected hospital, and retired to elevated situations, where they breathed the most salubrious air. *Traité des Maladies Chir.* tom. i. p. 322.

The duration of hospital gangrene is various, according to the extent of the wound, or ulcer affected; the constitution of the patient; the impression made by the putrid effluvia on the animal economy; and the intensity of the disorder. Hospital gangrenes have been known to continue more than a month, in which circumstance, the patients seldom recover. In ordinary cases, the wound puts on a favourable appearance again between the sixth and ninth days; and in slight examples, the amendment is manifested between the third and fifth. Whatever may be the period

of the complaint, its wished-for termination is always announced by a diminution of pain; the pus acquiring a white colour and more confidence, and losing its fetid nauseous smell. The edges of the ulcer subside, while its surface becomes less irregular, and puts on more of the vermilion colour. The red, purplish, œdematous circle which surrounds the disease, assumes a true inflammatory nature, and the solution of continuity, referred to a simple state, heals up with tolerable quickness, even when the destruction of soft parts is somewhat considerable, unless any fresh untoward circumstances occur to interrupt cicatrization. But sometimes, when the patient is on the point of being completely well again, his condition is suddenly altered for the worse; ulcerated spots make their appearance on the cicatrix, and these spreading in different directions occasion a relapse, which may happen several times.

Hospital gangrene must be regarded as a serious complication of wounds and ulcers, since it considerably retards their cure. When, however, the solution of continuity is not extensive, and the constitution good, and in other respects healthy, the disease is not dangerous. In this case, as soon as the sloughs are detached, the ulcer heals up, and leaves a cicatrix accompanied with very little disfigurement. But when the solution of continuity is large, or of long standing, the disorder commits much greater ravages, renews its attacks repeatedly, and the relapses prove exceedingly obstinate. The same thing is said to happen when it affects persons labouring under scorbutic or venereal complaints, who are often put into great danger. Hospital gangrene proves particularly dangerous, and mostly fatal, when it complicates large contused wounds, attended with badly fractured bones. All the soft parts of the injured limb are then frequently observed to be progressively destroyed, and the unfortunate patient falls a victim, sometimes to typhoid symptoms attending the complaint, sometimes to frequent hemorrhages, but still more often to hectic complaints, the almost inevitable consequence of long-continued profuse suppuration.

The effects of hospital gangrene should be carefully discriminated from those of the scurvy. Ulcers, attacked with hospital gangrene, are not affected in any degree, like scorbutic ulcers, by the use of vegetable diet and lemon-juice, and they occur among men who are fed upon fresh meat and vegetables, as readily as they do upon those who have been fed altogether upon salt provisions. (Thomson's Lectures on Inflammation, p. 482.) Hospital gangrene is almost always accompanied with severe febrile symptoms; but, "as to fevers (says Dr. Lind), it may indeed be doubted whether there be any such as are purely and truly scorbutic. The disease is altogether of a chronic nature; and fevers may be justly reckoned amongst its adventitious symptoms." (Treatise on the Scurvy, p. 106.) We may also remark, that in cases of hospital gangrene, the general symptoms of scurvy are absent, such as soreness and bleeding of the gums, livid blotches and wheals on the fleshy part of the legs, œdematous ankles, &c.

The treatment of hospital gangrene is either preventive or curative.

With a view of preventing the disorder, it is essential to remove all the causes which have been specified as capable of producing it. Thus, the wards in which the wounded are placed should not be crowded; they ought to be freely ventilated; as much detached as possible; the utmost attention to cleanliness should be paid; and every source of infection obviated. The predisposition of the wounded to this species of gangrene may be lessened by a well-chosen diet, by drinks acidulated with vegetable acids, or with the

fulphuric acid, and by the moderate use of wine. The state of the stomach and bowels should be particularly attended to, and if found to be out of order, emetics and purgatives ought to be immediately employed, and repeated according to circumstances. In the beginning of the constitutional attack, Pouteau and Duffalot, particularly recommended the use of emetics, and Mr. Briggs also found them highly useful. It is by the advantageous use of these remedies, that the tendency to bilious fevers is removed, to which all wounded patients are so liable, who have not been evacuated in time; and which (as Boyer observes) always retard cicatrization, and frequently impart to wounds the most fatal complications. After due evacuations, the surgeon should prescribe bitter aromatic decoctions proper to support the tone and functions of the stomach. The dressings should be applied with extreme attention and cleanliness, and too much care cannot be taken to prevent the infectious matter of one wound from coming into contact with another. All fatty resinous applications should likewise be abandoned in the treatment of wounds and ulcers threatened with hospital gangrene. The dressings, says Boyer, should be of a quality calculated to keep up the tone of the parts, without irritating them. According to this professor, such are the decoction, or simple infusion of aromatic plants in spirit of wine; diluted alkaline lotions, &c. Pledgets, kept constantly wet with these applications, are to be applied to the wound.

Such are the means, which, judiciously resorted to, will prevent hospital gangrene, or at least render its occurrence much less frequent. Let us next consider what can be done after the disorder has manifested itself, with a view of alluaging it, before it attains such a degree as puts the patient's life into danger.

No doubt the most certain mode of arresting the progress, or, at all events, of abridging the duration of the complaint, would be to transport the wounded into a more healthy situation, so as to remove them from an atmosphere contaminated by putrid contagious effluvia, and in which the disease has had its first formation. But, as Boyer observes, this change of place is generally impossible. In fact, where is the hospital in which can be found large well-ventilated wards in reserve, separated from every source of infection, and into which the patients can be directly moved on the very first appearance of the disorder? The best built hospitals offer no such accommodation. As then the patients cannot usually be transported into a different ward, the air which they breathe should be purified, by renewing it as much as possible, fixing ventilators, and especially by using the oxygenated muriatic acid fumigations, as recommended by Guyton-Morveau, or else those of the nitric acid.

The nitric acid fumigations are made by putting into a glass vessel on the ground, half an ounce of concentrated sulphuric acid, to which an equal quantity of nitre is to be added *gradatim*. The mixture is to be stirred with a glass tube, when an abundance of white vapour will be produced.

The oxygenated muriatic acid fumigations are made, by mixing three ounces two drachms of common salt, with five drachms of the black oxyd of manganese in powder. These two ingredients are to be triturated together; they are then to be put into a glass vessel; one ounce two drachms of water are to be added, and then, if the ward or chamber be uninhabited, one ounce seven drachms of sulphuric acid are to be poured upon the mixture all at once; or gradually, if the patients are there. This quantity will be sufficient for disinfecting a very large ward. See *Lassus Pathologie Chirurgicale*, tom. i. p. 38, 39.

When one or more of the patients afflicted with the disorder,

order, before it has become general, are lying in a badly ventilated part of the ward, or near some source of infection, the surgeon can partly counterbalance the disadvantage of not having a fresh ward, by causing the patients to be put into a more airy part of the ward, and as far as possible from the quarter in which they contracted the disease. Diet, internal medicines, and topical applications, form the three essential points in the treatment of hospital gangrene, after change of situation, or purification of the air, when that is impracticable.

When hospital gangrene attacks a large wound or ulcer, and the fever attending the complaint is considerable, no solid animal or vegetable food should be allowed. Where more nourishment is required than can be obtained from slops, tea, &c. thin rice-milk, weak gruels, &c. will agree better than broth or soup, which cannot be digested without considerable disorder. In proportion as the heat and irritation of the system diminish, the rice-milk and gruels may be made somewhat thicker, and when the patient can venture to eat solid food, new-laid eggs, baked or boiled fruits, vegetable dishes, fish, and even what are called white meats, may be given. The less meat, however, the patient eats, the less liable will he generally be to a relapse.

With regard to internal medicines, while irritation and febrile heat accompany hospital gangrene, diluent acid drinks are proper, such as nitrated whey sweetened with syrup of violets, lemonade, &c. Blood-letting is admissible in but few instances, not merely because the orifice made by the lancet is apt to become gangrenous, but because the fever which accompanies hospital gangrene is usually of the typhoid, or athenic character. Thomson, p. 493.

When the stomach appears much oppressed with bilious complaints, an emetic ought to be administered. When there is debility, good generous wine should be allowed, either by itself, or mixed with lemonade, according to circumstances. Bark, whose antiseptic qualities have been so highly praised, is in general more hurtful than useful in this disorder. Boyer, however, allows that it may be beneficially given when the febrile heat has abated, and the debility is very great. He thinks also that the extract is the best preparation.

Acids are not liable to the same objections as bark: they are proper in all stages of the disease, and their efficacy, which has been proved in a vast number of instances, is the more marked, the greater the doses. The sulphuric acid is that which is given with most success; but the acidulous tartrate of potassa is also an excellent medicine. From two drachms to half an ounce may be given every day, and the best plan is to make with it an acid drink, which should be sweetened and strained.

In severe cases, attended with quick and feeble pulse, depression, restlessness, and anxiety, an opiate becomes necessary. "So long as we wish to excite a degree of moisture on the skin (says professor Thomson), Dover's powder, or laudanum with antimonial wine, form in general the best opiates." This gentleman, however, is not an advocate for the employment of opium in the early stage of hospital gangrene, while the heat and other febrile symptoms are at their height. (See Lectures on Inflammation, p. 494, 495.) For these cases, camphor was highly praised by Pouteau.

With respect to the local treatment, it is at least as important as the constitutional. Indeed, the French surgeons conceive that it is much more so. "I was told by several of the French surgeons," says a late visitor to Paris, "that they did not rely at all on internal means for stopping the progress of hospital gangrene, and that their experience had

proved them to be insufficient, if not wholly inefficacious. Dupuytren, in reply to the account I gave him of the practice and opinions of English surgeons on this subject, assured me, that he had no confidence but in local applications; and that internal remedies alone, as far as he had found, did almost nothing." The same remark has been made in a very recent publication on hospital gangrene (Delpsch Mém. sur la Complication des Plaies, &c. 1815.), although it seems to be rather at variance with its being a constitutional and contagious disease, which the author has admitted. See Sketches of the Medical Schools of Paris, by J. Crofs, p. 83.

Perhaps there is not a single antiseptic application which has not been tried as a dressing for wounds or ulcers affected with hospital gangrene. All watery applications, and common poultices and fomentations, are generally condemned as inefficacious, and even hurtful, in the treatment of this disorder.

M. Dussaffois was convinced by the observation of numerous cases, that the best application is powder of bark. He recommends the wound to be covered with several layers of this powder, which are then to be moistened with turpentine. When this composition dries, it forms a fragile sort of coat, at the sides of which, and through which, the discharge escapes. After twenty-four hours, the first coat is to be removed, and a fresh one applied. In general, four or five such dressings are sufficient in simple cases, where the disorder is confined to the skin and cellular substance. Healthy inflammation then occurs, the sloughs come away, and the wound puts on a healing appearance. Dussaffois, in bad cases, sometimes added one-fifth of powdered muriate of ammonia to the powder of bark. In mild instances, as we learn from Mr. Crofs, the modern surgeons in France also employ with success vegetable and diluted mineral acids. P. 84.

But when, by the employment of these means, and of the other remedies which have been enumerated, the progress of the disorder cannot be checked, and all the surrounding soft parts are threatened with destruction, Pouteau, Dussaffois, and other French surgeons, even those of the present day, have immediate recourse to the actual cautery, and repeat the application of it, until the whole surface of the ulcer is converted into a firm hard eschar. Even the edges of the solution of continuity should not be spared,—"ils doivent être torréfiés et rôtis pour ainsi dire." (Boyer, Traité des Maladies Chir. t. i. p. 332.) The eschar is then to be covered with a thick stratum of bark, moistened with turpentine. This application is to be removed in twenty-four, thirty-six, or forty-eight hours, and the surgeon is then to judge from the appearance of the flesh, and the quality of the discharge, whether a further repetition of the cautery will be necessary.

Although we thus find from the accounts of Boyer, Mr. Crofs, and others, that the modern French surgeons still regard the actual cautery as the only effectual means for stopping the progress of bad cases of hospital gangrene, their opinion has fortunately not been adopted in this country. Nothing can be a greater proof of such severe practice being at all events unnecessary, than the fact that many bad cases of hospital gangrene have done well without it, and even its greatest advocates cannot presume to assert that it will always effect a cure.

Instead of the actual cautery, the application of boiling oil has been proposed; but the advocates for red-hot irons maintain, that the heated oil does not extend its action to a sufficient depth.

A phlegmonous swelling at the circumference of the wound, or ulcer, evinces, that the ravages of the disease are stopped,

flopped, and that suppuration and the detachment of the sloughs are about to follow. In order to promote these desirable changes, Boyer recommends the inflamed parts to be covered with an emollient poultice; but as soon as pus is secreted, the poultice is to be discontinued, as it might relax too much, and some gentle tonic application employed, such as the decoction of bark.

When the sloughs have separated, and the bottom of the ulcer appears firm and of a vermilion colour, the rest of the treatment ought to resemble that of a common wound, and the cure then generally follows with tolerable quickness. However, *cateris paribus*, wounds and ulcers, after an attack of hospital gangrene, heal more slowly than other solutions of continuity.

But when, after the detachment of the eschars, the wound, instead of presenting a firm vermilion appearance, and discharging healthy pus, is covered with pale flabby granulations, the recurrence of hospital gangrene is to be apprehended. With a view of preventing it, the patient is to be purged with a decoction of tamarinds, which Boyer says is preferable to any thing else, and small doses of the acidulous tartrate of potassa are to be given every other day. But if the disease returns, the French surgeons direct the cautery to be used again, if the patient be not too much exhausted to bear it; for when he is, there is no hope from this or any other means. Relapses seldom happen, except in wounds and ulcers which are very large, and have confined the patients a long while in the hospital. A relapse, in these cases, is always an unfavourable omen; for it sometimes proves mortal, and if the patient gets over it, still the ulcers, or wounds, which have been repeatedly affected by it, are apt to degenerate into chronic sores, which it is extremely difficult, or even impossible, to heal. Boyer, *Traité des Maladies Chirurg.*, t. i. p. 320, et seq.

By referring to the various publications, published by English surgeons on hospital gangrene, we shall find that they have succeeded in frequently stopping the disease, without having recourse to that heroic means, (as it is called by M. Roux,) the actual cautery. "The fermenting poultice, spirits, and turpentine, (says professor Thomson,) are certainly much milder applications, and will, I am convinced, when judiciously used, be found to be much more efficacious in effecting a cure. If attention to cleanliness in the dressing of sores and ulcers be at all times required, it is needless for me to remark to you, how much more imperiously it must be required in hospital gangrene, where the discharge from the sores, and probably the effluvia from the body of the patient, are of a contagious nature." See *Lect. on Inflammation*, p. 500.

Besides the fermenting poultice, camphorated spirits, and turpentine, the following local applications seem eligible; viz. decoction of bark; charcoal poultice, especially when the disease is stopped, and the sloughs are separating; the citric acid, with or without laudanum; vinegar; the diluted mineral acids; the vapours of the nitric, muriatic, and oxygenated muriatic acids; a solution of gum kino in equal quantities of claret and port wine.

Of Ulcers attended with some specific diseased Action, either constitutional or local.

1. *Ulcers which yield to Mercury.*—Here we shall exclude from consideration venereal ulcers, as this subject is treated of in the article *LUES VENEREA*. At present we shall only notice such sores as are produced by other diseases of the general system, or of the parts, and are capable of being cured by mercury.

Perhaps there is no greater source of error in the whole

practice of surgery, than the supposition, that a sore, when it yields to mercury, must be a syphilitic one. Surgeons, however, who run into this absurdity, can hardly be imagined to be unaware, that so potent a medicine must have effects on numerous diseases of very different descriptions. Sir E. Home very truly remarks, that many ulcers, unconnected with the venereal disease, which receive no benefit from other medicines, heal under a mercurial course, or yield to mercurial applications. In some cases, the ulcer remains in the same state while mercury is used; but begins to look better as soon as the medicine is discontinued, in consequence of the beneficial change produced in the system by the mercurial course. In these cases, mercurial frictions are the best, because they occasion least impairment of the constitution, in consequence of the stomach continuing undisturbed, and capable of digesting well.

Another description of ulcers noticed by Sir E. Home, as deriving benefit from mercury, occur on the instep and foot, have a very thickened edge, and are attended with a diseased state of the surrounding skin, so as to bear some resemblance to elephantiasis. They are frequently observed affecting servants who live in opulent families in an indolent and luxurious way. Sir E. Home states, that fumigations with the hydrargyrus sulphuratus ruber heal these ulcers, and resolve in a great degree the swelling of the surrounding parts. In some instances, an ointment of calomel and hog's-lard; in others, the camphorated weak mercurial ointment, is the best application.

Many diseased ulcers, particularly superficial ones, with a thickened edge, may be healed, when they are dressed with a solution of one grain of the hydrargyrus muriatus, in an ounce of water, containing a little spirit.

2. *Ulcers which are curable by Hemlock.*—Sir E. Home places more reliance on hemlock as an external, than an internal remedy for ulcers. The ulcers which usually receive benefit from hemlock applications, look like those of an irritable sort; but the surrounding parts are thickened, in consequence of some diseased action. Such sores occur near the ankle; which joint is at the same time enlarged. Sometimes, but not so often, they take place over the ligaments of the knee. On account of their situation, and the swelling of the joint, they may be suspected to be scrophulous, though they are more sensible than stromous ulcers usually are. The sores just described are rendered less painful, their diseased disposition is checked, and the swelling of the joint diminished, by hemlock. Several irritable scrophulous ulcers are also particularly benefited by this medicine.

Sir E. Home gives the preference to hemlock poultices, unless their weight should be objectionable, in which cases, he advises lint to be dipped in a decoction of the herb, and put on the sore.

Of the ointment made with the inspissated juice, Sir E. Home seems to say little in regard to its efficacy.

3. *Ulcers which may be cured by Salt Water.*—Sir E. Home takes notice of other specific ulcers which yield to this application, after resisting other remedies. Poultices made with sea-water are often employed; but this gentleman seems to prefer keeping the part immersed in the water in a tepid state, about a quarter of an hour, twice a day.

When sea-water poultices bring out pimples, in cases of scrophulous ulcers on the legs and feet, Sir E. Home informs us, that this disagreeable circumstance may be obviated by diluting such water with an equal quantity of a decoction of poppies. After a time, the salt-water may be tried by itself again. While each fresh poultice is preparing, the part should also be immersed in such water warmed.

When there is a tendency to anasarca, or when there is

an unusual coldness in the limb, unattended with any propensity to mortification, tepid salt-water may be used with infinite advantage.

4. *Ulcers which may be cured by the Argentum Nitratum.*—Sir E. Home notices, under this head, an ulcer, which does not penetrate more deeply than the cutis; but spreads in all directions, producing ulceration on the surface of the skin, and often extending nearly through its whole thickness. The part first affected heals, while the skin beyond is in a state of ulceration.

Of this description are, a leprous eruption, mostly seen in men impressed in Ireland; a disease of the skin induced by buboes, which have continued a great while after the venereal virus has been destroyed; and the ring-worm.

All these diseases are most easily cured by applying to them a solution of the argentum nitratum.

The leprous eruption is communicated by contact, and makes its appearance in the form of a boil. This is converted into an ulcer, which discharges a fetid fluid, by which the surrounding skin is excoriated, and the ulceration is extended over a large surface. The pain is the most severe, and the discharge greatest, in hot weather. The parts first diseased heal, while others are becoming ulcerated, and the disease is always rendered worse, by spirituous liquors, salt provisions, and catching cold.

Sir E. Home remarks, that the disease in the skin, produced by the effects of very irritable buboes, in constitutions broken down by mercury, is attended with ulceration of a more violent, deep, and painful kind than the foregoing distemper. The progress of this disorder is, in other respects, very similar to that of the leprous eruption.

Although the ring-worm only occurs in the form of an ulcer in warm climates, a mild species of the affection takes place in summer-time in this country. It seems to be infectious; though it often occurs without infection. It commences with an efflorescence, which is attended with very trivial swelling, and spreads from a central point. The circumference of the efflorescence becomes raised into a welt, while the rest assumes a scurfy appearance. The welt becomes covered with a scab, which falls off, and leaves an ulcerated ring, in general not more than a quarter of an inch wide. The outer margin of this ring continues to ulcerate, while the inner one heals, so that the circle gets larger and larger. The discharge consists of a thin acrid fluid, which seems to have a great share in making the disease spread.

For all the three preceding diseases, a solution of the argentum nitratum is strongly recommended by Sir E. Home.

5. *Ulcers which yield to Arsenic.*—The sores which are named *noli me tangere*, derive great benefit from this powerful remedy. Sir E. Home observes, that they are nearly allied to cancer, differing from it in not contaminating their neighbouring parts by absorption, and only spreading by immediate contact.

From some cases which fell under Sir E. Home's observation, he discovered that arsenic was not only efficacious as an external, but also as an internal remedy. Indeed, experience proves, that, in all cases of lupus, or *noli me tangere*, if any medicine is entitled to more confidence than others, it is unquestionably arsenic.

Sir E. Home is an advocate for its employment, both internally and externally, for ulcers of untoward appearance on the legs. The fungated ulcer is particularly pointed out by this gentleman as being benefited by arsenic. This ulcer occurs on the calf of the leg, and on the sole of the foot. From its surface a fungus shoots out, which is entirely differ-

ent from common granulations. The new-formed substance is radiated in its structure, the bottom of the ulcer being the central point, and the external surface, which is continually increasing, the circumference. The substance of this fungus is very tender, and readily bleeds. The first stage of the disease sometimes has the appearance of a scrophulous affection of the metatarsal bones; but the parts seem more enlarged, and when the skin ulcerates, a fungus shoots out, and betrays the nature of the case.

One species of the fungated ulcer is capable of contaminating the lymphatic glands, the other is not so. The first is represented by Sir E. Home as being incurable by arsenic, or any other known medicine.

The second yields to this remedy. Sir E. Home uses a saturated solution, made by boiling white arsenic in water, for several hours, in a sand heat. He gives from three to ten drops internally; and, for outward use, dilutes a drachm with two pints of water, making it afterwards gradually stronger and stronger, till it is of double strength. The application may either be made in the form of a poultice, or by dipping lint in the lotion.

The best and safest preparation of arsenic, both for internal and external use, is the kali arsenicatum.

6. *Ulcers attended with Varicose Veins.*—A certain kind of ulcer is very apt to occur on the inside of the leg, and is equally difficult to cure, and liable to break out again. It has the look of a mild indolent sore; but the branches and trunk of the vena saphena are enlarged, and this varix of the veins keeps the ulcer from healing. The sore is seldom deep, usually spreads along the surface, and has an oval shape, the ends of which are vertically situated. There is a pain affecting the limb rather deeply, extending up in the course of the veins, and exasperated by keeping the leg a long while in an erect posture.

This is a kind of ulcer which derives immense benefit from a tight roller, applied from the toes to the knee, although the direct operation of the pressure of the bandage on the sore is itself productive of no particular good.

Sir E. Home found, however, that many patients could not bear to wear laced stockings or tight bandages, and that some received no relief from them. Hence, this gentleman was led to consider what else could be done for the cure of the varicose state of the veins. He represents, that, in consequence of the size of the vena saphena, and its numberless convolutions, the return of blood from the smaller branches is so impeded, as to retard the circulation in the smaller arteries, and to interfere with their action in forming healthy granulations. The coats and valves of the veins also become thickened, so that the latter parts (the valves) do not do their office of supporting the weight of the column of blood.

These reflections induced Sir E. Home to think, that some benefit might be obtained by taking off a part of the pressure of this column of blood, by making a ligature round the vena saphena, where this vessel passes over the knee-joint. Thus the cavity of the vein at this part would be obliterated, and a kind of artificial valve would be formed.

This gentleman recommends the following way of performing the operation: "As the veins are only turgid in the erect posture, the operation should be performed while the patient is standing, and if placed upon a table, on which there is a chair, the back of the chair will serve him to rest upon; and he will have the knee-joint at a very convenient height for the surgeon. The leg to be operated upon must stand with the inner ankle facing the light, which will expose very advantageously the enlarged vena saphena passing over the knee-joint. While the patient is in this posture, if a fold

of the skin, which is very loose at this part, is pinched up transversely, and kept in that position by the finger and thumb of the surgeon on one side, and of an assistant on the other, this fold may be divided by a pointed scalpel, pushed through with the back of the knife towards the limb to prevent the vein being wounded; much in the same way as the skin is divided in making an issue. This will expose the vein sufficiently; but there is commonly a thin membranous fascia confining it in its situation; and when that is met with, the vein had better be laterally disengaged by the point of the knife. This is most expeditiously done by laying hold of the fascia with a pair of dissecting forceps, and dividing it; for it is difficult to cut upon parts which give little resistance, and there is a risk of wounding the vein. After this, a silver crooked needle, with the point rounded off, will readily force its way through the cellular membrane connected with the vein, without any danger of wounding the vessel, and carry a ligature round it. This part, or, indeed, what may be considered as the whole of the operation, being finished, the patient had better be put to bed, so as to allow the vein to be in its easiest state, before the ligature is tied, and then a knot is to be made upon the vein: this gives some pain, but it is by no means severe. The edges of the wound in the skin are now to be brought together by sticking-plaster, except where the ligature passes out, and a compress and bandage applied, so as to keep up a moderate degree of pressure on the veins, both above and below the part included in the ligature." See Home's Pract. Obs. on Ulcers, p. 296, edit. 2.

The foregoing method does not appear to possess novelty, as it was practised by Paré. What is of still more consequence, it is a plan which is not free from serious danger. We have seen several examples, in which the practice was followed by a violent degree of constitutional irritation, considerable disturbance of the nervous system and a tendency to convulsions.

Mr. Brodie has tried another method of operating, which is said to prove effectual, and to be milder in its consequences. Some account of it will be found in the article *VARICOSE Veins*.

On the whole, we believe that there are few cases in which an operation is advisable, and that Default, Mr. Whately, and several other surgeons, have been perfectly right in giving a preference to the safer and more simple plan of making methodical pressure with a bandage.

ULCER, in animals of the domestic or live-stock kind, is a wound of some standing, arising from a solution of continuity in some fleshy part of the bodies of them with a loss of substance. The term is by some, in these as well as other cases, confined to that breach or erosion of the skin and parts immediately connected with it, which either proceeds directly from an internal cause, or at least is closely concerned with a peculiar state of the constitution. Others, however, divide ulcers into two classes, the simple and the compound: the former being a mere wound of some duration; which is capable of being restored by nature without the assistance of art, especially in these animals; while the latter is that which is attended with a bad state of the body. But although in these instances an ulcer may be supposed to proceed from a vitiated or diseased state of the habit of body in the animal, all common sores may likewise be reckoned ulcers, when they degenerate and contract an ill disposition, whether they take their origin from an internal or an external cause. They are, of course, of various kinds, according as they are owing to these different causes. Wounds, bruises, and other accidents, when ill-treated or neglected, often occasion ulcers; as well as a depraved state

of the blood and juices, which in the first instance only produce tumours. Of this kind are all those of the fistular and some other kinds in these sorts of animals.

Some ulcers too are internal, as in the lungs, liver, kidneys, and other viscera of animals, where they not unfrequently produce wastes and decays in them; and some are among the joints and ligaments, which are much more common. This is much the case in the legs of some animals.

There are other distinctions also occasionally made use of in describing ulcers in such animals; as those of *sinuous, fistulous, putrid, scrophulous, cancerous, varicous*, and some others, as their nature may be, and as may be seen under the same head in *Surgery*.

The simple ulcer is always superficial, and attended only with foulness, and hard or uneven edges raised above the surface of the common skin. A compound ulcer is, properly, when not only the flesh is ulcerated, but a caries or decay exists in the bone, with other bad appearances in the animal. A cavernous ulcer is that which has a small narrow entrance, with a wide spreading bottom part. The ulcers that run along, proceeding from abscesses between the muscles or their tendons, are called *sinuous ulcers*: the ulcers that are tubular, smooth, and callous on the inside, and run in several meanders, are called *fistulous*: and where there is a great efflux of fetid matter, with inflammation, swelling, and inward sickness in the animal, such ulcers are said to be *putrid*. Cancerous and scrophulous ulcers are usually seated on the glands, and may be distinguished by their particular appearances; the latter being more slow in its progress, and less offensive than the former, which extends rapidly, and makes great havoc on the parts, and seriously affects the whole constitution of the animal. Varicous ulcers are seated among the veins, and are always soft and distended with blood in their parts. There are many of this kind that take place in the legs and other parts of animals of these different sorts.

It is found by experience, that simple and superficial ulcers on the skin in animals, are not, in general, difficult of cure; but sometimes their edges rise above the surface-skin, and grow callous, in which case they require some time before these can be reduced and cicatrized or healed. An ulcer or caries in the bone is necessarily more tedious and difficult to cure than one in the flesh, and the difficulty is more or less, in proportion to the nature of its situation, and the causes whence it proceeds. Cavernous ulcers often become so, merely by their situation being in places where compression or bandages cannot be applied; but they are not so troublesome as sinuous ulcers, especially when the sinuosities terminate near a joint, for then they are often attended with great difficulty and danger. Fistulous ulcers are attended with all the same, or rather greater difficulties, being often situated among the joints, and other inconvenient places; a circumstance which to animals of different sorts is of bad consequence, and, for the most part, renders them of little use, even when a cure is effected. Putrid ulcers are always dangerous, as proceeding from a bad state of the body in the animal; and when they discharge very great quantities of fetid matter, they are liable to end in mortification, and the destruction of the animals.

Cancerous ulcers are not of less ill consequence, only that there is more respite given; as the animals will live languishing a considerable time with these and other anomalous ulcers, as in some sorts of glanders or affections of the nostrils in horses, and sometimes in other disorders, until they are quite reduced, and the cure in most cases is impracticable.

ULCER.

practicable. Varicous ulcers among the blood-vessels of the legs or other parts of animals are of a spongy nature, and hard to manage, discharging, for the most part, a bloody sort of ichor. Of this kind too are some of those ulcerations that creep along the veins in the limbs, where they are equally troublesome and difficult of cure, on account of the exertions of the animals; but a simple and single ulcer of this kind may easily be healed by suitable applications, and a proper use of bandages or compression.

In the cure of these different sorts of ulcers, the methods that are directed below, may mostly be had recourse to with success in most kinds of domestic animals.

The first or *simple* kinds, it is thought by some, seldom need any other management than washing them with pure water a little warm, or with spirit of wine, and then dressing them with pledgets of lint or tow spread thinly with digestive ointment, composed of yellow wax, resin, common turpentine, and olive oil, in the proportion of two parts of the others to one of turpentine. However, if there be an itching, with small pimples, it is sometimes advised to mix in every four ounces of the digestive ointment a drachm of verdigris in very fine powder, and to apply dressings with it once a day, or once in two days, if the discharge be small. And if little papillæ arise in the bottoms of the ulcers, that are of a faint red colour, the dressing ointment should be mixed with red precipitate, in the quantity of a drachm of it in fine powder to every two ounces of the digestive ointment. Where the ulcers are deep, and do not fill up in a proper manner, as is the case sometimes in weak bad habits of body in the animals, bark, and strengthening remedies of other kinds, will likewise be necessary, as well as good keep; and the ulcers may be dressed with a mixture of common turpentine and myrrh in fine powder put on the pledgets every other day, washing them first with brandy, spirit of wine, or tincture of myrrh, or any other similar application.

The common black and yellow basilicous too, when made without lard, with oil, sometimes answer in these cases, as they tend to fill up the ulcers with granulations of good flesh; especially if proper remedies be at the same time given internally. It is advised also, that equal parts of antimony and gum guaiacum should be divided into ounce doses, and one of them be given every day, with plenty of good nourishing food, consisting of the best sorts of fodder and oats, with water-gruel for drink in some cases.

In cases where the ulcers fill up too fast, and produce a quantity of fungous flesh, it may be repressed by dressing with dry powders, such as myrrh and lapis calaminaris, or occasionally with red precipitate and burnt alum in fine powder, in equal proportions, mixed together; carefully avoiding all greasy applications. If the fungus continue troublesome, the dressing may be lint or tow, dipped in blue vitriol water, and wrung out dry, and then applied. If the edges be callous, so as to make a kind of rim round the ulcers, red precipitate dressings are always the best. This method has been found by some to succeed better, in some kinds of animals, as the horse, than either cutting the callous edges off, or eating them down by caustic, or destroying them by a hot iron. Although somewhat slower, it is supposed more safe, as not being so apt to produce inflammation, which, instead of destroying such callosities, frequently renders such ulcers more obdurate than before, and more liable to fungus.

These ulcers, in their simple states, may often be cured simply by drawing together, and supporting the parts by slips of sticking-plaster.

In the *cavernous* kind of ulcers, where they are deep, narrow at their entrances, and wide at their bottom parts,

they require to be laid open, or the small orifices of them to be widened by a caustic, so that no matter may be concealed. Where they are in such situations that they can be laid open with safety, and the habit of body in the animals is good, they may be cured with the same ease as almost a simple flesh wound, by merely observing the same methods as in the former cases. But when they do not fill up by such means as are directed above; and if they be found on probing to have sinuities, they must be managed as sinuous ulcers, as below.

The *sinuous* kinds of ulcers are a sort which should be laid open without loss of time, by incision, where it can be properly done, provided acid injections, such as the solutions of blue vitriol, alum, or corrosive sublimate, have been previously tried, and where bandage or compression cannot be used; as when they are suffered to continue long, they will run deeper and deeper, and often among the tendons and interstices of the muscles, so as at last to make their way to the bones, which become carious in consequence, and the cure in that case is rendered equally tedious and difficult.

The *fitulous* kinds of ulcers mostly take place by there being inflammations and tumours in the parts, which form abscesses or collections of matter, which, if not let out and removed by incision, and proper pressure applied, penetrate deeper, and become sinuous ulcers; which when they have existed long, or have occurred in unhealthy animals, several sinuses often form, and the matter makes its way from one to another by small tubes, or communicating passages; in which cases the insides are commonly lined with callous coats or membranes, so that no re-union can be effected until these connecting passages are laid into one, and their callosities are destroyed. This may mostly be accomplished by proper incisions being made, when the parts should be dressed with leigated red precipitate, or with pledgets of lint or tow dipped in a solution of blue vitriol, and phagedenic water, made by dissolving a drachm of corrosive sublimate in a pint of lime-water; or when made stronger in some obdurate cases.

Common abscesses, on some occasions, by injudicious treatment, are converted into sinuous and fitulous ulcers, where they would perhaps have no such tendency; as by the bad and absurd practice sometimes used, of introducing long hard tents, that separate the muscles in the same manner as a piece of timber is cleft by a wedge, and by thus tearing the membranes apart, the abscesses grow deeper, and even occasionally run into sinuses that lie out of the reach of common applications. The frequent and unnecessary use of the probe too, often promotes the same bad consequences. In abscesses, the weight of the collected matter in them occasions an easy separation of the contiguous cellular membrane, so as to give way readily to a slight force applied by a rude hand, and to form deep sinuities; to prevent which, in all such cases, the parts should be kept as firm and close by the use of a bandage as they are capable of bearing, or a depending opening may be formed for the passage of the matter in another direction; a seton too may sometimes be introduced for the same purpose: so that by one or other of these methods, most bad cases of this kind may be prevented or removed in these sorts of animals.

In *putrid* ulcers, as whatever may be their origin, they always exist under unfavourable states of the constitution of the animals, the cure of them will, of course, stand in need of internal means, such as the use of bark, opium, and good nourishing food, in as large quantities as they can be taken, with fomentations and cataplasms of the spirituous and opiate

opiate kinds applied in as powerful a manner as possible externally to the parts. By these means, steadily persevered in, they may often be removed without much difficulty.

The *cancerous* and *scrophulous* are sorts of ulcers that take place in the glandular parts of the bodies of animals. The first sort sometimes occurs in horses in bad cases of glanders and farcy; and horses have occasionally cancerous warts, which, when deep seated, are liable to become true cancerous ulcers. Some suppose too that ulcers of this nature take place from setons, in some cases, when improperly placed in glandular parts.

In neat cattle, they mostly begin by hard livid tumours forming themselves in glandular parts, some of which are moveable, others more fixed at first, and some inflame and quickly break out, discharging a thin acrid sort of ichor, while others are more slow in breaking, and discharge a more thick matter, being liable to fill up with fungous flesh. These latter often occur about the face, on the eye-lids, and in the glands about the jaws, being very difficult of healing. There is frequently a scrophulous disposition in the parts that keep them up.

In these cases the cure depends much on their situation. In some instances they can be readily removed by cutting the diseased parts wholly out. Some destroy the excrescences by the use of caustic. These modes are particularly used with neat cattle, and sometimes with other sorts. After the ulcers have been made clean in their parts, they may be touched all over with caustic of the lunar kind, or have red precipitate, in fine powder, dusted on them, and be afterwards dressed with small pledgets of tow or lint, dipped in a solution of sublimate in egyptiacum, to which a little tincture of myrrh and spirit of turpentine and of salt have been added, once a day; any rising flesh being kept down by the above caustic. In order to fill up such ulcers more readily, in some cases, as where they are clean, and without acrid discharge, it may be necessary to use digestive ointment wrought up with the above solution, on the dressings, once or twice a day.

Mild purges in these cases may sometimes be beneficially made use of to promote the healing of the ulcers, as well as medicines of some other kinds.

The hard glandular tumours that produce these ulcers may sometimes be dispersed at first, by the use of strong mercurial ointment mixed up with turpentine, well rubbed upon them once or twice a day for several days, and then leaving it off for a time, to be repeated again if necessary. The same ointment may likewise be employed with more advantage, in some cases, when combined with strong aquafortis and powdered cantharides. See **TUMOUR**.

In the cure of the *varicous* kind of ulcers, it has been advised by some to bathe the parts with astrigent fomentations prepared by oak and other such barks in proper proportions, or with alum and white vitriol dissolved in warm vinegar. The matter of these ulcers is generally, it is said, of a thin bloody watery nature, which will thicken or dry up by such applications. In case the vessels continue weak and relaxed after such ulcers are healed, firing will sometimes be useful and proper for strengthening the parts, by contracting the coats of the veins that cause and promote the ulcers: and in some cases it may be done so deeply as to cut off the communication of them. Ulcers of this watery kind, which have some affinity to the varicous, take place in horses in the farcy, and in some other diseases of them, as well as other animals.

In most cases of old ulcers in animals, it will be of much

use to have recourse occasionally to calomel, given in doses of from half a drachm to a whole one, with cooling purges, and good keep, as well as the frequent application of bandages where they can be employed.

By these different means properly applied, most of the ulcers in different sorts of domestic animals may be speedily removed.

ULCERATION. That the living body should possess a power of removing portions of itself, seems at first a proposition somewhat extraordinary; but when it is known that there exists in the animal body a system of vessels, whose peculiar function is to take away the old particles of matter, in proportion as new particles are deposited by the arteries, the disappearance of parts then readily admits of explanation by adverting to the power and action of the absorbent vessels. In fact, there can be no greater difficulty in conceiving how these vessels remove the particles of the body, than in conceiving how such particles are deposited by another order of vessels, named arteries. One of the most common examples of the absorption of particles of the living body in disease, is that which is every day exemplified in the process of ulceration, by which an actual breach or solution of continuity is produced. It was this process which Mr. Hunter used to distinguish by the name of *ulcerative absorption*.

Ulceration, or ulcerative absorption (as professor Thomson observes), is a morbid process which must have presented itself in every age, and with the appearances of which medical men must have been at all times very familiarly acquainted. The phenomena which it exhibits were denominated *erosion* by Galen. Since his time, it has usually been supposed that the solution of continuity which occurs in erosion is produced by the corrosive or solvent power of the fluids which are generated in that process.

Mr. Hunter was the first who ventured to call this opinion of Galen's in question, and who pointed out to future observers the share which the absorbent vessels have in this process.

In most instances of inflammation, in which the process of ulcerative absorption occurs, it usually begins at a single point, forming a small fore or ulcer; while in other examples it commences at several points, either at the same time or in succession. In many instances, its operation appears to be diffused over a considerable extent of surface; and in others again it is limited to a very narrow line, producing a chink or fissure, an appearance similar to that which occurs in the separation of mortified parts. The progress of ulcerative absorption is very various in different textures, and in the same texture in different individuals, according to the nature of the inflammation, the degree in which it exists, and perhaps, also, according to the particular constitution of the person in whom it occurs. In some instances the process of ulcerative absorption is exceedingly slow, or chronic in its progress, the sores which it forms remaining long open, without manifesting any disposition to extend themselves into the parts more immediately surrounding them. In other instances it acts with great rapidity, removing and destroying considerable portions of textures or organs in the course of a few hours.

Dr. Thomson then proceeds to notice, that pain of a pricking or lancinating nature is an almost constant attendant upon attacks of ulcerative absorption; but this varies exceedingly in different textures, in different kinds of inflammation, and according as the absorption is more rapid or slow.

Every organized part of the body seems liable to ulcerative

cerative absorption, but we see it occur more frequently in cutaneous texture, and in mucous membrane, than in any of the other textures of the body.

In all the parts in which it occurs (says Dr. Thomson), it is preceded by a certain degree of inflammation, and this inflammation is usually the adhesive; but ulcerative absorption may supervene in parts affected with suppurative or gangrenous inflammation. The inflammation which precedes and accompanies ulcerative absorption, may be either of a simple or of a specific nature, and great differences will be produced by this circumstance in the appearances and effects of the sores or ulcers which are formed.

Ulcerative absorption, in simple inflammation, may arise from a great number of causes, as from pressure upon parts in a state of inflammation. We see this effect daily produced in cases of simple and compound fractures, where the limbs are frequently kept a long while in one posture. It may be produced by the application of irritating substances to inflamed surfaces, or by the too long retention of excreted fluids upon surfaces in a state of suppuration.

Many specific inflammations seem to give a disposition to ulcerative absorption, and the sores or ulcers which are formed, are most of them very difficult to heal, if they are not in their nature absolutely incurable. This difficulty is often very remarkable in scrophulous, syphilitic, cancerous, and lupous ulcerations. The ulcerative absorption which occurs first in cutaneous texture, may in its progress be confined to that texture, removing a considerable portion of skin, and exposing the parts which lie under it; or, without extending far along the surface, it may penetrate into the interior parts of the body. In doing this, it often successively attacks and removes skin, cellular membrane, fascia, muscle, blood-vessel, absorbent, nerve, and bone. We have examples of this in the progress of cancerous and lupous ulceration. That inflammation constantly precedes ulceration, Dr. Thomson thinks is proved, not only by the occurrence of redness, pain, heat, and swelling in the parts which are contiguous to those in which the ulceration appears, but also by that closure (which is effected by adhesion) of the canals of the blood-vessels and absorbents divided in ulcerative absorption, and without which a certain degree of hemorrhage would be the never-failing and constant attendant upon the state of ulceration.

When, in the healing of sores, the skin which immediately surrounds them becomes red, hot, swollen, and painful, we have reason to dread an extension of the sore by the progress of ulcerative absorption. In some instances this process occurs in the whole circumference, producing an extremely irritable and painful ulcer; in others, the ulcerative absorption is confined in its operation to a particular spot, which is always more inflamed and painful than the other parts of the sore. Certain states and degrees of gangrenous inflammation have a tendency to terminate in ulcerative absorption; and when the ulcerating and sphacelating processes occur together in the same diseased surface, dreadful are the havoc and destruction of parts which they occasion. Mucous membrane, next to cutaneous texture, seems to be most liable to attacks of ulcerative absorption. In mucous membranes, the ulcerating process often appears in the form of small round sores, which are termed aphthæ when they appear in the mouth or fauces, and chancres when on the parts of generation. These, like the ulcerations in cutaneous texture, may be either of a simple or specific nature, and it is often extremely difficult, from the appearances which they exhibit, to determine to which division we ought to refer them.

Bone is another texture which seems very liable to ulceration, and the disorder here generally receives the appellation of caries.

Ulcerative absorption very seldom begins originally in muscle, tendon, fascia, blood-vessels, absorbents, or nerves, though, in the progress of disease, it may attack all these structures.

Synovial membranes are often the seat of ulceration, particularly in the progress of chronic inflammations, which attack the articulating surface of the joints. Here the ulcerative process begins most frequently in the synovial membrane, and from this extends to the articulating cartilage, and afterwards to the bone.

Of the internal viscera, there are none which seem so liable to ulcerative absorption as the stomach and intestinal canal. Death is almost always the speedy effect of ulceration, when it eats through the coats of these viscera, the contents of which escape into the cavity of the abdomen.

Healthy pus and the appearance of granulations are always agreeable occurrences in the progress of an ulcer, as they indicate that a stop has been put, at least for a time, to the process of ulcerative absorption.

It was particularly remarked by Mr. Hunter, that new-formed parts are more liable to ulcerative absorption than such as constitute original portions of the body. This is seen in the frequent absorption of granulations, cicatrices, and callus.

There is also a process in the animal body, very analogous to open ulceration, or, what Mr. Hunter called, ulcerative absorption: we allude to that peculiar operation which he thought proper to name progressive absorption. By this, abscesses, aneurisms, and various tumours, make their way to the surface of the body, the parts covering them being gradually rendered thinner and thinner by absorption. And it is by the same process that foreign bodies, such as pins, needles, bullets, &c. travel from one part of the body to another, and are at length brought to the surface. See Hunter's Treatise on the Blood, Inflammation, &c. and Thomson's Lectures on Inflammation, p. 369, &c.

ULCEROUS *Sore-Throat*. See QUINSEY and CY-NANCHE *Tonsillaris*.

ULCHUNSKOI, NIZNEI, in *Geography*, a town and fort of Russia, on the Amur; 56 miles S.S.W. of Doroninsk.

ULCHUNSKOI, *Verehnei*, a fort of Russia, on the Amur, on the borders of China; 100 miles S.W. of Doroninsk.

ULCI, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Italy, in the interior of Lucania. Ptolemy.

ULEA, or ULABORG, in *Geography*, a sea-port of Sweden, capital of a government which comprehends a part of East Bothnia, situated in a peninsula, at the mouth of a river of the same name, which runs into the gulf of Bothnia. It was built in the year 1610, and is the largest town in all East Bothnia. It has very straight and long streets, a good school, a commodious harbour, and a fine salmon fishery. In the year 1714, this town was demolished by the Russians. The castle which stands near it on a small island, and is properly called Ulaborg, was built and fortified in the year 1590; but now lies in a ruinous condition; 320 miles N. of Abo. N. lat. 65° 40'. E. long. 25° 23'.

ULEA, a river of Sweden, which runs into the gulf of Bothnia. N. lat. 65° 2'. E. long. 25° 22'.—Also, a large lake of Sweden, in the province of Cajana.

ULEASALO, a town of Sweden; 4 miles S. of Ulea.

VLED DE NUN, a country of Africa, next to the province

province of Suz, or Sufe, in Morocco; and separated from it by sandy deserts. The emperor of Morocco arrogates to himself the sovereignty of Vled de Nun, but his real authority is here extremely feeble. This vast, but desert, province affords not a single harbour or anchoring-place along a coast of 60 leagues, or quite to Cape Bajador. It is inhabited by different tribes of Arabs, whose camps are scattered over such parts of the interior country as are capable of cultivation. The side next the sea is a sandy shore; lined with rocks under water, over which the waves break violently. Ships are often driven on this coast by rapid currents formed between the continent and the Canary islands, and Spanish, English, and French vessels are frequently shipwrecked. When these disastrous events occur, the unhappy mariners are immediately seized and stripped by the Arabs, exposed to every kind of privation, bought and sold, or exchanged for camels, or other beasts, in the markets of the deserts. The province of Vled de Nun has a considerable trade. After having passed the deserts that separate it from Morocco, we find many tracts of land capable of cultivation, and which produce gums and excellent wax. As these people are so far removed from the reach of tyranny as to live in a kind of independence, luxuries are more indulged among them; and they make use of many European commodities, especially linen. Several of these Arab tribes are more affable and honest than the other Moors. They trade to Mogador, but with reserve and circumspection, that they may not expose their riches to the uncertainty of accident. It is probable they have a more immediate communication with the factories of Senegal, with which they may trade with less restraint; and it is only by their means that the western Moors have any intercourse with the people of Nigritia. If it were practicable to form settlements on the coast of Cape Bajador, a very profitable commerce might be established with these Arabs; and mariners, who might have the misfortune to be shipwrecked on the coast, would be able to obtain more certain and speedy assistance; but such a plan is exposed to too many difficulties ever to be realized. Chenier's Morocco, vol. i.

ULEMAs, the name by which the ministers and interpreters of religion are distinguished in the Ottoman empire. In Turkey they possess the most lucrative employments; they join judicial to religious power; they are at the same time interpreters of religion and judges of all civil and criminal affairs; they are secure from the extortions of the pachas and great men of the empire; they cannot be legally put to death without the consent of their chief: their property, after their decease, passes as a right to their heirs, so that the imperial treasury cannot appropriate it to itself. In short, they form a corporation, highly regarded, powerful, and sometimes formidable to the throne itself, from their having the direction almost always of public opinion, and because there is, perhaps, no government where public opinion is pronounced with so much strength and success as in Turkey. These magistrates and doctors of the law must not be confounded with the *imams* who serve the mosques, (see *IMAMS*), nor with the *muezzins*; which see. The order of ulemas, the most respectable and best informed in the Ottoman empire, comprehends the *mufti* or *muphti*, the *kadilefers* or *cadilefers*, the *flambol-effendi*, and the *muderis*; which see respectively. The immediate ministers of religion, though they make no part of the body of ulemas, may be admitted into it, either by undergoing examinations, and getting themselves received as *muderis*, or by obtaining through favour a place of provincial *mufti*, or *cadi*, or of *naib*. If, after having occupied these employments, they

be admitted into the body of the *muderis*, and wish to pass to the mosque of Soliman, they may then arrive at the most eminent places of judicature. The first rank among them is that of *schiek*, or preacher, whose function is to preach in the mosques every Friday after the noon prayer, and even oftener when there are foundations for that purpose. The *schieks* of the fourteen imperial mosques of Constantinople are the most considered in the empire, and are appointed by the *mufti*; those of the other mosques are named by the magistrate of the place or of the district. The *khatibs* have no other employment besides that of discharging, in imitation of the prophet and of the first caliphs, and in the place of the sultan who represents them, the functions of *imameth*, or of the priesthood, at the solemn prayer which takes place on the Friday, and of reciting the *khatibé*, or public profession respecting the unity and the attributes of the Supreme Being, accompanied by a prayer for the preservation and prosperity of the sultan, and for the success of his arms against the infidels. They are appointed by a *khattyscherif*, signed by the hand of the sultan. The imam recites in a loud voice, in the mosque, five times a day, except at the solemn Friday's prayer, the *namaz*, which the persons present repeat in a low tone: he at the same time performs the ceremonies which accompany that prayer; he assists at circumcision and interments: in a word, he discharges all the functions which worship requires. In the early ages of Mahometanism, *imam* signified and designated the pontiff, or the supreme chief of Islamism: the successors of the first four caliphs took only the title of *imam-ul-muslimin*, pontiff of the Muslims. The doctors and interpreters of the law were afterwards decorated with it, and for some time past it has no longer been given to any but the ministers of religion. In most villages, and some mosques of the towns, whose revenue is too limited, the imam discharges at the same time the functions of *schiek*, *khatib*, imam, muezzin, and cayim. The mosques of the second order, called *mezids*, have no need of a *khatib*, because they have not the right to celebrate the solemn prayer on a Friday. Olivier's Travels.

ULE-TREE, CASTILLA, in Botany, Mexican Elastic Gum, constitutes a new genus of plants, of which an account has been given by Don Vicente de Cervantes, in the supplement to the *Gazeta de Literatura*, published at Mexico, July 2, 1794. See Konig's Tracts relative to Botany, 229. This genus is named CASTILLA, in memory of the late Don Juan del Castillo, a native of Jaca, in the kingdom of Aragon, who at the age of twenty-seven was appointed chief botanist to the royal hospital at Porto-Rico. Seventeen years afterwards he was one of the naturalists chosen to investigate the productions of Mexico, where he died July 26, 1793, at the age of forty-nine years.—Class and order, *Monocotyledonacea*. Nat. Ord. *Scabridae*, Linn. *Urticeae*, Juss.

Gen. Ch. Male, *Cal.* Perianth of one leaf, hemispherical, covered with imbricated, ovate, acute scales. *Cor.* none. *Stam.* Filaments numerous, thread-shaped, inserted into the inside of the calyx, the outermost gradually longer; anthers simple, roundish.

Female, on the same branch, alternate with the male, *Cal.* as in the male, but with rather broader and thicker scales, permanent, at length spreading. *Cor.* none. *Pist.* Germens numerous, fifteen to twenty, ovate; styles two, rarely three, to each germen, spreading, permanent; stigmas simple, revolute. *Peric.* Drupas from fifteen to twenty, combined at the base, obscurely triangular, excavated at the summit. *Seed.* Nut ovate, of one cell, with a kernel of the same shape.

Eff. Ch. Male, Calyx of one leaf, imbricated with scales. Corolla none. Stamens numerous.

Female, Calyx as in the male, permanent. Cor. none. Germens numerous. Styles two or three. Drupas numerous.

1. *C. elaffica*. Cervantes as above, t. 9.—Native of the hot north-east coasts of Mexico, where it is one of the loftiest and most luxuriant of trees, much resembling *Annona muricata*. Stem three or four yards in circumference, very straight. Bark smooth, soft, three or four lines thick, ash-coloured, bitter and nauseous in taste, as is the milky juice issuing from every part when wounded. Branches alternate, horizontal, round, flexible; the younger ones clothed with stiff hairs. Leaves alternate, on short thick stalks, elliptic-oblong, acute, eighteen inches long and seven broad, veiny, downy on both sides, entire, though apparently toothed from the equidistant tufts of hair, ranged along the margin; heart-shaped at the base; reticulated with veins. Stipulas in pairs at the base of each footstalk, oblong, pointed, membranous, deciduous. Flowers axillary, solitary, nearly sessile, the male and female alternate in the lower part of each branch, but towards the end are male flowers only. Calyx straw-coloured. Stamens white, with deep-yellow anthers. Drupas larger than a pea, crowded together in the bottom of the extended calyx, orange-coloured, mucilaginous, almost tasteless.

The milky juice of this tree forms that kind of Elastic Gum, which the Mexicans call *Ule*. The *Cecropia peltata*, with some species of *Jatropha* and *Ficus*, yield a similar produce, valuable for divers economical purposes. See CAOUTCHOUC.

ULEX, the Furze-bush, a name in Pliny, which professor Martyn is disposed to derive from *ulos*, *crisped* or *curled*; but De Theis traces the word to the Celtic *ec* or *ac*, a point, certainly applicable enough to its habit and appearance; this etymology being moreover supported by the French name of the shrub, *ajonc*, anciently *ajonce*, or prickly rush.—Linn. Gen. 379. Schreb. 488. Willd. Sp. Pl. v. 3. 969. Mart. Mill. Dict. v. 4. Sm. Fl. Brit. 756. Ait. Hort. Kew. v. 4. 265. Brot. Lufit. v. 1. 78. Juss. 352. Lamarck Illustr. t. 621. Gertn. t. 151.—Class and order, *Diadelphia Decandria*. Nat. Ord. *Papilionaceae*, Linn. *Leguminosae*, Juss.

Gen. Ch. Cal. Perianth inferior, of two ovate-oblong, concave, straight, equal, permanent leaves, rather shorter than the keel; the upper one with two teeth; lower with three. Cor. papilionaceous, of five petals. Standard very large, inversely heart-shaped, emarginate, straight. Wings oblong, obtuse, shorter than the standard. Keel straight, obtuse, of two petals converging at their inner margin. Stam. Filaments in two sets combined at the base, one simple, the other in nine divisions; anthers simple. Pist. Germen oblong, cylindrical, hairy; style thread-shaped, ascending; stigma small, obtuse. Peric. Legume oblong, turgid, nearly covered by the calyx, straight, of one cell and two elastic valves. Seeds few, roundish, emarginate, with a fleshy appendage.

Eff. Ch. Calyx of two leaves. Legume scarcely longer than the calyx. Stamens all connected.

The few species of this genus are almost confined to the western more temperate parts of Europe, and are remarkable for their rigid thorny bushy habit. The leaves are simple, small and inconspicuous. Flowers numerous, deep yellow.

1. *U. europæus*. Common Furze, Whin, or Gorse. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1045. Willd. n. 1. Fl. Brit. n. 1. Engl. Bot. t. 742. Fl. Dan. t. 608. Brot. n. 1. (*U. grandis*

florus; Pourret Aët. Tolos. v. 3. 333. Genista spinosa vulgaris; Ger. Em. 1319. Scorpius primus; Clus. Hist. v. 1. 106.)—Calyx-teeth obsolete, converging. Bractæas ovate, lax. Branches erect.—Native of gravelly or sandy heaths, in Denmark, Germany, Brabant, France, and Portugal, very frequent in England, flowering in May.—On Putney heath it is remarkably luxuriant, and very splendid when in blossom. Linnæus is recorded to have been peculiarly struck with the appearance of this shrub, when he visited England, and he complains in *Hort. Upsal.* 212, that he could never preserve it in his garden through the winter. With us it varies from two to six feet in height. The branches are excessively numerous, crowded, furrowed, hairy, tipped with strong, sharp, compound, permanent thorns, which bear at their base the leaves and sometimes flowers. Leaves solitary, awl-shaped, spinous-pointed, small, roughish or hairy, deciduous, chiefly on the youngest most vigorous branches. Flower-stalks axillary, solitary or in pairs, simple. Bractæas near the calyx, but not close-pressed, sometimes spreading, ovate, concave, silky. Calyx downy. Corolla near twice the length of the calyx, honey-scented, of a golden yellow. Legume downy, splitting with a crackling noise, in hot still weather.

2. *U. nanus*. Dwarf Furze. Forst. in Sym. Syn. 160. Fl. Brit. n. 2. Engl. Bot. t. 743. Willd. n. 2. Ait. n. 2. (*U. europæus* β; Linn. Sp. Pl. 1045. *U. genifoloides*; Brot. n. 2. Genista aculeata minor, five Nepa Theophrasti; Ger. Em. 1321.)—Calyx-teeth lanceolate, spreading. Bractæas minute, close-pressed. Branches reclining.—Found on rather mountainous or elevated heathy ground, in France, England, and Portugal, flowering in autumn; though it must be observed that both species are to be met with more or less in blossom, in all open weather. This is much smaller than the foregoing; flowers not only smaller but paler; branches more elongated and cylindrical; bractæas minute, brown; calyx yellower, with deeper more evident teeth.

U. capensis, Linn. Sp. Pl. 1046, being no other than *Polygala spinosa*, Linn. Sp. Pl. 989, is properly left out by Willdenow, though he ought to have referred to it under the said *Polygala*.

ULEX, in Gardening, furnishes shrubby plants of the thorny kind, among which the species cultivated are, the common furze, whin, or gorse (*U. europæus*); the dwarf furze (*U. nanus*); and the Cape or African berry-bearing furze (*U. capensis*).

The first is a well-known plant, frequently met with on wastes, commons, and heaths, spreading over large tracts of land.

There are several varieties, as the common yellow furze; the white-flowered furze; the long-spined furze; the short-spined furze; the large French furze; the small or dwarf furze; and the round-podded furze.

This sort and varieties of furze are remarkable for having all their young shoots, branches and spines of a lasting green colour, which, though they are deciduous in the leaf, which comes out in the spring, and soon falls off and disappears, yet from these numerous branches, shoots and spines remaining constantly green, they always appear in the manner of evergreens, and are mostly ranked under that head or class. See EVERGREEN.

The second sort is much lower than the common sort, having decumbent branches. It is found with the other kind chiefly on dry elevated heaths, but by no means so generally; flowering from August to October. It was formerly considered by some as a variety of the above.

The third, or Cape sort, has a woody hard item, which is covered

covered with a greenish bark when young, but afterwards becomes greyish: the branches are also slender and woody. It has not yet produced any flowers in this climate.

Method of Culture.—These plants may all be increased from seeds. These in the first fort should be sown in the autumn or spring, in any light mould, where the plants are to remain. They are likewise sometimes sown in drills in nursery-beds, to be transplanted afterwards while very young; but the first is the better practice, as they do not remove well, especially when grown of a large size. Hedges of this plant are best raised by sowing them in drills an inch deep where they are to remain, keeping them perfectly free from all sorts of weeds, &c. for two or three years, until a little advanced in growth.

In the second and third forts, in the latter of which the seed should be obtained from abroad, and be sown in pots of fine mould, plunging them in the hot-bed; when the plants are up a few inches in height, they should be removed into separate small pots, being afterwards managed as other shrubs of the greenhouse kind. But with the former, the same modes may be followed with the seeds as in the first fort and its varieties.

The last fort is difficult to raise, either by layers or cuttings.

The first fort and varieties afford ornament and variety in shrubberies, where a few plants of the different kinds may be admitted in such as are extensive, having a fine effect in their evergreen flowery appearance, and the two latter among potted plants of the greenhouse kind. The former also in borders and clumps.

ULEY, LA, in *Geography*, a town of Spain, in the province of Grenada; 10 miles W. of Vera.

ULFEN, a sea-port town of Sweden, in Angermanland, on the coast of the gulf of Bothnia; 25 miles N.N.E. of Hernösand.

ULFON, *North and South*, two small islands on the west side of the gulf of Bothnia. N. lat. 63° 2'. E. long. 18° 27'.

ULFSBY, a town of Sweden, in the government of Abo; 5 miles S.S.E. of Björneborg.

ULIA, (*Monte Major*), in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Hispania, in Bætica, towards the N.E. By a medal of Gruter, it appears to have formed a small estate, and to have assumed the title of a republic.

ULIARUS, the *isle of Oleron*, an island on the coast of Gallia Aquitania.

VLEIEGER, SIMON DE, in *Biography*, was born at Amsterdam about the year 1612. It is not known by whom this artist was educated, but his pictures are very deservedly esteemed for their force and brilliancy. He had the honour to be the instructor of the younger Vandewelde; and though the delicacy of the pencil enjoyed by the pupil surpassed that of the master, yet the works of the latter retain their power, and have a character of their own, which gives them a place in the best collections.

VLEIELAND, or FLIELANT, in *Geography*, an island in the German sea, at the entrance of the Zuyder See, about eight miles long, and three in breadth; taken by the English in 1799; 5 miles N. from the Texel. N. lat. 53° 24'. E. long. 4° 25'.

ULIETEA, one of the Society islands, in the South Pacific ocean. On the east and west coasts of this island are some good harbours. One harbour or bay, called by the natives *Oopoa*, and capable of holding any number of ships, extends almost the whole length of the E. side of the island, and is defended from the sea by a reef of coral rocks; the southernmost opening in this reef, or channel into the har-

bour, is little more than a cable's length wide; it lies off the easternmost point of the island, and may be known by another small woody island, which lies a little to the S.E. of it, called by the people *Oatara*. Between three and four miles N.W. from this island lie two other islets, in the same direction as the reef of which they are a part, called *Opururu* and *Tamou*, between which lies another channel into the harbour, a quarter of a mile wide. Still farther to the N.W. are some small islands. On Ulietea there is a great Morai, called *Tapodebatea*, different in its construction from the Morais of Otaheite. Several jaw-bones are found, which, like scalpels among the Indians of North America, are trophies of war. On this island they exhibit dances and dramatic exhibitions for the amusement of those who choose to attend them. The inhabitants in general are more superstitious than those of Otaheite. Oroo, the chief of this island, when Cook visited it in 1774, is a native of Bolabola, but is possessed of uhe-noos or lands at Ulietea, which he, as well as many of his countrymen, are supposed to have gotten at the conquest. He resides here as the lieutenant of Opoony of Bolabola, seeming to be vested with regal authority, and to be the supreme magistrate in the island. Oo-oo-rou, who is the earle by hereditary right, has little more left him than the bare title, and his own uhe-noo or district, in which he is sovereign. Oroo was observed to pay him the respect due to his rank. The land is hilly, broken, and irregular, except on the sea-coast; yet the hills are green and pleasant, and in many parts abound with wood: the productions and manners of the inhabitants are similar to those of Otaheite. The principal refreshments that are to be procured at this island are plantains, cocoa-nuts, yams, hogs, and fowls: the hogs and fowls however are scarce; and the country appears to be neither so populous nor so rich in produce as Otaheite, or even Huahine. Wood and water may also be procured here, but the water cannot be conveniently got at; lying S.W. by S. distant 7 or 8 leagues from Huahine. See SOCIETY *Islands*.

ULIETER, or *Flie Stroom*, a road in the north part of Zuyder See, near the coast of Friesland.

ULIGINOUS LAND, in *Agriculture*, a term sometimes applied to a dark-coloured sort of moist, moorish, or fenny ground or soil.

VLISSINGEN, in *Geography*. See FLUSHING.

ULIZIBIRRA, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Africa Propria, towards the S. of Adrumetum. Ptol.

ULKANSKAIA, in *Geography*, a town of Russia, in the government of Irkutsk; 60 miles S. of Kirensk.

ULKOGRUNNE, three small islands on the east side of the gulf of Bothnia. N. lat. 65° 24'. E. long. 24° 14'.

ULKOKALLA, a small island on the east side of the gulf of Bothnia. N. lat. 64° 22'. E. long. 23° 31'.

ULLA, a river of Spain, which runs into the Atlantic, N. lat. 42° 40'. W. long. 8° 25'.

ULLAGE, in *Commerce*, a term denoting what a cask of liquor wants of being full.

ULLAPOOL, in *Geography*, a sea-port town of Scotland, in the county of Ross, situated at the mouth of a river which runs into Loch Broom; it was first founded in 1788, and is advantageously situated for fishing or commerce. The roadstead is safe and convenient for any number of vessels; and there is a good quay where goods may be loaded or unloaded with the greatest ease. N. lat. 57° 52'. W. long. 5° 1'.

ULLARED, a town of Sweden, in Halland; 30 miles N. of Halmstad.

ULLAVA, a town of Sweden, in the government of Wafra; 32 miles N. of Jacobblatt.

ULLERSDORF, a town of Silesia, in the principality of Neisse; 22 miles N.N.E. of Otmuchau.

ULLERUD, a town of Sweden, in the province of Wärmeland; 12 miles N. of Carlstadt.

ULLESWATER, a lake of England, situated partly in the county of Westmoreland, and partly in Cumberland, whose waters run into the Eden, by the river Eimot, 3 miles S. of Penrith.

ULLO, a small island in the North sea, near the coast of Lapland. N. lat. $69^{\circ} 32'$.

ULLOA, ANTONIO DI, in *Biography*, a celebrated naval officer of Spain, was born at Seville in the year 1716, and so distinguished by talents and knowledge, that at the age of eighteen years he was appointed to accompany his friend Don George Juan to South America, to co-operate with the academicians Condamine, Bouguer, and Godin, in measuring a degree of the meridian. On the 26th of May, 1735, he sailed for Peru, and remained at Quito till the measurement was completed on the 12th of May, 1744. On his return home in a French ship he was captured, in August 1745, by two English men of war, and from Louisburg, in the island of Cape Breton, whither he was carried, he proceeded to London, where he was kindly received, particularly by Martin Folkes, esq. president of the Royal Society, of which he was admitted a member in December 1746. After his arrival in Spain, he and his friend Don Juan published an account of the voyage to America, in five small folio volumes, entitled "Relacion historica del Viage de Orden de S. Mag. para medir algunos Grados de Meridiano," Mad. 1748. Translations of this work were printed, one in German, at Leipzig, and one in English, at London, in 2 vols. 8vo. 1758. Another in French, entitled "Voyage historique de l'Amerique Meridionale," Amst. 1757, 2 vols. 4to. is considered as the most complete, as the author approved the undertaking. His next object was to collect information with regard to the state of the arts and sciences, &c. in various parts of Europe, and with this view he made a tour, under the appointment of Ferdinand VI. through England, France, Holland, and various districts of Germany; and the result of this tour was that many young Spaniards were sent at the public expence to France, Holland, Geneva, and Italy, to acquire a knowledge of medicine, surgery, engraving, watch-making, and various other arts in which the Spaniards were at that time very deficient. Ulloa was also active in promoting the royal woollen manufactories, and in organizing the colleges of history and surgery; he also superintended and completed the canals and basons both at Carthagena and Ferrol. The famous quicksilver mines of Almaden were objects of his peculiar attention, and in 1759 he was deputed to visit those of Guancavellica in Peru. From this service he was removed, in 1766, to the government of Louisiana, which had been ceded to Spain, but the disturbances that ensued obliged him very soon to abandon that station. In 1776 he commanded the galleon fleet that sailed from Cadiz to Mexico, and having been charged with neglect in that service, he was honourably acquitted by a council of war at Cadiz. His second great work, which was a Physical and Historical Account of the Southern and North-eastern Part of America, and which contained a curious dissertation on the peopling of America, was published at Madrid, 4to. in 1772, under the title of "Entrettenimientos Physicos-Historicos sobre la America Meridional y Septentrional Oriental;" the dissertation is entitled "Sobre el Modo en quel passaron los primeros Pobladores." This work was translated into German by professor Diez, and published at Leipzig in 1781, 1782, in 2 vols. 8vo., and was enriched by the valuable additions of professor Schneider. Dr. Robertson estimated them so

highly, that he procured a translation of them into English for his own use. Another eminent Spaniard related to the subject of this article, DON BERNARD DI ULLOA, published in 1740 an interesting work, entitled "Reftablecimiento de las Fabricas y Comercio Maritimo di Efpagna," which was translated into French in 1753, and which contains several extracts from the work of Don Ant. Ulloa. This latter died in the isle de Leon, near Cadiz, on the 5th of July, 1795. The Transactions of the Royal Society contain several papers which he communicated to the Society. He was a knight and commander of the order of St. Jago, lieutenant-general of the royal navy of Spain, and director-general of the Spanish marine. Gen. Biog.

ULM, in *Geography*, an imperial city of Germany, in the circle of Swabia, situated on the Danube. This city is well fortified; the magistracy and principal part of the inhabitants are Lutherans. The cathedral is one of the largest, and with respect to its Gothic tower, is esteemed one of the loftiest in Germany. N. lat. $48^{\circ} 24'$. E. long. $9^{\circ} 59'$.

ULMA, a town of Portugal, in Estremadura; 11 miles E. of Santarem.

ULMARIA, in *Botany*, so called, as Caspar Bauhin and all following writers inform us, from the shape of the leaves, though we confess ourselves unable to discover any striking resemblance therein to any kind of elm. See SPIRÆA, n. 21.

ULMEN, or *Thal Ulmen*, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Sarre; 6 miles W. of Kayser's Esch.

ULMESFELD, a town of Austria; 18 miles E. of Steyr.

ULMI, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Pannonia. Anton. Itin.

ULMIN, in *Chemistry*, a substance obtained from the elm-tree (*ulmus*), first made known by the celebrated Klaproth, and ranked by Dr. Thomson, in his "System of Chemistry," (vol. iv. p. 69. 4th ed.) as a distinct vegetable principle, on account of its peculiar and extraordinary qualities. This very intelligent chemist observes, that though in its original state it is easily soluble in water, and wholly insoluble in alcohol and ether, it changes, when nitric or oxymuriatic acid is poured into its solution, into a resinous substance, no longer soluble in water, but soluble in alcohol; and this singular alteration is attributed to its union with a small portion of oxygen, which it has acquired from these acids. It has been the subject of Mr. Smithson's particular examination, and he has observed facts which appear to warrant a different history of its phenomena, and opinion of its nature, from that which has been given of them. The ulmin used in his experiments had been freed from the fragments of bark by solution in water and filtration, and recovered in a dry state by the evaporation of the solution in a water-bath. In lumps, says this ingenious writer, ulmin appears black, but in thin pieces it is transparent, and of a deep red colour. In a dilute state, solution of ulmin is yellow; in a concentrated one, dark red, and not unlike blood. When this solution dries, the ulmin separates into long narrow strips, arranged in rays towards the centre, which curl up, and detach themselves from the vessel, and the fluid part seems to draw together and become protuberant. The solution feebly and slowly restores the colour of turnsole paper reddened by an acid.

If dilute nitric acid be poured into a solution of ulmin, a copious precipitate is immediately formed. When the mixture is thrown on a filter, the matter supposed to be a resin remained on the paper, and a clear yellow liquor passed

through it; which yellow solution, on evaporation, produced a number of prismatic crystals, having the appearance of nitrate of potash; and these were tinged yellow by some of the resin. The mixture, heated in a gold dish, deflagrated with violence, and left a large quantity of fixed alkali. Similar results were obtained by means of dilute muriatic acid. The filtered liquor afforded saline matter, which being freed by ignition from a portion of dissolved resin, shot into pure white cubes of muriate of potash. A similar precipitation was effected by sulphuric, phosphoric, oxalic, tartaric, and citric acids, in solution of ulmin. Distilled vinegar produced no turbidness, but the mixture, exhaled to dryness, at a gentle heat, was found to be again wholly soluble in water; and when it boiled, some decomposition occurred. On adding muriatic acid to a mixture of solution of ulmin and distilled vinegar, a precipitate was produced, as in an aqueous solution. The nitric and muriatic acids received from the ulmin a small quantity of lime and iron, and, as was supposed, of magnesia; which were conceived to be foreign admixtures. Some experiments were made in order to detect the quantity of potash in ulmin. When four grains of this substance were decomposed by nitric acid, 2.4 grains of resin-like matter were the result; and when the nitrate of potash obtained was heated to deflagration, in a platina crucible to free it from resin, the alkali produced was supersaturated with nitric acid, dried, and slightly fused; it then weighed 1.2 grain: so that if we admit $\frac{1}{2}$ of nitrate of potash to be alkali, this will denote $\frac{1}{10}$ of potash in ulmin. By decomposing five grains of ulmin by muriatic acid, the resinous matter weighed 3.3 grains; and the muriate of potash, ignited, separated from the charcoal, dried, and again made red-hot, weighed 1.4 grain. Supposing $\frac{3}{4}$ of muriate of potash to be alkali, we may infer that the ulmin had $\frac{1}{10}$. Two grains of ulmin were made red-hot in a gold crucible; and it then weighed only 1.05 grain. The flakes, retaining their form, appear to have acquired the blue and yellow colours of heated steel, with the metallic aspect and lustre; but the metallic appearance was immediately destroyed by water. Muriatic acid poured on, caused a strong effervescence, and formed muriate of potash, which freed from charcoal, and made red-hot, weighed 0.6 grain, corresponding to $\frac{1}{10}$ of potash in ulmin. From these experiments our author infers, that the quantity of potash in ulmin is about $\frac{1}{10}$.

The substance separated from ulmin by acids has the following qualities: it is glossy, and appears resinous: in lumps it appears black, in minute fragments transparent, and of a garnet-red colour: it burns with flame, and is reduced to white ashes: alcohol dissolves it in a very small quantity, which is also the case with water: acids cause a precipitate on the solution, though the resin-like matter appears neither to contain any alkali, nor to retain any of the acid: its watery solution seems to reddens turnsole paper: neither ammonia nor carbonate of soda promotes its solution in cold water: on adding a small quantity of potash to water, it dissolves immediately and abundantly. Upon the whole, it appears that ulmin is not a simple vegetable principle of anomalous qualities, but a combination with potash of a red, or more properly, a high yellow matter, which, if not of a peculiar genus, seems rather more related to the extractives than to the resins.

Our author made several experiments with a black shining substance, appearing like ulmin, collected from an elm-tree in Kensington gardens; and found that it differs in a variety of respects from that which he obtained from Palermo. The English ulmin had an excess of alkali, which he supposes to be owing to the tree from which it was collected having been affected with the disease which produces the

alkaline ulcer to which the elm is subject. Ulmin, he says, appears to be the product of old trees. The uses to which it is applicable, as an astringent, are still to be investigated. See Phil. Trans. for 1813, pt. 1.

ULMUS, in Botany, an old Latin name, generally left by etymologists unexplained, but deduced by De Theis from Elm, its synonym in Anglo-Saxon, as well as in all the dialects of the Celtic tongue; and which has remained unchanged in English to this day.—Linn. Gen. 123. Schreb. 173. Willd. Sp. Pl. v. 1. 1324. Mart. Mill. Dict. v. 4. Sm. Fl. Brit. 281. Prodr. Fl. Græc. Sibth. v. 1. 171. Ait. Hort. Kew. v. 2. 107. Pursh 199. Juss. 468. Tourn. t. 372. Lamarck Dict. v. 4. 609. Illustr. t. 185. Gært. t. 49.—Clafs and order, *Pentandria Digynia*. Nat. Ord. *Scabridæ*, Linn. *Amentaceæ*, Juss.

Gen. Ch. Cal. Perianth inferior, of one leaf, turbinate, corrugated; its limb four or five-cleft, erect, internally coloured, permanent. Cor. none. Stam. Filaments four or five, awl-shaped, twice the length of the calyx; anthers erect, short, with four furrows. Pist. Germen orbicular, compressed, erect, somewhat stalked; styles two, shorter than the stamens, reflexed; stigmas downy. Peric. Capsule membranous, large, oval, compressed, winged, with the dilated styles, of one cell, not bursting. Seed solitary, roundish, slightly compressed.

Eff. Ch. Calyx four or five-cleft, inferior, permanent. Corolla none. Capsule membranous, compressed, nearly flat, with one seed.

Obs. The flowers in some species have only four segments and four stamens, in some occasionally six. Schkuhr is said to have met with eight stamens, which Willdenow confirms. The pericarp was called by Linneus sometimes a dry *drupa*, sometimes a dry *berry*. Schreber adopted the latter. In more modern language it is a SAMARA; see that article.

The species of *Ulmus* have not been well defined. Linneus confounded all the European ones together, under the name of *U. campestris*. The writer of this has distinguished five British species in his Engl. Bot., and Compendium, ed. 2. More may perhaps be made out hereafter. Characters formerly supposed accidental, such as the number of stamens and segments of the flower, have been found permanently to indicate a specific difference; and the different value of the several species, for ornamental planting, or for timber, renders their discrimination important. They are generally trees of lofty stature, with hard and tough wood; stalked, alternate, roughish leaves; and numerous, tufted, small, reddish or purplish, very early flowers, fading long before the foliage expands. The capsules are deciduous, copious, of a light chaffy aspect, scarcely ever perfecting their seed, at least in England.

1. *U. campestris*. Common Elm. Linn. Sp. Pl. 327. Bauh. Pin. 426? Fl. Brit. n. 1. a. Compend. 42. Engl. Bot. t. 1886, excluding the reference to Willdenow and Ehrhart. (U. minor, folio angusto scabro; Goodyer in Ger. Em. 1480. Raii Syn. 469. U. fuberolæ; Dryandr. in Ait. n. 2.)—Leaves doubly serrated, rough, unequal at the base. Flowers nearly sessile, four-cleft, with four stamens. Fruit oblong, naked.—Common in scattered woods and hedges, chiefly in the southern part of England, flowering in April, scattering its unprolific seeds in June. The tree attains a considerable height before it blossoms, with a rugged crooked trunk and branches, being of slower growth than our other wild species, with a harder, more durable, and consequently more valuable, wood, which is preferred for coffins, as resisting wet for a long while. Leaves on short stalks, ovate, somewhat rhomboid, unequal at the base, doubly

doubly ferrated, rough on both sides; most downy beneath, especially at the axillary glands of their veins: their length is from one to two inches, scarcely more. *Foosfalks* short. *Flowers* from separate, much more early, buds, in numerous, dense, round tufts, almost sessile, with oblong fringed bractes. *Calyx* light red, in four ovate, obtuse, equal, fringed segments. *Stamens* four, opposite to each segment, smooth, with large purple anthers. *Stigmas* downy along their upper edge; at length dilated at the other, incurved, and running down into the membranous smooth wings of the *capsule*, whose oblong wedge-like shape essentially distinguishes this species from the next.—Whether this be Schkuhr's *U. tetrandra*, we have no means of knowing. It is certainly very erroneously combined with *suberosa* in Hort. Kew. Linnæus doubtless confounded it with *montana*; but the latter name having been long established, we prefer retaining *campestris* for the present species, authors having made so many mistakes, that no name can be chosen which some authority or other does not contradict.

2. *U. suberosa*. Cork-barked Elm. Ehrh. Arb. 142. Willd. n. 2. Engl. Bot. t. 2161. Compend. 42. Ait. n. 2, β. (U. campestris β; Fl. Brit. n. 1. Hudf. 109. U. vulgatissima, folio lato scabro; Goodyer in Ger. Em. 1480. Raii Syn. 468.)—Leaves pointed, doubly and sharply ferrated, rough, unequal at the base. Flowers on short stalks, four or five-cleft, with four or five stamens. Fruit rounded, deeply cloven, naked. Bark corky.—Found in woods, and about villages, in many parts of Europe. Very common in Suffex, according to Mr. Borrer, flowering in March. The branches spread widely, and their bark of a year old is covered with a fine dense cork, divided by deep fissures. Leaves larger than in the foregoing, more pointed, as well as more sharply and finely ferrated. Flowers earlier, more hairy, on longer stalks, and often five-cleft; their segments obtuse. Capsule much shorter and nearly orbicular, more deeply cloven than in *montana*, to which species the present seems more akin than to *campestris*. The axillary tufts of hair to the veins beneath, are peculiarly broad in *U. suberosa*.

3. *U. major*. Dutch Elm. Engl. Bot. t. 2542. Compend. 43. (U. hollandicus; Mill. Dict. ed. 8. n. 5. U. major hollandica, angustis et magis acuminatis famaris, folio latissimo scabro; Pluk. Alm. 393.)—Leaves unequally, rather bluntly, ferrated, rough, unequal at the base. Flowers nearly sessile, four-cleft, with four stamens. Fruit obovate, naked, slightly cloven.—Native of Holland, and perhaps of England. We believe it may not be specifically distinct from what was pointed out to us by his grace the duke of Bedford, near Shugborough, Staffordshire, by the name of the Huntingdonshire Elm, but of that we have not seen either flowers or fruit. We originally confounded the *U. major* with *suberosa*, and this may have led to the still greater mistake in Hort. Kew. of uniting our *campestris* to the Dutch Elm, though the wood of the former is mentioned in Engl. Bot. as the most valuable of its genus, while that of the latter is declared by Miller to be "good for nothing." This author says his *U. hollandicus* was brought from Holland in king William's reign, and being recommended for its quick growth, was a fashionable tree for hedges in gardens, but afterwards fell into disuse. We prefer for this species the name of *major*, taken from Plukenet's synonym. It is intermediate between *suberosa* and *montana*, agreeing most with the latter in its broad, bluntly-ferrated rough leaves, and the large obovate fruit, which is much less deeply cloven than in *suberosa*. The branches spread widely, in a drooping manner, and their bark is more corky than even that of the species last mentioned.

4. *U. montana*. Broad-leaved Elm, or Wych Hazel. Bauh. Pin. 427. Camer. Epit. 70. With. 279. Fl. Brit. n. 2. Engl. Bot. t. 1887. (U. campestris; Willd. n. 1. Ait. n. 1. Woodv. Med. Bot. t. 197. Sm. Prodr. Fl. Græc. Sibth. n. 599? Fl. Dan. t. 632. U. nuda; Ehrh. Arb. n. 62. U. folio latissimo scabro; Goodyer in Ger. Em. 1481.)—Leaves doubly ferrated, pointed, rough, unequal at the base. Flowers on short stalks, five or six-cleft, with five or six stamens. Fruit rounded, naked, scarcely cloven.—This appears to be one of the most common species throughout Europe, from the south of Sweden. It is frequent in woods and hedges in Britain, flowering at the end of March, or early in April, and ripening seed, more perfectly than our first species, in June. The tree is large and spreading, with drooping or pendulous branches. The wood fetches about half the price of our Norfolk *campestris*. The bark is not corky. Leaves much larger than in *campestris*, and somewhat less rough, with longer points. Flowers larger, on rather longer stalks, their segments acute, from five to six, or even seven, with the same number of stamens. Fruit larger, more orbicular, slightly obovate, smooth at the edge, and very slightly cloven at the end.—Since the species of Elms have been more accurately investigated, botanists have differed about the names of this and our first described. That the present is *U. montana* of Bauhin, so well figured by Camerarius, and distinguished from what those authors term *campestris*, there can be no doubt. The latter is the *Ulmus* figured by Matthioli, Dodonæus, Lobel (in his Icones, v. 2. 189.), with a sort of gall, but no fructification, and we presume it to be either our *campestris* or *suberosa*, but most probably the former. However this part of the question may be decided, we conceive there can be no doubt as to the *montana*, which can never be justly taken for the true *campestris*, though confounded by Linnæus with other species under that name, and though it may be the Swedish plant. Both perhaps are indigenous in Greece, but we have no specimens from thence.

5. *U. glabra*. Smooth-leaved, or Wych Elm. Mill. Dict. ed. 8. n. 4. Cullum Fl. Angl. 97, unpublished. Sm. Compend. 43. Engl. Bot. t. 2248. (U. montana β; Fl. Brit. n. 2. U. folio glabro; Ger. Em. 1481. Raii Syn. 469.)—Leaves doubly ferrated, smooth, unequal at the base. Flowers nearly sessile, five-cleft, with five stamens. Fruit obovate, naked, deeply cloven.—Native of England. Observed by Mr. Edward Forster to be the most abundant species of this genus in some parts of Essex, flowering in March. We have arranged Gerard's synonyms of this and the first two species, under the auspices of that accurate British botanist. The present is an elegant tree, with spreading drooping branches, whose bark is smooth and blackish. Leaves more oblong and rigid than those of *suberosa*, very unequal at the base; quite smooth to the touch on the upper side, and nearly so beneath, except the general downiness of the rib and veins. Flowers fringed, obtuse, with long stamens. Fruit small, cloven down to the seed. Goodyer in Gerard's Herbal says the wood is preferred for the naves of cart-wheels. If so, it perhaps equals our *campestris* in quality.

6. *U. effusa*. Loose-flowering Elm. Willd. n. 3, with many wrong synonyms. (U. ciliata; Ehrh. Arb. 72. U. pedunculata; Lamarck n. 2. U. folio latissimo, floribus in petiolis (pedunculis) pendentibus; Buxb. Halens. 340. U. longioribus floribus et feminibus petiolis; Rupp. Jen. ed. Haller. 330.)—Leaves doubly ferrated, smooth, unequal at the base. Flowers obovate, on drooping stalks. Fruit elliptical, cloven, densely fringed.—Native of Germany. Buxbaum speaks of it as growing about vil-

lages, affording a grateful shade. Ruppius gathered it near Leipzig, and Ehrhart at Hanover. We know nothing of this species in England. Its leaves are larger than the last, and not less unequal at the base; very smooth, with downy ribs and footstalks. Flower-stalks about an inch long, smooth, loosely pendulous. Calyx probably answering in its segments to the number of the stamens, which are said to be eight, but we do not always find the calyx more than five or six-cleft, with blunt shallow divisions. The fruit is elliptical, acute at each end, larger than the last, cloven, but not quite down to the feed; its margin densely woolly; by which last mark, and the long drooping flower-stalks, this species is very clearly distinguished. We cannot concur with Willdenow in thinking this *U. glabra* of Miller, or *montana* of Bauhin; it certainly does not answer to the cut of *montana* in Camerarius.

7. *U. americana*. American Elm. Linn. Sp. Pl. 327. Willd. n. 4. Ait. n. 3. Pursh n. 1. —Leaves acutely serrated, very rough, somewhat unequal at the base. Flowers on longish stalks. Fruit ovate, deeply cloven, densely fringed. Common in all low lands and woods, from New England to Carolina, flowering in April, and known by the name of White Elm. *Pursh*. There is a variety with red branches, another with white, and a third more pendulous, whose leaves are said to be smoother. In our specimens the leaves are large, long-pointed, unequally serrated, more or less rough, like a file, on short downy stalks; their ribs numerous, straight and parallel; their under side downy and hoary when young. *Stipulas* long, strap-shaped, reddish, deciduous, smooth. *Stamens* apparently more than five. Fruit reticulated, as densely fringed as the last, and more deeply cloven.

8. *U. nemoralis*. Hornbeam-leaved Elm. River Elm. Ait. n. 4. Willd. n. 5. Pursh n. 2. (*U. polyma*; Lamarek n. 5. *Rhamnus carpinifolius*; Pallas Ross. v. 1. part 2. 24. t. 60. *Planera* Gmelini; Michaux Boreal-Amer. v. 2. 248. *P. aquatica*; Willd. Sp. Pl. v. 4. 967. Pursh 115. *P. Richardi*; Michaux ibid. ?) —Leaves ovate, oblong, equally serrated, nearly smooth; scarcely unequal at the base; paler beneath. Fruit inflated, oblique. —Native of the banks of rivers in North America, flowering in April and May. Pallas found it in Siberia, and was justly doubtful of its genus. This tree is said to have been cultivated by the late Mr. Gordon, in 1760. It flowered in the royal French garden at Trianon, for the first time, in April 1779. The synonyms appear very paradoxical, and we hardly feel justified in supposing that Michaux as well as Pursh, have each described the plant twice over. Yet we never could meet with more than one species answerable to the above names. The tree is tall and handsome, with a white brittle wood. Leaves an inch and a half long, bright green, with large, broad, blunt, equal serratures. Footstalks downy, very short. Flowers nearly sessile, in lateral or axillary tufts, some of them occasionally male or female only. Calyx bell-shaped, usually five-cleft, with five stamens. Capsule ovate, oblique, gibbous, reticulated, bordered, not winged, very unlike an *Ulmus*, yet surely less like a *Rhamnus*, or a *Celtis*, to both of which it has been compared. Not having seen the fructification alive, to trace its progress, we must leave the genus of this remarkable tree in the uncertainty in which we find it.

9. *U. Abelicea*. Sandal-wood Elm. Sm. Prodr. Fl. Græc. Sibth. n. 600. (*Abelicea cretica*; Pon. Bald. 112, with a figure. Sm. Tr. of Linn. Soc. v. 9. 126. Bauh. Hist. v. 1. 490. *Pseudofantulum creticum*; Bauh. Pin. 393.) —Leaves elliptical, equally serrated, scarcely unequal at the base; downy and hoary beneath. Fruit inflated, oblique. —

Native of Crete, from whence its wood is said to have been formerly transported to Italy, as a sort of Sandal-wood. Honorio Belli communicated a figure of the branches and leaves to Pona, and we have the fruit from Dr. Sibthorp, but no specimen or account of the flowers. This species differs from the last chiefly in the hoary pubescence of its leaves on their under side. The fruit is very similar to that, but more compressed, and cloven like an Elm at the summit. The wood is harder, and reddish.

10. *U. fulva*. Red, or Slippery, Elm. Michaux Boreal-Amer. v. 1. 172. Pursh n. 3. —Branches rough. Leaves ovate-oblong, pointed, unequally serrated, very rough, downy on both sides; scarcely unequal at the base. Buds densely woolly. Flowers sessile. —On mountains, from Canada to Pennsylvania, flowering in May. The viscid inner bark is used by the natives as a healing application for sores. *Pursh*. Leaves variable in shape and serratures, but more downy than those of other American Elms. *Stamens* from five to seven. *Stigmas* purplish. Young fruit downy on both sides. Michaux.

11. *U. alata*. Whaloo, or Cork-winged Elm. Michaux Boreal-Amer. v. 1. 173. Pursh n. 4. —Branches winged with cork at each side. Leaves oblong-oval, tapering to a point; nearly equal at the base. Fruit downy, densely fringed. —In sandy low woods of Virginia and Carolina, flowering in April. *Pursh*. A middle-sized tree, with leaves like horn-beam, and nearly the fructification of *U. americana*. Michaux. This is the *U. pumila* of Walter, Fl. Carolin. 111.

12. *U. pumila*. Dwarf Elm. Linn. Sp. Pl. 327. Willd. n. 6. Ait. n. 5. Pall. Ross. v. 1. part 1. 75. t. 48. (*U. humilis*; Amm. Ruth. 180.) —Leaves elliptic-lanceolate, equally serrated, very smooth; nearly equal at the base. Fruit roundish-ovate, cloven, smooth. —Native of Siberia and China. Hardy in England. A bushy shrub, with shining, veiny, neatly serrated leaves, smaller than in any of the former, except perhaps *U. Abelicea*. Flowers stalked, red.

13. *U. integrifolia*. Entire-leaved Elm. Roxb. Coromand. v. 1. 56. t. 78. Willd. n. 7. —Leaves entire. Fruit orbicular, emarginate. —Native of the Circar mountains of the East Indies, flowering during the cold season, and casting its leaves after the rainy season, but young ones come out in March. This is a large timber tree, whose wood serves for a variety of uses. The ovate, acute, entire leaves are near three inches long. Flowers small, sessile, deeply five-cleft; some of them male, with eight stamens; the rest with five. Fruit somewhat racemose, veiny, near an inch broad.

ULMUS, in Gardening, contains plants of the deciduous timber-tree and ornamental hedge-kind, and others, among which the species cultivated are, the common elm (*U. campestris*); the Dutch elm (*U. suberosa*); the broad-leaved elm, or Wych hazel (*U. montana*); the American elm (*U. americana*); the hornbeam-leaved elm (*U. nemoralis*); and the dwarf elm (*U. pumila*).

The first sort grows to a great high tree; the bark of which in the young trees and the boughs of the older ones is smooth and very tough, and will strip or peel from the wood a great length without breaking, being somewhat of an astringent quality, and probably capable of being employed in the business of tanning leather.

There is a variety called the narrow-leaved elm, which is like the other, but much less and lower: the leaves are usually about two inches and a half long, and an inch or an inch and quarter broad; indented about the edges, and having one side longer than the other, and being harsh on both

sides like the other. It is called in the nurseries the English elm. It is stated by Dr. (now Sir James) Smith, as the opinion of Mr. Crowe, that this is the origin of all the cultivated varieties of the elm : and Miller asserts that there are several other varieties, but not worth noticing ; among these is that with variegated or blotched leaves. Gilpin also makes mention of the weeping elm.

However, the varieties commonly noticed are, the common small-leaved English elm ; the larger-rough-leaved English elm ; the small-leaved Cornish elm ; the smooth-barked or Wych elm ; the narrow-leaved Wych or Scotch elm ; the broad-leaved Wych elm ; the smooth-leaved Wych elm ; the rough-leaved Dutch elm, with large leaves ; the yellow or golden-striped leaved elm ; the silver-striped elm ; and the silver-dusted elm.

The second species is chiefly remarkable for its quick growth and fungous rough bark. It is a native of Europe, and is often called the cork-barked or the Dutch elm, as it was introduced from Holland at the beginning of King William's reign : the wood is of very inferior quality.

The third sort has the bark of the branchlets smooth and even : the bark on the outside in this is blacker than in that of the first kind, and is also very tough ; so that when there is plenty of sap, it will strip or peel from the wood of the boughs from one end to the other, a dozen feet in length, or more, without breaking : the timber is in colour nearly like the first : it is not so firm or strong for naves of wheels, but will more easily cleave : the branches or young boughs are grosser and bigger, and spread themselves broader, and hang more downwards ; the leaves being much broader and longer than in any of the other kinds of elm.

The variety of it termed the smooth-leaved elm is in bigness and height like the first, but the boughs grow as those of the Wych hazel, hanging more downwards than those of the common elm : the bark is blacker than that of the first kind, but will also peel from the boughs : the flowers and seeds are like those of the first ; the leaves also, in form, are like that, but smooth in handling on both sides : the wood is said to be more desired for naves of cart-wheels than that of the first sort.

The fourth kind has three varieties, according to the Kew catalogue : the first is the red, or Canada elm, which grows in its native country to a vast size ; the leaves are ovate, wrinkled, and scabrous, broader than those of our Dutch or Wych elms, smoother, and of a much more lively green ; the branches are red, whence it has the name of red elm. It grows very fast in this climate.

In the second variety, or the white elm, which is so named from the whiteness of the branches, the leaves are scabrous, but oblong ; and, according to Gronovius, having narrower leaves than the red, and the trunk beset at intervals with twigs closely clustered together below the boughs. Boats are said to be made from the bark of it.

The third, or the drooping or weeping variety of this sort of elm, is distinguished by its oblong smoothish leaves, and its pendulous branches. Martyn observes that the American sort differs from the European elm, in having the leaves equally, or, as Gronovius expresses it, quite simply or singly serrate.

The fifth sort, or the hornbeam-leaved elm, is a North American sort of elm.

The last sort has the branches more slender than in the other kinds, divaricating, and of a greyish ash-colour : the wood is very hard and tough, grey, remarkably waved with transverse lines of a deeper colour, larger fibred, and when

exposed to the air becomes yellower than oak, and is preferable to it : the ashes exported from Riga, under the name of waidafche, are made entirely from the wood of this and other elms, burnt in brick-furnaces : the root is beautifully variegated, and fit for the use of the turner, &c. : the bark does not readily peel off, and therefore is not used for making ropes. It is said, in Southern Russia, to often contend with the oak in stature.

There is a variety with both young and old branches winged and rendered irregular with compressed fungous excrescences of the bark variously interrupted ; and in mountain rocks there is a variety which has shorter thicker branches, winged with fungous excrescences of the bark.

Method of Culture.—In these trees it is effected in different ways ; as by feed, suckers, layers, and grafting. The feed, when perfectly ripened, may be collected and sown in the autumn or spring, in four-foot wide beds, half an inch deep ; that which is kept to the spring being preferred by drying it well, out of the sun, then putting it up close till towards autumn, when it should be mixed with sand, to preserve it more effectually through the winter ; when about the middle of February it should be sown as above. The young plants should afterwards be carefully shaded, watered, and kept clear from weeds. They should have one or two years growth in the feed-bed, and then be planted out in nursery lines, in rows two or three feet asunder, and the plants fifteen or eighteen inches distant in each row, giving them the common nursery care, and training them for the purposes intended. If for standards, for timber, or ornamental plantations, they should be trained each to a single stem, and as they advance in height, clearing the stems from all lateral shoots, leaving only the very small twigs, just to draw and detain the sap, for the better increase of the stem ; suffering the leading top-shoot to remain entire, as also the principal branches of the head ; but those designed for hedge-work, &c. should be let branch out all the way, and become feathered to the bottom, or as low as may be requisite for the purposes intended, only trimming them occasionally with the knife or garden-shears, to give them the intended form. When the trees have had four or five years' growth, and are from four or five, to six, eight, or ten feet high, they are fit for planting out where they are to remain.

The feed method of raising the plants is the best practised with the Wych elm sorts, as they ripen their feeds better than the other kinds, during the spring and summer months ; but when it can be obtained of a good quality from the other sorts, it may be used in the same way with equal success.

The suckers which most of the sorts send up from the roots, but especially the English and Dutch sorts, should be taken up carefully with root-fibres, in autumn, winter, or spring, trimming them for planting by cutting them down at top to six or eight inches, placing them in small trenches or drills five or six inches deep, one row in each, half a foot apart, and the drills about half a yard asunder ; giving waterings in spring and summer ; letting them remain two years, to form good roots, then planting them in wide nursery-rows, and managing them as directed for the seedlings.

The layers of all the sorts may easily be made by previously preparing a quantity of stools to produce shoots, situated near the ground : the proper season for laying them down is in the autumn, winter, or early in the spring, performing it by slit-laying ; and as soon as the whole are laid and moulded in, every layer should be lopped with a knife,

down

down to one eye above the ground. In this way they readily take root in the spring and summer following, shooting at top sometimes two or three feet long by the autumn, when they should be detached from the stools, and be planted in nursery-rows, two feet or a yard asunder, and half a yard distant in the rows : when they begin to shoot, they should be trained with one leading shoot only, as the feeding elms, managing them in the same manner.

In the grafting method, all the varieties of elms may be increased and continued distinct, which should be done upon stocks of the Wych elm, raised from seed, suckers, or layers, though the seedling stocks are preferable. For which purpose, some rows of Wych elms should be allotted for stocks, which, after having two years' growth in the nursery lines, will be fit to graft on : when about the beginning of February, the cuttings of the young moderate shoots of the best English elm, or any other variety, should be inserted into the stocks by the method of whip-grafting, putting them in as low as possible, for which the earth should be removed away a little down to each root, then cutting off the head of the stock within two or three inches of the bottom; the grafts be inserted one in each stock, as above, binding them close, and claying them well; then drawing the earth up about and over the clay, the more effectually to secure it from falling off by the effects of the frost or other causes. When they begin to shoot, they should be trained with only one leading shoot, so that if they fork at top into two or more, the weakest should be taken off, leaving the best shoot for the leader, displacing all large side-shoots from the stems, and letting the tops or leading shoots remain always entire, as also the general upper branches of the heads.

It has been observed, that as the common elm produces no seeds in this country, it is best propagated by suckers, or cultivated by grafting. In the first case, when the old tree is cut down, or the roots wounded by any accident, young shoots are thrown out in great abundance. The raising of elms by layers is advised by some as better than by suckers, which it is said are more liable to breed suckers, and of course to injure the trees, and encumber the ground around them. Such statements are not, however, exactly true, as there are no better trees than those raised by suckers, when it is properly performed, and they are placed for two or three years in a good nursery-ground. Young trees growing as suckers, without transplanting, certainly breed and send up new ones, as they spring up from long horizontal roots, which being bruised by accident, or otherwise wounded, will, in all such places, throw up new plants; but if the young trees be cut and separated from such roots, and then planted out in good soils, they speedily become flourishing, and grow exactly in the same manner the larger trees grow.

On the examination of these roots, no deficiency will be found, it is asserted; but the case is widely different if the young trees remain attached to the parent roots, the decay in the stumps of which communicates with the young trees; and this is the reason, it is supposed, why so much of the hedge-row elm-timber in some places falls in an unsound state. Although apparently flourishing in the lower parts of the stocks, they all grow from suckers, which convey the rot from the parent to the offspring; and it is a rare thing, in some districts, to find two sound elms together that have sprung up spontaneously; though it is equally uncommon to find a planted tree unsound at the bottom. The plants, in all exposed situations, should be put down small and flourishing, being free from any sort of former check, as such plants answer the best in all cases.

In order to prevent the above danger, the young plants should be early severed from the parent roots or trees; they will then almost immediately send down perpendicular roots into the soil, take firm hold of the ground, and become independent trees.

As the stumps of old trees decay in a few years, they become a sort of bowls filled with rain-water, which not only rots these stumps, and penetrates and destroys the interior of those roots that formerly nourished the trees, but which actually ascends the stems of the young elm-plants, that spring from such roots. It is contended, that in spite of luxuriant foliage and a clean bark, it will be found on the inspection of any plant so produced, that the mischief has already begun, which grows with its growth, and strengthens with its strength, until the tree becomes fit for felling. Specimens of suckers from decaying stumps, not an inch in diameter, have been met with and preserved, in which the heart was already injured; and this will continue, it is said, to increase, until the channel of communication is cut off. After separation the evil does not increase, as it is found, on the examination of suckers of this description, planted in a nursery, that they bid fair to make sound trees. The butt of a planted elm has never been seen to be unsound, unless from great age, or external injuries: it is consequently advised to plant, in the first place, trees of this sort from the nursery, when of proper size, and to constantly supply the nursery with suckers from the hedge-rows, as it may be done with little trouble and expense; and in the second place, to cut off the connection and communication of young promising trees with their parent roots or stools early, opening the hedge-rows at three or four feet distant from the stems or stumps; as by these means sound trees of this sort may be easily raised and provided for different purposes.

These trees are highly useful, both for timber and in the way of ornament, when planted out on large open spaces, or otherwise; likewise for being clipped, or cut into particular forms, and as forming hedges in various situations. These sorts of trees, in their larger or smaller growths, are used for supplying those and other intentions and purposes in many different methods. All the sorts and varieties of the elm are of hardy growth, and will succeed perfectly well in any common soil and exposure, but delight most in a rich deep earth of a stiffish loamy nature, which is rather inclined to moisture, the English sorts having the best situations and soil, and the Wych and Dutch kinds those which are inferior in these respects.

For most purposes, the plants of these sorts of trees should be planted out finally while they are in their young states of growth, as from four or five, to six, eight, or ten feet in height, in which they commonly take root, grow free, and establish themselves the most freely, expeditiously, and in the fullest manner.

It may however be particularly noticed, that elms will bear removing when large, better than most other sorts of trees, as they are more furnished with superficial horizontal root-fibres. Thus, trees of fifteen or twenty feet in height may often be taken up with a large spread of roots and balls of earth about them, and be safely removed by being replanted in spacious pits or holes dug for them, where they readily strike new root, and grow strongly. But the removing and transplanting of these large trees is not by any means a proper or desirable practice for making plantations, or other sorts of field planting, but merely occasionally for particular uses and purposes, where shade, shelter, or a blind to some part is wanted.

The most proper and suitable time for planting out and removing all such plants and trees, is from the beginning of autumn

autumn until the early part of the following spring. See PLANTATION and PLANTING.

All these sorts of trees, but especially the common English, Cornish and Wych kinds and varieties, are highly proper for different denominations of forest and timber plantations in mixture with other sorts of trees, or as an ulmarium, and in groups, ranges, hedge-rows, or clumps, on the borders, sides, boundaries and corners of fields, large parks, avenues, pleasure-grounds, or other out-grounds, as growing freely, and forming large-sized valuable timber for a number of strong uses, such as most kinds of wheel-wright work, pipes for conducting water under the ground, water-pumps, and various other under-water and durable purposes. Also in garden plantations, thickets, and other ways, for variety, diversity, ornament, shade and shelter, near walks and other places, to break and keep off the violence of storms and tempestuous blasts, letting them in all such cases assume their own natural growth, only trimming away the strong irregular lateral shoots and low straggling branches on the stems and in the heads. They are likewise admirable for training, by means of which beautiful lofty hedges, quite close from the top to the bottom, from the height of ten to more than forty feet, were formerly made and much valued on the confines of gardens and in other places, for screens and in other designs. They were frequently too trained as arches, porticoes, pilasters, galleries, and other forms, producing much effect in the ancient mode and style of ornamental gardening, but which at present is almost wholly exploded. The English and Cornish sorts are here by far the best, in consequence of their more thick and regularly branching growth, as well as their more close foliage.

ULNA, in *Anatomy*, one of the bones of the fore-arm. See EXTREMITIES.

ULNA, *Fraiture and Luxation of the*, in *Surgery*. See FRACTURE and LUXATION.

ULNA, an ell in measure. See ELL and MEASURE.

ULNA *Ferrea*, denotes the standard iron ell, kept in the Exchequer.

ULNAGE. See ALNAGE.

ULNAR *Artery and Nerve*, in *Anatomy*. See ARTERY and NERVE.

ULNARIS, a name given to some muscles of the fore-arm.

ULNARIS *Gracilis*, the palmaris longus. See PALMARIS and FASCIA.

ULNARIS *Externus*,

ULNARIS *Internus*

ULNARIS, *Extensor Carpi*,

ULNARIS *Flexor Carpi*,

} Names given to certain muscles of the fore-arm. See CARPI.

ULOPHONUS, in *Botany*, is a name given by the ancients to a poisonous plant, since called the *chameleon thistle*, and even at that time known to Dioscorides, Galen, and others, under the name of the *black chameleon thistle*. See IXIAS.

ULOTA, a new genus of Mosses, established by the late Dr. Mohr, of Kiel, in Sims and König's *Annals of Botany*, v. 2. 540. t. 14. f. 3, 4 and 6, and named from *ulos*, curled, in allusion to the curling of the leaves by drying. This character distinguishes the genus in question, as to habit, from *ORTHOTRICHUM*; see that article. The essential generic difference between these two genera consists in the structure of the *Calyptra*, or Veil. In *Orthotrichum*, that part is marked with broad furrows, separated by narrow ridges, which are cloven at the bottom: in *Ulot*, the veil is furnished with broad convex ridges, separated by narrow furrows, which furrows are cloven, very deeply, at the bottom.

The author of this genus has wisely kept in view the Linnean maxim, *genus dabit characterem, non character genus*; but the meaning of this maxim he has totally misrepresented in a note, *Ann. of Bot.* v. 2. 533, as follows. "In the series of natural beings the genera are altogether natural, being as given by nature herself; in the system they must be artificially determined, but when we shall become true observers, we shall find means to make our genera natural also." We presume this note was written by Dr. Mohr, and not by his editor. If it be correctly translated, we are obliged to observe that the author has explained away the meaning of this great principle, on which the science of generic distinction absolutely depends. Linnaeus meant that an idea of each genus is to be conceived in the mind, from an enlarged contemplation of the natural habit, and predominant technical characters of the fructification, all considered together, in a number of plants nearly related to each other. As the natural genera thus present themselves to the mind of a learned observer, he will then be able to seize one or more essential characters of each, to discriminate them from each other. Genera thus established are independent of all system, whether natural or artificial. This is making the genus give the character. If we make the character give the genus, we might in many instances found as many genera as there are species. Dr. Mohr has followed the first rule in the formation of his genus *Ulot*, of which he says he has, besides species already known, about a dozen exotic ones, mostly nondescript; all are characterized at first sight by their crisped foliage, and marked by the above character in the *calyptra*. But when Dr. Mohr, in p. 541, 542, of the same volume, expresses doubts of the propriety of having recourse to the form and structure of the capsules of mosses, in forming their generic characters, "because it will oblige us to divide *Polytrichum* and other genera into several new ones, and to make more such unnatural alterations," he forgets that this would be to make the character give the genus, the very principle which is prohibited by the Linnean rule. It is on this rule that we find ourselves perpetually obliged to insist. Botanists of the French school seem, by a sort of fatality, unable to comprehend it, or at least incompetent to follow it. Some have occasionally undertaken to demonstrate its "absolute falsehood;" but they were not such as could handle mathematical tools. No botanist can establish permanent genera, but by chance, without making this rule his only guide.

Dr. Mohr has not defined the species of his *Ulot*, which he says are chiefly nondescript. We are therefore unable to give more than two or three examples of the genus. Its class and order are *Cryptogamia Musci*. Nat. Ord. *Musci*.

Elf. Ch. Capsule oblong. Outer fringe of sixteen teeth; inner variable, or wanting. Veil with convex ribs; the intermediate furrows cloven at the base.

U. *crispa*. Common Curling-moss. (*Orthotrichum crispum*; Hedw. *Crypt.* v. 2. 96. t. 35. Sm. *Fl. Brit.* 1266. Engl. Bot. t. 996. Turn. *Musc.* Hib. 93. *Bryum striatum* 3; Linn. *Sp. Pl.* 1580. *Polytrichum capillaceum crispum*, *calyptris acutis pilosissimis*; Dill. *Musc.* 433. t. 55. f. 11.)—Leaves linear; revolute when dry. Capsule cylindrical, furrowed. Veil hairy.—Native of various parts of Europe, growing on the trunks of trees. Not unfrequent in Britain, flowering very early in the spring, ripening fruit in April. The stems are branched from the bottom, forming dense leafy tufts. Leaves crowded, linear, acute, entire, single-ribbed; when dry rolled back in their whole length, and curled at the edges. Fruit-stalk rising about half its length above the leaves, twisted when dry, as is also the base of the capsule, whose whole length is marked with

eight strong furrows. *Fringe* of eight pairs of spreading combined teeth; inner one of eight simple capillary teeth. Hairs of the *veil* erect, finely jointed.

U. torquata. Spiral Curling-moss. (*Hypnum torquatum*; Swartz Prodr. 142. Hedw. Sp. Musc. 246. t. 63. f. 4—7. Neckera torta; Swartz Ind. Occ. 1800.)—Leaves lanceolate; spiral and close-pressed when dry. Capsule ovate, even. Veil naked.—Found on the mossy trunks of old trees in Jamaica, by Dr. Swartz; in New Zealand by Mr. Menzies. The trailing shoots throw up many erect, thick, subdivided branches, an inch high, densely clothed with leaves of a shining golden hue, turning brown with age; all spirally twisted, and somewhat undulated, pointed, entire, with a strong mid-rib. *Fruit-stalks* above an inch long, angular, red, shining, rising high above the branches, and at length spiral. *Capsule* erect, ovate rather than cylindrical, brown, turgid, quite smooth and even. *Veil* of a brilliant golden colour; brown at the tip; split at the base into many narrow convex segments; its surface quite naked.—Such are our specimens from Mr. Menzies, on whose authority we depend for the synonym of Swartz. Indeed Hedwig's figure, though rude, is expressive of our plant. Dr. Mohr's fig. 3, exactly represents its *calyptra*. This is said to belong to a moss nearly related to *Anisotangium cirrhosum*, Hedw. Sp. Musc. 42. t. 5. f. 1—3. (Neckera cirrosa; Sw. Ind. Occ. 1802.) which may be what we have here described.

U. polytrichoides. Slender Curling-moss. (Neckera polytrichoides; Swartz Ind. Occ. 1796. Hypnum polytrichoides; Sw. Prodr. 141. Hedw. Sp. Musc. 244. t. 61. f. 7, 8.)—Leaves ovate, pointed, concave, twisted; two-ribbed at the base. Capsule oblong. Veil hairy.—Gathered by Dr. Swartz, on the branches of trees and shrubs, as well as on stones, in the mountainous parts of Jamaica. The shoots are three or four inches long, ascending, more or less crowded, somewhat branched. Leaves scattered, not imbricated, spreading, wavy, entire, except some fine serratures near the point; under a magnifier they prove finely reticulated. *Fruit-stalks* rather shorter than the leaves, three lines only in length, lateral, red. *Capsule* oblong, erect. *Veil* clothed with erect hairs.

ULOTH, or ULOTHOW, in *Geography*, a town of Westphalia, in the county of Ravensberg, with a Lutheran and a Roman Catholic church; near it is a medicinal spring; 6 miles S. of Minden. N. lat. 52° 5'. E. long. 8° 45'.

ULPHA, a term used by some authors to express the muddy substance which falls off from whet-stones, grind-stones, and the like, which is sometimes ordered in medicines among the chemical writers, and is only the comminuted particles of the stone, with a very small portion of iron abraded from the things ground on them.

ULPHILAS, in *Biography*, a Gothic bishop, was a native of Cappadocia, referred by Philostorgius to the year 326, and highly honoured by Constantine the Great, who called him the Moses of his time. At this period he must, therefore, have arrived at maturity of age; and as he was employed in the year 375 by the emperor Valens to solicit a settlement for the Goths in Thrace, after they had been expelled by the Huns, and embraced Arianism in order to accomplish his object, he must have lived to a very advanced age. To him historians ascribe the invention of the Gothic characters and the translation of the Bible into that language. See ARGENTEUS Codex.

ULPIA CASTRA LEG. 30, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Gallia Belgica, upon the banks of the Rhine, between Burignatium and Vetera. Anton. Itin.

ULPIANUM, a town of Upper Mæsia, in Dardania

(Ptol.), said by Procopius to have been repaired and embellished by Justinian, and called "Justiniana secunda."—Also, one of the principal towns of Dacia. Ptol.

ULPIANUS, DOMITIUS, in *Biography*, an eminent lawyer, was a native of Tyre, a disciple of Papinian, and tutor, as well as friend and minister, of the Roman emperor Alexander. Heliogabalus exiled him from the court on account of his virtues, but when his pupil became emperor he was recalled, and placed at the head of sixteen senators, who formed a council of state. He was also secretary of state and inspector over the two pretorian prefects, whose jealousy of his authority produced a mutiny among the soldiery, that proved fatal to themselves; and occasioned his advancement to the dignity of sole prefect. His wife and virtuous administration engaged universal esteem, until the emperor, probably at his suggestion, undertook to reform the army. The soldiers mutinied, and occasioned, for three days, a kind of civil war at Rome, which terminated in the massacre of Ulpian, A.D. 228, notwithstanding all the attempts of the emperor and his mother Mammaea to save him. The Heathen writers have concurred in their eulogies of Ulpian, but the Christians have reproached him, not unjustly, as their enemy; for, observing the emperor's favourable inclination to them, he collected all the decrees and edicts of the preceding sovereigns against them. This hostility is ascribed to his professional attachment to the laws. Of Ulpian's writings there are extant twenty-nine titles of fragments, which are annexed to some editions of the civil law. Crevier. Gibbon's Hist.

ULPICUM, in *Botany*, a name by which Columella, and some other authors, have called the *allium*, or garlic.

ULRACH, a name given by some writers to the *sanguis draconis*, or dragon's blood.

ULRICHEN, in *Geography*, a village of the Valais, in the diocesis of Goms; famous in the history of the country for two battles fought here in 1211 and 1219, for the establishment of their freedom and independence; 8 miles N.E. of Munster.

ULRICHSKIRCHEN, a town of Austria; 7 miles N.E. of Korn Neuburg.

ULRICHSSTEIN, a town of Upper Hesse; 18 miles W. of Fulda.

ULRICSHAMN, or ULRICAHAMN, a town of Sweden, in West Gothland. This town was anciently called Bogefund; the present name was given it in compliment to queen Ulrica Eleonora in the year 1741. The inhabitants carry on a considerable trade in cattle, provisions, tobacco, &c.; 47 miles E. of Gothenburg. N. lat. 57° 48'. E. long. 13° 10'.

ULSE, a river of France, which runs into the Moselle, 6 miles N. of Trarbach.

ULSEN, a town of Germany, in the county of Bentheim; 5 miles W. of Nienhuus.

ULSTADT, a town of the duchy of Baden, with a salt-spring; 9 miles E.S.E. of Spire.

ULSTER, a river of Hesse, which runs into the Werra, near Vacha.

ULSTER, one of the provinces of Ireland, forming the northern part of the kingdom; it contains nine counties, and is in general the most improved part of Ireland. It was mostly forfeited in the reign of James I. and divided amongst settlers from England and Scotland, which is called the plantation of Ulster.

ULSTER, a county of New York, in the United States, which, with Dutchess, had two delegates in the first legislative assembly of the colony, which met at New York in

1691. It was one of those formed by the general organization acts of 1788 and 1801, and has constituted one of the colony and state of New York ever since 1691, though the boundaries have been altered. Several towns have been annexed to Orange county, and Sullivan county has been erected from the northern part. It is bounded northerly by Delaware and Greene counties, E. by the Hudson, or by Columbia and Dutchess counties, S. by Orange, and W. by Sullivan county. The area is estimated at 966 square miles, or 617,440 acres. It is situated between $41^{\circ} 33'$ and $42^{\circ} 19'$ N. lat., and 66° E. and $47'$ W. long. from New York. Its towns are Elopus, Hurley, Kingston the capital, Marlborough, Marlborough, New-Paltz, Plattekill, Rochester, Saugerties, Shandakan, Shawangunk, Warfaring and Woodstock. Its population consists of 26,576 persons. This county is considerably broken by the Catsbergs, or Catskill mountains. The soil is of various qualities. The channel of the Hudson forms the eastern boundary of Ulster, and the small streams are very numerous. The uplands are, in general, rich and productive; and the flats along its streams are very extensive, with considerable tracts of recent and rich alluvion, though interperfed with clay and argillaceous mould. The agriculture of this county is inferior to that of Dutchess. Its marble is very fine; the mill-stones of Elopus are in high estimation: lime-stone, slate, marble, and iron-ore are found in great abundance; and lead, native alum, plumbago, coal, peat, and a variety of pigments, have been found in this county. It has thirteen congregations and houses of worship belonging to the Dutch reformed, and several Quaker and Methodist meeting-houses; and at Kingston there is a flourishing academy. The early inhabitants of this county were Germans and Dutch, and it was settled at a very early period of American history. Kingston, the capital, is delightfully situated between Elopus and Wall creeks, and contains about 150 houses and stores. Many of the houses are of stone. Ulster, with Sullivan county, sends four members to the house of assembly.

ULSTER, a township of America, in the state of Pennsylvania, and county of Lycoming, containing 627 inhabitants.

ULTERIOR, in *Geography*, is applied to some part of a country or province, which, with regard to the rest of that country, is situate on the farther side of a river, mountain, or other boundary, which divides the country into two parts.

Thus Africa, with regard to Europe, is divided by Mount Atlas into cterior and ulterior, *i. e.* into two portions, the one on this side Mount Atlas, and the other on that.

ULTIMA BASIA, *Last Kisser*, is a phrase used among some painters, for last finishing touches with the pencil.

ULTIZURI, in *Ancient Geography*, a barbarous people, comprehended under the general name of Huns, who made themselves famous until the reign of the emperor Leon.

ULTRAMARINE, is a beautiful and durable sky-blue, formed of the mineral called lapis lazuli, and consisting, according to the analysis of Klaproth, of little else than oxyd of iron. It is separated from the earthy parts of the above-mentioned mineral in the following manner. Let the lapis lazuli be heated just to redness, and then suddenly quenched in cold water, and let this be repeated two or three times, till the stone becomes almost friable; then let it be ground down with a few drops of water in a clean iron mortar, or, still better, in an agate one, till it is reduced to a perfectly impalpable powder. Then take one pint of linseed oil, warm it over the fire in a clean vessel, and add one pound of bees-wax, one pound of turpentine, half a pound

of rosin, and half a pound of gum mastick: keep the ingredients over the fire, with constant stirring, till they are melted and thoroughly incorporated together; the refult will be a tenacious adhesive mass. Of this take any quantity, six ounces for example, melt it and pour it into a warm clean mortar; then sprinkle upon it three ounces of pulverized lapis lazuli, and incorporate it thoroughly by long beating with the pestle; this being done, pour in some warm water, and again work it about in the same manner as before: in a short time the water will become charged with the blue colouring matter; it must then be poured into a clean tall glass, and replaced by fresh, proceeding in this manner till the paste will give out no more colour on the addition of fresh water. By standing a few days the colour will subside from the water in which it was suspended; the clear fluid being then decanted off, and the rest got rid of by evaporation, there will remain a deep-blue powder, which is ultramarine. See LAZULI Lapis.

ULTRAMARINE *Ashes*, is the name of a pigment which is the residuum of the lapis lazuli, after the ultramarine has been extracted from it. But as the coloured particles which remain are mixed with those of another kind contained in the lapis lazuli, these ashes must of course be much less valuable than even the worst ultramarine.

Their appearance is that of the ultramarine, a little tinged with red, and diluted with white. The adulteration to which they are subject, and gives them a better appearance than that of their genuine slate, may be detected by the methods propofed for discovering the sophistication of the ultramarine. See LAZULI Lapis and BLUE.

ULTRAMONTANE, something beyond the mountains. The term is principally used in relation to Italy and France, which are separated by the mountains of the Alps.

In France, the opinions of the ultramontane canonists, *i. e.* of those of Italy, are not received.

The painters, particularly those of Italy, call all those that are not of that country ultramontanes, or simply, tramontanes. Poussin is the only tramontane painter that the Italians seem to envy.

ULTRAMUNDANE, ULTRAMUNDANUS, *Beyond the World*, is that part of the universe supposed to be without or beyond the limits of our world, or system.

ULTZEN, or VELTZEN, in *Geography*, a town of Westphalia, in the principality of Luneburg, on the Ilmenau. It contains three churches, three hospitals, and about 330 houses; the principal articles of trade are wool, brandy, and meal. It was at one time Hanfeatic; 20 miles S.S.E. of Luneburg. N. lat. $52^{\circ} 58'$. E. long. $8^{\circ} 24'$.

ULVA, in *Botany*, a Latin word, occurring more frequently in the poets than any where else, and possessing a general, rather than a very precise or appropriate, meaning. Pliny has it not. Virgil and Ovid often mention it, with the epithets of *viridis, levis, mollis, palustris, glauca, fluminea*; and Vitruvius speaks of roofs made of "the marsh *Ulva*." Hence Cæfalpinus and others have been led to believe the *Typha*, or perhaps the whole tribe of Bulrushes, Sedges, &c. were understood by this appellation. Perhaps *Ulva* is simply synonymous with *aquatic plants* in general; which opinion is confirmed by the etymology pointed out by De Theis. He refers this word to the Celtic *ul*, water, the origin of *uligo*, ooze, and synonymous with *lu*, from whence comes *lutum*, mud, &c. Dillenius latterly rejected *Ulva* entirely, because of its uncertain meaning; adopting *Tremella*, which he considered as more expressive. Linnaeus, distinguishing TREMELLA (see that article) as a freshwater genus, with less decided characters, retains *Ulva* for one chiefly of marine origin, more membranous in habit,

and sufficiently well marked by the arrangement of its seeds, by which it differs from *Fucus*. The English name Laver is well applied to the genus before us.—Linn. Gen. 567. Schreb. 768. Mart. Mill. Dict. v. 4. Dill. in Raii Syn. 62. Sm. Prodr. Fl. Græc. Sibth. v. 2. 331. Hudf. 566. Roth Catal. v. 1. 204. Juss. 6. Lamarck Illustr. t. 880.—Clas and order, *Cryptogamia Alga*, Linn. Nat. Ord. *Alga submersæ*.

Eff. Ch. Frond membranous or gelatinous. Seeds foliary, scattered throughout its substance, under the cuticle.

Fewer difficulties attend the generic character of *Ulva* than that of several other marine *Alga*, yet various things have been improperly referred to this genus. (See REVULARIA.) Some excellent remarks on this subject are given by Mr. Woodward, in Tr. of Linn. Soc. v. 3. 46; and the same is ably treated by Dr. Roth, in the first volume of his learned *Cataloq.*, above cited. We shall follow the last-mentioned author in his leading principles; regretting that we are still deprived of a more complete view of the whole genus, long promised by Mr. Dawson Turner; who in his peculiar attention to this natural order of plants, has enjoyed more opportunities than any other botanist, for their complete elucidation. These opportunities however may perhaps have served to make him the more fully aware of the difficulties of the undertaking. With respect to the existence of species, in which, as Mr. Woodward observes, "no actual fructification has been hitherto discovered," we can only say that these are referred by analogy of habit to *Ulva*, with which they accord at least as well as with any thing else, the same defect which renders their place here doubtful, disabling us from removing them elsewhere. We shall enumerate all the known British *Ulvæ*, with such exotic ones as appear to be well determined, aiming rather at giving a general idea, than a complete view of the genus.

SECT. 1. *Frond expanded, leafy*.

1. *U. pavonia*. Turkey-feather Laver. Linn. Syst. Nat. ed. 12. v. 2. 719. Sm. Prodr. Fl. Græc. Sibth. n. 2515. Engl. Bot. t. 1276. (*Fucus maritimus*, gallo pavonis pennas referens; Raii Syn. 43. Tourn. Illustr. 568. Ellis's Corallines, 88. t. 33. f. c. D. E. Morif. sect. 15. t. 8. f. 7.)—Frond membranous, flat, kidney-shaped, with a taper base. Seeds in transverse arched lines.—Found attached to submarine rocks and stones, on the southern coast of England, as well as throughout the Adriatic and Mediterranean seas, and on the shores of France, Spain, and Portugal. Several fronds, from one to three inches high, grow from one central root, spreading circularly and horizontally, each of them rounded at the extremity, either undivided or lobed, entire at the edges, of a light greenish-brown. The seeds are thickly lodged, in many broad, arched, transverse, continued lines, making an elegantly striped appearance, and resembling the feathers of a turkey-cock. This arrangement of the seeds can scarcely be thought to contradict the generic character; for it appears, in other species, that the expansion of the frond, after the first formation, and fixation, if we may so express it, of the seeds, cannot but separate them, more or less accurately, into patches or stripes. These stripes are nevertheless, as we must allow more determinate, from the very first, than in any other known species. The seeds are oval, about two rows in each stripe.

2. *U. flabelliformis*. Green Fan Laver. Wulfen Crypt. Aquat. n. 11. Decand. Fr. suppl. 4. Prodr. Fl. Græc. n. 2516. (Conferva flabelliformis; Desfont. Atlant. v. 2. 430. Flabellaria Desfontainensis; Lamouroux Ann. du Mus. v. 20. 274. t. 12. f. 4. Tuffillagine dell' Adriatico; Giann. Adriat. v. 1. 25. t. 25. f. 56.)—Frond spongy,

filamentous, flat, fan-shaped, lacinated and jagged, with a taper base.—Native of the Adriatic and Ionian seas. Rather taller than the foregoing, of a light spongy texture, and uniform green colour, without any visible seeds. The genus of this plant is unquestionably very doubtful, yet a vague resemblance to *U. pavonia*, makes us more willing to place it here than any where else. With *Conferva* it ill accords, and few botanists will follow Ginanni in making it a *Tuffilago*!

3. *U. atomaria*. Concentric-dotted Laver. Woodw. Tr. of Linn. Soc. v. 3. 53. Engl. Bot. t. 419.—Frond membranous, flat, dilated, palmate; segments linear, slightly branched; sometimes fringed.—Found washed up on the Yarmouth coast, by Mr. Lily Wigg. The root is a small, dilated, downy disk, bearing a pale olive-brown, thin, wedge-shaped, spreading frond, four or five inches high, deeply cut into numerous, unequal, irregularly jagged and perforated, oblong or linear, occasionally fringed, segments; the whole marked with many transverse concentric stripes, of a darker hue, full of minute brown seeds.

4. *U. ligulata*. Lacinated Red Laver. Woodw. Tr. of Linn. Soc. v. 3. 54. Engl. Bot. t. 420.—Frond membranous, flat, branched; branches dilated, somewhat forked, with obtuse sinuses; terminated and fringed with strap-shaped segments.—Found by Mr. Wigg, on the Yarmouth beach, along with the last; but Mr. Woodward met with it, in a growing state, on the rocks at Cromer, Norfolk. The root is a small callous disk. Fronds clustered, from three to six inches high, of a light rather bright red, membranous, but varying in density; their general outline wedge-shaped, deeply cut into a few principal branches, which subdivide into others, and are fringed about the bottom with many very narrow segments, rather blunt at their ends. Seeds extremely minute and abundant, scattered throughout the whole substance, in cloud-like spots or patches.

5. *U. lactuca*. Green Laver, or Oyster-green. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1632. Hudf. 566. Engl. Bot. t. 1551. Prodr. Fl. Græc. n. 2520. Roth. Catal. v. 1. 206. (*U. marina*, lactuca similis; Dill. in Raii Syn. 62. Tremella marina vulgaris, lactuca similis; Dill. Musc. 42. t. 8. f. 1.)—Frond membranous, pellucid, palmate, bright green; segments contracted below; dilated upwards, obtuse, plaited.—Native of most of the shores of Europe, and perhaps other parts of the world, growing on stones, pebbles, shells, and the larger sea-weeds, forming annual tufts of thin green leaves, uniform in colour and texture, but very various in figure and dimensions; being sometimes simple and undivided, but more frequently palmate, lobed, or proliferous. They always taper downward, and have no ribs nor veins. The very minute seeds are equally dispersed.—This is the Laver, so often introduced at fashionable tables, within a few years past, being stewed and seasoned with lemon juice, which moderates its salt bitterish flavour and "sea-weed scent;" nor is this dish unpleasant, after a short trial, to most palates. We suspect it to have been originally contrived with a medical intention, for the benefit of scrophulous patients, so numerous, alas! in the gay circles of the opulent and great. Where laxatives are useful or admissible, nothing can be better applied.

6. *U. lubrica*. Slippery Laver. Roth. Catal. v. 1. 204. t. 5. f. 7, excluding the synonyms.—Fronds tufted, oblong, convoluted, inflexed, undulated, rugose, interbranching, very thin and slippery.—Found in stagnant ditches of fresh water, in marshy parts of Germany. In the spring and beginning of summer, the plant is fixed to the bottom of the pool or ditch, in dense, roundish, deep-green patches, and is so excessively

cessively tender, gelatinous, and slippery, as scarcely to be gathered entire. The length of each frond is from two to five inches; the breadth, as far as the convoluted and entangled habit of the plant will allow that matter to be ascertained, is from one to three lines at most. *Roth*.

7. *U. terrestris*. Thin Ground Laver. *Roth Catal.* v. 1. 211. (*U. crispa*; *Lightf.* 972. *Hudf.* 661. *U. Laëuca* γ; *Hudf.* 567. *Tremella terrestris tenera crispa*; *Dill. Musc.* 52. t. 10. f. 12.)—Fronds membranous, very thin, decumbent, clustered, curled and plaited.—Found on the ground, in shady places, on gravel walks, and sometimes on old thatched roofs, scarcely attached by any visible roots. It does not shrink up to nothing, in dry weather, like a *Tremella*, though most vigorous in wet. The fronds lie over each other, and are of a deep, though shining, green. No seeds are discernible.

8. *U. bullofa*. Cellular Green Laver. *Roth Catal.* v. 3. 329. *Engl. Bot.* t. 2320. (*U. Laëuca* β; *Hudf.* 567. *Tremella palustris, vulgari marisae similis, sed minor et tenerior*; *Dill. Musc.* 44. t. 8. f. 2.)—Frond membranous, very tender, dilated upwards, variously sinuated, cellular, bright green.—Found in shallow stagnant ditches of fresh water, in Germany and England. *Dillenius* observed it in meadows below Newington; *Mr. W. Borrer* at Henfield, Sussex, in July. The former remarked that as warm weather came on, the plants floated on the top, turned yellowish, and became full of air-bubbles, as if in fermentation. In this state perhaps the seeds are scattered. The whole plant is smaller than *U. Laëuca*; of which it has been thought a variety; much more slippery and slimy, so tender as scarcely to be gathered without breaking. The frond is variable in shape; cellular like a cabbage-leaf when full-grown; appearing beautifully dotted when examined with a microscope.

9. *U. plicata*. Plaited Firm Laver. *Fl. Dan.* t. 829. *Roth Catal.* v. 1. 208. *Uit. Annal.* v. 1. 5. (*Museus marinus* after *Plinius*; *Camer. Epit.* 872. *Lichen marinus*; *Ger. Em.* 1566.)—Fronds green, plaited, laciniated, elongated; combined and imbricated at the base.—Found attached to submarine rocks, stones, and large shells. This varies in length from one to twelve inches. *Dr. Roth* distinguishes it from *U. Laëuca* by its more opaque green colour, and firmer more rigid substance. It is also more complicated in form, as well as more plaited longitudinally, and jagged at the edges. We have not been able to compare these two plants, but from the analogy of some others, should suspect them to be merely varieties.

10. *U. plantaginea*. Plantain-leaved Laver. *Roth Catal.* v. 2. 243. *Engl. Bot.* t. 2136. (*Tremella marina, caerulea folio atro-virente et verrucoso*; *Dill. Musc.* 46. t. 9. f. 4.)—Fronds aggregate, membranous, simple, oblong, obtuse, flat, entire, minutely warty, brown; tapering at the base.—Native of the coasts of Italy and England. The fronds spring from a cartilaginous disk, and are from three to six or eight inches high, an inch broad, of a very dull olive-brown, firm, not adhering to paper in drying; the surface besprinkled with slightly prominent warts; the base of each tapering into a short stalk. This species is very generally found eroded by marine animals.

11. *U. umbilicalis*. Peltate Laver. *Linn. Sp. Pl.* 1633. *Hudf.* 567. *Engl. Bot.* t. 2286. (*Tremella marina umbilicata*; *Dill. Musc.* 45. t. 8. f. 3.)—Frond rather coriaceous, purplish-olive, orbicular, sessile, peltate, spreading nearly flat, variously lobed.—Frequent on the sea-coast, growing solitary or dispersed, attached to rocks or stones by its central root, and often washed up on the sandy beach. Its more coriaceous substance, and browner, somewhat

purplish, colour, distinguishes this *Ulva* from the *Laëuca* and *plicata*. The surface is very smooth, and shining. Each plant is a span or more in diameter, orbicular, variously cut or lobed, even to the very centre; the edges and lobes crisped, wavy and jagged, not imbricated; the internal substance finely cellular, appearing dotted. Seeds dispersed in small masses, darker than the frond. *Mr. Borrer* conceives *Roth's U. purpurea*, *Catal.* v. 1. 209. t. 6. f. 1, which, according to *Mr. Thomas Frankland's* specimen, is *Hudson's fusca*, to be an oblong variety of *umbilicalis*. *U. lacinata*, *Lightf.* 974. t. 33, may be, as *Hudson* suspects, another variety.

12. *U. mesenteriformis*. Mesenteric Laver. *Roth Catal.* v. 1. 210.—Frond solitary, oblong, broad, plaited, wavy, cellular and rugose, dark green.—Native of the northern seas of Europe, or of muddy salt-water ditches on the coasts of Oldenburgh and Bremen. Various in size and shape, ovate, roundish or oblong, eighteen inches or more in length, and sometimes a foot broad, so much plaited and corrugated that it cannot be laid flat, nor does it adhere to paper. *Roth* compares this to *U. laiffima* of *Linnaeus*, which we find by the original specimen to be only *Fucus saccharinus*, more cellular than ordinary; and we are much inclined to believe *Roth's mesenteriformis* to be no other, the varieties of that *Fucus*, in size and configuration, according to its age, being almost endless.

13. *U. coccinea*. Scarlet Laver. *Hudf.* 567.—“Flat, roundish, membranous, sinuated, scarlet.”—On submarine rocks and stones, near Plymouth and Falmouth. Frond from six inches to a foot in diameter, wavy, pellucid and shining. Seeds numerous, small, roundish, dark purple. *Hudson*. This may probably be *Fucus punctatus*, *Engl. Bot.* t. 1573.

14. *U. furcellata*. Reddish Forked Laver. *Turner in Schrad. Journ.* v. 3. 301. *Engl. Bot.* t. 1881.—Frond nearly cylindrical, gelatinous, repeatedly forked, reddish; ultimate segments flattened, lanceolate, cloven.—Gathered by *Mr. Turner*, at *Sheringham*, Norfolk, and by *Miss Biddulph*, at *Southampton*. Fronds several, from three to six inches high, tender, gelatinous, nearly of equal thickness throughout, except the flattened ends. Seeds large, sparingly scattered just under the cuticle. The colour of the whole is a pale brownish-red, sometimes greenish.

15. *U. ? multifida*. Laciniated Brown Laver. *Engl. Bot.* t. 1913.—Frond rather cartilaginous, brown, compressed, repeatedly branched, somewhat palmate. Seeds irregularly scattered. Root smooth.—Found by *Mr. Turner*, in August 1804, on the beach at *Yarmouth*, where it is of very rare occurrence. This has much of the hue and general aspect of *U. atomaria*, n. 3, but the root is smooth; substance of the frond very much firmer and thicker; seeds not disposed in concentric lines, but thickly scattered over the frond in small round clusters. By *Mr. Sowerby's* drawing, they seem, when highly magnified, to be congeries of oblong, stalked seed-vessels, with three or four seeds in each, rendering the plant a *Fucus* rather than an *Ulva*. However small, they give a palpable roughness to the frond.

16. *U. montana*. Red Mountain Laver. *Lightf.* 973. *Hudf.* 652. *Engl. Bot.* t. 2193.—Frond leathery, dark red, of numerous, ascending, rounded, flattish, finely granulated lobes.—This grows on the ground, amongst grafs and moss, on the sides of mountains in *Skye*, *Ross-shire*, *Dumfriesshire*, &c. being called *Mountain Dulse* by the highlanders, who make a thin pulpy mixture, by rubbing the plant between their hands, into some water, with which they purge their calves. It has the smell of Common Dulse,

Dulse, or *Fucus palmatus*, to which, though growing in so different a station, the present *Ulva* has much natural affinity. The colour of both is a deep dull red, seldom greenish, or brown; and their substance, when soaked, is alike pulpy and mucilaginous, with a sea-weed odour. Our present plant, however, is much the smallest, being rounded, not palmate, scarcely notched, each *frond* or *lobe* from half an inch to two or three inches wide, generally convex. Innumerable internal granulations, the feat, as we presume, of the *feeds*, raise the cuticle in such a manner as to give a roughness to the surface.

17. *U. rupestris*. Broad Rock Laver. Engl. Bot. t. 2194. — Frond leathery, depressed, very wide, indeterminate, smooth and slippery, of a dull red. — The only specimen of this remarkable vegetable that ever occurred to our notice, grew on the wet shady surface of a rock, above Tylogé bridge, by the river side, at Hafod, Cardiganshire; the fine feat of the celebrated Mr. Johnes, so well known by his translations of the old French historians, and now so much lamented by all who truly knew him. We can compare this plant to nothing better than a well-soaked skin of parchment, both in size and texture, though more tender, and jagged at the edges, so that it could not be stripped entire from the rock, nor could the form of its outline be ascertained. It dried speedily, slightly adhering to paper, and shrinking considerably in width; but recovered its original appearance many years afterwards, on the application of water, when numerous, minute, granular, dotted bodies, presumed to be *feeds*, were found imbedded in the fibrous substance under the cuticle, not projecting, so as to produce a roughness, like the *montana*. We cannot doubt the strict affinity of this to the last, though they must be specifically distinct.

18. *U. diehotoma*. Green Forked Laver. Hudf. 568. Lightf. 975. t. 34. Engl. Bot. t. 774. (*Fucus membranaceus diehotomus gramineus*; Raii Syn. 45, according to Hudson.) — Frond membranous, quite flat, repeatedly forked, reticulated, pale-green, with linear, obtuse segments. — Found on the coasts of Scotland and Cornwall, in summer time. The whole plant, three or four inches high, and of a wedge-shaped or fan-like figure, is thin and flat, curiously reticulated internally like a *Flystra*, or like our n. 2, *U. flabelliformis*. The segments are alternate, from one line to three in breadth, generally notched at the end, but otherwise very entire. *Seeds* blackish, dispersed, with a series of imbedded bladders, between them and the margin of the leaf.

19. *U. Linza*. Ribband Laver. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1633. Hudf. 568. Fl. Dan. t. 889. (*Tremella marina fasciata*; Dill. Musc. 46. t. 9. f. 6. *Linza*; Imperato Hist. Nat. 651.) — Frond oblong-lanceolate, folded, green, somewhat undulated and cellular. — Native of salt-water ditches, and recesses of the sea among rocks, in various parts of Europe. Its form is oblong, ribband-like, acute, when full-grown folded and wavy, always membranous and pellucid; its length a foot or more. Mr. Turner in Tr. of Linn. Soc. v. 7. 108, records, that he found the original specimen of this in the Dillenian herbarium to consist of two long narrow pieces of different things, *U. Lacinea* and *umbilicatis*. The figure however represents what we understand by *U. Linza*, and agrees with *Fl. Dan.* Mr. Turner affords us, in the place just cited, a still more curious piece of information, that the *U. lanceolata* of Linnaeus, taken up in his Syst. Nat. ed. 12. v. 2. 719, from Dillenius, is no other than *U. Linza*, the figure in Hist. Musc. t. 9. f. 5. representing several individuals of that species, as pasted in the herbarium, with their tops downward, crowded together, and the roots upward!

These were communicated, it seems, by Mr. Brewer, from the Isle of Man, and appear to be young plants, not yet become wavy or folded.

SECT. 2. *Frond concave, or tubular.*

20. *U. intestinalis*. Gut Laver. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1632. Hudf. 568. (*Tremella marina tubulosa, intestinum figurâ*; Dill. Musc. 47. t. 9. f. 7. *Cava*; Imperato Hist. Nat. 651.) — Frond tubular, membranous, green, irregularly cellular. — Common in salt-water ditches and pools, throughout Europe, attached to stones and rocks. The *frond* is occasionally branched, according to Dillenius. Young plants hardly exceed a straw in thickness, and are even in surface, of a yellowish or brownish colour; but when full grown they become an inch or two in diameter, variously cellular, like a cabbage-leaf, and of a fine green; often floating to the surface, inflated with air, eighteen inches or two feet in length. In this state they resemble, except colour, the intestines of some animal. Nothing is known respecting the *feeds*, which are probably perfected and disseminated at the period just described.

21. *U. compressa*. Compressed Laver. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1632. Hudf. 569. Engl. Bot. t. 1739. (*Tremella marina tenuissima et compressa*; Dill. Musc. 48. t. 9 and 10. f. 8. *Conferva compressa*; Roth Catal. v. 1. 161.) — Frond tubular, more or less branched, compressed, irregularly constricted, green; the branches elongated. — Common on submarine rocks, stones and pots, as well as in salt ditches, throughout Europe. Dr. Sibthorp noticed this, along with the last, in the sea near Constantinople. The *fronds* grow in tufts, extremely variable in size, and from two inches to a foot or more in height, each of them very slender at the base, where also they are most branched; the *branches* are often greatly enlarged upwards, but frequently nearly cylindrical; they are interrupted here and there by strictures, at each of which the internal cavity seems divided by a transverse membrane. Hence Necker and Roth made this plant a *Conferva*, but surely without sufficient reason. The surface is even and smooth; the colour fine green.

22. *U. ramulosa*. Green Sharp-branched Laver. Engl. Bot. t. 2137. — Frond tubular, very much branched, somewhat compressed, green; ultimate branches scattered, extremely numerous, sharp-pointed. — Discovered by Miss Hutchins, in Bantry bay, Ireland. A very elegant species, remarkable for the innumerable little branches, scattered over each principal ramification, which give it the aspect of a *Conferva*. The height of the tufted *fronds* is three or four inches; their colour a beautiful green; and the surface, under a moderate magnifier, is found curiously and uniformly dotted, perhaps with *feeds*. The substance of the plant is a little gelatinous, being far less membranous than *U. compressa*.

23. *U. purpurascens*. Purplish Laver. Hudf. 569. Woodw. Tr. of Linn. Soc. v. 3. 52. Engl. Bot. t. 641. — Frond tubular, branched, nearly cylindrical, purplish-brown; branches mostly opposite, simple or compound, acute. — This grows on submarine rocks and stones, in various parts of the south coast of England, being in perfection about the middle of summer. Several *fronds*, about six inches high, spring from one small cartilaginous disk. Each, like its branches, tapers considerably at the top and bottom, swelling in the middle, to a line or two in diameter. The *branches* are two or three inches long, generally opposite, and in some degree two-ranked. Sir Thomas Frankland has favoured us with a repeatedly compound specimen, a foot long. The whole plant is juicy, of a light reddish-brown, smooth and even, with little black *feeds* scattered copiously and irregularly just under the cuticle. Light-

foot's *Fucus verticillatus*, Fl. Scot. t. 31, a plant we have never examined, is cited for this *Ulva* by Mr. Hudon, p. 661; but the figure represents numerous strictures in the main branches, with compound, whorled, capillary subdivisions, nothing like which occurs in our specimens.

24. *U. fistulosa*. Pipe Laver. Hudf. 569. Woodw. Tr. of Linn. Soc. v. 3. 52. Engl. Bot. t. 642.—FronD tubular, uniform, simple, bluntnish, a little zigzag, gelatinous, yellowish-brown.—Found at Falmouth, and other parts of our southern coast. Mr. Hudon attributes to this species a creeping root. The fronds grow in clusters, erect, three or four inches high, being flatter than the last, and constantly unbranched; their surface uneven or gibbous, with some appearance of strictures; their base tapering; their termination abrupt and bluntnish. Seeds very minute, scattered through the soft substance of the frond, visible by their dark colour, contrasted with its very pale brownish-yellow.

25. *U. Turneri*. Reticulated Laver. Engl. Bot. t. 2570.—FronD membranous, tubular, simple, bluntnish, brown, finely reticulated. Seeds in little patches.—Found by Miss Hutchins, in Bantry bay, Ireland, and by Mr. Borrer, on the Suffex coast. The name is a manuscript one of Mr. Dillwyn, who is said to have been long preparing a treatise on *Ulva*, which, if we may judge by his excellent performance on *Conserua*, cannot but prove a great accession to cryptogamic botany. Several fronds grow together, but apparently not connected, bearing a great resemblance to the last in height, figure, and somewhat in colour, though darker, rather thicker, and, when cut across, displaying a more membranous substance, which is finely reticulated throughout. The seeds moreover differ essentially, being collected into little irregular patches.

26. *U. rugosa*. Corrugated Cape Laver. Linn. Mant. 311.—FronD membranous, tubular, branched, corrugated, tuberculated, dark brown; branches two-ranked, bursting at the extremity.—Gathered by Koenig in the sea near the Cape of Good Hope. The fronds are four or five inches long, and about half an inch thick, beset with many simple branches, spreading in two ranks, each branch from an inch and half to three inches in length, not so thick as the main stem; their point of insertion much contracted; their extremity mostly open and tubular; their rugged surface besprinkled with slightly prominent, umbilicated, minute prominences, in every one of which a seed appears to be imbedded.

SECT. 3. *FronD fleshy, solid.*

27. *U. diaphana*. Pellucid Flethy Laver. Hudf. 570. (Alcyonium gelatinosum; Linn. Syst. Nat. v. 1. 1295. A. n. 5; Ellis Cor. 87. t. 32. f. d. Fucus spongiosus nodosus; Ger. Em. 1570. Urtica marina nodosa; Bocc. Mus. 260. t. 5. f. 13.)

β. *U. flavescens*; Hudf. 570. (*U. diaphana*; Engl. Bot. t. 263. *Alga minor flavescens, variè divisa*; Mart. Cent. t. 32.)

FronD gelatinous, solid, tumid, pellucid, roundish or compressed, with numerous irregular branches.

This singular marine production, referred by Linnæus and Pallas to the animal kingdom, seems by its scent rather of a vegetable nature, betraying no signs of animal life, and having the character of an *Ulva* very apparent, in the distribution of what we presume to be the seeds; to say nothing of its drying as well as any very juicy sea-weed, though its substance is so extremely spongy and watery. The common appearance of this *Ulva*, as found on our coasts, exactly resembles wet sea-sand in colour. Its length is several inches, the main stem, which swells upward, being beset with irre-

gular series of knobby branches, more or less acute. The very copious imbedded seeds are brown, very small. Our more uncommon variety β, erroneously figured in Engl. Bot. as the true *diaphana*, though the description comprehends both forms, differs from the above-described, in its pale-yellow colour, resembling barley-sugar (or *succe brûlé*); the branches are said by Hudon, who nevertheless suspected it might prove but a variety, to be more obtuse; this character however is variable.

28. *U. defraja*. Broken Laver. With. v. 4. 124. t. 18. Engl. Bot. t. 1626.—FronD thread-shaped, solid, unbranched, elastic, viscid, pellucid, with pale red dots.—Found by Mr. Brodie of Brodie, on the east coast of Scotland, and by the late colonel Velley on the beach at Weymouth, at low water. The tender delicate plants of this species grow entangled amongst other marine vegetables, twisted together like worms, of a very pale flesh-colour to the naked eye; each being from two to twelve inches long, simple, brittle, bluntnish, very glutinous, shrinking up to nothing when dried. The minute pink dots, scattered over the white surface, and presumed to contain the seeds, change gradually to an orange hue.

29. *U. filiformis*. Thread-shaped Laver. Hudf. 570.—“FronD gelatinous, thread-shaped, much branched, purplish; branches scattered, distant, very long.”—Native of submarine rocks and stones, near Christchurch, Hampshire. Annual, occurring from April to September. Frond six inches long, the thickness of packthread; the branches obtuse. Hudon. We are unacquainted with this species.

30. *U. capillaris*. Capillary Laver. Hudf. 571.—“FronD gelatinous, thread-shaped, much branched, pale; branches alternate, capillary, acute.”—Found in similar situations with the preceding, near Christchurch, and elsewhere, in Hampshire, as well as at Margate. Annual; from May to October. The frond is four inches long, solid. Hudon. This should seem to be very little different from the last.

31. *U. rubens*. Reddish Short-branched Laver. Hudf. 571.—FronD gelatinous, thread-shaped, equal, reddish or greenish, much branched; branches scattered, horizontal, obtuse.—Found by Mr. Hudon on submarine rocks and stones, in Portland island, and near Pool, Dorsetshire. Annual; from May to October. Frond four inches long, of nearly equal thickness throughout, of the diameter of small packthread, divided into several alternate or scattered principal branches, each of which is beset with numerous others, all horizontal, short and blunt. Little black seeds are scattered under the cuticle. An authentic specimen of this, and many other sea-weeds, described by Hudon, were given to the younger Linnæus by sir Thomas Frankland. We are also possessed of another, found by the same gentleman at Scarborough, in August 1807, which is six inches high, green, with very copious branches of the same thickness as above described; the internal substance of the main stem, in the lower part, appearing very firm and horny, like a coralline. Notwithstanding the difference of colour, we cannot doubt the identity of the species.

32. *U. rubra*. Crimfon Laver. Hudf. 571. Engl. Bot. t. 1627.—FronD gelatinous, much branched, forked, thread-shaped, unequal, somewhat flattened, bright red, smooth.—Found by Mr. Hudon, near Christchurch, Hampshire, and by sir Thomas Frankland on the Scarborough coast, in August. Several fronds, from an inch and a half to three inches high, spring from a small callous disk. They are taper at the base, much branched and variously dilated, especially the principal stem, which is most flattened; the ultimate divisions forked, or aggregate. The colour

colour of the whole is either a full or pale crimson, sometimes tawny, or slightly variegated.

33. *U. plumosa*. Feathered Green Laver. Hudl. 571. Engl. Bot. t. 2375.—Frond gelatinous, green, thread-shaped, somewhat compressed, branched; branches pinnate, with numerous, parallel, linear, shining segments.—Gathered by Mr. Hudson on the Devonshire coast; by Mr. W. Borrer at Brightelmstone; and by Mr. Woodward at Cromer, in little rocky pools, filled daily by the sea. This species is supposed to be perennial; it occurs throughout the summer and autumn. The fronds are three inches high, erect; when fresh of a bright, uniform, very beautiful green; but the colouring matter soon collects towards the skin, leaving the middle part vacant, and of a glassy transparency. The branches are numerous; naked at their base; copiously feathered above, with crowded, two-ranked, linear, obtuse, entire segments, gradually shorter towards the point. Nothing is known of the fructification. The habit of the plant, and the mode in which the green colouring matter subsides, accord with one tribe of the *Conserveæ*; but there are no joints, nor internal partitions.

34. *U. protuberans*. Prominent-seeded Laver. Engl. Bot. t. 2583.—Frond gelatinous, thick, angular, green. Seeds elliptical, at length prominent and deciduous.—Discovered by Mr. W. Borrer, growing amongst moss, on wet shady parts of the sand-rocks, at Uckfield, Sussex, in September 1813. This is so singular a production, that much doubt may arise concerning its real genus. The whole is an assemblage of thick, fleshy, juicy, angular or wrinkled, obtuse lobes, about half an inch high, of a light, pellucid, grass green. Copious elliptical uniform seeds, about the size of red poppy-seed, are lodged separately throughout the whole substance, the external series projecting beyond the surface, and when ripe easily separating from it if touched. According to our present state of knowledge therefore, this plant can be referred only to *Ulva*, though, like a few other species, it is not of marine origin.

Some doubtful species require to be mentioned, and of these we shall take a compendious notice.

U. conservoides, Linn. Sp. Pl. 1632. (*Coaserva marina* fistulosa; Dill. Musc. 34. t. 6. f. 39.), has all the appearance of a branched *Conservea*, but Dillenius describes it as pervious throughout, admitting water freely along the stem and branches. Hence Linnæus made the plant an *Ulva*, but our knowledge of many *Conserveæ* renders the propriety of such a determination doubtful. He adopted this species solely on the authority of the *Historia Muscorum*, what he subsequently referred to it in his herbarium being very different.

U. latifolia, Linn. Sp. Pl. 1632, we have already mentioned under n. 12, as not at all different from *Fucus saccharinus*, which the original Gothland specimen clearly shews.

U. labyrinthiformis, Linn. Sp. Pl. 1633, found by Vandel in warm baths near Padua, and described, with a good figure annexed, in that author's *Traité de Theriis Agri Patavini*, 120. t. 2, should seem to belong rather to *Tremella*, no seeds having been observed.

U. lumbricalis, Linn. Mant. 311, may be found under *MERTENSIA*.

U. papillofa, *ibid.* is probably a *Fucus*, near to the Linnæan *F. spinosus*, and perhaps the same with *F. striatus*, Turn. Hist. Fucor. 32. t. 16.

U. pruiniformis, Linn. Sp. Pl. 1633, and *U. incrassata*, Hudl. 572, are species of *RIVULARIA*; see that article.

VOL. XXXVII.

U. granulata, Linn. Sp. Pl. 1633, is *Tremella granulata*, Engl. Bot. t. 324.

U. stellata, Wulf. in Jacq. Coll. v. 1. 351. Prodr. Fl. Græc. n. 2522, very nearly related to *Lichenoides gelatinosum tenue reticulatum*. Dill. Musc. 138. t. 19. f. 21, if not the very same; is likewise next akin to *Conservea umbilicata* of Col. Velley, Trans. of Linn. Soc. v. 5. 169. t. 7. These plants are so peculiar in structure, that their fructification, when discovered, will probably establish them as a genus by themselves. At least they could be referred to *Ulva*, or to *Conservea*, for the present only, nor are they reconcilable to the generic character, or habit, of either.

ULVA, in *Geography*, one of the Western islands of Scotland, about seven miles in circumference, near the W. coast of Mull. N. lat. 56° 28'. W. long. 6° 13'.

ULUA, a river of Honduras, which runs into the bay, N. lat. 15° 48'. W. long. 88° 38'.

ULUA, or *Sol*, a small island in the gulf of Mexico. N. lat. 15° 40'.

ULUBRÆ, in *Ancient Geography*, a borough of Italy, in Latium, in the vicinity of Velitæ and of Suefla Pometa; it was a Roman colony. Horace says of it (Epist. ii. v. 28.)

“ ————— Navibus atque

Quadrigris petimus bene vivere; quod petis, hic est,
Est Ulubris; animus si te non deficit æquus.”

But we learn from Juvenal (Sat. x. v. 101.) that this place became desert:

“ Et de mensura jus dicere, vasa minora

Frangere pannosus vacuis Ædilis Ulubris.”

ULUCITRA, a town of Thrace, in the province of Rhodope.

ULVERSTON, in *Geography*, an ancient market-town in the hundred of North Lonsdale, and county palatine of Lancaster, England, is situated within the district of Furness, at the distance of 20 miles N.W. from the county-town, and 270 miles N.W. by N. from London. Edward I., in the eighth year of his reign, granted a charter to this town for a weekly market and annual fair: but the benefit derived from this grant was inconsiderable, while Furness abbey was inhabited by the monks, as the great mart of this district was Dalton, which, from its contiguity and connection with the abbey, superseded all the vicinal towns. After the dissolution of that monastery, Dalton lost its importance, and Ulverston, from its convenient and central situation, became the emporium of the district. The fair granted by king Edward has grown into disuse, but two others are annually held. Monday is the market-day. The principal trade of this town is in iron-ore, pig and bar iron, lime-stone, blue slate, oats, barley, and beans: the manufactures are cotton, check, canvas, and hats. Within the last sixty years, great improvements have taken place in the appearance of the town; the streets are spacious and clean; and the houses, which, from the advance of trade, rapidly increase in number, are well built: in the return of the year 1811, they were estimated at 728, the population at 3378. At the intersection of two principal streets, in the centre of the most ancient part of the town, is an old cross. The church, which stands in a field at a small distance from the town, was almost wholly rebuilt in 1804: it is a plain, neat edifice; has three aisles and a square tower. A small theatre, an assembly-room, and a public subscription library, have been recently established. A canal, about a mile and a quarter in length, was cut in 1795, to form a communication from

the east side of the town to the channel of the river Leven: it is well supplied with water, has a spacious basin, with a warehouse, and has been navigated by ships of 400 tons burden. It was made after the plans of J. Rennie, esq.

In the vicinity of this town is Conifhead, the seat of Wilfon Bradyll, esq. The house stands on the site of the ancient priory of Conifhead: the south front is modern, with an ornamental arcade; the north front has a piazza and wings.

About half a mile from Ulverston is Swartmoor-Hall, to which some degree of celebrity has attached from its having been the residence and property of George Fox, one of the founders of the sect of Quakers. He made a convert of the former proprietor, Thomas Fell, one of the Welsh judges, and married his widow. Fox died in 1691.—*Beauties of England and Wales*, vol. ix. Lancashire, by J. Britton, R.S.A.

ULUGH-BEIGH, in *Biography*, a learned and powerful Tartarian prince, was born in the year 1393. He was the grandson of the celebrated Timur; and his real name was Mohammed Taragai, Ulugh-Beigh being an epithet which signifies a great lord or prince. He entered upon the government of Iran and Turan, that is of Persia and Tartary, during his father's life, in 1407, and conducted himself in a manner that secured universal esteem. His leisure hours he devoted to reading, and thus acquired a knowledge of various sciences. He was famed for a very retentive memory, and having written a book or journal of all the animals which he had killed in hunting, which book was accidentally lost, he dictated the contents of it to a transcriber; and upon comparing this transcript with the original when it was found, it was correct except in four places. Among other institutions for the promotion of science, he established a gymnasium at Samarcand, his capital, which accommodated a hundred students, received into it for education. His chief attention, however, was devoted to mathematics and astronomy; and for the improvement of the latter science, he invited to Samarcand a great number of astronomers, and constructed an observatory, which he furnished with the best astronomical instruments. Here he assisted in person, employing in his observations, as some have said, a gnomon one hundred and eighty Roman feet in height. His principal assistant was Salah-Eddin, his preceptor, and a Christian, who was the director of this astronomical academy, and who co-operated with Ulugh-Beigh in the construction of the tables which he intended to publish; but as he died before their completion, the prince himself engaged in the laborious undertaking, and selected for his coadjutors Alicufi, the son of Salah-Eddin, and the astronomer Ali Ben-Gaiat-Eddin Mohammed Jamchid. To this work, which has never been printed entire, we are indebted for those tables that pass under the name of Ulugh-Beigh. A fourth part of it was published by the learned Hyde, with an ample commentary. This was a catalogue of the fixed stars, formed upon the Observations made at Samarcand, and completed in 1437. Its title is "Tabulæ Longitudinis et Latitudinis Stellarum fixarum, ex Observatione Ulugbeighi, Tamerlanis M. Nepotis, Regionum ultra citraque Gihun (Oxum) Principis potentissimi, ex tribus invicem collatis MSS. Persicis, jam primum luce et latio donavit, et Commentariis illustravit, Thomas Hyde, A.M. e Coll. Regin. Oxon.; in calce accesserunt Mohammedis Tizini Tabulæ Declinationum et Rectarum Ascensionum. Additur Elenchus Nominum Stellarum," Oxon. 1665, 4to. These astronomical tables were scarcely completed, when a difference occurred between

Ulugh-Beigh and his eldest son. Addicted, like other orientals, to astrology, he calculated his son's nativity; and hence portending some great misfortune, he gave the preference to his younger son, so that the eldest, being slighted, rebelled against him. A civil war took place, and in a bloody battle near Samarcand the father was defeated, and was obliged to save himself by flight. Returning afterwards to Samarcand, hoping that his son would have compassion upon him, he was at first kindly received; but soon afterwards a mandate was issued for his execution, which tragical event occurred near Samarcand, according to Flamstead, in the year 1449; but, as Herbelot says, in 1450.

Two other learned works, which serve for the illustration of the eastern geography and history, written by this prince, were published by Mr. Greaves; viz. "Binæ Tabulæ Geographicae, una Nafir Eddini, altera Ulug-Beighi, Opera et Studio J. Gravii nunc primum publicatae et Commentariis ex Abulfeda aliisque Arabum Geographis illustratae," Lond. 1648, 4to.: and also "Epochæ celeberrimos Astronomis, Historicis, Chronologis, Chataiorum, Syro-Græcorum, Arabum, Persarum, Chorasmiorum usitatae; ex Traditione Ulug-Beighi Indiæ citra extraque Gangem Principis, eas primum publicavit, recensuit, et Commentariis illustravit J. Gravius," Lond. 1650, combined, in Arabic and Latin, in J. Hudson Geogr. Vet. Script. Minores, tom. iii. Montucla. Gen. Biog.

ULVISON, in *Geography*, a river of Sweden, which runs into the Mæler lake.

ULULA, in *Ornithology*. See **STRIX**.

ULULEUS, in *Ancient Geography*, a river which furnished Dyrrhachium with water; now called Argentea.

ULYSSEA, a town of Hispania, in Bætica, situated on the mountains, above Abdera, according to Strabo; who says that here was a temple dedicated to Minerva, and that it contained many monuments of the voyages of Ulysses.

ULYSSES, in *Geography*, a township of New York, in America, in the S.E. corner of Seneca county, 14 miles S.E. of Ovid, and 180 W. of Albany, with two post-offices, Ithaca and Tremain; bounded N. by Ovid, N.E. and E. by Cayuga county, S. by Cayuta in Tioga county, and W. by Hector. On the E. it embraces the half of the S. end of Cayuga lake, an extent of eight miles, where it receives Cayuga creek, or the main inlet; Six-mile and Fall creeks, which furnish many mill-seats in this part of the town; and it has some small streams that fall into the W. side, and supply mill-seats in the N. part of the town. The fourth part is hilly, and the soil less valuable than the north, which is sufficiently level, with a very good soil. It has been settled since the year 1789, at first by Yankees, or New England people, and since by Dutch from New Jersey. It has one Methodist meeting-house, and a congregation of Presbyterians. The town has a considerable quantity of white pine, which is very valuable. Ithaca is a handsome post-village at the S. end of Cayuga lake, containing 40 houses, with a considerable trade; and Tremain is a post-village, 11 miles N.W. of Ithaca, containing 10 or 12 houses.

ULYSSIS PORTUS, in *Ancient Geography*, a port on the eastern side of Sicily, near Catana. It was an ancient opinion that Ulysses had landed in this place. However, if we admit the recitals of Homer in the *Odyssæe*, Ulysses had landed on the promontory of Pachynum.

ULYSSOPOLIS, a town of Thrace, said to be the Odissus of Ptolemy.

ULZEN, in *Geography*. See **ULTZEN**.

UMA, in *Mythology*, a name of the Hindoo goddesses *Parvati*,

Parvati, under which article an ample account is given of this important many-named deity. Uma is stated to be an incarnation of Parvati.

Uma is a name still given to Hindoo females, in common with several others of this and other goddesses; such as Lakshmi, Parvati, Bhavani, &c.

UMAGNO, in *Geography*, a town of Etruria; 5 miles N. of Volterra.

UMAGO, a sea-port town of Istria. Here is a spacious harbour at the mouth of a river, but the situation being unhealthy, the town is but thinly inhabited; 16 miles E. of Venice. N. lat. $45^{\circ} 35'$. E. long. $13^{\circ} 43'$.

UMAPA, a town of Mexico, in the province of Culiacan; 10 miles E. of Culiacan.

UMARI, in *Botany*, the Brazilian name of a tree, rudely figured in Marcgrave's *Hist. Plant.* 121. See GEOFFREA.

UMARRAH, in *Geography*, a town of Nubia; 85 miles S. of Syene.

UMATAG, or UMATAY, a town of the island of Guam, in the East Indian sea, where vessels stop to refit.

UMBA, a town of Russia, in the government of Archangel, on the White sea. N. lat. $66^{\circ} 45'$. E. long. $29^{\circ} 14'$.

UMBA, *Lower*, a middle province of Matamba.

UMBA, *Upper*, the most northerly province of Matamba.

UMBAA, a town of Abyssinia; 100 miles S.S.W. of Gondar.

UMBAGOG LAKE, a lake of New Hampshire. N. lat. $44^{\circ} 38'$. W. long. $70^{\circ} 59'$.

UMBALLA, a town of Hindoostan, in the circar of Sirhind; 32 miles E.S.E. of Sirhind.

UMBEL, UMBELLA, in *Botany*, a Latin word, for a little shade, or umbrella, is used to designate a particular mode of inflorescence, thence called umbellate. (See UMBELLATE.) The umbella was formerly named in English *rundle*, probably from its *round* shape; but *umbel* is now universally adopted. This mode of inflorescence consists of several flower-stalks; or rays, nearly equal in length, spreading from a common point or centre, their summits forming a level, convex, sometimes globose, surface; more rarely, as in the Carrot, a concave one. When each ray is simple, and bears a solitary flower, the umbel is denominated simple, as in the Ivy and Cowslip, as well as in *Astrantia*, *Eriocalia*, and *Hydrocotyle*. A compound umbel, properly so called, has each of its principal rays terminating in another smaller umbel. Such, at least, is the case with those plants constituting the natural order of UMBELLATE; few of which, besides the three genera just mentioned, have simple umbels. Instances of compound ones are familiar in the Hemlock, Carrot, Parsley, &c. There are indeed other kinds of compound umbels, found in various other tribes of plants; as in *Euphorbia*, whose general umbel, in most of the species, is repeatedly subdivided, either in a threefold, or a forked manner. A CYME (see that article) is in the first instance a general umbel, though its partial stalks are irregularly subdivided. On the contrary, a panicle, whose primary ramifications are alternate, or irregular, sometimes has its ultimate ones umbellate, of which examples occur in *Vitis* and *Aralia*. We refer the reader to CYME, INFLORESCENCE, and GENUS, for remarks on the different conceptions of authors, respecting the nature of an umbel, reserving further considerations of that kind for the article UMBELLATE. We have here only to add, that an umbel is sometimes naked, but much more generally accompanied by *bractes*, or by a simple or compound *involucrum*, not always constant, or uniformly present, even in the same species. The rays themselves are usually per-

manent, seldom deciduous, till long after the seeds have fallen.

UMBELLATE, a very natural order of plants, so named from its mode of inflorescence, (see UMBEL,) and constituting the forty-fifth order among the *Fragmenta* of Linnaeus. It is exactly equivalent to the *Umbellifera* of other writers, at least of such as are correct, being the sixtieth order in Jussieu's system, or the second of his twelfth class. The characters of that class are these. A superior *calyx* of one leaf. *Petals* several, definite, inserted upon the pistil, or upon the border of a gland crowning the germen. *Stamens* definite, distinct, inserted into the same part, being alternate with the petals, and equal to them in number. *Germen* inferior, simple; styles several, definite; stigmas as many. *Seeds* agreeing in number with the styles, either naked, or rarely inclosed in a seed-vessel, having a similar number of cells. *Coraculum* minute, oblong, at the top of a woody albumen. *Flowers* umbellate, that is, supported singly on numerous stalks, springing from the same point. *Umbel* either naked, or surrounded by a many-leaved involucre: and either simple, or composed of lesser, or partial, umbels, which likewise are sometimes naked, sometimes furnished with a partial involucre. The orders are two; 1. ARALIE, whose *petals*, *styles*, and *seeds*, are numerous, their *fruit* capsular or pulpy; and 2. UMBELLIFERE, of which we are about to treat.

Jussieu thus distinguishes the order in question. *Calyx* either entire or five-toothed. *Petals* five. *Stamens* five. *Styles* and *stigmas* two. *Fruit* perpendicularly separable into two *seeds*, various in shape, hanging by their summits to a central, thread-shaped, often deeply divided, axis or receptacle. *Flowers* disposed in little umbels, which are mostly collected into general umbels, each being either naked or furnished with involucre, and for the most part regular, in a few instances anomalous. The *stem* is often herbaceous, rarely shrubby. *Leaves* alternate, with sheathing footstalks; and either simple, or most frequently compound, with repeated subdivisions. The colour of the *flowers* is usually white, sometimes reddish or purplish; in a few instances yellow. *Lagoecia*, and we may add *Eriocalia*, are remarkable for a solitary seed, the style also being solitary in the former. We may add also, that *Eryngium* is singular for having the umbel condensed into a head, the flowers having no footstalks, forming the only exception to the umbellate inflorescence of the whole order.

Linnaeus fixes the character of his *Umbellate* in the five stamens, two styles, and two seeds, all umbellate flowers not being comprehended therein. But as *Eryngium* is not excluded, though destitute of a proper umbel, so neither are *Lagoecia* and *Eriocalia*, though having only solitary seeds. His general idea of the order agrees with Jussieu's, but he held a peculiar opinion of the umbel being in itself an aggregate flower. On this subject we have already said all that is necessary, under CYME. We proceed to the generic distinctions in this order, a subject of the greatest difficulty, because the order itself is so very natural. The species, as Haller observes, are easily discriminated. This author, and his pupil Crantz, follow Tournefort, in defining the genera by the seeds. Linnaeus holds this principle rather too cheap, adopting the plan of his friend Ardeii, who first suggested the use of the general and partial involucre for the purpose required. Hence he distributes the *Umbellate* into three sections. Those which have a general as well as partial involucre; those which have only a partial one; and those which have neither. Jussieu follows the same arrangement, only reverting the sections. The author of the *Flora Bri-*

tannica has not undertaken to reform this subject, though he has always objected to the principle on which it is founded. Like other Linnæan botanists, he adopts it, with many things besides, for present use. Gærtner, as might be expected, recurs to the seeds, but not with the happiest success.

Two ingenious writers have of late taken up this department of botany afresh, independent of each other; professor Hoffmann, late of Gottingen, now of Moscow; and professor Sprengel of Halle. The former follows his genera on the seeds and petals; the latter on the seeds alone, carrying into execution the principles of the late M. Cusson of Montpellier, whose premature death deprived the world of the fruit of his laborious studies on this subject.

Mr. Sprengel's sections are as follows. 1. Fruit compressed, flat. 2. Fruit rather solid, winged. 3. Fruit bladderly. 4. Fruit coated. 5. Fruit armed. 6. Fruit solid, naked. This last section is subdivided into those whose fruit is linear-lanceolate, and those in which it is oblong-ovate, or quite ovate. Subordinate characters are afforded by the ribs of the seeds, and their interstices, which, after Cusson, are termed *vallicule*. *Latifolia* of these authors are the sloping sides of each seed, from the back to the *commisura*, or seam; where the edges of the two seeds meet. Professor Sprengel establishes 63 genera, and 371 species, in his *Prodromus*; published at Halle in 1813.

The *Umbellata* hitherto known are chiefly found in the temperate climates of the northern hemisphere, as Mr. Brown observes in his General Remarks on the Botany of Terra Australis, subjoined to captain Flinders's Voyage. Very few occur within the tropics, but the eminent botanist just quoted informs his readers, that those of Terra Australis, including a few *Arctice*, exceed fifty species. These are mostly new. The singular genus *ERIOCALIA*, (see that article,) adopted in Sprengel's Prodr. 27, is one of them. Mr. Brown speaks of another genus, by the name of *Leucolena*, "worthy of notice on account of the great apparent differences of inflorescence, existing among its species;" which, however, prove, by his luminous explanation, to be only apparent.

We think it hardly necessary to mention the polygamous character of the flowers in some of this order, though that character is made to enter into the Linnæan generic distinctions. The central flowers, or central partial umbels, are most inclined to be male, the surrounding ones female, or at least most fertile. The petals of the latter are also most radiant, or dilated outwards.

Linnæus remarks, that the principal qualities of these plants reside in their roots, (often biennial,) and their seeds; the herbage, for the most part, being inactive. They contain an acrid aromatic, or caustic principle. Such as grow in dry places are most wholesome or safe, as well as most agreeable in flavour; those found in watery places are among the most virulent of all vegetable poisons; witness *Cicuta virosa* and *Oenanthe crocata*. Cultivation, in a dry or manured soil, renders some aquatic *umbellata* safe and wholesome, particularly the *Apium graveolens* of our ditches, which becomes, under proper treatment, the garden Celery.

UMBELLIFERÆ. See UMBELLATÆ.

UMBELLIFEROUS PLANTS, a name given to certain kinds, as all such as form and produce their flowers in the manner of an umbel, and which are principally of the herbaceous kinds, with some few of the tree sort, having the flowers in this mode either in the simple or compound form, rising with erect hollow stalks in the first description,

and mostly branching in the alternate method, and either simple-fingered, or winged. The chief sorts in the garden herb clats are those of angelica, the different carrot kinds, the parsnip, parsley, the various kinds of celery, common fennel, dill, giant fennel, alexanders, coriander, carraway, Macedonian parsley, fampshire, eringo, &c. But besides these esculents for different culinary purposes, it belongs to some of the medicinal sort, and others which do not relate to the business of gardening. See KITCHEN-Garden Plants, and MEDICINAL Plants.

UMBELLUS, in Ornithology, a species of Tetrao; which see.

UMBER, OMBROS, or Umbros, in Ancient Geography, a lake of Italy, in Umbria; which, according to Scaliger, is the same with the Vadimonis lacus of Livy.

UMBER, or Umbre, in Natural History, a fassile brown or blackish substance, used in painting, so called from Ombria, the ancient name of the duchy of Spoleto, in Italy, whence it was first obtained; diluted with water, it serves to make a dark-brown colour, usually called with us an hair-colour.

Dr. Hill and M. Da Costa consider it as an earth of the ochre kind. It is found in Egypt, Italy, Spain, and Germany; in Cyprus also it is found in large quantities; but what we have brought into England is principally from different parts of the Turkish dominions. But it might be found in considerable plenty also in England and Ireland, if properly looked after, several large masses of it having been thrown up in digging on Mendip-hills, in Somersetshire, and in the county of Wexford, in Ireland: it is also sometimes found in the veins of lead-ore, both in Derbyshire and Flintshire.

Mineralogists mention two kinds of umber; the one called "Cologne earth," which is a variety of peat or earthy-brown coal. In the vicinity of Cologne they work large beds of it, principally for fuel, and a considerable quantity is imported into Holland, where it is used for the adulteration of snuff, and a smaller quantity is employed by the paint-makers. Its colour is a somewhat pinkish-brown, and it is useful to the painter in water-colours. The second kind is known by the name of "Turkish umber," and appears to be a variety of the iron-ore, called brown iron-stone ochre. Klaproth analysed a specimen from Cyprus, and found that it contained

48 oxyd of iron.
20 oxyd of manganese.
13 filix.
5 alumine.
14 water.

—
100
—

Wallarius ranks the umber as a humus or mould, apprehending, by its immediately flaming in the fire, and by the smell which it emits, that it owes its colour to an admixture of bituminous parts. But M. le Baron de Hupfel (Berlin, Mem. 1771) has discovered it to be a fassile wood, filled with a bituminous juice. It is found in two different states, first, as retaining the form of wood, which it has preserved by means of a bituminous matter that has prevented the rotting of the wood; and secondly, as a powder, like that into which the first kind, that still retains the form of the wood, easily crumbles.

It is certain, however, says Mr. Kirwan, that the name hath been also given to a sort of brown ochre, which becomes

comes red when slightly heated, but in a stronger heat is again brown and magnetic, and in a still stronger, melts into a black glass. It does not effervesce with acids before roasting, but after that the martial part is soluble. *Elem. Mineral*, p. 78.

This substance, when burnt, makes a good shade for gold. It need only be put into the naked fire in large lumps, which should not be taken out till they be thoroughly red-hot.

UMBER, or Ombre, in *Ichthyology*, an English name for a fish of the truttaceous kind, more commonly called the *grayling*, and by the authors in ichthyography, *thymallus*, a fresh-water fish of a very fine taste.

UMBERPATTONS, in *Geography*, a town of Hindoostan, in Boggrileund; 20 miles S.S.W. of Rewah.

UMBERSTON CREEK, a river of Virginia, which runs into the Potomack, N. lat. $39^{\circ} 35'$. W. long. $78^{\circ} 6'$.

UMBILICAL, in *Anatomy*, an epithet applied to the arteries and veins which pass through the umbilicus. See EMBRYO.

UMBILICAL Region, is that part of the abdomen lying round the umbilicus, or navel.

UMBILICAL Rupture, a rupture or protrusion of the bowels at the navel. The disease is frequently called by surgeons *exomphalos*; which see. See also HERNIA.

UMBILICALIS Funicular, properly called the *navel-string*. See EMBRYO, FUNIS, and LAPOUR.

UMBILICAL Points, in *Mathematics*, the same with *foci*. See FOCUS.

UMBILICAL Vessels of Vegetables, in *Agriculture and Gardening*, a term lately applied by some writers, as Darwin, to the small vessels which pass from the heart part of the seed into the side seed-lobes, and there imbibe the solution of saccharine, farinaceous, or oily matter, which is prepared and deposited in them for the nourishment and support of the new vegetable in its germination and infant growth. They are consequently supposed to perform the important office of supplying nutrition to the young plant, and of oxygenating, or affording the oxygene principle of the air to the vegetable juice, sap, or blood, and thereby to be of very material use in the sprouting and vegetation of grain, seeds, and buds. See VEGETATION, and VITAL Air.

UMBILICARIA, in *Botany*, a genus of the *Lichen* family, so called by Hoffmann, from the rounded depressed figure of its frond, whose centre is firmly attached to the rocks, by a central root, like an umbilical cord. This genus consists of the *Lichenes umbilicatus* of Linnæus, and is now called *GYROPHORA*; see that article. Nineteen species are described in the most recent publication of professor Acharius, *Synopsis Methodi Lichenum*, p. 63—69.

UMBILICATED, in *Gardening*, a term which signifies and is applied to those sorts of fruit and leaves which are navel-shaped, or formed in the manner of that part. This is the case in fruit of the apple and pear kinds, as well as some others, in which one or both ends are hollowed in a navel-like manner. Also in some leaves, as those of the peltate or target-formed sort, which are fashioned or shaped in a manner somewhat similar to that of the navel, at the part or place where the footstalk is inserted, which is commonly about the middle, on the under side, but in some instances above.

UMBILICUS, in *Anatomy*, the navel, a round opening in the linea alba, for the passage of the umbilical vessels of the fœtus. Its situation is marked by a depression, after the cord has separated, produced by the inflection of the integuments. See OBLIQUUS.

UMBILICUS, in *Mathematics*, the same with *focus*.

UMBILICUS *Marinus*, a name given to a small oval body of a shelly matter, from its resemblance to the human navel. It is properly the operculum of a shell-fish, serving to close up the aperture of the shell in the buccinum, and other turbinated shells; and to that purpose it is fixed to the anterior extremity of the body of the animal; so that when it retracts its body into the shell, this naturally fills up the mouth of it: it is convex on one side, and flat on the other; the convex side is plain and white, the flat side is yellowish or reddish, and marked with a spiral line. See CONCHOLOGY.

It is laid by authors to have great virtues as an abortif and altringent; but it is not used at present in the shops, though it holds a place in the catalogues of the *Materia Medica*, as well of our own as other nations.

UMBILICUS *Veneris*, in *Botany*. (See COTYLEDON.) The English name of the same import, Venus's Navel-wort, is applied to the *Cynoglossum linifolium*, on account of the little hollow, or depression, in each of its beautiful seeds.

UMBINUS, among the *Ancients*, a kind of coin current in Gallia Narbonnensis.

UMBLA, or, as some write it, *Umbra*, in *Ichthyology*, the name of a fish of the truttaceous kind, and nearly allied to the falmon.

It is the *salmo umbra* of Linnæus, with the lateral lines bent upward, and a bifurcated tail. See SALMO.

There are four species of this fish mentioned among naturalists; but the *umbra prior* and *umbra altera* of Rondeletius, which are two of them, seem only to be the different sexes of the same fish. These are considerably large, very like the common falmon, but have blue backs and yellow bellies. The third is the fish commonly called the *salvelin*, or *salmo salvelinus* of Linnæus, with the upper jaw longer than the other: and the fourth is the *red charr*. Willughby's *Hist. Pisc.* p. 198.

UMBO, in *Antiquity*, the round protuberant part of a shield.

UMBO, in *Geography*, a lake of Russia, in the government of Archangel. N. lat. $67^{\circ} 40'$. E. long. $29^{\circ} 14'$.

UMBONE, or HORN, among *Florists*, signifies any pointed style, or pistil, in the middle of a flower.

There is also an umbone called *double-pointed*, or *biparted*, as in the prony; and sometimes the umbone has four sharp points, in which case it is termed, an umbone divided into so many heads, or cut into three or four parts.

UMBOYNA, in *Geography*, a town of Nubia; 50 miles S. of Gooz.

UMBRA, SHADOW. See LIGHT, SHADOW, PENUMBRA, &c.

UMBRA, in *Ancient Geography*, a small river of Italy, in Etruria.

UMBRA, in *Geography*, a river of America, which runs into the Wabash, N. lat. $38^{\circ} 38'$. W. long. $88^{\circ} 12'$.

UMBRA, in *Ichthyology*, the name of a sea-fish caught in the Mediterranean, and brought to the markets in Italy and other places; called by some *chromis*, and by the Venetians *corvo*.

Its usual size at market is about twelve or fourteen inches in length; but it grows to sixty pounds weight, and to the length of five or six feet. It is of a somewhat flattened figure, and its back is ridged and rises up from the head. It somewhat resembles the carp in its general figure, but is broader. It is very elegantly coloured, for there are a number of long oblique lines covering its whole sides, which are alternately of a fine pale blue, and a beautiful yellow. Its scales are moderately large, and its coverings of the gills, and great part of its very head, as well as its body, are covered with these; its head is moderately large, but its mouth small, and

it has a single beard hanging down from its chin. Rondelet. de Pife. p. 182. See SCIÆNA.

UMBRA, in *Zoology*, a species of lacerta. See LIZARD.

UMBRATILIS PUGNA, the fighting with one's own shadow.

This was one of the kinds of exercise much recommended by the ancient physicians; they ordered the person who used it, not only to box, but to wrestle, with his shadow; that is, not only to use his arms, but his legs also, and often to put himself into a leaping posture, and throw his body violently forward, and often to retreat hastily backwards. The custom seems to have been of ancient date; Plato expressly mentions it, and St. Paul seems to allude to it in the passage where, glorying in the reality of his conflicts, he says he does not fight as one who beats the air. The physicians greatly recommended this exercise to people of sedentary lives, and to those who had weak nerves, and were afflicted with tremors. They esteemed it useful also in diseases of the kidneys, and of the thorax.

UMBRE, in *Mineralogy*. See UMBER.

UMBRE, in *Ornithology*. See SCOPUS.

UMBRELLA, in *Rural Economy*, a well-known shade or guard from the sun or rain, formed by stretching silk, canvas, or any other linen or woollen stuff, over elastic strips of whalebone, so disposed as to diverge from a central point and make a circular covering, which may be means of a rod or staff passing through the centre be held over the head, when occasion requires it, or which may be drawn up round this rod and conveniently carried in the hand. These temporary guards from heat or wet have not long been introduced into our country, but they have been found so convenient and useful that they are now become very common. They seem to have been of much more ancient use in the East. M. de la Loubere, who was envoy extraordinary for the French king to the king of Siam, in the years 1687 and 1688, informs us in his "New Historical Relation of the Kingdom of Siam," a translation of which into English was printed at London in 1693, that the use of umbrellas, in Siamese Rour, was a favour which the king of Siam did not grant to all his subjects, although the umbrella be permitted to all the Europeans. Those which are like to ours, or which have only one round, were the least honourable, and were used by most of the Mandarins. Those that had more rounds about the same handle, as if they were several umbrellas fixed one upon another, were for the king alone. Those which the Siamese called "clot," and which had only one round, having two or three painted cloths suspended from them, one lower than the other, were granted by the king of Siam to the "Sanrats," or superiors of the "Talapoins." Those which he gave to the king's ambassadors were of this last sort, and had three cloth hangings. The Talapoins had umbrellas in the form of a screen, which they carried in their hands. They were formed of a kind of palmetto leaf cut round and folded, and the folds were tied with a thread near the stem, and the stem was made crooked like an S, and served for a handle. In the Siamese language they called them "Talapat," and it is probable, says Loubere, that from hence comes the name of "Talapoï" or "Talapoïn," which is in use only among foreigners, and which is unknown to the Talapoins themselves, whose Siamese name is "Tchaou-cou."

An umbrella, held in a proper position over the head, may serve to collect the force of a distant sound by reflection, in the manner of a hearing-trumpet; but its substance is too slight to reflect any sound very perfectly, unless the sound fall upon it in a very oblique direction. The whispering gallery at St. Paul's produces an effect nearly similar,

by a continual repetition of reflections. Mr. Charles's paradoxical exhibition of the invisible girl has also been said to depend on the reflection of sound; but the deception is really performed by conveying the sound through pipes, artfully concealed and opening opposite to the mouth of the trumpet from which it seems to proceed. Young's Philosophy.

UMBRELLA-Tree, in *Gardening*, the common English name of a very ornamental tree. See MAGNOLIA.

UMBRETTA, in *Ornithology*. See SCOPUS.

UMBRIA, in *Ancient Geography*, a large country of Italy, bounded on the N. by a part of Gallia Cispadana, on the N.E. by the Adriatic gulf, on the E. by Picenum, and on the W. by the Apennines, which separated it from Etruria. This country, which was very mountainous, contained in its northern part the Senonoi. It was divided into two parts by the Apennines, and took its name, as some have said, from the Greek *Ουμβρο*, *Imber*, because, as they say, without sufficient reason, rain inundates this country. Propertius says of it:

"Proxima supposito contingens Umbria campo
Me genuit terris fertilis uberibus."

Ptolemy mentions several towns as belonging to this country, the names of several of which are now unknown. To the N. of this country lies the Rubicon, which serves as a boundary to Italy, properly so called.

UMBRIA, in *Geography*. See SPOLETO.

UMBRIATICO, a town of Naples, in Calabria Citra, the see of a bishop, suffragan of St. Severina; 57 miles E. of Colenza. N. lat. 39° 27'. E. long. 17° 6'.

UMBRINO, in *Ichthyology*, a name used by some authors for the *coracinus*, or *umbra*, as some call it. The umbrino has by some been esteemed a distinct species of fish from the *coracinus*; but they seem to differ no other way than as the one is the older, the other the younger fish. Willughby's Hist. Pisc. p. 330.

UMBRO, OMBRO, or OMBRONE, in *Ancient Geography*, a river of Italy, in Etruria, commencing N.E. of Sena, and discharging itself into the sea near Rusellæ.

UMBUNCULUS, in *Natural History*, a name given by ancient authors to the small prominences on the surfaces of certain stones. It was originally derived from the word *umbo*, which expresses the prominent knob, or round lump in the centre of a shield; and its first use that we find in the naturalists is, in expressing a very similar thing; that is, the prominent part of the zmilampus. This was a stone of the nature of what we call *oculis beli*, or *heliochio*, and was of a white ground, and roundish figure, somewhat resembling an eye. It was found in the Euphrates, and other rivers, and had always an umbunculus of a glaucous or bluish colour. This umbunculus was a prominent round spot, such as we see in our *oculi beli*, and call the *pupil*. It was afterwards used to express the inequalities on the surfaces of flints and agates, which frequently are roundish and obtuse, and represent a kind of umbones.

UMDOOM, in *Geography*, a town of Nubia; 10 miles N. of Chiggré.

UMEÅ, a sea-port town of Sweden, in West Bothnia, at the mouth of a river of the same name, in the gulf of Bothnia, built by Gustavus Adolphus, with a good harbour. This town was twice burned by the Russians in the beginning of the 18th century. N. lat. 63° 52'. E. long. 20° 4'.

UMEABY, a town of Sweden; 60 miles N.W. of Umea.

UMELHEDEGI, a town of Africa, in the country of Tailet; 66 miles S.W. of Sugulmessa.

UMEL-

UMELHEFEL, a town of Africa, in the country of Tafflet; 40 miles S.W. of Sugulmessa.

UMEMGIVEAIBE, a town of Africa, in the kingdom of Fez.

UMENAK, an island on the W. coast of East Greenland. N. lat. $60^{\circ} 35'$. W. long. $45^{\circ} 30'$.—Also, an island on the S.W. coast of East Greenland. N. lat. $59^{\circ} 43'$. W. long. $43^{\circ} 20'$.—Also, an island near the W. coast of West Greenland. N. lat. $61^{\circ} 55'$. W. long. $48^{\circ} 25'$.

UMIAK, a river of Russia, which runs into the Viátka, 20 miles S. of Marmalsch, in the government of Kazan.

UMMA, or AMMA, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Palestine, in the tribe of Asher. Josh. xix. 30.

UMMANTZ, in *Geography*, a small island in the Baltic, near the W. coast of the island of Rugen. N. lat. $54^{\circ} 30'$. E. long. $13^{\circ} 14'$.

UMMENDORF, a town of Westphalia, in the duchy of Magdeburg; 24 miles W. of Magdeburg.

UMMERSTADT, a town of the principality of Coburg; 5 miles W. of Coburg.

UMPIRE, a third person, chosen to decide a controversy, left to an arbitration, in case the arbitrators cannot agree. See ARBITRATOR.

Minfew supposes the word formed of the French *un père, a father*. Some call him a *sur-arbitrator*.

UMPLE, in our *Statutes*, signifies fine linen. 3 Ed. IV. cap. 5. Blount.

UMREVISKOI, in *Geography*, a town of Russia, in the government of Tobolsk, on the Oby; 88 miles S.W. of Tomsk.

UMRITA, or AMRITA, the Sanscrit name of a precious elixir, that, according to Hindoo fables, confers immortality on those who quaff it. This word, and the legends connected with it, remind us strongly of the Ambrosia of Western poets. There can, indeed, be little doubt of a common derivation, or of one being borrowed from the other. In the Sanscrit language its root is traceable to *mrit*, meaning mortality: *a* being a privative particle. Immortal is, therefore, a strict translation of the compound.

With the Hindoos, as with the Greeks, the subject of this article furnishes an endless source of poetical allusion. Both people had the notion that the moon was a vase of this quintessence, which both sometimes confound with amber and ambergis. (See SOMA.) Under our article KURMAVATARA, a brief relation is given of the churning of the ocean by gods and demons for the purpose of recovering the beverage of immortality, which appears to have been lost by the iniquities of the antediluvian world. For farther information as to the fabulous origin and history of the Amrita, we refer to the notes to Wilkins's *Gita*, and the second article of the 11th vol. of the *Asiatic Researches*, by major Wilford.

When the gods shared among themselves the precious things gained in the churning process above alluded to, Indra, regent of the firmament, obtained the Umrta, hence probably the name of his city Umravati; for we find several places still similarly named: Umrapura, the metropolis of Ava (see AVA); Umrutir, or Amritsar, the capital of the Sikh nations; and others, might be instanced. Perhaps too the cave and village of Amboly, on the island of Salfette, may be hence derived. This beautiful cavern temple is fast mouldering to decay, and no good description of it has yet been given. There is also a respectable town about 40 miles S.E. from Poonah called Amravaty.

UMRUT, in *Geography*, a town of Hindooistan, in Guzerat; 18 miles E. of Pernalla.

UMSEQUIR, a town of Africa, in the desert of Barca; 20 miles E. of Siwah.

UMSTADT, a town of Hesse Darmstadt; 10 miles E. of Darmstadt.

UNA, in *Ancient Geography*, a river of Africa, in Mauritania Tingitana, the mouth of which, according to Ptolemy, is between Suriga and the outlet of the river Agna.

UNA, in *Geography*, a town of Hindooistan, in Guzerat; 20 miles S.S.E. of Chitpour.—Also, a town of Brazil, in the government of St. Paul; 50 miles S.E. of St. Paul.

UNADILLA, a post-township of America, in New York, situated in the extreme southern angle of Otsego county, 100 miles S. by W. from Albany; bounded N. by Butternuts and Otego; E. by Otego; S.E. by Susquehanna river, or the county of Delaware; and W. by the Unadilla, or the county of Chenango. Its area is supposed to be about 65 square miles. The surface is hilly and uneven, but along the streams that form the boundaries, and also some smaller ones, the land is very good and productive. The uplands and hills also afford fine grazing and meadow lands. Several small streams furnish mill-seats, which are numerous. Here are a quarry of stones used for grinding, sixteen saw-mills that prepare lumber conveyed to the Baltimore market on rafts upon the Susquehanna, five grain-mills, an oil-mill, and other water-works, and five distilleries of whiskey. Here are one episcopal church, and fourteen school-houses. In 1810, the whole population consisted of 1426 persons, with 116 senatorial electors, 341 taxable inhabitants, and 141,896 dollars of taxable property.

Unadilla Village is pleasantly situated on the Susquehanna, and contains an episcopal church and 30 dwellings, besides stores, &c.

UNALASHKA. See OONALASHKA.

UNALGA, one of the Fox islands; 15 miles S.E. of Unalaska.

UNAMAK. See OONAMAK.

UNAMIS, a tribe of Delaware Indians.

UNAMPELLE, a town of Hindooistan, in Mysore; 15 miles S.W. of Gooty.

UNANIMITY OF JURIES. See JURY.

UNANNEALED BOTTLES, or *Bologna Bottles*, a kind of unannealed glass bottles made at Bologna, and many other places, in the year 1742, which, though appearing very strong, yet are to be broken by a fragment of flint, scarce larger than a grain of sand, thrown into them. See *Annealing of GLASS*.

UNARA, in *Geography*, a river of South America, which serves for a line of division between the governments of Caraccas and Cumana. It is navigable as far as the village of San Antonia de Clarinas, six leagues from the sea. Its course extends about 30 leagues from S. to N.

UNAROTA, among the *Ancients*, a carriage with only one wheel.

UNAU, in *Zoology*, a name given by Buffon to the *BRADYPUS didactylus*; which see. See also SLOATH;

UNAWA, in *Geography*, a town of Hindooistan, in Guzerat; 12 miles S.E. of Puttan.

UNBALLAST, *To*, in *Sea Language*, is to discharge the ballast of a ship.

UNBENDING, generally implies the act of taking off the sails from their yards and stays; or casting loose the anchors from their cables, or of untying one rope from another.

UNBIAK, or SEMISOKOSCHNOI, in *Geography*, one of the Fox islands, in the North Pacific ocean, about 72 miles in circumference. N. lat. $53^{\circ} 40'$. E. long. $179^{\circ} 14'$.

UNBIT.

UNBITTING, in *Sea Language*, denotes the operation of removing the turns of a cable from off the bits.

UNCARIA, in *Botany*, so named by Schreber, from *uncus*, a hook, alluding to the hooked prickles of the stem in one species. See **NAUCLEA**.

UNCASING, among *Hunters*, the cutting up or flaying of a fox.

UNCASTILLO, in *Geography*, a town of Spain, in Aragon, on the Riguel; 12 miles N. of Exea.

UNCATA, in *Botany*, a name given by some authors to the stramonium, or thorn-apple.

UNCEASESATH, in our *Old Writers*, an obsolete word, used where one killed a thief, and made oath that he did it as he was flying for the fact, and thereupon *parentibus ipsius occisifuret unceasesath*, viz. that his kindred would not revenge his death; or they swore that there should be no contention about it.

Du-Cange derives the word from the negative particle *un* and the Saxon *ceath*; which last signifies the same with *affirmation* in the law of Scotland.

UNCERTAIN, in *the Manage*. We call a horse uncertain that is naturally restless and turbulent, and is confounded in the manage he is put to, so that he works with trouble and uncertainty.

UNCHÆ, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Asia, in Assyria, about two stages from the road of the fraits at the entrance into this province. Quintus Curtius.

UNCHASAIR, in *Geography*, a town of Hindoostan, in the subah of Delhi; 10 miles S.S.E. of Secundara.

UNCIA, a term generally used for the twelfth part of a thing. In which sense it occurs in Latin writers, both for a weight called by us an *ounce*, and a measure called an *inch*. See **OUNCE**. See also **MEASURE** and **WEIGHT**.

UNCIA, in *Zoology*, a species of *Felis*; which see. **UNCIA Terra**, or *Agri*, is a phrase frequently met with in the ancient charters of the British kings; but what the quantity of ground was is a little obscure. All that we know for certain is, that it signified a large quantity, as much as twelve modii, which modius some conjecture to have been an hundred feet square.

UNCLE, in *Algebra*, are the numbers prefixed to the letter of the members of any power produced from a binomial, residual, or multinomial root: now usually called *co-efficients*.

Thus, in the fourth power of $a + b$, that is, $a^4 a a a + 4 a a a b + 6 a a b b + 4 a b b b + b b b b$, the uncles are 4, 6, 4.

Sir Isaac Newton gives a rule for finding the uncles of any power arising from a binomial root. Thus: let the index of the power be called m , then will the uncles arise

from such a continual multiplication as this, viz. $1 \times \frac{m-0}{1}$

$\times \frac{m-1}{2} \times \frac{m-2}{3} \times \frac{m-3}{4} \times \frac{m-4}{5}$, &c. Thus, if the

uncle of the biquadrate or fourth power were required;

the rule is, $1 \times \frac{4-0}{1} (=4) \times \frac{4-1}{2} (=6) \times \frac{4-2}{3}$

$(=4) \times \frac{4-3}{4} (=1)$; which shews that the uncles are

1, 4, 6, 4, 1.

Or thus: The terms of any powers are compounded of certain little factums, with numbers, called uncles, prefixed; and the factums are found by making two geometrical progressions; the first of them beginning from

the required power of the first part of the root, and ending in unity; and the second beginning with unity, and ending in the required power of the second part; thus, for a sixth power of $a + b$;

$$\begin{array}{cccccc} a^6 & a^5 a & a^4 a^2 & a^3 a^3 & a^2 a^4 & a^6 & \text{first series.} \\ 1 & 6 & 15 & 20 & 15 & 6 & \text{second series.} \end{array}$$

And multiplying the terms of the same order in either series into one another; as $a^6 + a^5 b + a^4 b^2 + a^3 b^3 + a^2 b^4 + a b^5 + b^6$, out of which the sixth power of $a + b$ is compounded.

The uncles, then, are found by writing the exponents of the powers of the second series, i. e. of b , under the exponents of the powers of the first series, i. e. of a ; and taking the first figure of the upper series for the numerator, and the first of the lower for the denominator of a fraction, which is equal to the uncles of the second term, and so for the rest. Thus, for the sixth power, we have,

$$\begin{array}{cccccc} 6 & 5 & 4 & 3 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \end{array}$$

Accordingly, $\frac{6}{1} = 6$ is the uncles of the second term of the

sixth power; $\frac{6 \cdot 5}{1 \cdot 2} = \frac{30}{2} = 15$, the uncles of the third term;

$\frac{6 \cdot 5 \cdot 4}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3} = \frac{120}{6} = 20$, the uncles of the fourth term;

$\frac{6 \cdot 5 \cdot 4 \cdot 3}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4} = \frac{6 \cdot 5}{1 \cdot 2} = \frac{30}{2} = 15$, the uncles of the fifth term;

$\frac{6 \cdot 5 \cdot 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5} = \frac{6}{1} = 6$, the uncles of the sixth term;

$\frac{6 \cdot 5 \cdot 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5 \cdot 6} = 1$, the uncles of the last power. See

BINOMIAL Theorem.

UNCIAL, **UNCIALIS**, an epithet which antiquaries give to certain large-sized letters, or characters, anciently used in inscriptions and epitaphs.

The word is formed from the Latin *uncia*, the twelfth part of any thing, and which, in geometrical measure, signified the twelfth part of a foot, viz. an inch; which was supposed to be the thickness of the stem of one of these letters.

UNCIFORME Os, in the carpus, is the fourth bone of the second row; it has its name from the Latin *uncus*, a hook, and is composed of a body, and a hooked, or unciform, apophysis. See *Carpus*, under **EXTREMITIES**.

UNCINARIA, in *Zoology*, a genus of the Vermes Intestina, the characters of which are, that the body is filiform and elastic, obsoletely nodulous forward; with angulated membranaceous lips; the tail of the female is aciculated, and that of the male armed with two cuspidated hooks inclosed in a pellucid bladder. There are two species, one lodging in the thick intestines of the badger, and the other in those of the fox.

UNCINIA, in *Botany*, from *uncus*, a hook, because of the barbed or hooked awn, on which the generic distinction is founded.—“Perf. Syn. v. 2. 534.” Brown Prodr. Nov. Holl. v. 1. 241.—Class and order, *Monococcia Triandria*. Nat. Ord. *Calamaria*, Linn. *Cyperoidea*, Juss. *Cyperacea*, Brown.

Eff. Ch. Male, Glumes imbricated every way, single-flowered. Corolla none.

Female, in the lower part of the same spike, Glumes imbricated every way, single-flowered. Corolla of one leaf, capular,

capsular; contracted at the mouth, scarcely divided, permanent. Awn inserted into the receptacle, beneath the germen, longer than the corolla, hooked. Nut inclosed in the enlarged corolla.

Mr. Brown observes, that this genus differs from *Carex* merely in the presence of the awn, which by no means originates from the base of each scale, as described by Willdenow, Sp. Pl. v. 4. 209, and by Persoon; but from the receptacle, within the corolla, termed by Mr. Brown perianth, on the outermost side. Hence, we would remark, a new difficulty occurs respecting the true denomination of the part here called by us corolla, which we have always taken for a tunic, *arillus*; but which cannot be such, if separated from the seed by the awn, a part belonging to the flower.

1. *U. compaëa*. Br. n. 1.—“Spike oblong, dense, many-flowered. Lowest scale awned. Fruit densely imbricated, perfectly smooth. Stem smooth. Leaves flat, straight.”—Found by Mr. Brown, in Van Diemen’s island.

2. *U. riparia*. Br. n. 2.—“Spike thread-shaped, rather loose, of few flowers. Lowest scale like the rest. Fruit alternate, half-imbricated, lanceolate, ribbed, perfectly smooth. Angles of the stem rough. Leaves flat, flaccid.”—From the same country.

3. *U. australis*. Br. under n. 2? (*Carex uncinata*; Linn. Suppl. 413. Willd. Sp. Pl. v. 4. 209. See *CAREX*, n. 12.)—Spike thread-shaped, dense, many-flowered. Lowest scale leafy-pointed. Fruit lanceolate, scarcely ribbed. Stem smooth. Leaves flat. Awn twice the length of the glume.—Native of New Zealand. We presume this must be what Mr. Brown means by *U. australis*, though we can find no pubescence about the top of the fruit, which he indicates as the chief distinction between this species and the last, except its longer spike.

4. *U. phleoides*. (*Carex phleoides*; Cavan. Ic. v. 5. 40. t. 464. f. 1. C. hamata; Swartz Prodr. 18. Willd. Sp. Pl. v. 4. 209. C. uncinata *b*; Swartz Ind. Occ. 84. Schkuhr Car. 13. t. G. f. 30. See *CAREX*, n. 11, by mistake printed *humata*.)—Spike thread-shaped, elongated, dense, many-flowered. Fruit oblong, with three fringed angles. Awn thrice the length of the glume.—Native of Jamaica, Chili, and the island of Mauritius.

5. *U. erinacea*. (*Carex erinacea*; Cavan. Ic. v. 5. 40. t. 464. f. 2. Willd. Sp. Pl. v. 4. 210. See *CAREX*, n. 13.)—Spike cylindrical, dense. Fruit roundish, triangular, smooth. Awn five times the length of the glume.—Native of Chili, and Brazil near Montevideo. The spike measures about an inch and a half, being only about one-third the length of the last, though full as thick as in that species.

6. *U. tenella*. Br. n. 3.—“Spike thread-shaped, of few flowers. Scales uniform, deciduous. Fruit somewhat imbricated, lanceolate, smooth. Stem slender, with smooth angles. Leaves flaccid, nearly bristle-shaped.”—Gathered by Mr. Brown, in the island of Van Diemen.

UNCINUS, in *Surgery*, the name of a small hooked instrument, serving for many purposes.

UNCHEL, in *Geography*, a town of Germany, on the right bank of the Rhine; 2 miles N. of Lintz.

UNCORE, or UNQUES *Prisb, still ready*, in *Law*, a plea for the defendant, being sued for a debt due on a bond at a day past, to save the forfeiture of his bond, &c. by affirming that he tendered the debt at the time and place, and that there was none to receive it; and that he is yet also ready to pay the same.

UNCTION, UNCTIO, the act of anointing, or rubbing with oil, or other fatty matter.

Mercurial unction, properly applied, brings on a salivation. The furgeons cure divers wounds, ulcers, &c. by repeated unctions, with oils, unguents, cerates, &c.

UNCTION, in *Matters of Religion*, is used for the character conferred on sacred things by anointing them with oil.

Anciently in the eastern countries, which abounded so much in oil and odoriferous spices, it was the custom to separate persons and things designed for extraordinary offices or uses, by anointing them with ointments composed of such ingredients; symbolizing thereby, both an effusion of the necessary gifts to qualify them for their office, and a diffusion of the good and grateful effects expected from them.

There were three sorts of persons to whom this unction, or consecration, especially belonged, kings, priests, and prophets; who, therefore, are all of them (says Barrow) styled in scripture the *Lord’s anointed*.

The unction of kings is supposed to be a ceremony introduced very late among Christian princes: Onuphrius says, none of the emperors were ever anointed before Justinian, or Justin. The emperors of Germany took up the practice from those of the eastern empire. King Pepin of France was the first king who received the unction.

Unction, although we have no scripture warrant for it, is one of those rites that succeeded baptism in the ancient church. Of unction, or chrismation, Tertullian (*De Baptismo*.) says, “as soon as we are baptized, we are anointed with the blessed unction,—an external unction is poured upon us, but it is spiritually profitable.” And Cyprian also says (*Epist. 70. § 3.*), “he that is baptized must of necessity be anointed, that having received the chrism or unction, he may be the anointed of God, and have in him the grace of Christ.” Under this chrismation was comprehended signation, or the signing of the baptized person with the sign of the cross, which the minister performed with this ointment or chrism. See Tertullian, *de Resurrect. Carnis*, and Cyprian, *de Unct. Eccles. § 16*. To signification succeeded imposition of hands, or that which is now termed *confirmation*; which see. The ceremony of unction was derived from the Jewish rites, and was employed in the installment of the high priest, to denote his sacerdotal consecration to the service of God. The unction of Christ by God the father, in consequence of which he was called Christ, or anointed, was urged as a plea for this carnal and external unction by Tertullian, *ubi supra*.

In the Romish church, besides an unction at baptism, on the forehead, and at confirmation, on the head (see *CHRISM*.) they have an *extreme* unction, given to people in the pangs of death, on the parts where the five senses reside, being the parts by which the person is supposed to have sinned.

The first mention that is made of this ceremony is by pope Innocent I. Sacred oil, indeed, was held in great veneration so early as the fourth century, and esteemed as an universal remedy; for which purpose it was either prepared and dispensed by priests and monks, or was taken from the lamps which were kept burning before the relics of the martyrs. But in none of the lives of the saints before the ninth century is there any mention made of their receiving extreme unction, though their deaths are sometimes particularly related, and their receiving the eucharist is often mentioned. But from the seventh century to the twelfth, they began to use this anointing of the sick, and a peculiar office was made for it; but the prayer that was used in it plainly shews that it was with a view to their recovery, for which purpose it is still used in the Greek church. But because it failed too often, that the credit of

this rite was in danger of suffering much in the esteem of the world, they began, in the tenth century, to say that it did good to the soul, even when the body was no better for it; and then they applied it to the several parts of the body, after having originally applied it to the diseased parts only. In this manner was the rite performed in the eleventh century. In the twelfth, the prayers that had been made before for the soul of the sick person, though only as a part of the office (the pardon of sin being supposed to be preparatory to their recovery) came to be considered as the most essential part of it. After this the schoolmen brought it into shape, and then it was decreed to be a sacrament by pope Eugenius; and it was finally established at the council of Trent. Burnet on the Articles, p. 268. See *EXTREAM UNCTION*.

UNCTORES, among the Romans, servants whose employment it was to anoint their master when he batedh.

UNCTUARIUM, a room in the ancient baths; where people were anointed before they went away.

UNCUS, among the Romans, an instrument used in torturing criminals. It was a kind of club, bent and inclined to one side.

UNCUTH, *Unknown*, is used in the ancient Saxon laws, for him that comes to an inn, guest-wife, and lies there but one night. In which case, his host was not bound to answer for any offence he committed, of which he was guiltless himself.

"Prima nocte potest dici uncuth; secunda vero, guest; tertia nocte hogenhine." Bracton, lib. iii. See *THIRD night awn bynd*.

UNDALUS, in *Ancient Geography*, a town, according to Strabo, of Gallia Narbonensis, at the place where the river Selge (*Sorgue*) discharges itself into the Rhône. Livy calls it Vindalium, which probably is the true name, and Undalus a corruption.

UNDE, **UNDEE**, or *Undy*, in *Heraldry*. See **WAVED**. **UNDE nihil habet**, in *Law*, a writ of dower. See **DOVE unde nihil habet**.

UNDEARCORE, in *Geography*, a town of Hindoostan, in the circle of Ruttunpour; 40 miles S.W. of Ruttunpour.

UNDECAGON, is a regular polygon of eleven sides.

UNDECIMVIR, a magistrate among the ancient Athenians, who had ten other colleagues, or associates, joined with him in the same commission.

The functions of the undecimviri at Athens were much the same as those of the prévôts de marche in France. They took care of the apprehending of criminals; secured them in the hands of justice; and when they were condemned, took them again into custody, that the sentence might be executed on them.

They were chosen by the tribes, each tribe naming its own; and as the number of tribes, after Callithenes, was but ten, which made ten members, a scribe or notary was added, which made the number eleven.—Whence their name, *α undeca*, or *undecimviri*, as Cornelius Nepos calls them in the life of Phocion. In Julius Pollux they are denominated *εκατονταρχοι*, and *νομοφυλακες*. See **NOMOPHYLACES**.

UNDENAS, in *Geography*, a town of Sweden, in West Gothland; 81 miles E.N.E. of Uddevalla.

UNDER the Sea, in the *Sea Language*. A ship is said to be so, when the lies still, or waits for some other ships, with her helm lashed, or tied up a-lee. See **LYING under the Sea**.

UNDER-CHAMBERLAINS, or *Deputy-Chamberlains* of the *Exchequer*, officers there, who cleave the tallies, and read the same; so that the clerk of the pell, and the comptrollers of it, may fee that the entries are true.

They also make searches for all records in the treasury, and have the custody of Domesday-book.

UNDER-CURRENT. See **UNDER-CURRENTS**.

UNDERDENGARDE, in *Geography*, a town of Hindoostan, in Coimbatore; 40 miles W. of Ardenelli.

UNDER-DITCHING, in *Agriculture*, a term applied in some districts, as that of the county of Essex, to such ditches as are formed for the purpose of taking away the surface wetness of land. In some places it is called land-ditching by the farmers. It is said to be one of the most beneficial and permanent modes of improving land that is not commonly known. It is much practised in different parts of the above county, and with perfect success, there being no sort of husbandry from which the land derives greater advantage. So that it is not unusual for the farmer to extend the practice over almost the whole of his land, in this district. Where this practice is intended, it is first to be considered, whether the soil be sufficiently open and porous for receiving a benefit adequate to the expence of performing it, as in very strong land this sort of ditching is not found to answer. However, in cases where the wetness can sink in a ready manner to eighteen or twenty inches in the land, the farmer may safely draw a furrow from the highest to the lowest part of the field, then dig out a spit of earth below, and again with a tool three inches wide, contrived for the purpose, work fourteen or fifteen inches deeper, and with the bent scraper, for this use, take out all the loose earth at the bottom; thus making a narrow channel along the centre of the furrow, leaving sufficient support on each side to keep up the materials used in filling, and prevent the replaced earth from falling into the narrow opening left for taking off the wetness. This sort of ditching is done at different distances and depths, as there may be a necessity for them, and as the nature of the soil through which the wetness has to pass into them may be, making them so as to empty themselves into deep ditches at the bottoms of the fields; or where the fields are large, forming one or more leading ditches sufficiently large to receive the wetness from several of the smaller ones, which are so contrived as to fall into them. In order to make these ditches of the most permanent use, they should be cut perfectly straight, and the passage for the wetness be made of an equal depth throughout, otherwise it will be stopped in the lowest parts, and occasion the sides to fall in and choke up the ditch. In case the soil be adapted to it, this sort of work will last twenty years, but where there are squalls, with sand or drift gravel, the passages are liable to choke in a short time. The ploughs, carts, waggons, and other carriages, go over these ditches without injuring them in the least; and in park grounds, and old pastures, it is not uncommon merely to turn the sod over the water-channel, without using any other materials; and the ditches are seen to work, or *draw*, as it is termed, as well after running thirty years, as they did at first. The improved appearance and better state of the land are particularly evident after this method of ditching has been had recourse to, and sufficiently prove its utility and importance in different cases. The practice is more fully explained in the second volume of the Essex Report on Agriculture. See this work, and **SURFACE-Drain**. See also **SURFACE-Draining**.

UNDER-DRAIN and **DRAINING**, terms sometimes employed to signify that sort of drain, or opening and draining, which is cut and made to some considerable depth in the earth or soil, and calculated to convey and carry off internal water and wetness, or that proceeding from springs, in contradistinction to that of surface-drain and draining.

'See *SPRING-Drain* and *SPRING-Draining*. See also *DRAINING of Land*.

UNDER-FURROW, a term used to signify any sort of operation or thing that is done under the furrow-slice of the plough which is just turned down or over, such, for instance, as the putting in certain kinds of grain, seeds, or other crops, in particular circumstances and sorts of soil or land, the turning in particular sorts of manure, green crops and other things, and many other processes of a similar nature.

UNDER-FURROW Sowing, a term applied to that mode of introducing the seed into the ground, which is performed by depositing it in the bottom of the preceding furrow of the plough, and turning the next furrow-slice upon it.

In all cases of under-furrow sowing, however, great care is to be taken that the seed be not deposited to too great a depth in the soil, so as by excluding it from the action of the oxygenic principle of the air, to prevent or retard its germination and early growth, and thereby incur the risk of its rotting and being destroyed. The depth of three or four inches, as the nature of the land may be, is, for the most part, fully sufficient for this sort of sowing. See the next article.

UNDER-FURROW Sowing-Plough, that sort of plough, tool, or machine, which is particularly contrived for this manner of putting seed into the ground. An implement of this kind was not long ago invented with seven shares, so set at suitable distances, as to correctly execute the work in that number of furrows at the same time. It is constructed with a roller somewhat on the same principle, and in the same manner, as the sowing roller; which is supposed to be an admirable mode of communicating motion in such sorts of machinery. See *SOWING-Roller*.

A plough of this nature has still more lately been invented and constructed, which is said to be simple and convenient, and to answer well in practice, but of the particular nature of its construction, or the manner of its operating in performing the work, we are not informed.

A tool of this sort, which would execute the business with sufficient accuracy, expedition, and exactness, would be a matter of great utility and importance to the farmer, and prevent much injury and inconvenience in different respects.

UNDERGROWTH, in *Rural Economy*, a term applied to any sort of young wood of the small or brush kind, which grows under any kind of trees, or tall plants of the wood sort. It is a description of wood which is constantly cut down, in what may be said to be the season or stage of youth, sooner or later, as the nature of the sort, and the purpose for which it is raised, may be. See *UNDERWOOD*.

UNDERHILL, in *Geography*, a town of America, in the state of Vermont, and county of Chittenden, containing 490 inhabitants; 24 miles N.N.E. of Newhaven.

UNDER-LEAF APPLE-TREE, a sort of apple-tree which is valuable, as producing good fruit for the purpose of cyder. It is said to be an excellent bearer, and in which the inside of the tree is mostly full of fruit. Some, however, think that the cyder afforded by it, though pleasant, is inclined to be rather thin and weak. A good tree of this sort is asserted to often carry twenty seam of apples. It is common in the apple-grounds of Gloucestershire.

UNDERLETTING LAND, in *Agriculture*, the practice of reletting lands or farms, or the letting of them again by the tenants. It is a matter of much importance to the public, and to the advancement of husbandry, that tenants should have the power of underletting or assigning the farms

they may hold, in different circumstances and situations. And it has been remarked, in a late periodical work on farming, that, by the law of England, leases are not only assignable, but the proprietor of the land or farm must, on the assignment of the lease, declare his election, whether he inclines to hold the original lessee bound for his rent, or trusts to the assignee, as he cannot have both; and that, on the whole, a lease, whether granted for a long or a short term of years, seems to be held there under as ample powers as the proprietor could have possessed the ground himself by, for the period it has to run. But that in Scotland, from the present interpretation of the laws, by the decisions of the court of session, a lease or tack of lands there does not imply a power either to assign, or even to underlet or sublet; although, in the latter case, both the principal lessee and subtenant were always understood to be bound for the rent to the landlord.

It may be noticed, it is said, that these leases or tacks, in general, are, by the commentaries of their lawyers, considered as unassignable, from their being supposed to imply an election or choice of the person of the tenant by the landlord; yet it is admitted, that a life-rent lease or tack is assignable, which surely, it is thought, implies more of such election or choice than any other. That all leases or tacks, too, that are to subsist for a great length of time, are also assignable, as well as sublettable; but that, rather unfortunately, the length of insurance that is necessary for conferring this privilege has not been legally fixed. By a late decision, in one case, it was found, it is said, that a power of subletting was implied in a lease of thirty-eight years. With due submission to the opinions of others, however, there seems, it is contended, to be no solid ground for any distinction, in judging a lease or tack assignable or unassignable, as derived from the length of its duration merely. It is said in addition likewise, that, by the feudal law, this right of election or choice was carried so far, that even an heir was not permitted to enjoy the lease or tack of his father, unless it was so expressed in the lease-deed. What an obstacle was this to the improvement of the soil! And it is asked, does not the exclusion of assignees, in leases or tacks, still remain an obstacle of the same nature? What an incentive, on the other hand, would it be to industry, if a tenant, who had successfully improved one farm, had it in his power to assign his lease or tack, and remove to another, to a new and wider field for exercising his talents! Nor does there seem, it is said, to be any sound reason why a tenant, who now-a-days generally buys his lease or tack, as the highest bidder, at a public or private sale, should not have it in his power to sell it again, to avoid loss, or obtain profit, to any person able to pay the rent, as freely as a proprietor of lands sells his property, when he finds it does not suit his views. This plan, it is thought, would be much more reasonable, than that the law should force a tenant to remain in a farm he cannot manage, until he is utterly ruined; as is but too often the case. And that, moreover, if a tenant does become bankrupt, it is hardly to be expected that an adjudger, who enters to his farm from necessity, and is accountable as a factor, will do any thing for the improvement of it: for it is held as law, that a lease or tack, which bears no power to assign, may yet be adjudged by a creditor of the tenant. Expediency may, therefore, in every view, be strongly urged in favour of a more unlimited power in assigning leases or tacks in that part of the country.

The notion of the right of election, or choice of the tenant by the landlord, seems, it is thought, to have arisen from circumstances of a temporary nature, which are now no longer of any consequence: from the rudeness of the

age, landlords then relying more on the fidelity of their tenants and retainers than on the protection of the laws, from the municipal regulations of the country, which rendered proprietors of the land responsible for the conduct of those who resided upon their estates; and also from the nature of the *prestations* then exigible from tenants, which, consisting almost entirely of personal services, brought them nearer the state of menial servants than that of modern farmers. Hence it was, it is said, that a lease, during these periods, was considered as a contract *stricti juris*. If given to a woman, it fell by her subsequent marriage; if to a man, it became void by his death. It was alike incapable of voluntary, as of judicial transmutation. But, for more than a century past, this contract having been treated by the legislature, and wisely enforced by the judges there, in conformity to the sense of the country, has, it is asserted, regained much of its original nature. It is no longer the personal services of the tenant, or his peculiar qualifications, but the rent in money which he can afford to pay, which a landlord has in view. Accordingly, the court of session there has found, that the principle of law, regarding leases or tacks not bearing to assignees, being unassignable without the consent of the heritor, does not apply to urban tenements, and made decisions in conformity to it. And that as to sub-tacks or leases, it has been observed, that there was not the same reason against sustaining them as against sustaining assignations; because, by a sublet or underletting there, the principal tenant or tackman is not changed. On that principle, the power of granting them seems to have been ever, until of late, recognised as implied in a lease, by the law of Scotland, as it was by that of the Roman. This power was, however, questioned in the years 1686 and 1687. The first case was that of a lease or tack of nineteen years let to a person, excluding his assignees. It was contended, that the exclusion of assignees implied the exclusion of subtenants, or underletting; but the court of session there decided that the lease or tack might be sublet. And it adhered to the same judgment, in a similar case, decided in the following year.

It may be noticed, that this implied power in leases or tacks, of subletting or underletting, appears to have been understood to be a settled principle of law there until lately; and that that material point of public policy was not altered by any act of the legislature, but by a decision of the above court. It was first considered on general grounds, it is said, in the case of a millive of a lease or tack, to endure nineteen years, which made no mention of assignees or subtenants, and was found by it neither capable of being assigned or sublet. And there have since been several decisions to the same purpose; but that as none of them have probably yet been appealed, and received the judgment of the house of peers, until then it may be understood that the law is as interpreted in the above cases.

Upon the whole, it can hardly be doubted that it would be more conducive to the improvement of the country, and its agriculture, if all restrictions against assigning and subletting or underletting were abolished and done away with, than that the free disposal of property of the farm kind should receive, by implication, additional fetters. The necessity and utility of this must indeed be evident in a great many different points of consideration. See FARM, LEASE, and TACK.

UNDER-LOCKS, in *Sheep Husbandry*, the locks of soiled wool which hang under the bellies of the sheep, especially about their udders and tails. The operation of removing such locks is termed under-locking in most sheep districts. See SHEEP.

UNDERMINING. See SAP.

UNDER-RUN, *To*, in *Sea Language*, is to pass under, or examine any part of a cable or other rope, in order to discover whether it is damaged or entangled. It is usual to under-run the cables in particular harbours, as well to cleanse them with brooms and brushes from any filth, ooze, shells, &c. collected in the stream, as to examine whether they have sustained any injury under the surface of the water; as from rocky ground, or by the friction against other cables or anchors.

UNDER-RUN a Tackle, *To*, is to separate the several parts of which it is composed, and range them in order, from one block to the other; so that the general effort may not be interrupted, when it is put in motion. Falconer.

UNDER-SAIL, denotes the state of a ship when she is loosened from her moorings, and under the government of her sails and rudder.

UNDER-SHERIFF, *Sub-vice-comes*. See SHERIFF.

UNDER-SHOOT and SPROUT, in *Agriculture* and *Gardening*, that sort of shoot or sprout which rises from the under-part of a tree or vegetable of any kind. The under-shoots of trees and shrubs are often liable to be weak, and to want vigour, unless they are kept well thinned in their branches, and, of course, to be injurious and unsightly in the growth of the plants. But in some field and culinary vegetables, under-sprouts frequently form a sweet, tender, and useful food. See SHOOT and SPROUT.

UNDER-SHRUB. See SUFFRUTEX.

UNDER-SITTER, an inmate. See INMATES.

UNDERSTANDING, INTELECTUS, is defined, by the Peripatetics, to be a faculty of the reasonable soul, conversant about intelligible things, considered as intelligible. They also make it twofold; *viz.* *active* and *passive*.

UNDERSTANDING, *Active*, *Intellectus Agens*, they hold that faculty of the soul, by which the species and images of intelligible things are framed, on occasion of the presence of phantasms or appearances thereof. For, maintaining the intellect to be immaterial, they hold it impossible it should be disposed to think by any disproportionate phantasms of mere body; and, therefore, that it is obliged to frame other proportionate species of itself; and hence its denomination *active*.

UNDERSTANDING, *Passive*, *Intellectus Patiens*, is that which, receiving the species framed by the active understanding, breaks forth into actual knowledge.

The moderns set aside the Peripatetic notion of an active understanding. The Cartesians define the understanding to be that faculty, by which the mind, conversing with, and, as it were, intent on itself, evidently knows what is true in any thing not exceeding its capacity.

The Corpuscular philosophers define the understanding to be a faculty, expressive of things which strike on the external senses, either by their images, or their effects, and so enter the mind. Their great doctrine is, *Nihil esse intellectus, quod non prius fuerit in sensu*; and to this doctrine our famous Mr. Locke, and most of the latest English philosophers, subscribe.

The Cartesians exclaim much against it; and between these and the Corpuscularians there is this farther difference, that the latter make the judgment to belong to the understanding; but the former to the will.

Hence, according to the most approved opinion of the Corpuscularians, the understanding has two offices, *viz.* *perception* and *judgment*; according to the Cartesians, it has only one, *viz.* *perception*.

UNDERSTANDING is also used for the act, exercise, or exertion,

exertion, of this faculty ; or the action by which the mind knows things, or represents them in idea to itself.

UNDERSTRATUM, in *Agriculture*, a term signifying much the same as subsoil and substratum. It is the bed or layer of some sort of material, upon which the surface or upper soil or mould rests, or is placed. It is of much use in many cases of land to have an open understratum. See **SOIL**.

UNDERTAKERS were anciently such persons as were employed by the king's purveyors, and acted as their deputies.

At present, the name is chiefly used for *upholders*, or persons who furnish out funerals; and also for such as undertake any great work, as the draining of fens, &c. Stat. 43 Eliz.

UNDER-TREASURER of England, *Vice-the-saurarius Angliæ*, an officer mentioned in stat. 39 Eliz. c. 7. and whom several other statutes confound with treasurer of the Exchequer.

He chested up the king's treasure at the end of every term, and noted the content of money in each chest, and saw it carried to the king's treasury in the Tower, for the ease of the lord treasurer, &c.

In the vacancy of the lord treasurer's office, he also did every thing in the receipt, that the lord treasurer himself does. See **TREASURER**.

UNDERWALDEN, or **UNTERWALDEN**, in *Geography*, a canton of Switzerland, bounded on the north by Lucern and Walldtatter lake, on the east by mountains which separate it from Uri, on the south by Bern, and on the west by Lucern. It measures about eight leagues each way, and is divided into two valleys, Upper and Lower, by a forest called "Kernwald," which crosses the canton from north to south. These valleys are called in German "Unterwald ob dem Wald," and "Unterwald nid dem Wald;" that is, "Underwald over the Forest," and "Underwald under the Forest." Each of them forms a separate regency. The canton itself is small, but abounds in fruit and cattle. The mountains are covered with rich pastures, and the fields in the fertile valleys, in one year, yield several advantages: for in spring time, when the snow is off the ground, they are full of cattle; afterwards, the cattle being driven up the Alps, the herbage shoots again in such a manner as often to be mowed twice in the summer; and in autumn, the cattle, on their return from the Alps, meet again with plenty of fodder in them, till the snow sets in a-new. All the lower parts of the country produce an exuberance of very fine fruits; and with wood this canton is so well provided, that without any detriment to it, several spots might be allotted and improved into meadow or arable land. Of wheat it has little or none, and grows no wine. The Underwalders are universally Roman Catholics, and have ever enjoyed the like liberties with the people of Uri and Schweiz. In conjunction also with them, in the year 1308, they shook off the Austrian yoke. Arnold de Melchalt, a native of this canton, was one of the four heroes who first reared the standard of Swiss liberty; and in 1315, they entered into a perpetual alliance with the said states. At the conclusion of the war with Charles the Bold, Friburgh and Soleure having contracted an alliance with Zurich, Bern, and Lucern, the treaty was considered by Uri, Schweiz, Underwalden, Zug, and Glarus, as a breach of the former union. After various disputes and fruitless conferences, the deputies of the eight confederate cantons assembled, in 1481, at Stantz, in order to compromise the differences. When the deputies failed to effect a reconciliation, and a civil war appeared to be inevitable, Nicholas de Flue, a celebrated saint and

patriot, born at Sæxelon in 1417, quitted the hermitage to which, in his 50th year, he had retired, and in his 64th year, after having travelled during the night, arrived at Stantz just at the moment when the deputies were departing. The conference was renewed by his persuasion, and all differences were adjusted. Among the confederate body, they are reckoned the sixth; but among the six landern or lesser cantons, the third. The government of this canton is purely democratical, the landesgemeind being the depositary of the whole supreme power, and in which all males above sixteen have a right of admittance. As the country, however, consists of two vales, *viz.* Oberwald and Underwald, each of them forming a separate republic, so they have both their own particular landesgemeind and officers; but in the general affairs of the thirteen cantons they form only one. Of all the people of Switzerland, those of Underwald are the most honoured and most loved by the other cantons; their courage and love of liberty being joined by a strict concord, and an amiable simplicity of manners. In the late contest with the French, the inhabitants of Schweiz and Underwalden manifested a noble spirit, and an ardent desire of independence; and at length submitted with great reluctance. (See **SCHWEITZ**). *Sarne* or *Sarnen* (which see) is the capital burgh of the Upper Vale, or Oberwalden; and here the land-rath, as supreme court of judicature, assembles, for the purpose of deciding civil and criminal processes. This tribunal is composed of fifty-eight judges, chosen by the people, and continued in office for life. Stantz or *Stanz* (which see) is the capital of the Lower Vale, or Underwalden, and is the seat of civil and criminal judicature; and it is worthy of notice, that every male, of the age of thirty years, is permitted to give his vote for the acquittance or condemnation of a criminal. This town is situated in a beautiful plain of pasture, about two or three miles in breadth, at the foot of the Stantzberg, and at a little distance from the lake of Lucern. The town and environs, which are delightfully sprinkled with cottages, are extremely populous, containing perhaps not less than 5000 persons.

UNDERWICK, a town of Sweden, in Helplingland; 30 miles W.S.W. of Hudwicksfall.

UNDERWOOD, in *Rural Economy* and *Planting*, a term applied to small coppice, or any sort of low wood that is not accounted timber. It is mostly used for that which rises and grows under some sort of wood of the tree kind, and which is capable of being used for a great variety of little purposes, such as hoops, faggots, and many others, as will be seen below.

In Suffex, where wood is well known to grow remarkably well, the mode of managing the underwoods is, according to the Corrected Report on Agriculture for that county, to cut them at from eleven or twelve to fifteen or sixteen years' growth; as, upon favourable well-growing soils, from eleven to thirteen; and upon poor grounds, on which wood rises more imperfectly, from fifteen to eighteen. But as the age of cutting materially depends upon the qualities of the soil, and the application of the crop or produce, no fixed rule can evidently be laid down, other than the above stated general one. The underwoods of some, as those of the earl of Egremont, are cut at from twelve to sixteen years of age, in cases where the growth consists of oak, beech, alder, and willow: the underwood is then, it is said, the most valuable part of the conversion, except in the vicinity of hop-plantations, where the poles afford a much better price; but in the cases where the underwoods abound with birch, ash, hazel, and willow, of which hoops are usually made, at from ten to twelve years of age. Newly planted

UNDERWOOD.

planted grounds are always earlier cut; the shoots are more rapid and strong.

It is noticed as worthy of remark and deserving of attention, that underwoods, at twelve or thirteen years' growth, are as valuable upon some soils, as they would be, if cut down or over at a later age, especially if they are advantageously planted in the neighbourhood of hop-grounds; as poles of that age and size are equally as good, and answer all the purposes of larger: as when underwood has exceeded the size of poles, its utility, it is said, is there not otherwise essentially serviceable than as it is valuable for fuel. The younger, therefore, it is cut there, if fit for the market, the more productive it will turn out, and the sooner the succeeding crop will be ready for sale; for when underwoods are left too long before they are cut, besides growing slower, the interest of the money is lost for which they might have been sold. The under or small wood upon the most growing soils, as the difference that exists is considerable in this respect, is worth from eight to ten or eleven pounds the acre; but that to gain such a product, the land, it is observed, must be exceedingly kindly for the growth of wood.

The beech underwoods of the county of Oxford mostly consist of trees or plants growing on their own stems, produced by the falling of the beech mast; as very little is there permitted to grow on the old stools, which are commonly grubbed up. They are occasionally drawn out, but never felled all at one time, except in particular instances of converting the land into tillage, which is lately become more common. The beech underwood drawn in this manner is mostly either sold in long lengths, called poles, or, when cut short in billet lengths, for fuel. It requires considerable judgment, it is said, to thin these underwoods in such a way that the present stock may not hang too much over the young seedlings; at the same time, too, in a southern aspect, an injury may take place, by exposing the soil or surface of the land too much to the sun: for it is to be observed, that the north side of a hill will produce a better growth of beech than the south side; the very reverse of which is the case in regard to corn. In beech underwoods also, the succession of young trees is greatly injured by admitting sheep or other cattle into them; and though it is supposed by some, that sheep do no damage in winter, when the leaf is off, but find considerable feed from the grass and other plants abounding in such underwoods, yet it is the opinion of others, that the wool which is left hanging on the young stocks is prejudicial to their growth, allowing, what is doubtful, that the sheep do not crop them. Some improvement might probably be produced by keeping better fences, especially against commons, where a wide ditch is often an essential part of the mound; and also by transplanting the young beech from those parts of an underwood where they are too thick, so as that they would be destroyed, by the strongest overpowering the weakest, to those places where they may not stand sufficiently thick, there being mostly spots of both these sorts to be found in all underwoods of this kind.

In Cornwall and some other southern counties, the underwoods are mostly of the common oak, and are usually cut at from twenty to thirty years' growth, felling at from twenty to sixty pounds the acre, the chief profit depending upon the bark. Some of the wood is converted into poles, for farm and other purposes; but the greatest part is commonly charred, for the use of the blowing-houses, and domestic purposes; the brushwood being sold for fuel. Such are the advantages of this sort of wood for different uses in these places, that instances of the grubbing up of under-

woods are very rare. In the felling of underwoods, in these situations, a great advantage has lately been found, in more attention being paid to the reparation of saplings as standards, than was formerly the case. The land producing underwood of this kind, in these districts, is found to be more valuable than that in the state of tillage, in many cases.

In some of the more northern counties, much advantage is derived, in different cases, from underwoods of the ash kind, when cut at about fourteen years' growth, for various uses.

It may be noticed that underwoods, in many situations, are greatly neglected, and managed in a very indifferent manner; but they require a good deal of attention in different respects, to have them in good perfection; and it is necessary, in many cases, to grub up the old decayed stubs at every time of felling the wood, when fresh plants will come forth of the different kinds, before the next felling, which will keep the underwood in a perfect and proper state of cultivation and growth.

The proper soils for the growth of underwood must necessarily vary with the nature of the plants; but for the oak and ash, those of a rather strong stiff quality are found the most suitable. In Sussex, the former rises with astonishing rapidity in a sort of red clay. The chestnut, hazel, and some others, require a more light and free soil; and the willow, one that inclines to moisture. But they all allow of considerable variety in the qualities of the soils on which they grow.

Underwoods in many cases rise naturally from the stubs and seeds of the old wood, and they are formed and planted in different ways, according to circumstances, and the nature of the plants. For raising chestnut underwood, which is the best and most lasting wood for stakes, hop-poles, and some other uses, Mr. Forsyth advises the following method as the most advantageous. To prepare the land well by ploughing or trenching, and summer-fallowing, planting the young trees in the quincunx order, in rows six feet apart, and at the distance of six feet from plant to plant in the rows. In forming large extents of such underwoods, it is the most expeditious way to plant after the plough, treading the mould firmly about the roots of the plants. Basins should be formed round the plants on the surface, in order to mulch them, in case the first summer season after putting them in be dry. It may save time, too, to put the plants in loosely at first, in order to keep up with the plough, returning afterwards to tread the earth about them, and form the basins for mulching. When the trees are become fit for poles, every other one is to be cut down nearly close to the ground, throughout the whole, constantly cutting them in a sloping manner, and as near to an eye or bud as may be. Those intended to stand should be left in every other row, which will leave them twelve feet apart every way: if the soil be, however, rich and deep, they may be left twenty-four feet apart. As in many counties, particularly Hertfordshire, the underwood is more valuable than the other; in that case it will be most judicious, it is said, to leave but few standards; in the meantime the underwood will amply repay the expence of planting and other things, as well as the rent of the ground, while at the same time a sufficient produce of timber-trees is had upon the land. In the county of Kent, it is remarked, they commonly plant out chestnuts and ash for hop-poles at three years old, and cut them fourteen years afterwards, which makes in all seventeen years before they are fit to cut; and they bring from one guinea and a half to two guineas the hundred; but if they were raised from large stools, it is
said,

said, properly cut and prepared, they would be fit for cutting in less than one-third of that time; and consequently the value of the land be tripled.

In Suffex, it is remarked, that in the newly planted underwoods of the first cuttings, which are made at seven or eight years' growth, the profit is little or nothing: that in the second it is still inconsiderable; so that for fourteen or sixteen years the return from young planted underwoods is but trifling, which is not very encouraging to the planter of such wood: the third is the most profitable cutting, as the underwood has now reached its ultimate perfection: the fourth often equals the third; but after this the underwood advances no more. The effect of the young standard-trees is now visibly apparent to the prejudice of the underwood, which in sixty years, if the trees be left to stand so long, it is said, is destroyed.

The application and uses to which underwood is converted in the above, and some other districts, are various; as poles for hop-grounds, bays, spray-faggots for lime-kilns, cord-wood for coaling, and hoops for the use of the coopers, besides affording large supplies of wood for fuel and other purposes of that kind. Ash is supposed, of all the various species of underwood, with the exception perhaps of alder, to be the most profitable; the smallest pieces being of use in some shape or other, and suited to a greater number of purposes than most other sorts. But the point of view in which this sort of wood is considered as so particularly valuable, is the use to which the shivers convert it in quattering it into middlings, long and short hoops, as its value in these ways is perfectly well known. Birch is rapid in its growth, and pays well on poor moist soils; but on all soils, where the alder is in plenty, as it forms the best charcoal for the gunpowder-makers, it is the most valuable underwood, being converted to patten poles and powder-wood. Cutting of the former is paid two shillings for the hundred in the above county; they measure in common from three-fourths to a foot each, and fell for five-pence the foot. The cutting and stripping of the powder-wood are mostly three shillings and sixpence the load, which is sold for twenty-four shillings.

The value of underwoods, as in the case of most other products, has increased here, as well as in most other places, considerably in their price of late years. In some parts they have doubled their value in twenty years. Various new demands for them have been created; so that some think underwood lands are the most profitable of any whatever. See Woods.

UNDERWOOD, *Stealing of*. See LARCENY.

UNDERWRITERS are persons who subscribe their names to policies of insurance, and become answerable for the sums annexed, in case of loss or damage of the ship, goods, &c. thus insured by them to the owner.

Serjeant Marshall observes, that there are many reasons why an agent or broker ought not to be an insurer. He becomes too much interested to settle with fairness the rate of premium, the amount of partial losses, &c. And though he should not, himself, create any unnecessary delay or obstacle to the payment of a loss, he will not be over anxious to remove the doubts of others. Besides, he ought not, by underwriting the policy, to deprive the parties of his unbiassed testimony, in case of dispute. For though there may be no legal objection to his competency, as a witness for the other underwriters, it is impossible that his credit should be altogether free from suspicion. The principal, in short, can never place any reliance in one who makes himself an adverse party, and who is, at the same time, above all others, in a capacity to abuse his confidence.

It has been determined in general, that an underwriter cannot be a witness in an action on a policy; but if the broker, who effects a policy, subscribe it himself, after the other underwriters have subscribed it, he may be a witness for the other underwriters, if they release him from all contribution for costs, though an action be depending against him, and he has joined in a bill of equity against the insured, for a discovery. Marshall on the Law of Insurance.

UNDETERMINED, in *Mathematics*, is sometimes used for indeterminate.

UNDIMIA, in *Surgery*, the name of a kind of cedematous tumour, the matter contained in which is glutinous and ropy, like the white of an egg.

UNDIVIDED, in *Botany*, applied to leaves, or other parts of a plant, means that they are not lobed, cloven, or branched, this term having no reference to the margin of a leaf, which, when destitute of all notches or indentations, is called entire, *integerrimus*; the leaf itself being either undivided or lobed, as it may happen. The earlier translators of Linnaeus, such as Mr. Rose, rendered *folia integra*, by entire, and *folia integerrima*, by very entire; which, though correct in language, is not the true meaning, the former being synonymous with *undivided*, and the latter regarding the margin only.

UNDRET, in *Geography*, a town of Baglana; 45 miles S. of Tolnani.

UNDULAGO, in *Natural History*, a name given by Mr. Lhuys to a species of fungites found fossil, and usually of a sort of undulated figure. See FUNGITE.

UNDULATED LEAF, among *Botanists*. See LEAF.

UNDULATION, in *Acoustics*, *Mechanics*, *Optics*, &c. is nearly synonymous with *Vibration*; which see.

Dr. Young, in the illustration and establishment of his theory of light and colours, uses the term undulation in preference to vibration; because vibration is generally understood as implying a motion which is continued alternately backwards and forwards, by a combination of the momentum of the body with an accelerating force, and which is naturally more or less permanent; but an undulation is supposed to consist in a vibratory motion, transmitted successively through different parts of a medium, without any tendency in each particle to continue its motion, except in consequence of the transmission of succeeding undulations, from a distinct vibrating body; as, in the air, the vibrations of a chord produce the undulations constituting sound.

Dr. Young commences the explanation of his theory with premising a number of hypotheses, and with shewing how far they agree with the system of Newton, and in what respects they differ from it. He assumes, 1st, with Newton, (see our article *ETHER*), that a luminiferous ether pervades the universe, which is in a high degree rare and elastic. 2dly. Undulations are excited in this ether, whenever a body becomes luminous. 3dly. The sensation of different colours depends on the different frequency of vibrations, excited by light in the retina. The three hypotheses above recited, and which, according to Young, may be called essential, are literally parts of the more complicated system of Newton. 4thly. All material bodies are to be considered, with respect to the phenomena of light, as consisting of particles so remote from each other, as to allow the ethereal medium to pervade them with perfect freedom, and either to retain it in a state of greater density and of equal elasticity, or to constitute, together with the medium, an aggregate, which may be considered as denser, but not more elastic. Our author next proceeds to unfold and establish his theory by a series of propositions, which our limits will allow us merely to transcribe.

PROP. I.

All impulses are propagated in a homogeneous elastic medium with an equable velocity. In different mediums, the velocity will vary in the subduplicate ratio of the force directly, and of the density inversely. From the phenomena of elastic bodies and of sounds it appears, that the undulations may cross each other without interruption.

PROP. II.

An undulation, conceived to originate from the vibration of a single particle, must expand through a homogeneous medium in a spherical form, but with different quantities of motion in different parts.

PROP. III.

A portion of a spherical undulation, admitted through an aperture into a quiescent medium, will proceed to be further propagated rectilinearly in concentric superficies, terminated laterally by weak and irregular portions of nearly diverging undulations. This proposition, though the principle of it is objected to by Newton, is, according to our author, perfectly consistent with analogy and experiment.

PROP. IV.

When an undulation arrives at a surface which is the limit of mediums of different densities, a partial reflection takes place, proportionate in force to the difference of the densities.

PROP. V.

When an undulation is transmitted through a surface terminating different mediums, it proceeds in such a direction, that the sines of the angles of incidence and refraction are in the constant ratio of the velocity of propagation in the two mediums. The demonstration of this proposition will prove the equality of the angles of reflection and incidence.

PROP. VI.

When an undulation falls on the surface of a rarer medium, so obliquely that it cannot be regularly refracted, it is totally reflected, at an angle equal to that of its incidence.

PROP. VII.

If equidistant undulations be supposed to pass through a medium, of which the parts are susceptible of permanent vibrations, somewhat slower than the undulations, their velocity will be somewhat lessened by their vibratory tendency; and in the same medium, the more, as the undulations are more frequent.

PROP. VIII.

When two undulations, from different origins, coincide either perfectly or very nearly in direction, their joint effect is a combination of the motions belonging to each.

PROP. IX.

Radiant light consists in undulations of the luminiferous ether. For the illustration and proof of these propositions, the corollaries deducible from them, as particularly applicable to the colours of striated surfaces, thin and thick plates, and those by inflection, and a reply to the objections that may be urged against the author's theory, we refer to Young's Philosophy, vol. ii. See also Phil. Trans. for 1800.

UNDULATION, in *Physics*, a kind of tremulous motion or vibration, observable in a liquid; by which it alternately rises and falls, like the waves of the sea; and hence it is that the term takes its rise, from *unda, waves*. See WAVE.

This undulatory motion, if the liquid be smooth, and at rest, is propagated in concentric circles, as most people have observed upon throwing a stone, or other matter, upon the surface of a stagnant water, or even upon touching the surface of the water lightly with the finger, or the like.

The cause of these circular undulations is, that, by touching the surface with the finger, there is produced a depression of the water in the place of contact. By this depression, the subjacent parts are moved successively out of their place, and the other adjacent parts thrust upwards, which, lying successively on the descending liquid, follow it; and thus the parts of the liquid are alternately raised and depressed, and that circularly.

When a stone is thrown into the liquid, the reciprocal vibrations are more conspicuous: here the water in the place of immersion rising higher, by means of the impulse or rebound, till it comes to fall again, gives an impulse to the adjoining liquid, by which means that is likewise raised about the place of the stone, as about a centre, and forms the first undulous circle; this falling again, gives another impulse to the fluid next to it farther from the centre, which rises likewise in a circle; and thus, successively, greater and greater circles are produced.

UNDULATION, in *Medicine*, the term used by some to express an uneasy sensation in the heart; of an undulatory motion, which may sometimes be perceived externally.

UNDULATION, or *Beat*, in *Music*, is used for that rattling or jarring of sounds, which is observed, chiefly, when discordant notes are sounded together. See BEATS.

The phenomenon is more fully described thus, by Dr. Smith. In tuning musical instruments, especially organs, it is a known thing, that while a consonance is imperfect, it is not smooth and uniform, as when perfect, but interrupted with very sensible undulations or beats; which, while the two sounds continue at the same pitch, succeed one another in equal times, and in longer and longer times, while either of the sounds approach gradually to a perfect consonance with the other, till at last the undulations vanish, and leave smooth, uniform consonance. Smith's Harmonics, p. 107. See HARMONICS.

This learned author observes farther, that quicker undulations are beats, and are remarkably disagreeable in a concert of strong, treble voices, when some of them are out of tune; or in a ring of bells ill tuned, the hearer being near the steeple; or in a full organ badly tuned. Nor can the best tuning wholly prevent that disagreeable battering of the ears with a constant rattling noise of beats, quite different from all musical sounds, and destructive of them, and chiefly caused by the compound stops called the cornet and sesquialter, and by all other loud stops of a high pitch, when mixed with the rest. But if we be content with compositions of unisons and octaves to the diapason, whatever be the quality of their sounds, the best manner of tuning will render the noise of their beats inoffensive, if not imperceptible.

The doctor has with great ingenuity deduced the theory of these undulations from his principles, and has applied his doctrine to the tuning of instruments; by which he has shewn, that a person of no ear at all for music may soon learn to tune an organ, according to any proposed temperament of the scale, and to any desired degree of exactness, far beyond what the nicest ear, unassisted by theory, can possibly attain to. This may be done by counting the number of undulations in a certain time, such as fifteen seconds.

seconds. See the treatise before cited, prop. xv. p. 215. and the Table, p. 244. plate 20.

From this ingenious theory the learned author has demonstrated several errors in what monfieur Sauveur has delivered concerning these undulations or beats. See Harmonics, Scholium 2. p. 115.

In the fame treatise we find some curious obfervations relating to the analogy of audible and vifible undulations. See p. 128. 273.

UNDULATION is alfo ufed in *Surgery*, for a motion enfuing in the matter contained in an abfcefs, upon fqueezing it. A tumour is faid to be in a condition for opening, when one perceives the undulation.

UNDULATORY MOTION is applied to a motion in the air, by which its parts are agitated after the like manner as waves in the fea; as is fuppofed to be the cafe when the ftring of a mufical inftrument is flruck.

This undulatory motion of the air is fuppofed the matter or caufe of *found*; which fee.

Inftead of the *undulatory*, fome authors choofe to call this a *vibratory* motion.

UNDULATUM FOLIUM, in *Botany*. See LEAF.

UNDULLEE, in *Geography*, a town of Bengal; 5 miles S. of Doefa.

UNDY, in *Heraldry*. See WAVED.

UNEDO, in *Botany*, the name of a fruit, fo called, according to Pliny, book 25. chap. 24. becaufe one only was to be eaten. He gives *Arbutus* as a fynonym. The meaning of the above name feems to be, that the fruit in queftion might, by its beauty, tempt any perfon to eat it once, but that its infipidity would prevent any further inclination to tafte it. We have, nevertheless, found this fruit gratefully refrefhing and wholefome in our fatiguing botanical excursions in the fouth of France, and have eaten it plentifully. (See *ARBUS USUNEDO*.) This tree, figured in Engl. Bot. t. 2377, is found about the lake of Killarney, in Ireland, in a naturalized, if not a wild, ftate. The *Comaron* of the Greeks, mentioned by Pliny, is not this, but *Arbutus Andrachne*; fee Prodr. Fl. Græc. v. 1. 274.

UNELLI, or VENELLI, in *Ancient Geography*, a people mentioned by Cæfar among other inhabitants of Armorica, and not belonging to Brittany. Ptolemy described their capital under the name of Crociatonum, the pofition of which is that of Valognes. In the Notitia of the provinces of Gaul, Civitas Conftantia, from which the appellation of Cotentin is derived, was the capital of the canton occupied by the Unelli.

UNEQUAL, in *Botany*, applied to a leaf, means that the two halves, feparated by the mid-rib, are of evidently different dimenfions, and efpecially that their bafes are not parallel. Infiances occur in the Elm, (fee ULMUS,) as well as in the fine exotic genera of *Begonia* and *Eucalyptus*. The furface of a leaf or ftem is termed unequal, when it is rugged, not even or fmooth, without any reference to the pubefcence. An unequal corolla has fome fegments, or petals, alternately fmallier than the others, fo as not to interfere with the regularity of its figure. This may occur in fome fpecies of a genus only, nor does it neceffarily mark a generic difference. —Stamens are unequal in the claffes *Didynamia* and *Tetradynamia*, with refpect to their proportion only.

UNEQUAL COURSES. See MASONRY.

UNEQUAL HOURS. See HOUR.

UNEVEN NUMBER. See NUMBER.

UNG, in *Geography*, a river of Hungary, which rifes in the Crapack mountains, and runs into the Latoreza, 7 miles N. of Zemplin.—Alfo, one of two fmall ftreams which form the river Laubach, in Carniola.

VOL. XXXVII.

UNGELD, compounded of the negative *un*, and *gildan*, to pay, in our *Ancient Customs*, a perfon out of the protection of the law; fo that if he were murdered, no *geld*, or fine, was to be paid in the way of compenfation by him that killed him. See GELD, and *ÆSTIMATIO capitis*.

Si Friſthman, i. e. *homo pacis*, fugiat et repugnet, et ſe nolit indicare; ſi occidatur, jaceat ungeld, i. e. no pecuniary compenfation ſhall be made for his death. Skinner.

UNGILDA *akere*, mentioned in Brompton, has much the fame fignification; viz. where any man was killed, attempting any felony, he was to lie in the field unburiſed, and no pecuniary compenfation was to be made for his death.

UNGHA, in *Geography*, a town and caſtle on the eaſt coaſt of Tunis, furrounded by morafles, but without a harbour, or road; 76 miles S. of Cairoan.

UNGVAR, a town and fort of Hungary, on the Ung. This town was feized by the malecontents; but, in 1685, recovered by the Imperialiſts, with count Tekeli's treaſure and jewels; 22 miles N. of Munckacz.

UNGUENT, UNGUENTUM, *Ointment*, in *Surgery*, a topical remedy, or compoſition, chiefly uſed in the dreſſing of wounds and ulcers.

Unguent, liniments, and cerates, are external forms, applied on divers parts of the body, both to cure, and to eaſe and relieve them. They only differ from each other in their confiſtence; with regard to which, unguents hold the medium; being ſtiffer than liniments, but ſofter than cerates.

Oils are ordinarily the bafes of all three; to which are added wax, xungia, and ſeveral parts of plants, animals, and minerals; both on account of the virtues they furniſh, and to give a confiſtence to the oils, and to keep them longer on the part, that they may have more time to act.

Many extravagant encomiums have been beſtowed on the efficacy of different preparations of this kind in the cure of wounds, ſores, &c. and yet it is unqueſtionable, that the moſt proper application to a green wound is dry lint. But though ointments do not heal wounds and ſores, they ſerve, however, to defend them from the external air, and to retain ſuch ſubſtances as may be neceſſary for drying, deteſting, deſtroying proud fleſh, and ſuch purpoſes.

We ſhall here enumerate and deſcribe the principal cerates.

The common cerate of the Lond. Pharm. is formed by adding four fluid-ounces of olive oil to four ounces of yellow wax, and mixing them.

For the *calamine cerate* of the Lond. Ph. fee CERATUM *epuloticum*.

The *cerate of impure carbonate of zinc*, formerly cerate of calamine ſtone, Edinb. Ph., is compounded of five parts of ſimple cerate, and one part of prepared impure carbonate of zinc. Theſe cerates, long known in practice under the name of "Turner's cerate," are uſeful dreſſings in exoriations and ulcers; and as they are in a certain degree deſiccative, they are applied to burns after the inflammation is abated, and to the eye-lids in ophthalmia tarſi.

For *cerate of bliſſering ſties*, ceratum Lyttæ, or ceratum cantharidis, fee CERATUM. This cerate is intended to promote a purulent diſcharge from a bliſſered ſurface, and it generally anſwers this purpoſe without much irritation. But in ſome habits it occaſions ſtrangury, great pain of the part, ſwellings of the lymphatics, and ſuch a degree of general irritation, as to produce œdematous ſwellings, and eryſipelas of the neighbouring parts. It is obſerved, that cerates or ointments for keeping open iſſues are beſt ſpread on lint; and that the dreſſings ſhould in all caſes be renewed once in twenty-four hours.

Cerate of ſupercetate of lead of the Lond Ph. is prepared

of two drachms of superacetate of lead in powder, two ounces of white wax, and half a pint of olive oil, by melting the wax in seven fluid-ounces of the oil, then adding gradually the superacetate of lead, separately rubbed down with the remaining oil, and stirring with a wooden spatula, until they be thoroughly incorporated. This is an excellent cooling cerate for burns, excoriations, and other inflamed sores.

For the *compound cerate of lead*, see CERATUM lithargyri acetati composuim. This is a mode of applying lead in the form of ointment, long known under the name of "Goulard's cerate," and is used in the same cases as the former cerate. The name, says Mr. B. T. Thomson, is very improper; and ought to have been *ceratum plumbi acetatis*, as the virtue of the composition altogether depends on the acetate of lead.

For the *mercurial cerate*, see CERATUM mercuriale.

The *resin cerate of the Lond. Ph.* is formed by mixing a pound of yellow resin and the same quantity of yellow wax together by a slow fire, and then adding a pint of olive oil, and straining the cerate while it is hot through a linen cloth. See CERATUM resine flavae.

Cerate of fævine of the Lond. Ph. is obtained by melting two pounds of prepared lard and half a pound of yellow wax together, and boiling a pound of the fresh leaves of fævine, bruised, in the mixture, and then straining through a linen cloth.

The *simple cerate of the Edinb. Ph.* is prepared of six parts of olive oil, three parts of white wax, and one part of spermaceti.

For the *soap cerate*, see CERATUM saponis. The efficacy of this cerate depends on the acetate of lead, which is formed in the first stage of the process; the soap answering scarcely any other purpose than that of giving consistence and adhesiveness. It is occasionally used as a cooling dressing.

For *cerate of spermaceti*, see CERATUM spermatis ceti. This and the simple cerate are soft cooling dressings.

Liniments are, in general, more active remedies than cerates or ointments; and act as local stimulants, relieving deep-seated inflammations and pains. For an account of the liniments of the Lond. Ph., see LINIMENT. See also OXYMEL aruginis.

The *ammoniated oil*, commonly called volatile liniment of Edinb. Ph., is prepared by mixing two ounces of olive oil with two drachms of water of ammonia.

The *liniment of ammonia of the Dub. Ph.* is obtained by mixing two fluid-drachms of caustic water of ammonia with two fluid-ounces of olive oil.

The *liniment of lime-water*, or oleum lini cum calce, Edinb. is prepared by mixing equal parts of linseed-oil and lime-water.

Liniment of lime of Dub. Ph. is formed by mixing lime-water and olive oil, of each three fluid-ounces. These are solutions of earthy soap, resulting from the chemical union of the lime and oil; and being devoid of acrimony, they are beneficially applied to burns and scalds. As the soapy matter separates from the water when it is kept for some time, it is always best to prepare this mixture when it is wanted.

The *camphorated oil of the Edinb. Ph.* is obtained by mixing two ounces of olive oil and half an ounce of camphor, so as to dissolve the camphor.

The *camphorated oil of the Dub. Ph.* is had by rubbing together half an ounce of camphor with two fluid-ounces of olive oil. (See LINIMENTUM camphora.) These solutions of camphor in fixed oil are very useful embrocations to glan-

dular swellings, sprains, bruises, and to joints affected with rheumatic pains. The late Mr. Ware recommended it with the addition of half an ounce of the solution of subcarbonate of potash, to be applied to the eye-lids night and morning, in incipient amaurosis. The compound liniment of camphor is an useful stimulant application to sprains, bruises, and rheumatic pains. It is also an excellent vehicle for introducing opium into the habit by means of friction. An embrocation composed of fʒijss of this liniment, and fʒiis of the tincture, warmed and rubbed over the surface of the abdomen, very quickly allays the pains of flatulent colic.

The *liniment of soap*, or tincture of soap of the Edinb. Ph., is prepared by digesting four ounces of soap sliced in two pounds of alcohol for three days, then adding two ounces of camphor, and half an ounce of volatile oil of rosemary, frequently shaking the mixture.

The *anodyne liniment*, or tincture of soap and opium, is made in the same manner, and of the same ingredients as the other tincture of soap, only adding, at the beginning of the process, an ounce of opium.

The principal unguents, or ointments, are enumerated in the sequel of this article. Pomatums are also ranked in the number of unguents. See POMATUM.

In the Edinburgh Pharmacopœia we have the following general rule for the preparation of unguents, applicable also to cerates: let the fatty matters and the resin be melted by a gentle heat, and then constantly stirred, sprinkling in the dry ingredients, if there be any, reduced to very fine powder, until the mixture, by cooling, becomes firm.

Unguentum acidi nitrosi, ointment of nitrous acid, Edinb. Ph., is obtained by mixing six drachms of nitrous acid gradually with one pound of melted hog's-lard, and beating the mixture assiduously as it cools. The Dub. College directs a pound of olive oil to be melted in a glass vessel, and an ounce by weight of nitrous acid to be added to it; then to expose them to a medium heat in a water-bath for a quarter of an hour; then to remove them from the bath, and to stir them constantly with a glass rod until they become firm. This ointment is said to have been invented by Alyon, who found it useful in syphilitic and herpetic ulcers. It has been occasionally used in this country for the same purposes; but it is less effectual than the ointment of nitrate of mercury.

U. album. See *U. oxidi plumbi albi*, infra.

U. ex arugine. See VERDEGREASE.

The *ointment of subacetate of copper*, formerly ointment of verdigris, Edinb. is compounded of fifteen parts of resinous ointment, and one part of subacetate of copper. The *U. aruginis*, or ointment of verdigris of Dub. Ph., is formed by making one pound of ointment of white wax and half an ounce of prepared verdigris into an ointment. These ointments are escharotic and detergent; they are occasionally used as dressings to foul, flabby ulcers, and as an application to scrophulous ulcerations of the tarSI. In the undiluted state they can scarcely be used, unless to act as a caustic for taking down fungous flesh.

U. arcei. See ELEM and LINIMENTUM arcei.

U. basilicum viride, a form of medicine prescribed in the late London Pharmacopœia, and ordered to be made thus: Take of yellow basilicon, eight ounces; oil of olives, three ounces; verdigris, in fine powder, one ounce; mix the whole into an ointment.

U. basilicum flavum, or yellow basilicon ointment, may be made by melting yellow wax, white resin, and frankincense, of each a quarter of a pound, over a gentle fire; and then adding of hog's-lard prepared, one pound; strain the ointment while warm. This is employed for cleansing and heal-

ing wounds and ulcers. See BASILICON, CERATUM Resine, and *U. rſine*, &c.

U. calamineæ, or *epuloticum*, commonly called *Turner's cerate*. See *Calamine cerate*, supra, and CERATUM *epuloticum*.

U. cora flava, ointment of yellow wax of Dub. Ph., confists of a pound of purified yellow wax, and four pounds of prepared hog's-lard, formed into an ointment.

U. cora alba, ointment of white wax of Dub. Ph., is prepared in the same manner as the former, with the substitution of white for yellow wax. These are useful dressings to benign ulcers and excoriations.

U. cetacei, or *spermaceti* ointment of the Lond. Ph., is prepared by mixing together six drachms of spermaceti and two drachms of white wax, over a slow fire, and stirring them continually till they be cold. The *U. spermatis ceti* of the Dub. Ph. is composed of half a pound of white wax, a pound of spermaceti, and three pounds of prepared lard, mixed into an ointment. These ointments form the ordinary dressings for healing blistered surfaces and excoriations.

U. citrinum is a mercurial ointment. See *U. nitratis hydrargyri fortius*, infra.

U. dialtheæ. See DIALTHEA.

U. elemi compoſitum, compound ointment of elemi of the Lond. Ph., is composed of a pound of elemi, ten ounces of common turpentine, two pounds of prepared fuet, and two fluid-ounces of olive oil. The elemi is melted with the fuet; then removed from the fire, and mixed immediately with the turpentine and the oil; and then the mixture is strained through a linen cloth. The *U. elemi* of the Dub. Ph. confists of a pound of elemi resin, half a pound of white wax, and four pounds of prepared hog's-lard: these are formed into an ointment, which is to be strained through a sieve while it is hot. These ointments are stimulant and digestive: they are used to keep open issues and fetons; and as a dressing to ulcers which do not admit of the application of the adhesive straps.

U. emollientis, or emollient ointment, may be made by taking of palm oil, two pounds; of olive oil, a pint and a half; of yellow wax, half a pound; and of Venice turpentine, a quarter of a pound; melting the wax in the oils over a gentle fire, then mixing in the turpentine, and straining the ointment. This supplies the place of althea ointment, and may be used for anointing inflamed parts, &c.

U. epispasticum. See *U. vesicatorium*, infra.

U. hydrargyri fortius, or strong mercurial ointment of the Lond. Ph., is prepared by first rubbing two pounds of purified mercury with an ounce of prepared fuet, and a small quantity of twenty-three ounces of prepared lard, until the globules disappear, and then adding the remainder of the fat and mixing. Two drachms of this ointment contain one drachm of mercury.

U. hydrargyri, or vulgarly, *U. ceruleum*, Edinb., mercurial ointment, is compounded of one part of mercury, one part of mutton fuet, and three parts of hog's-lard; and it is formed by rubbing the mercury diligently in a mortar with a little of the hog's-lard until the globules disappear, then adding the remainder of the lard. One drachm of this ointment contains twelve grains of mercury. It may also be made with double or triple the quantity of mercury. The Dublin College directs equal parts of purified mercury and prepared hog's-lard to be rubbed together in a marble or iron mortar, until the globules disappear. One drachm of this ointment contains thirty grains of mercury.

U. hydrargyri mitius of the Lond. and Dub. Ph., milder mercurial ointment, is prepared by taking of the stronger mercurial ointment, a pound; and prepared lard, two pounds; and mixing them. One drachm of this ointment contains

ten grains of mercury; but prepared according to the Dub. Ph., with two parts of lard to one of mercury, one drachm contains a scruple of mercury. The preparation of the stronger mercurial ointments requires much labour, care, and patience.

When newly prepared, mercurial ointment has a light grey or bluish colour, owing to its containing some unoxidized metal, which separates in globules when it is liquefied by a gentle heat: when kept for some time, the colour is much deepened, and less metallic mercury subfides, owing to the more complete oxidizement of the metal. It is probable, therefore, that long kept mercurial ointment contains, besides the oxyd, a febate of mercury.

The strong mercurial ointment rubbed upon the skin is the ordinary mode of introducing a large quantity of oxyd of mercury into the system. About ʒj is rubbed upon the inside of the thighs, or any other part of the body where the cuticle is thin, every night and morning until the system is affected. The oxyd contained in the ointment is absorbed during the friction, and carried into the habit; where it produces the same effects as arise from taking the remedy by the mouth, without the unpleasant affection of the bowels that very commonly follows the introduction of preparations of mercury into the stomach. In order, however, to produce the full effect of the friction, it must be continued until every particle of the ointment disappears; and the operation should be performed by the patient himself. The stronger mercurial ointment is used in this form as an antisyphilitic, as a deobstruent in hepatic affections, and to excite the absorbents in hydrocephalus. The weaker ointment is used only as a topical dressing in venereal sores. During a course of mercurials the patient should be kept in a moderately warm and dry, but airy chamber; and his diet should be chiefly weak broths, milk, and gruel.

The following table, extracted from Thomson's Dispensatory, exhibits the quantity of mercury contained in each of the different ointments ordered by the British colleges.

One drachm	{	of the Lond.	{ stronger oint. contains of merc.	30 grs.
			{ weaker oint.	10
		of the Edin.	{ common oint.	12
		of the Dub.	{ stronger oint.	30
			{ weaker oint.	20

U. oxydi hydrargyri cinerei, or ointment of grey oxyd of mercury, Edinb. is prepared by mixing one part of grey oxyd of mercury with three parts of hog's-lard.

U. hydrargyri nitratis, or ointment of nitrate of mercury of the Lond. Ph., is composed of an ounce of purified mercury, two fluid-ounces of nitric acid, six ounces of prepared lard, and four fluid-ounces of olive oil; and is prepared by first dissolving the mercury in the acid, then mixing the solution, while it is hot, with the lard and oil melted together.

U. nitratis hydrargyri fortius, vulgò *U. citrinum* of Edinb. Ph., is obtained by dissolving one part of purified mercury in two parts of nitrous acid; then beating up the solution strongly with the lard and oil previously melted together, and nearly cold, in a glass mortar, so as to form an ointment.

U. supernitratis hydrargyri of Dub. Ph. is prepared by dissolving an ounce of purified mercury in two ounces by weight of nitrous acid; then mixing the solution with the oil and lard previously melted together, and forming an ointment in the same manner as the ointment of nitrous acid.

U. nitratis hydrargyri mitius, or milder ointment of nitrate of mercury of Edinb. Ph., is made in the same manner as the stronger ointment, with a triple proportion of oil and lard.

UNGUENT.

This ointment is stimulant and detergent. When moderately diluted with lard, it is a local remedy of great efficacy in herpetic eruptions, tinea capitis, and other cutaneous eruptions. The weaker ointment may almost be regarded as a specific in pterophthalmia, in the purulent ophthalmia of infants producing ectropium, and in ulcerations of the tarfi. It is applied by taking a little on the finger, liquefying it by the fire or the flame of a candle, and applying it along the inner part of the eye-lids.

U. hydrargyri nitrico-oxidi is obtained by melting together two ounces of white wax and six ounces of prepared lard, then adding to the mixture an ounce of the nitric oxyd of mercury in very fine powder, and mixing.

U. oxidi hydrargyri rubri, ointment of red oxyd of mercury of Edinb. Ph., is compounded of one part of red oxyd of mercury by nitric acid, and eight parts of hog's-lard.

U. subnitratæ hydrargyri consists of half a pound of white wax and half an ounce of subnitrate of mercury, which are formed into an ointment. These are excellent stimulant ointments, well adapted for giving energy to indolent foul ulcers. They are also very beneficial in inflammation of the conjunctiva, with a thickening of the inner membrane of the palpebræ: and to specks of the cornea. They should be applied in the same manner as the ointment of nitrate of mercury.

U. hydrargyri præcipitati albi of Lond. Ph. is formed by adding a drachm of white precipitate of mercury to an ounce and a half of prepared lard, previously melted by a gentle heat, and mixing.

U. submuriatis hydrargyri ammoniatis of Dub. Ph. is obtained by forming one pound of ointment of white wax, and an ounce and half of ammoniated submuriate of mercury, into an ointment. These ointments are stimulant and detergent. They are recommended by some German authors as a remedy for the itch, which may be safely used on infants: but they have not been employed in this country.

U. japonica terra. See JAPAN Earth.

U. linaria. See ANTIRRHINUM.

U. mercuriale, or mercurial ointment. See *U. hydrargyri*, supra.

U. infusi melos vesicatorii, ointment of infusion of blistering flies of Edinb. Ph., is prepared of blistering flies, resin, yellow wax, of each one part; Venice turpentine, hog's-lard, of each two parts; and boiling water, four parts; by macerating the flies in the water for a night, and straining the liquor, strongly expressing it; then adding the liquor to the fat, and boiling until the water be evaporated; afterwards adding the wax and the resin, and when these are melted, removing the mixture from the fire and adding the Venice turpentine.

This ointment is sufficiently mild, but does not always keep open a blistered surface, so that it does not answer the purpose for which it is designed. The acrimony of the flies is nearly destroyed by the heat employed for the evaporation of the water.

U. nardinum. See NARDINUM unguentum.

U. nutritum is the name of an ointment of lead, made by grinding two ounces of litharge, and adding alternately, and by little and little, two ounces of vinegar, and six of oil. This unguent, though now expunged from our Dispensatories, is an excellent application in many cases. It should not be long kept, but made fresh as wanted. Lewis. See *U. saturninum*.

U. oculi, or eye-ointment. See *U. oxidi zinci impuri*, &c. infra.

U. oxidi plumbi albi, vulgò, *U. album*, ointment of white

oxyd of lead of Edinb. Ph., consists of five parts of simple ointment, and one part of white oxyd of lead.

U. ceruffæ, five *subacetiatis plumbi*, ointment of ceruffa, or subacetate of lead of Dub. Ph., is compounded by forming a pound of ointment of white wax and two ounces of ceruffa, reduced to a very fine powder, into an ointment. These are cooling, defecative ointments, chiefly employed as dressings for burns.

U. oxidi zinci impuri, olim, *U. tutiæ*, Edinb., ointment of impure oxyd of zinc, formerly ointment of tutty, is compounded of five parts of simple liniment, and one part of prepared impure oxyd of zinc.

U. tutiæ, ointment of tutty of Dub. Ph., is prepared by forming ten ounces of ointment of white wax, and two ounces of prepared tutty, into an ointment. These ointments were formerly much used in ophthalmia tarfi, but they are now seldom employed.

U. picis aridæ, pitch ointment of the Lond. Ph., is prepared by melting together pitch, yellow wax, and yellow resin, of each nine ounces, and a pint of olive oil; and straining the mixture through a linen cloth.

U. picis liquide, tar ointment of the Lond. Ph., is obtained by melting together tar and prepared suet, of each a pound, and straining the mixture through a linen cloth.

U. picis, tar ointment of the Edinb. Ph., is compounded of five parts of tar, and two parts of yellow wax.

U. picis liquide, tar ointment of Dub. Ph. consists of tar and mutton suet, of each half a pound, which are melted together, and then the mixture is strained through a sieve. The pitch and tar ointments are applicable to the same purposes; being used with advantage as detergents in scabby foul eruptions and tinea capitis.

U. piperis nigri, ointment of black pepper, is obtained by forming a pound of prepared hog's-lard and four ounces of black pepper in powder, into an ointment.

U. populeum. See POPELUM.

U. pulveris melos vesicatorii, olim, *U. epispasticum fortius*, ointment of the powder of blistering flies, formerly strong issue ointment, consists of seven parts of resinous ointment, and one part of powdered blistering flies.

U. cantharidis, ointment of blistering flies of Dub. Ph., is compounded of half a pound of ointment of yellow wax, and one ounce of blistering flies in powder, formed into an ointment. These ointments answer the purpose of promoting a purulent discharge from blistered surfaces, when the irritation excited by them, which is sometimes intolerable, can be endured. The flies should be very finely pulverized, and very intimately mixed with the ointment.

U. resinæ albe, ointment of white resin of Dub. Ph., is composed of a pound of yellow wax, two pounds of white resin, and four pounds of prepared hog's-lard, which are made into an ointment, and this is to be strained, while it is hot, through a sieve.

U. resinosum, resinous ointment of Edinb. Ph., is compounded of eight parts of hog's-lard, five parts of resin, and two parts of yellow wax. (See CERATUM resinæ.) These ointments are stimulant, digestive, and cleansing; and therefore form an excellent dressing for foul and indolent ulcers. See BASILICON.

U. sabina, savine ointment of Dub. Ph., is obtained by taking fresh leaves of savine freed from the stalks and bruised, half a pound; prepared hog's-lard, two pounds; yellow wax, half a pound; boiling the leaves with the lard until they become crisp, then straining with expression, and lastly adding the wax, and melting them together. (See CERATUM sabina.) This ointment is very difficult of preparation: The fresh leaves are preferable to those that are dry,

dry, because by drying their acrimony is impaired. When good, the colour of the ointment is a beautiful deep green, and its odour is that of the fresh bruised herb. It should be kept in closely covered pots, as it will soon lose its virtue by exposure to the air. Savine ointment, which is said by Mr. Thomson to have been first described by Mr. Crowther in his "Observations on White Swelling," serves for keeping up a purulent discharge from a blistered surface; and this it does as effectually and with much less irritation than the ointment of blistering flies.

U. sambuci, elder ointment of Lond. Ph., is formed by boiling two pounds of elder flowers in two pounds of prepared lard, until they become crisp, then straining the ointment through a linen cloth. The Dublin College directs three pounds of fresh elder flowers, four pounds of prepared hog's-lard, and two pounds of mutton suet, in the manner prescribed for the savine ointment.

These ointments are simply emollient, and possess no advantages superior to those of the simple ointment.

U. saturninum. See *Compound cerate of lead*, supra.

U. simplex, simple ointment of Edin. Ph., is formed of five parts of olive oil and two parts of white wax. This is an useful emollient ointment for softening the skin.

U. simplex is also a name given to the composition commonly called *pomatum*; which see.

U. subacetis cupri, olim, *U. aruginis* of the Edinb. Ph., is formed of fifteen parts of resinous ointment, and one part of subacetate of copper. See VERDEGREASE and LINIMENT.

U. sulphuris, sulphur ointment of the Lond. Ph., is obtained by mixing three ounces of sublimed sulphur, with half a pound of prepared lard. The Edinb. Ph. directs to take of hog's-lard four parts, and one part of sublimed sulphur; and to add to each pound of the ointment, of volatile oil of lemon or volatile oil of lavender, half a drachm. The Dub. College orders four pounds of prepared hog's-lard, and a pound of sublimed sulphur, to be formed into an ointment.

These ointments are specific in itch. They should be rubbed on the body every night until the disease be cured; but not more than one-fourth of the body should be rubbed with it at a time.

U. sulphuris compositum, compound ointment of sulphur of the Lond. Ph., is a composition of sublimed sulphur, half a pound; white hellebore root in powder, two ounces; nitrate of potash, a drachm; soft soap, half a pound; and prepared lard, a pound and a half; which ingredients are to be mixed. This ointment is employed like the simple one, and in the same cases; it is supposed to derive additional efficacy from the white hellebore; but it often excites too much irritation.

U. tripharmacum, is prepared by boiling and stirring over a gentle fire four ounces of the common plaster, with one of vinegar, and two of oil, where a thick unguent is required; or four of oil, for a softer liniment.

U. veratri, ointment of white hellebore of Lond. Ph., is obtained by mixing two ounces of white hellebore root powdered, eight ounces of prepared lard, and twenty minims of oil of lemon.

U. hellebori albi, ointment of white hellebore of Dub. Ph., is compounded of a pound of prepared lard, and three ounces of white hellebore root in powder, which are made into an ointment.

These ointments are sometimes used for the cure of psora, when there is an objection to the smell of the sulphur; but as remedies, they are less certain.

U. vesicatorium, blistering ointment. See the appropriate articles, supra.

U. viride, the green ointment, a form of medicine prescribed in the late Lond. Ph., and ordered to be made by melting ten ounces of yellow wax in three pounds of the *oleum viride*, or green oil of the fame *Pistamaceo*.

U. zinci, zinc ointment of the Lond. Ph., is formed by mixing an ounce of oxyd of zinc, with six ounces of prepared lard. See ZINC. Thomson's Dispensatory.

UNGUICULI, in *Botany*, is used for the ends of the petals of roses, or other flowers, where they adhere to the plant.

UNGUIN, a name given by the people of Guinea to a plant, of which they are very fond, on account of its medicinal virtues: they boil it in water, and give the decoction in large draughts for pains in the back. The leaves of this plant grow alternately on pedicles of an inch long, and have the exact shape and size of those of the common bay-tree; but they have neither its taste nor smell, nor any thing approaching to either. Phil. Trans. N° 232.

UNGUIN, or *Ungar*, in *Geography*, a small island near the W. coast of Alaskha, in the North Pacific ocean; about 20 miles long, rising in the interior into lofty mountains, but near the sea more level, and covered with brushwood, producing no vegetable food, except berries, and a root from which the Russians make the liquor called quafs. The island abounds with deer. The settlement consists of one Russian and about thirty Indian families, which latter occupied huts constructed of mud, in the form of bee-hives, with a hole at the top instead of a door. They have no fire-places, but warm themselves by means of lamps made out of flat hollow stones, with rush wicks, which they placed under their frocks. This island is separated from the main land by a strait nearly ten miles wide at high water.

UNGUIS, a Latin term, signifying a nail of the hand or foot.

UNGUIS, in *Botany*, the claw, is the elongated base of a petal, conspicuous in the Pink, *Dianthus*, and in the Wall-flower and Stock, *Cheiranthus*, being distinguished by its taper form, and pale colour, from the border, *lamina*, which it supports. The claws of petals are, for the most part, inclosed in the perianth of the flower, though not invariably.

UNGUIS *Cati*, Cat's-claw, the name of a species of *Mimosa*, Linn. Sp. Pl. 1499, alluding to its sharp hooked thorns.

UNGUIS *Offici*, in *Anatomy*, a small bone on each side of the head, situated in the inner corner of the eye. See CRANIUM.

UNGUIS, in *Surgery*, an abscess of the cornea, or of the anterior chamber of the eye, shaped like a nail.

UNGUIS, in *Natural History*, a name given by authors to a genus of shells, more usually called *foles*.

UNGUIS *Odoratus*, in the *Materia Medica*, a thin, flat, testaceous substance, of an oval or oblong figure, rounded at both ends, and marked on the surface with three or four concentric circles, or oval lines. Its colour is a dusky brown, with some mixture of the orange, sometimes of a purplish tinge. Its usual size is that of a full grown nail of a man's thumb; and its thickness rather less than that of the nail. It is tough, flexible, and elastic; and has no peculiar smell or taste.

The want of smell might seem to argue this to be a different substance from the *unguis odoratus* of the ancients, but the truth is, that their's owed all its sweet flavour to its being brought over among aromatic drugs.

There were two kinds of it, the largest of which they had from the Red sea, and the other from Babylon; and both were the opercula of two species of *murex* shells.

Dioscorides tells us, that this *unguis* was the operculum

or poma of the shell, which stopped the mouth at pleasure, and from under which the creature thrust out its tongue to feed; and he adds, that the shell-fish to which it belonged was taken in the marshes of India, when the waters were dried away; and that the Indian spikenard growing in great abundance in these marshes, the creature became sweet-scented in every part, by feeding on it. However, he concludes with telling us, that there were only two kinds brought into Greece in his time, the one from the Red sea, the other from Babylon.

The truth is, that spikenard grows neither in the Red sea, nor any where about Babylon, but only in India, beyond the Ganges, or about its banks. The spikenard also does not grow in the water, but only in marshy places, and therefore can never be in the way of feeding shell-fish. Avicenna, perceiving the absurdity and contradiction of Dioscorides's account, says that the shell-fish was found in an island in the Indies, on which island the spikenard also grew in great abundance. But this account supposes that the shell-fish, to which the unguis odoratus belongs, may be found on dry land; whereas it is certain, that no shell-fish, living in the water, can subsist without some means of closing up its cavity, so as to keep out the water at pleasure; this is done in the bivalve kinds, by closing the two valves; but in the Stromboide ones, by drawing down this operculum, which is the unguis odoratus, to the mouth of the shell. A land-shell, therefore, can have no occasion for such a part as the poma or operculum, and no such drug as the unguis odoratus can be found about it. But it is to be observed, that Avicenna did not know that the unguis odoratus was a covering or operculum of the mouth of a shell, but thought that it was only a fragment cut or broken indeterminately from any part of the shell. This therefore might appear no absurdity to him; and the thin and flat unguis he saw might appear fragments artificially cut from some of the thin-shelled kind of land-snails. See *BLATTA Byzantina*.

UNGULA, in *Geometry*, is the section of a cylinder, cut off by a plane passing obliquely through the plane of the base, and part of the cylindric surface.

Or, more generally, an ungula, or hoof, is a part cut off a solid by a plane oblique to the base.—To find the curve surface of the ungula DEAGD of a cylinder (*Plate XV. Geometry, fig. 19.*) put b = the height AD, v = the versed sine of AE, d = the diameter AB, a = the arc EAG of the base, s = the right sine FG, and

c = the cosine of the half arc; then $\frac{ds - ac}{v} \times b$ is the

convex surface: i. e. from the product of the diameter and sine, subtract the product of the arc and cosine, and multiply the difference by the height, and divide by the versed sine.

Note 1.—When F is the centre of the base, then $v = s = \frac{1}{2}d$, and $c = 0$; in which case the theorem becomes db , viz. the product of the diameter and height equal to the curve surface.

Note 2.—When AF exceeds $\frac{1}{2}AB$, then ac must be added.

For the demonstration of this theorem, draw HI, IK parallel to FA and AD respectively, and join the points H, K; since it is evident that the surface is generated by the motion of IK along the arc AIG, KI $\times$ the fluxion of IA will be the fluxion of the surface. Therefore put $z = AI$, $x =$ its sine IL, and $y =$ its cosine; then HI $= y - c$; and, by similar triangles, FA : AD :: HI

: IK $= \frac{b}{v} \times (y - c)$; and hence the fluxion of the sur-

face, or $z \times$ IK, is $\frac{b}{v} \times (y \dot{z} - c \dot{z}) = \frac{b}{v} \times (\frac{1}{2}d \dot{x} - c \dot{z})$: the fluent of which is $= \frac{b}{v} \times (\frac{1}{2}dx - cz) =$ (when

AI = AG) $\frac{b}{v} \times (\frac{1}{2}ds - \frac{1}{2}ac)$; the double of which is

$\frac{b}{v} \times (ds - ac) =$ the whole convex surface DEAGD

Cor. 1.—If F be the centre; then $v = s = \frac{1}{2}d$, and $c = 0$; and then the theorem becomes barely $db = 4$ times the triangle FDA.

Cor. 2.—When AF exceeds $\frac{1}{2}d$, c is negative, and then $-ac$ becomes $+ac$.

Cor. 3.—If F coincide with B; then $s = 0$, and $c = -\frac{1}{2}v$; and the theorem becomes $\frac{1}{2}ab =$ the surface of the half cylinder.

Example 1.—Let the diameter AB (d) be 100, the height AD (b) 140, and the versed sine AF (v) 10. Then $\frac{1}{2}d - v = 50 - 10 = 40 = c$; and $\sqrt{\frac{1}{4}dd - cc} = \sqrt{2500 - 1600} = \sqrt{900} = 30 = s$. But $\frac{s}{\frac{1}{2}d} = \frac{30}{50} = \frac{3}{5} = .6$ is the sine

reduced to the radius 1, to which, in a table of sines, belong $36^\circ 52.268' = 36.87113$ degrees. Then by the rule given under *ARC of a Circle*, the length of the arc a will be $.01745329 \times 36.87113 \times 100 = 64.352252$. Whence

$\frac{ds - ac}{v} \times b = (3000 - 2574.09008) \times 14 = 425.90992 \times 14 = 5962.73888 =$ the convex surface required.

Ex. 2.—If the diameter and height be 100 and 140, as before, and the section be made through the centre of the base, or $v = \frac{1}{2}d = 50$; what is the convex surface?

Here, by note 1, $db = 100 \times 140 = 14000 =$ the convex surface required.

Ex. 3.—Supposing d and b still the same, and $v = 90$; to find the convex surface.

Here $\frac{1}{2}d - v = 50 - 90 = -40 = c$, $s = 30$, the same as before, but it is here the sine of the supplemental arc, which therefore is $180 - 36.87113 = 143.12887$ degrees. Hence $.01745329 \times 143.12887 \times 100 = 249.807013 =$ the arc a . Or, the arc may be sooner found by only subtracting the arc in the first example, viz. 64.352252 , from 314.159265 , the whole circumference.

Then, by note 2, $\frac{ds + ac}{v} b = \frac{1}{5} (3000 + 9992.28052)$

$= \frac{1}{5} \times 12992.28052 = 2598.456104$, the convex surface required.

To find the Solidity of the Hoof of a Cylinder.—From $\frac{1}{3}$ of the cube of the right sine, subtract the product of the base and cosine of half the arc of the base; then multiply the difference by the height, and divide by the versed sine, the quotient will be the solidity required. That is, putting, as before, b = the height AD, v = the versed sine AF, s = the right sine FG, c = the cosine $= \frac{1}{2}AB - AF$,

b = the base or area of the seg. GAEG; then $\frac{\frac{1}{3}s^3 - bc}{v}$

$\times b$ = the solidity.

Note 1.—If F be the centre, that is, if the base be equal to the semicircle, then $v = s$, and $c = 0$; and therefore $\frac{1}{3}bs = \frac{1}{3}d^2b$ is the solidity in that case.

Note

Note 2.—If v exceed $\frac{1}{2}d$, that is, if the base exceed the semicircle, then c is negative, and bc must be added.

This theorem may be demonstrated in the following manner. The fluxion of the solid is = the $\triangle HIK$ drawn into the fluxion of LI , which fluxion will, therefore, be

$$\dot{x} \times \frac{b}{2v} \times HI^2 \text{ (using the same characters as in the demonstration of the last problem) } = \frac{b\dot{x}}{2v} \times (y-c)^2 = \frac{b\dot{x}}{2v} \times$$

$$(yy - 2cy + cc) = \frac{b\dot{x}}{2v} \times (\frac{1}{4}dd - xx - 2cy + cc) =$$

$$\frac{b\dot{x}}{2v} \times (\frac{1}{4}dd - xx - dc + 2c \times AL + cc) = \frac{b\dot{x}}{2v} \times$$

$$(ss - xx - 2c \times FL); \text{ whose fluent, } \frac{bx}{2v} \times (ss - \frac{1}{2}xx) =$$

$$- \frac{bc}{v} \times \text{area FAIH, when I coincides with G, is } \frac{b}{2v} \times$$

$$(\frac{2}{3}s^3 - bc), \text{ the double of which is } \frac{b}{v} \times (\frac{2}{3}s^3 - bc) =$$

$$\text{the content of the solid DEAGD required.}$$

Cor. 1.—If F fall in the centre of the base, then $c = 0$, and $s = v = \frac{1}{2}d$, and the rule will be $\frac{1}{12}ddh$.

Cor. 2.—If A exceed F , c will be negative, and then $-bc$ will become $+bc$.

Cor. 3.—If F fall in B , $s = 0$, and $c = -\frac{1}{2}v$; and then the theorem becomes $\frac{1}{2}bh$ = half the cylinder.

Ex. 1.—If the diameter AB be 50, the height AD 120, and the verfed sine AF 10; what is the solidity of the hoof?

Or, supposing a cylindric vessel $ABCD$, containing a fluid, to be placed in such a position that the surface of the fluid, disposing itself parallel to the horizon, may cut the base in GE , leaving 40 inches of the diameter dry, and the side of the cylinder in D , 120 inches distant from the base; to find how many ale gallons are in it, the diameter of the base being 50 inches.

Here $b = 120$, $d = 50$, and $v = 10$. Then $\frac{1}{2}d - v = 25 - 10 = 15 = c$, and $\sqrt{\frac{1}{4}dd - cc} = \sqrt{25^2 - 15^2} = \sqrt{40 \times 10} = 20 = s$.

And, to find the base by the table of segments, $\frac{v}{d} =$

$\frac{10}{50} = .2$; this being found in the column of verfed sines, opposite to it is the area .1118238: hence $50 \times 50 \times .1118238 = 279.5595 = b$ is the segment or base.

$$\text{Then } \frac{\frac{2}{3}s^3 - bc}{v} b = 12 \times (\frac{2}{3} \times 8000 - 15 \times 279.5595)$$

$$= 12 \times (5333 \frac{1}{3} - 4193.3925) = 12 \times 1139.9408 = 13679.2896 = \text{the solidity in inches; which, divided by 282, the inches in a gallon, give } 48.50939 \text{ ale gallons for the content.}$$

Ex. 2.—Suppose the cylinder so placed, that the surface of the liquor may bisect the base, and rise up the side to the same distance of 120 inches from the base: to find the content.

Here, by note 1, we have $\frac{1}{12}ddh = 50 \times 50 \times 20 = 50000$ solid inches = 177.3049645 gallons, for the content in this case.

Ex. 3.—Suppose, now, the same vessel so placed, as that the surface of the liquor may leave only 10 inches of the diameter dry, still rising to the same distance of 120 inches along the side; to find the content.

Here the part of the cylinder's base left dry, is equal to the base in the first example, *viz.* 279.5595, which, therefore, taken from $50 \times 50 \times .78539816 = 1963.4954$, the whole circle, leaves 1683.9359 = b , the base of the ungula in this example.

Now $v = 40$, $c = -15$, and $s = 20$.

$$\text{Whence } \frac{\frac{2}{3}s^3 - bc}{v} b = (\frac{2}{3} \times 8000 + 25259.0385) \frac{1}{40} = 30592.3718 \times 3 = 91777.1154 \text{ solid inches} = 325.45076 \text{ gallons, the content in this case.}$$

For the method of finding the solidity of the ungulae or hoofs of other solids, we must refer to Hutton's *Mensuration*, part iii. § 1.

UNGULA, in *Natural History*, the claw, or hoof, of a quadruped.

UNGULA *Alcis*, the elk's claw. See ELK.

UNGULA, a technical name formerly applied to an abscess of the cornea, when the disease was fancied to resemble a hoof in its shape.

UNGULA, or *Hamus*, among *Surgeons*, a sort of hooked instrument, with which to extract a dead fœtus out of the womb.

UNGULUS, in *Antiquity*, a remarkable kind of bracelet.

UNHACA, in *Geography*, a small island in the Indian sea, at the entrance of the bay of Lorenzo Marques. N. lat. 26° 5'.

UNHALTER, in the *Manège*. A horse is said to unhalter himself that turns off his halter.

UNHOST, or AUNHOST, in *Geography*, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Schlan; 8 miles S. of Schlan. N. lat. 50° 6'. E. long. 14° 15'.

UNIA, a small island in the Adriatic, W. of Ofiero. N. lat. 44° 52'. E. long. 14° 26'.

UNIAK, or UNIMAK. See ONEIMAK.

UNIARA, a town of Hindoostan, in the circle of Rantampour; 18 miles S. of Rantampour.

UNICORN, in *Astronomy*. See MONOCEROS.

UNICORN, in *Geography*, a post-town of Pennsylvania, in Lancaster county; 124 miles from Washington.

UNICORN, in *Natural History*, an animal famous among the Greek authors, under the name of *μονοκερος*; and among the Latins, under that of *unicorn*.

Both these names it takes from its distinguishing characteristic, the having one horn only. See RHINOCEROS.

The first author who wrote of the unicorn, was one Ctesius, whom Aristotle mentions as a very suspicious author. Ælian speaks of it in very doubtful terms. The other writers on the subject are Philostratus and Solinus; Æneas Sylvius, who is pope Pius II; Marcus Paulus, Aleosius, Gefner, Garcias ab Orta, And. Marinus, &c. Of these, some say it resembles a horse, others an ass, others a goat, by its beard; others an elephant, others a rhinoceros, others a greyhound, &c.

Munster and Thevet will have it an amphibious animal, and its horn to be moveable at pleasure. Others make all its strength to consist in its horn; and add, that when pursued by the hunters, it precipitates itself from the tops of the highest rocks, and pitches upon its horn; which sustains the whole effort of its fall, so that it receives no damage thereby. In reality, the several authors do all give different accounts of the figure and colour, both of the animal and of its horn, and all its parts. And hence many among the moderns have supposed it to be a merely fabulous animal.

The legend adds, that it is wonderfully fond of chaste persons; and therefore, in order to take it, a virgin is placed

in its way; whom when the unicorn spies, he lies down by her, and lays his head on her lap, and soon falls asleep; upon which the virgin makes a signal, the hunters come in, and take the beast; which could never be caught any other way, because it would either cast itself headlong from the rock, or die. For an account of the animal to which the appellation of the unicorn has been applied, see RHINOCEROS.

What ordinarily passes among us for unicorn's horn, and is shewn for such in the collection of curiosities, and used for such by several physicians, we are assured by Pereyra, in his account of Greenland, &c. is the tooth of a large fish of the whale kind, called by the islanders *narwal*; frequent enough in the icy sea. The tooth or horn, turned, channelled, and terminating in a point, as it is, springs out of the middle of the fore-part of the upper jaw, where it has a root a foot long, as thick as the horn itself: it is the only tooth the animal has in the upper jaw, and serves it as a weapon of defence, with which it dares to attack the largest whale. There is a fine horn of this kind preserved in the repository of St. Denis at Paris, given by And. Thevet, and pretended to have been a present to him from the king of Monoio-tapa, who carried him to hunt the unicorn; which is frequent in that country: this horn some have suspected to be an elephant's tooth, carved in that manner. At Straßburg there is another between seven and eight feet long. In the repository at Venice there is a good number; all different from each other.

The ancients held the unicorn's horn to be a counter-poison; and that the animal used to dip it in the water, to purify and sweeten it, ere it would drink: it is added, that for the same reason other beasts wait to see this creature drink before them. Thence, as also from the rarity of the thing, people have taken occasion to attribute divers medicinal virtues to it.

But Amb. Paré has proved it a mere piece of charlatanery, and all the virtues attributed to it to be false; and yet the price it has borne is almost incredible. Andrea Racci, a physician of Florence, affirms the pound of sixteen ounces to have been at one time sold, in the apothecaries' shops, for fifteen hundred and thirty-six crowns, when the same weight of gold was only worth one hundred and forty-eight crowns. See RHINOCEROS.

The unicorn is one of the supporters of the arms of England. This beast is represented, by heralds, passant, and sometimes rampant. When in this last action, as in the English arms, it is properly said to be *passant*. Argent, an unicorn sejant fable, armed and unguled, or, borne by the name of *Harding*.

UNICORN, *Sea*, the name of a fish of the whale kind, called also *narhual*, or *narwal*, remarkable for having a horn growing out at its nose, in the manner of the supposed unicorn's horn, as described by many too credulous authors. It is the only species of monodon in the Linnean system.

This fish feeds on flesh, or other fish, and is not only found in the main sea, but sometimes gets up into large rivers. In the year 1736 there was a large one caught in the river Oste, near its discharging itself into the Elbe, in the duchy of Bremen; this place is four German miles from the sea. The skin of this fish was spotted with dark-brown spots upon a white ground; the epidermis was transparent; and under it was another skin very thin and spotted; but the true skin was brown, and near an inch in thickness. On the top of the head there is only a semi-lunar hole, as in the porpoises; this hole opens into the two channels, which run through the skull to the palate, and are called the ductus hydragogi. The people who examined this

creature were not able to find any aperture in the body for the discharge of the excrements; whence it has been generally believed, that the creature voids them through this passage in the head.

Authors have differed in the name of the process issuing from the head; some calling it a horn, others a tooth; some are of opinion that it serves to break the ice for air; but others pretend that it is an offensive weapon, with which it wounds the common whale, and other large fish; and that when it has plunged it up to the head in the whale's body, it sucks the juices of that animal.

The fish was near twenty feet long, and about four feet in diameter. The horn stood on the fore-part of the head, just above the mouth, and was six feet long, white like ivory, and curiously wreathed or twisted. The body was smooth and slippery, like that of an eel; the head, in proportion to the body, was small, not exceeding sixteen inches in length, and the same in diameter; the eyes not larger than a sixpence. It had, on each side of the neck, two black fins, one above another at a small distance; these were two feet long, of the breadth of a hand, and about half an inch in thickness. See the account of this fish by Dr. Steigertahl, and Dr. Hampe, in Phil. Transf. N° 447. p. 157, and p. 149. or Abr. vol. ix. p. 71, &c.

This unicorn's horn has been so common in the Danish and neighbouring seas, that there was a magnificent throne built only of them in that kingdom; the horns are from ten to fifteen feet in length, and are all white, and furrowed with a spiral line.

Unicorn's horn has the same medicinal virtues with hart's horn and ivory; but at present is only kept as an ornament in druggists' shops.

UNICORN, *Sea*, is also a name given to two sorts of small fish caught in the American seas, and known among authors under the name of *Monoceros pisces*.

UNICORNU *Fossile*, *Fossile Unicorn's Horn*, the name of a substance much used in medicine in some parts of the world, but which seems to have been very little understood by many who have written of it. Dr. Hill, from the examination of the several varieties of shapes it is found in, and trying it by the several tests which fix the criterions of fossils, has determined it to be no other than a terrene crustaceous spar, not very different from the osteocolla, and other bodies of that genus, which he has called the *cibdeloplacia*; and has distinguished this peculiar species by the name *cibdeloplacium albidofuscineum, friabile, superficiei levis*, or the whitish-grey friable crustaceous spar, with a smooth surface.

It differs principally from the osteocolla in its softness, and the smoothness of its surface; but from its having, like many other of the crustaceous terrene spars, the property of encrusting, and sometimes even permeating the pores of bodies, and in a manner petrifying them, it has obtained the names of the things it thus lodges itself in and about, which being usually bone, and some of them bones of an extraordinary size and figure, have been taken for the bones and horns of unicorns; and the name and nature of the body itself wholly lost and neglected, and that of the horn, with that of its imaginary animal, only preserved.

They are, however, now sensible in Germany, that it is not the horn, but this substance, which is lodged about it, which is the medicine; for they never use the fossil bones which are petrified in the common way, but only such as are impregnated with this sparry substance; and even use all substances whatever, which are impregnated with this, whether bones or wood, under the same name, calling the natural

natural tubular pieces of it, which are very common, and also the pieces of branches of trees impregnated with it, by the common name of unicorn's horn, while they allow plain bones, petrified in the common way, no such name. So that the word is now become a mere technical term, and signifies either this spar in its pure state, or any substance whatever which is impregnated with it.

It is a lax and spongy terrene spar, and is naturally of a regular form, in some degree like that of the osteocolla, being always found, where it has concreted pure, and not been in the way of any extraneous substance, an oblong and moderately thick, cylindric, tubular body, frequently narrower at one end than the other, and approaching to a conic form. Usually its hollow is empty, but sometimes it is found filled up with a substance of the same nature with itself, only composed of a larger proportion of earth with less spar, and therefore more crumbly and soft. These are found of various sizes, from an inch to three feet long. The larger specimens are most frequent; and it is very probable, that the ignorance of the first ages, which brought it into use in medicine, might take these natural concretions for unicorns' horns.

It is found in other parts of the world besides Germany, and is in great esteem in many places as a sudorific and antirrhine; and is given in fevers, attended with diarrhoea, with great success. Hill.

Dr. Ebreus, in his Natural History of Hartz Forest, in Germany, gives a particular account of this fossil. He says that it is dug up of different shapes; sometimes like a straight horn, skull, jaw-bone, shoulder-blade, back-bone, rib, tooth, thigh-bones, or other bones of men and beasts; and sometimes like an unshaped lump or mass of stone, having no resemblance to bone. Cornigius, and Otto Guericke, have maintained that this fossil is petrified bone; others, as Sennerthus, Schröder, Baufchius, &c. not being able to comprehend how bones of such size and in such quantities should be collected together, and dissatisfied with the account given by naturalists of the manner of their petrification, reckon it among the minerals. Some think, with Labavius, that it is a bituminous earth; others say that it is a kind of agate; but Dr. Ebreus apprehends, that it is formed of a clayey or fatty earth, called *marga* or marle, common in that country, hardened by petrifying water, and assuming different shapes and sizes, according to the situation in which this earth lies under ground. It is commonly of a light grey, black, or yellowish colour, and seldom perfectly white; sometimes it is as hard as a stone, and sometimes soft as clay, and hardens by being exposed to the air. It has commonly neither smell nor taste; though in some cases it has been found with a scent like that of quinces, which Dr. Ebreus ascribes to a bituminous substance mixed with the petrifying water. The whitest and mellowest is reckoned the best for medical purposes. It operates, he says, like the terra sigillata, absorbing, atringing, and promoting perpiration; and is one of the ingredients of the bezoardic powder, described by Ludovici in his "Pharmacopœia Moderna sæculo applicanda," and produces a very good effect, unless a symptomatic costiveness forbids the use of it. Externally it serves in pustular eruptions and erosions about the pudendum and fundament in children, and in eye-waters. Hoffman advises people to try the fossil unicorn first upon a dog, before it is used in medicine; because he thinks it is sometimes of a poisonous nature, but this is never observed in any fossil of this kind found in or near Hartz Forest.

UNICZOW, or MAHRISH NEUSTADT, in *Geography*,
VOL. XXXVII.

a town of Moravia, in the circle of Olmutz; 12 miles N.N.W. of Olmutz. N. lat. 49° 42'. E. long. 17°.

UNIEGOW, a town of the duchy of Warsaw; 18 miles S.W. of Lenciez.

UNIEH, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Natolia; 40 miles E. of Samfoun.

UNIEJOW, a town of the duchy of Warsaw; 15 miles N.N.E. of Siradia.

UNIEWOW, a town of the duchy of Warsaw; 20 miles E.S.E. of Kalich.

UNIFOLIUM, in *Botany*, Dill. Nov. Gen. 138. t. 7, is so called, not because it bears a single leaf only, which is not the case, but because it springs out of the ground with a solitary leaf, and is some time before it acquires more. The plant in question is *Convallaria bifolia* of Linnæus, whose flowers are four-cleft, or rather have four petals and four stamens only.

UNIFORM, UNIFORMIS, denotes a thing to be similar, or consistent either with another thing, or with itself, in respect of figure, structure, proportion, and the like. In which sense it stands opposed to *diform*.

UNIFORM, in a *Military Sense*, signifies the ornamental parts of a soldier's dress, by which one regiment is distinguished from another. See REGIMENTALS.

UNIFORM of *Equable Motion*. See MOTION.

UNIFORM *Flowers of Plants*. See POLYPETALOUS *Flowers*.

UNIFORM *Matter*, in *Natural Philosophy*, that which is all of the same kind and texture.

UNIFORM *Temperament*. See TEMPERAMENT.

UNIFORMITY, REGULARITY, a similitude or resemblance between the parts of a whole. Such is that we meet with in figures of many sides, and angles respectively equal, and answerable to each other.

A late ingenious author makes beauty to consist in uniformity, joined or combined with variety.

Where the uniformity is equal in two objects, the beauty, he contends, is as the variety; and where the variety is equal, the beauty is as the uniformity. See BEAUTY.

UNIFORMITY is particularly used for one and the same form of public prayers, and administration of sacraments, and other rites, &c. of the church of England, prescribed by the famous stat. 1 Eliz. and 13 & 14 Car. II. cap. 4. called the "Act of Uniformity." See LITURGY.

Although it is declared in the Act of Uniformity, "that nothing conduceth more to the settling of the peace of the nation, nor to the honour of our religion, and the propagation thereof, than an universal agreement in the public worship of God," it has been contended, that strict uniformity with regard to points of doctrine and forms of worship is not essential to the peace of society, and to the honour and prevalence of true religion; and that such an uniformity is inconsistent with the present state of mankind, possessing different faculties and talents, and different opportunities and means of inquiry; and that it is, therefore, altogether unattainable. It has been also maintained, that, in the province of religion, every man has a right to exercise his own judgment, and to satisfy his own conscience, under the best illumination which he is able to obtain; and that the civil magistrate, however exalted his rank and extensive his influence in the community over which he presides, ought not to interfere in controuling this right, and obstructing the exercise of it. It has been alleged, that every attempt to enforce uniformity of religious faith and worship by privations and penalties of a civil and secular nature, is a misapplication of the authority with which he is invested, and an extension of it beyond its proper province, inconsistent with

UNIFORMITY.

the doctrines and spirit of Christianity, and injurious to the rights and claims of peaceable and loyal subjects. Those persons to whom we now refer object to the fundamental principle and professed design of the Act of Uniformity, and they concur with many others in disapproving and condemning the mode and time of its introduction, its pernicious influence in causing a schism or separation among British Protestants, and the indignity and distress to which it reduced a great number of meritorious persons, whose conscientious scruples, exemplary character, and useful services, entitled them to protection and encouragement. To this purpose it has been said, that the conditions of exercising the Christian ministry, which the Act of Uniformity imposed, are such as no civil authority can justifiably enjoin; and that it requires subscription to articles of faith, which Christ, who, as they say, is the supreme head of the Christian church, never established; and unfeigned assent and consent to rites and forms of worship, which neither he nor his apostles ever ordained. Besides, this Act required the clergy to subscribe and declare, "that it is not lawful, upon any pretence whatsoever, to take arms against the king, or any commissioned by him;" a position, as it has been conceived, absolutely subversive of the British constitution, and which the nation, soon after the act of king Charles II., openly acknowledged to be traitorous, detestable, scandalous, and false; and which, if admitted, would have precluded us from enjoying the benefits of the glorious revolution, and our present happy government. By this Act the Puritans, extolled even by Hume as a sect, though their principles appear, in his view of them, so frivolous, and habits so ridiculous, to which the English owe the whole freedom of their constitution, were lamentably separated from the English church; and many of them were thus recompensed by Charles II. for their activity and zeal in restoring him to the British throne.

When Charles II. came to Scotland, says lord Clarendon, (*Hist. of the Rebellion*, vol. vi. p. 374, 375, 733, 734,) expecting force from that kingdom to restore him "to his father's throne, and the parliament of England resolved to send an army against him, *all* the Presbyterian party greatly opposed it: they were bold in contradicting Cromwell in the house, and crossing all his designs in the city." See Rapin's *Hist. of England*, vol. xiii. p. 227, 241, 242.

Bishop Burnet says, "these five following persons, all Presbyterians, had the chief hand in the restoration: sir Ant. Ashley Cooper, afterwards earl of Shaftesbury; sir Arthur Annesley, afterwards earl of Anglesey; Denzil Hollis, created lord Hollis; the earl of Manchester; and lord Roberts."—"The Presbyterians and the Royalists," says Hume, "being united, formed the voice of the nation, which called for the king's restoration."

Moreover, the Presbyterians, (whom the king, with too much truth perhaps, used to call *God's silly people*,) trusting to his declaration from Breda, solemnly promising "liberty to tender consciences, and that no man should be disqualified for differences of opinion in matters of religion, which did not disturb the peace of the kingdom;" and, relying upon the fair speeches and assurances of his friends, and some of them perhaps duped by the low cunning of the king, who (a committee of their ministers being sent to him at Breda) ordered them to be in waiting whilst he hypocritically withdrew to perform his private devotions, in which his heart was so enlarged, that his voice was distinctly heard, as he intended it should be, by the ministers in the ante-chamber, devoutly thanking God that he was a covenanted king, (alluding to the solemn league and covenant, to which he had bound

himself by the most sacred of oaths,) and that he hoped the Lord would give him a humble, meek, and forgiving spirit. Whether the Presbyterians were deluded by the fair promises of the king and his treacherous friends, or were pressed by the civil discord which at that time subsisted, and alarmed at the dreadful disorders into which they apprehended the nation was again running,—be this as it may, they were so infatuated as to trust to the honour of Charles II., and, without previously settling any conditions, they were highly instrumental in restoring him to the throne. Their folly was only equalled by the base ingratitude with which he requited them.

Two years had scarcely elapsed before the Act of Uniformity was, by a small majority, passed into a law, which not only cast out of their livings two thousand ministers, some of whom had helped forward his restoration, but exposed them and their distressed families to numerous sufferings. The gaols were soon filled with the unhappy restorers of this ungrateful king; their houses were pillaged; their families reduced to beggary and want. An estimate was published of near eight thousand Protestant dissenters, who perished in prison by their sufferings on a religious account, in the reign of this perjured, peridious prince; and, by the severe penalties inflicted on them, for no other crime but that of assembling to worship God, they suffered in their trades and estates, in the compass of a few years, at least, it is said, two millions. *Crit. Hist. of England. Neal's Hist. of the Puritans*, vol. iv.

This was the king who had himself three several times taken the Scots covenant, declared solemnly his detestation of Popery and Prelacy, vowed never to tolerate them in any part of his dominions, and, in the most solemn manner, swore, by the eternal and almighty God, who liveth and reigneth for ever, that he would not only enjoy the covenant, but fully establish Presbyterian government, and their directory for worship, and observe them in his own practice and family, and never oppose them, nor endeavour any change.

Besides, we may here adduce the historical fact, that the Puritan or Presbyterian clergy were the only body of men in the whole kingdom, who had the courage to oppose and to protest openly against the trial and condemnation of Charles I. Their long and spirited protest was signed by above fifty of the principal Presbyterian ministers in and about London, and presented Jan. 18, 1648-9. See Burnet's *Hist. of his own Times*, vol. ii. p. 31. *Echard's Hist. of England*, p. 654, 708. See also the histories of Clarendon, Rapin, &c. &c.

"Bartholomew day," says Mr. Locke, "was fatal to our church and religion, by throwing out a very great number (about two thousand) of worthy, learned, pious, orthodox divines, who could not come up to this oath, and other things in that act. And so great was the zeal in carrying on this church affair, and so blind in the obedience required, that if you compute the time of passing this act with that allowed for the clergy to subscribe the book of Common Prayer thereby established, you will find it could not be printed and distributed so as that one man in forty could have seen and read the book they did so perfectly assent and consent to."—"The matter was driven on," says bishop Burnet (*Hist. of his Times*, vol. i. p. 212, 8vo.) "with so much precipitation, that it seemed expected the clergy should subscribe implicitly to a book they had never seen. This was done by too many, as the bishops themselves informed me." Among these were several, who, according to Mr. Locke's description of them, were "taught rather to obey than to understand."

It has been much lamented by many, eminently learned and strictly conscientious, members of the church, both clergy and laity, that the obligation to subscribe assent and consent to a variety of articles of faith and forms of worship, of doubtful and disputable evidence and utility, enjoined and enforced by the Act of Uniformity, should still remain as an indispensable condition of obtaining honourable and useful offices both in the church and state; more especially at a period when liberal sentiments, with regard to controversial subjects, are generally entertained both by clergy and laity; when the right of private judgment and free inquiry is universally acknowledged; and when the governors of the church and the legislature of the state seem disposed to uphold and promote the interests of religious liberty. Attempts have been made to widen the door of admission into the church, and to remove the impediments that lie in the way of advancement to civil offices of trust and profit. Hitherto they have proved ineffectual; but when it shall be perceived that neither the established religion of the country nor the safety of the state can suffer any detriment from a greater latitude in this respect, scrupulous consciences will be relieved, the church will gain an accession of ornament and support, and an union of many interests and services give strength and stability to the constitution and government of the country. On the general subject which has now engaged attention, different opinions have been maintained; and the Editor hopes that the candid reader will find them impartially stated, as far as the limits of this work allow, under the articles CHURCH, CLERGY, LITURGY, RELIGION, SUBSCRIPTION, TEST, TOLERATION, &c. &c.

UNIGENITUS, called also the *Constitution*, in *Ecclesiastical History*, a famous bull, deriving its denomination from the first word of it, which was issued in 1713 by pope Clement XI., and in which Quenel's book, entitled "Moral Reflections on the New Testament," was condemned, and a hundred and one propositions contained in it were pronounced heretical. This bull gave a favourable turn to the affairs of the Jesuits; but it was highly detrimental to the interests of the Romish church, as many of the wiser members of that community candidly acknowledge. For it not only confirmed the Protestants in their separation, by convincing them that the church of Rome was resolved to adhere to its ancient superstitions and corruptions, but also offended many of the Roman Catholics, who had no peculiar attachment to the doctrines of Janfenius, against which this bull was levelled, and were only bent on the pursuit of truth, and the advancement of piety. See JANSENIISM.

The dissensions and tumults excited in France by this edict were in the highest degree violent. A considerable number of bishops, among whom was the cardinal de Noailles, archbishop of Paris, and a large body, composed of persons eminently distinguished for their piety and erudition, both among the clergy and laity, appealed from the bull to a general council; and hence those who reject the authority of the bull are called *appellants*; which see. However, the issue of this famous contest was favourable to the bull, which was at length rendered valid by the authority of the parliament, and was registered among the laws of the state. Motheim's *Ecc. Hist.* vol. v. 8vo.

UNJIGAH, or *Peace River*, in *Geography*. See PEACE River.

UNIOCLULAR CAPSULE, among *Botanists*. See CAPSULE.

UNIOLA, was so named by LINNÆUS, as he himself informs us, *Phil. Bot.* 166, from the union, or rather the aggregation, of several glumes in the calyx; of which, in

Hort. Cliff. 23, he speaks as the very remarkable character of this genus of grasses, one species only of which had then come under his notice.—*Linn. Gen.* 35. *Am. Acad.* v. 7. 195. t. 3. f. 40. *Schreb.* 49. *Willd. Sp. Pl.* v. 1. 406. *Mart. Mill. Dict.* v. 4. *Ait. Hort. Kew.* v. 1. 159. *Pursh* 82. *Juss.* 32. *Beauvois Agrost.* 74. t. 15. f. 6. *Poiret in Lamarck Dict.* v. 8. 183. (*Briza*; *Lamarck Illust.* t. 45. f. 3.)—Class and order, *Triandria Dignia*. *Nat. Ord. Gramina*.

Gen. Ch. *Cal.* Glume many-flowered, of from three to six nearly awl-shaped, compressed, boat-like, minutely keeled valves, alternately imbricated in two rows, each valve closely embracing the next, the upper pair largest, subtending the many-flowered, ovate, greatly compressed, sharp-edged spikelet. *Cor.* of two lanceolate, compressed valves, resembling the calyx, but larger, cloven, acute, without awns. *Nectary* of two wedge-shaped cloven scales. *Stam.* Filaments three, rarely but one, capillary; anthers oblong, linear. *Pist.* Germen superior, conical; styles two, erect, simple; stigmas solitary. *Peric.* none, except the permanent corolla. *Seed* solitary, ovate-oblong, somewhat cylindrical, unconnected with the corolla.

Effl. Ch. Calyx of several valves, many-flowered. Spikelet ovate, awnless, keeled. Seed somewhat cylindrical, unconnected.

1. *U. paniculata*. Panicked Spike-grass. *Linn. Sp. Pl.* 103. *Willd. p. 1*, excluding *Catesby's* synonym. *Pursh n. 2*. *Muhlent. Cat.* 12. (*U. maritima*; *Michaux Boreal-Amer.* v. 1. 71. *Uniola*; *Linn. Hort. Cliff.* 23. *Gramen μολοφορον οξυφυλλον carolinianum*; *Pluk. Phyt.* t. 32. f. 6.)—Panicle repeatedly compound; partial stalks shorter than the spikelets. Calyx of six valves. Keel of the florets smooth. Leaves involute.—Native of the sandy sea-shores of North America, from Virginia to Florida, perennial, flowering in June and July. *Pursh*. of the largest and most magnificent of grasses. The stem is from four to six feet high, erect, round, jointed, smooth, leafy in the lower part, terminating in an ample panicle eighteen inches long, whole drooping, smooth, compound branches spread in every direction, and bear innumerable, pendent, light brown, or straw-coloured, shining, ovate, very flat spikelets, full an inch long, half an inch broad; some of them nearly sessile. Florets about fourteen; the inner valve of their corolla a little downy at the edges; keel of the outer sometimes, though rarely, a little rough, not fringed.

2. *U. latifolia*. Broad-leaved Spike-grass. *Michaux Boreal-Amer.* v. 1. 76. *Muhlent. Cat.* 12. *Pursh n. 1*. (*U. paniculata*; *Ait. n. 1*. *Gramen microporphon oxyphyllon carolinianum*; *Catesb. Car.* v. 1. t. 32.)—Panicle loose, with capillary stalks, mostly longer than the spikelets. Calyx of three valves. Keel of the florets fringed. Stamens solitary. Leaves lanceolate, flat.—Native of shady woods among rocks, on the Alleghany mountains, perennial, flowering in June. *Michaux, Pursh*. Near Lancaster, Pennsylvania, flowering in August. *Muhlent. Cat.* One of *Catesby's* original specimens, now in our hands, settles his synonym, hitherto always applied to the foregoing, and is inscribed, in his hand-writing, as follows. "This odd plant or grass grew in a rich bottom, by a creek-side up the west branch of Susqueannah river. I observed but a little spot of it in all my journey." Nothing can be more distinct from the real *paniculata* above described, which is a sea-side plant. The specific characters are abundantly clear. The present is of more slender and less elevated growth, with broad, many-ribbed leaves, glaucous beneath. Panicle capillary, much less branched. Spikelets green or glaucous, of fewer and broader florets, which, according to *Michaux*, are

are monandrous: their keel is rough with short hairs, as well as fringed more or less with longer ones. The calyx consists of three unequal valves.

3. *U. racemosa*. Jamaica Spike-grafs.—Cluster cylindrical, compound. Spikelets nearly sessile. Calyx of about four valves. Keel of the florets minutely downy. Leaves involute, taper-pointed.—Gathered in Jamaica by Mr. Mafson, one of whose specimens was communicated, probably by sir Joseph Banks, to the younger Linnæus. We know not how to find a species of this elegant genus escaped the notice of Dr. Swartz. It has the aspect of a sea-side grafs, having a very stout stem, leafy to the very summit. The leaves are involute, rigid, with a long very slender point, and broad sheathing base, crowned with a hairy stipula: the upper ones, two feet in length, rise high above the flowers. The panicle is terminal, solitary, cylindrical, six inches long, with numerous, short, toothed, simple, downy, many-flowered branches, each bearing six or eight alternate, nearly sessile, flat, ovate spikelets, half an inch long, variegated with green and white. The florets are about twelve, ovate, compressed; finely downy at the edges and keel, having three green ribs at each side extending half way down from their point.

4. *U. mucronata*. Pointed Spike-grafs. Linn. Sp. Pl. 104. Willd. n. 2.—"Spike two-ranked. Spikelets ovate. Calyx somewhat awned."—Native of the East Indies. Burmann. Stem a foot high, smooth. Leaves narrow, smooth, with striated sheaths. Spike of eleven or twelve spikelets, which are alternate, in two rows, nearly sessile, ovate, smooth, seven-flowered. The calyx is so much pointed as to be almost awned. Linnæus. We have seen no specimen. The description was probably made from Burmann's herbarium.

5. *U. spicata*. Two-ranked Spike-grafs. Linn. Sp. Pl. 104. Willd. n. 3. Bigelow Bosc. 23. Ait. n. 2. (Festuca distichophylla; Michaux Boreal-Amer. v. 1. 67. Pursh 84, excluding the reference to Plukenet).—Spike unilateral, dense. Spikelets tumid, sessile, smooth. Leaves involute, pointed, rigid.—Native of salt meadows in North America; common along the coast from Canada to Florida; perennial, flowering in July and August. Pursh. The stem is much branched, and thickly clothed with rigid, pungent, smooth, sheathing, alternate leaves, two or three inches long, rising above the spikes, which are terminal, solitary, sessile, about an inch in length. Each spikelet consists of four or five broad clove-florets, and the two principal calyx-valves are sometimes accompanied by one or two smaller external glumes, which may excuse Linnæus for placing this species here, but we confess it to be a bad *Uniola*. Plukenet's t. 33. f. 4, cited doubtfully by Pursh, bears much resemblance to our plant, but is an English *Triticum*!

6. *U. gracilis*. Slender Spike-grafs. Michaux Boreal-Amer. v. 1. 71. Pursh n. 3. (Holecus laxus; Linn. Sp. Pl. 1486. Willd. Sp. Pl. v. 4. 934).—"Panicle elongated, somewhat spiked, with short clove-pressed branches. Spikelets nearly sessile. Florets monandrous, divaricated, pointed, smooth. Calyx of three valves. Leaves flattish; their sheaths smooth and compressed, like the stem."—In shady rocky situations, from Virginia to Georgia; perennial, flowering in July. Pursh. Linnæus compares the habit of the grafs to *Aira*, or *Melica, cærulea*. The stems are weak, two feet high, a little drooping.

Labillardiere, Nov. Holl. v. 1. 21. t. 24, has an *U. distichophylla*, very nearly related to our *spicata*, but referred to *Poa* by Mr. Brown, Prodr. Nov. Holl. v. 1. 182.

UNION, a junction, coalition, or assemblage of two or

more different things in one. Philosophers are much perplexed in accounting for the manner of the union of soul and body, or by what medium it is that two such heterogeneous beings are kept closely together.

It is one of the great laws of this union, that such and such an impression on the brain be followed by such and such a sensation, or perception, in the soul.

UNION, in a philosophical sense, is used by Dr. Grev for one of the three ways of mixture; being the joining together of atoms, or insensible particles, so as to touch in a plane; as is supposed to be the case in the crystallizations of salts and the like bodies.

UNION, among Painters, expresses a symmetry and agreement between the several parts of a painting; when, *e. gr.* there is a considerable degree of relation and connection between them, both as to the figuring and the colouring; so that they apparently conspire to form one thing.

UNION, in Architecture, may denote a harmony between the colours in the materials of a building.

UNION, in an ecclesiastical sense, denotes a combining or consolidating of two or more churches into one.

This is not to be done without the consent both of the bishop, the patron, and the incumbent.

The canonists distinguish three kinds of union; that of accessory, that of confusion, and that of equality.

UNION of Accessory is the most usual; by this the united benefice becomes a member, and accessory of the principal.

UNION by Confusion, is that where the two titles are suppressed, and a new one created, including both.

UNION of Equality, is that where the two titles subsist, but are equal and independent.

The union or consolidation of churches ought to be founded upon good canonical reasons; and the principal reasons assigned by the canon law are, for hospitality, nearness of the places, want of inhabitants, poverty or smallness of the living. These several circumstances must be considered into before the union; and some, or all of them, are recited in the preamble to the act of union.

In such case, by the common law of the realm, the ordinaries, patrons, and incumbents, may make a consolidation or union of the two churches into one. (1 Salk. 165. Hughes, c. 28.) Moreover, in such case, it is said, that the consent of the king is not at all necessary, although he hath an interest in the churches in the case of lapse. For by the ancient canon law, the licence of the pope was not necessary; nor has the licence of the king been thought necessary since the reformation. In some instances, however, it has been desired and obtained for the greater caution. Cro. Eliz. 500. Gibson. Watson.

By stat. 37 Hen. VIII. c. 21. it is enacted, that an union or consolidation of two churches, or of a church and chapel, into one, may be admitted, provided the annual value of one of them, in the king's books, doth not exceed 6*l.*, and the distance between them be not above one mile.

This union supposes the assent of the ordinary and ordinaries of the diocese where such churches and chapels stand, and the assent of the incumbents of them, and of all such as have a just right, title, and interest to the patronage of the same churches and chapels, being then of full age. This union shall be available in the law, to continue for ever; provided that where the inhabitants of any such poor parish, or the more part of them, within one year next after the union or consolidation of the same parish by their writing sufficient in the law, shall assure the incumbent of the said parish, for the yearly payment of so much money as with the sum that the said parish is rated and valued at in the court of first fruits and tenths, shall amount to the full sum

of 8*l.*, to be levied and paid yearly by the said inhabitants to the said incumbent and his successors; all such unions or consolidations made of any such poor parish as aforesaid, shall be void and of none effect.

By the same statute, it is provided, that all unions and consolidations, to be made of any church or chapel within any city or town corporate, without the assent of the mayor, sheriffs, and commonalty of such city, or without the assent of the body corporate of other towns corporate, by the names of their corporations in writing under their common seal, shall be void.

By 21 Hen. VIII. c. 13. s. 9. if any person having one benefice with cure, of the yearly value of 8*l.*, or above, take any other with cure, and be inducted in possession of the same; then immediately after such possession, the first benefice shall be void. And by s. 10. it shall be lawful for the patron to present; any licence, union, or other dispensation, to the contrary thereof notwithstanding. By which word *union* there is meant not a perpetual, but a temporary union during the life of an incumbent. (Gibb. Cod. 970. art. 7.) And this is there clearly proved, first by the words of the union, and also by the case of *Page v. Bp. of London*. Cro. El. 719, 720.

And by another stat. 17 Car. II. c. 3. it is enacted, that the union of two churches, or chapels, in any city or town, by the bishop, patron, and chief magistrate of the town, shall be valid, unless the value of the churches so united exceeded 100*l.*

By the union the two churches become so much one, that a second benefice may be taken by dispensation within the statute of pluralities. (Cro. Eliz. 720. Gibbon 920.) If any question arise concerning the union, after it is established, this may not be tried in the temporal, but only in the spiritual court; unless it be such union as is restrained by the aforesaid statutes. Wats. c. 16.

UNION, *Hypothetical*. See *HYPOSTATICAL*.

UNION, or *The Union*, by way of eminence, is more particularly used, among us, to express the act by which the two separate kingdoms of England and Scotland were incorporated into one, under the title of *the Kingdom of Great Britain*.

The kingdom of Scotland, notwithstanding the union of the crowns on the accession of their king James VI. to that of England in 1603, continued an entirely separate and distinct kingdom for above a century more, though an union had been long projected; which was judged to be the more easy to be done, as both kingdoms were anciently under the same government, and still retained a very great resemblance, though far from an identity, in their laws. By an act of parliament (1 Jac. I. cap. 1.) it is declared, that these two mighty, famous, and ancient kingdoms, were formerly one. And sir Edward Coke observes, how marvellous a conformity there was, not only in the religion and language of the two nations, but also in their ancient laws, the descent of the crown, their parliaments, their titles of nobility, their officers of state and of justice, their writs, their customs, and even the language of their laws: upon which account he supposes the common law of each to have been originally the same. However, sir Edward Coke, and the politicians of that time, conceived great difficulties in carrying on the projected union; but these were at length overcome, and the great work was happily effected in the year 1707, by the general consent of the queen, and the estates of each realm.

The act or treaty of union consists of twenty-five articles; which eleven English commissioners, and eleven Scotch

ones, examined, approved, and signed on the 3d of August 1706. The parliament of Scotland approved it on the 4th of February 1707, and the parliament of England on the 10th of March in the same year. On the 17th following the queen went to parliament, where she approved the same treaty, with the act of ratification.

The purport of the most considerable articles is as follows: 1. That on the 1st of May, 1707, and for ever after the kingdoms of England and Scotland shall be united into one kingdom, by the name of Great Britain. 2. The succession to the monarchy of Great Britain shall be the same as was before settled with regard to that of England. 3. The united kingdom shall be represented by one parliament. 4. There shall be a communication of all rights and privileges between the subjects of both kingdoms, except where it is otherwise agreed. 9. When England raises 2,000,000*l.* by a land-tax, Scotland shall raise 48,000*l.* 16, 17. The standards of the coin, of weights and measures, shall be reduced to those of England throughout the united kingdoms. 18. The laws relating to trade, customs, and the excise, shall be the same in Scotland as in England, But all the other laws in Scotland shall remain in force, but alterable by the parliament of Great Britain; yet with this caution, that laws relating to public policy are alterable at the discretion of the parliament; laws relating to private right are not to be altered, but for the evident utility of the people of Scotland. 22. Sixteen peers are to be chosen to represent the peerage of Scotland in parliament, and forty-five members to sit in the house of commons. 23. The sixteen peers of Scotland shall have all privileges of parliament; and all peers of Scotland shall be peers of Great Britain, and rank next after those of the same degree at the time of the union, and shall have all privileges of peers, except sitting in the house of lords, and voting on the trial of a peer.

These are the principal of the twenty-five articles of union, which are ratified and confirmed by statute 5 Anne, cap. 8. in which statute there are also two acts of parliament recited; the one of Scotland, by which the church of Scotland, and all the four universities of that kingdom, are established for ever, and all succeeding sovereigns are to take an oath inviolably to maintain the same; the other of England, 5 Anne, cap. 6. by which the acts of uniformity of 13 Eliz. and 13 Car. II. (except as the same had been altered by parliament at that time), and all other acts then in force for the preservation of the church of England, be declared perpetual; and it is stipulated, that every subsequent king and queen shall take an oath inviolably to maintain the same within England, Ireland, Wales, and the town of Berwick-upon-Tweed; and it is enacted, that these two acts shall for ever be observed as fundamental and essential conditions of the union.

The great officers of the crown of Scotland, before the union, were, the lord high chancellor, lord high treasurer, or treasurer, lord privy seal, and lord register, or secretary. Their less officers of state were, the lord register, lord advocate, lord treasurer deputy, and lord justice clerk.

Since the union, the officers of state in Scotland are the keeper of the great seal, lord privy seal, lord register, lord vice-admiral, lord justice general, lord president, lord chief baron of the exchequer, lord advocate, lord justice clerk, lord high constable, heretable royal standard bearer, knight marechal, heretable keeper of the king's household, heretable carver, and heretable usher of the white rod. The privy council of Scotland is sunk in the parliament and privy council of Great Britain, and the civil and criminal causes are chiefly cognizable

cognizable by two courts of judicature, viz. the college of justice, or the court of session, and the judiciary court, under the direction of the lord justice general, the lord justice clerk, five commissioners, his majesty's advocate, three deputy advocates, a solicitor-general, &c. Besides these two great courts of law, the Scots, by the articles of union, have a court of exchequer, under the direction of a lord chief baron, and four barons. The court of admiralty in Scotland is a supreme court in all cases competent to its jurisdiction, and under the direction of the lord vice-admiral, a judge, procurator fiscal, &c. The courts of commissaries in Scotland answer to those of the English diocesan chancellors; the highest of which is kept at Edinburgh, in which, before four judges, actions are pleaded concerning wills, the right of patronage to ecclesiastical benefices, tithes, divorces, and such causes. The office of privy seal is under the direction of the lord privy seal, a deputy writer to the privy seal, and his deputy. The great seal office is under the direction of the lord keeper, and deputy and king's writer. The lord register's office is under the superintendence of the lord register, and six deputies. The chancery is under the administration of a director, deputy, and principal clerk. See *COLLEGE of Heraldry*, and *UNIVERSITY*.

Under this article of union we may observe, with respect to Wales, that very early in our history, we find its princes doing homage to the crown of England; till at length, in the reign of Edward I. the line of its ancient princes was abolished; and the king of England's eldest son became, as a matter of course, their titular prince; the territory of Wales being then entirely annexed (by a kind of feudal reversion) to the dominion of the crown of England. (10 Edw. I.) By 12 Edw. I. and other subsequent statutes, their provincial immunities were farther abridged; but the finishing stroke to their independency was given by the statute 27 Hen. VIII. cap. 26. which at the same time admitted them to a thorough communication of laws with the subjects of England. By this statute it is enacted, 1. That the dominion of Wales shall be for ever united to the kingdom of England. 2. That all Welshmen born shall have the same liberties as the other king's subjects. 3. That lands in Wales shall be inheritable according to the English tenures and rules of descent. 4. That the laws of England, and no other, shall be used in Wales; besides many other regulations of the police of the principality. And the statute 34 & 35 Hen. VIII. cap. 26. confirms the same, adds farther regulations, divides it into twelve shires, and, in short, reduces it into the same order in which it stands at this day; differing from the kingdom of England in only a few particulars, and those too of the nature of privileges (such as having courts within itself, independent of the process of Westminster-hall), and some other immaterial peculiarities, hardly more than are to be found in many counties of England itself.

The town of Berwick-upon-Tweed was originally part of the kingdom of Scotland; and as such was for a time reduced by king Edward I. into the possession of the crown of England; and during its subjection, it received from that prince a charter, which (after its subsequent cession by Edward Balliol, to be for ever united to the crown and realm of England) was confirmed by king Edward III. with some additions, particularly that it should be governed by the laws and usages which it enjoyed before its reduction by Edward I. Its constitution was new-modelled, and put on an English footing by a charter of king James I.; and all its liberties, franchises, and customs, were confirmed in par-

liament by the statutes 22 Edw. IV. cap. 8. and 2 Jac. I. cap. 28. Though, therefore, it has some local peculiarities, derived from the ancient laws of Scotland, yet it is clearly part of the realm of England, being represented by burgesses in the house of commons, and bound by all acts of the British parliament, whether specially named or otherwise. Accordingly it was declared by statute 20 Geo. II. cap. 24. that, where England is only mentioned in any act of parliament, the same notwithstanding hath and shall be deemed to comprehend the dominion of Wales, and town of Berwick-upon-Tweed. And though certain of the king's writs or processes of the courts of Westminster do not usually run into Berwick, any more than the principality of Wales, yet it hath been solemnly adjudged, that all prerogative writs (as those of mandamus, prohibition, habeas corpus, certiorari, &c.) may issue to Berwick, as well as to every other of the dominions of the crown of England; and that indictments, and other local matters arising in the town of Berwick, may be tried by a jury in the county of Northumberland.

UNION, Legislative, between Great Britain and Ireland. Amongst the important events which will in future times distinguish the reign of George III. and the administration of William Pitt, is the legislative union which this statesman effected between Great Britain and Ireland; a measure which, in the opinion of its advocates, has consolidated the strength of the empire, and thus contributed to its prosperity; whilst by others it is supposed to have destroyed the independence of one country, and to have added to the influence of the crown or its ministers in the other. To pass over such a measure without some account of the circumstances which attended it, would be a defect in a work of this nature; yet to treat it so as to give general satisfaction cannot be expected, whilst many who took an active part in promoting or opposing it are still alive, and whilst all the measures likely to result from it have not yet taken effect.

The first consideration in forming an opinion on this question, is the previous state of legislation in Ireland, and the nature of the connection between the two countries. Under the article IRELAND there is a brief historical detail of the manner in which Ireland became connected with England, and of the succeeding events, to which the reader is referred. From this account it is evident that Ireland was always considered as a *dependent* country; and whether the right was derived from voluntary submission, from conquest, or from colonization, it has been long regarded as an axiom in Irish politics, that whosoever is king of England, the same is *ipso facto* king of Ireland. It was entitled the dominion, or lordship of Ireland, that is, Hibernia, 14 Hen. III. and the king's style was no other than *dominus Hibernia*, lord of Ireland, till the 33d year of king Henry VIII. when he assumed the title of king, which is recognized by act of parliament 35 Hen. VIII. cap. 3. With a view to secure this authority in its fullest extent, Poyning's law was established in the reign of Henry VII. by which no law could be enacted in Ireland, which had not been previously submitted to the king and his council in England, approved by them, and certified under the great seal of the realm. (See *POYNINGS' LAW*.) This was found necessary at first to check the king's representatives, who had often a private interest at variance with that of their master; and it was afterwards thought expedient to prevent the descendants of the English colonists from pursuing their own interest at the expence of that of the mother-country. But though the dependence of Ireland, in a political point of view, was thus apparent, it was reserved for the reign of George I. to assert legislative authority,

authority, which was done first by the reversion of a sentence of the Irish house of lords by the English house, as a superior court of judicature, and then by a solemn declaration of a right, not only to make such reversions in all cases of appeal, but also that the king's majesty, with the consent of the lords and commons of Great Britain in parliament, had power to make laws to bind the people of Ireland. When the present king, George III., ascended the throne in 1760, two-thirds of the people of Ireland, depressed by severe penal laws, not only were not represented in the parliament by which they were taxed, but were considered as aliens, undeserving of any protection. The remaining third was represented by three hundred members, of which about one hundred were chosen by counties or large towns, and the remainder by boroughs, most of which had been constituted in the time of the Stuarts, to create a Protestant majority of the house of commons, and had become the property of a few individuals. The members thus chosen sat for their own lives, or that of the sovereign; no general election taking place except on the demise of the crown. The executive government was committed nominally to a viceroy, but essentially to lords justices, selected from the principal state officers of the country, who were entrusted with the conduct of what was called the king's business, but which might with more propriety have been called the business of the lords justices. The viceroy came to Ireland for a few months only in two years, and the lords justices in his absence had the means of consolidating an aristocratic influence, which made them the necessary instruments of the English government. As no acts could pass without the previous approbation of the king in his English council, it was usual to agree with some of the Irish leaders on a compromise that the minister would forward their local objects, provided they undertook to carry through parliament those bills which he required. What could be expected from such a system of government? What but a system of peculation and oppression, such as perhaps was scarcely ever witnessed in any other country? The object, it may be said the mistaken policy of the British government, was, in the words of Mr. Pitt, "to debar Ireland from the enjoyment and use of her own resources, and to make her completely subservient to the interests and opulence of Britain;" and whatever resistance might be occasionally shewn, the general tenor of conduct of the Irish parliament was to promote the destructive views of Britain, which the members made conducive to their own individual interests. "The inevitable final result of this unpropitious combination," to use the words of Mr. Newenham in his *View of the Natural, Political, and Commercial Circumstances of Ireland*, published in 1809, "was a very scanty and disproportionate acquisition of commercial wealth on the part of Ireland, and an almost utter extinction of a spirit of industry therein. To cramp, obstruct, and render abortive the industry of the Irish, were the objects of the British trader. To gratify commercial avarice, to serve Britain at the expence of Ireland, or to facilitate the government of the latter, were the varying objects of the British minister. To keep down the Papists, cost what it would, and to augment their own revenues by the public money, instead of urging the adoption of wise, liberal, and patriotic measures calculated to quadruple the rents of their estates, were the objects of the reputed representatives of the Irish people; and to secure themselves from retaliations on the part of the Roman Catholics, whom they were encouraged to persecute and taught to dread, was the general object of the Irish gentry." To this deplorable state of Ire-

land, we have to add the non-residence of the principal landed proprietors, and the frequent disturbances which under various pretences were raised in different parts of the country. In short, Ireland was in a state which could hardly be rendered worse, and which required some speedy melioration.

The measure of a legislative union had occurred to several as the best mode of rendering Ireland a valuable part of the British empire. Oliver Cromwell, during the period of his usurped power, actually carried it into effect: in the reign of queen Anne, the Irish house of lords petitioned for such an incorporation; and the great earl of Chatham is said to have regarded it as a favourite object. Now, though he and others might have had the interest of England immediately in view, yet it is an undoubted fact, that the interests of both countries are so closely united, that it is impossible to make Ireland contribute to the welfare of England without promoting its internal prosperity. The avowed object, it is said, was an object of taxation; but he must be a statesman of a very different cast from lord Chatham, who could expect to derive revenue from an impoverished country like Ireland, until he had awakened a spirit of industry, had civilized, improved, and enriched the people. Those, however, who derived benefit from the system then acted on, such as the parliamentary leaders, were not backward in expressing their dislike of a union, and they were supported by those whose vanity was pleased by the name of an independent legislature, as well as by those unfriendly to British connection. So odious was the measure, that in 1759, at a time when Ireland was threatened by a French invasion, the bare suspicion of its being in contemplation caused a spirit of dissatisfaction to break out with extraordinary violence among the populace of Dublin. It was represented that Ireland would be deprived of its parliament and independence, and be subjected to the same taxes that are levied upon the people of England. On this occasion both houses of parliament, especially the lords, were grossly insulted; the members were compelled to take an oath that they would never consent to such a measure; and, at last, military interference was found necessary to the restoration of order. This mode of influencing parliamentary proceedings by the threatenings of a mob, which was not unusual at a much later period in the Irish capital, proves the necessity of some change in the system of legislation. In the reign of George III. many measures were adopted which contributed to give weight to the anti-union party, and which certainly promoted the improvement and prosperity of the country. Parliaments were rendered octennial, and their sessions annual; many penal laws were repealed or modified; agriculture was encouraged; and a spirit of industry excited. In the mean time, Britain was weakened by its contest with its American colonies; and the demands of the Irish parliament, backed by 40,000 volunteers, procured a liberation of trade from unjust restrictions, and the establishment of legislative independence. This independence, however, was merely nominal; the influence of the British minister still directed the measures of the Irish parliament at a greater expence to the nation, and there were many difficulties from the want of some regular mode of considering the commercial interests of both countries: "some general superintending authority," as Mr. Fox said, "to embrace and comprehend the whole system of the navigation of the empire." In 1785, Mr. Pitt attempted to remedy this evil by a commercial arrangement, which, whilst it held out great advantages to Ireland, stipulated that so long as Ireland continued to trade with the British colonies and plantations, she would adopt the regulations of trade

and navigation imposed by the British parliament on British subjects in carrying on the same trade. This interference with the independence of Ireland defeated the measure of the British minister, though he was assisted on this occasion by the talents and knowledge of Mr. Foster, then chancellor of the Irish exchequer. On this occasion, lord Sackville, better known perhaps as lord George Germaine, the title he bore when in office, earnestly recommended a legislative union as the only mode of settling the jarring interests of the two countries; and it is thought that from that time the measure became a favourite object of the British ministry. Several political writers had indeed warmly recommended it. Dean Tucker observed, that "to incorporate both the British isles together, and make one kingdom, in all respects, as to parliament, trade, and taxes, had long been the wish of every generous disinterested patriot of both kingdoms;" and in 1785, after the rejection of the commercial propositions, he said, "respecting Ireland, one or other of the same consequences (union or separation) must inevitably follow. For after tropes and figures have been let off without number, after torrents of eloquence have been poured forth, much paper blotted, and much ink spilled,—recourse must be had, at last, either to a *separation*, or to a *union*; for plainly there is no other alternative; no other medium to be discovered, or cement which can last for any length of time." The result of Arthur Young's examination into the state of Ireland, seems to have been a similar conviction; and the distinguished author of the *Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations*, book v. chap. 3, after speaking of the commercial advantages resulting from a union, says, that Ireland would gain other advantages much more important. "The greater part of the people of all ranks would gain a complete deliverance from an aristocracy, not founded in the natural and respectable distinctions of birth and fortune, but in those of religious and political prejudices: distinctions which, more than any other, animate both the insolence of the oppressors, and the hatred and indignation of the oppressed; and which commonly render the inhabitants of the same country more hostile to one another, than those of different countries ever are.—The spirit of party prevails less in Scotland than in England. In the case of a union, it would probably prevail less in Ireland than in Scotland. Without a union with Great Britain, the inhabitants of Ireland are not likely for many ages to consider themselves as one people." From an anecdote recorded by sir John Dalrymple, and quoted by Mr. Goold, one of the many writers against the union, it appears that in 1776, the earl of Rochford being offered the lord lieutenancy of Ireland, was willing to accept the office if he could do some great good there, and get some great fame, and that two objects occurred to him, the one to procure a repeal of the penal laws against Roman Catholics, and the other to bring about a union with England. He sent to consult lord Harcourt, then lord lieutenant, and his intimate friend, about these measures; and though lord Rochford had at first deemed them visionary, and lord Harcourt pointed out such difficulties as prevented his friend from undertaking them, still it is evident that both noblemen regarded them as measures calculated to promote the general welfare. The opposition to a union, which lord Harcourt apprehended in 1776, would have been greater in 1785.—"To carry this into effect," says Mr. Newenham, "was an achievement which required much time; much address; much vigilance, with regard to opportunities; much discernment, with regard to selection; much promptitude, and much energy during the season of

action; for the parliament of Ireland had become attached to its aristocracy; and the people of Ireland had been rendered enthusiastic in behalf of national independence, and exemption from the paralyzing controul of Britain. Indeed, as the writer well remembers, it was considered as almost amounting to treason against the nation, to utter a syllable in favour of a union. The parliament was studious to preserve independence, chiefly on account of its tendency to enhance the services of individual members. The people were studious to preserve it, because it afforded them a better prospect of patriotic measures than they had before. But they were also anxious to reform the parliament, in order to insure the adoption of those measures which the private interests of a majority of the members induced them to oppose."

In 1785, then, all parties would have joined in rejecting a union with abhorrence; and the minister found it necessary to give up his commercial system, though beneficial to Ireland, because it involved a partial surrender of legislative independence. Circumstances however occurred, which rendered some means of strengthening the connection between the two countries absolutely necessary.

In 1788 it pleased God to afflict our good and beloved king with a malady which disabled him from exercising his royal functions. The parliament of Great Britain determined, after long deliberations, to appoint the prince of Wales regent, with restrictions; and whilst their deliberations depended, the parliament of Ireland met, and almost instantaneously resolved that an address should be presented to the prince, requesting him to take upon himself the government during his majesty's indisposition, under the style and title of prince regent of Ireland. There was here a choice of a regent before the British parliament had come to a decision, and though the choice fell on the same personage, yet that personage would have had different powers in the two kingdoms. It was a proof indeed of independence, but it was inconsistent with the connection; for if Ireland could choose her regent, her choice might fall on a different individual from the regent of Great Britain. The convalescence of the king prevented any evil; but the conduct of the Irish parliament supplied the advocates of union with a powerful argument: and if Mr. Pitt had been before undecided, this would probably determine him to take the first opportunity of carrying it into effect. In the mean time many circumstances prepared the way. The disturbances respecting tithes contributed to religious distinctions; the Protestants became alarmed at the idea of a Popish parliament; and the Catholics were irritated at what they conceived their just rights being withheld. In 1792 the Catholics presented two petitions to the house of commons, the first of which was withdrawn, and the second was rejected on a division of 228 to 25; and it was complained that the Catholics of Ireland had not influence to induce any one member of parliament to patronize their petition, so faint was the support given to it, even by those who voted for receiving it. Yet in the next session of parliament, without any change of circumstances in the country, the same house of commons, which had refused to allow the petition of three-fourths of their countrymen to lie on their table, on the recommendation of the crown passed a bill, granting every privilege for which the Catholics had petitioned, and even without the restrictions on the right of voting, which they had themselves proposed. Could any proceeding have tended more to destroy the confidence of the people in their representatives?

In 1795, during the viceroyalty of lord Fitzwilliam, the Catholics

Catholics were led by the friends of that nobleman in Ireland to bring forward their demand for a full emancipation with a prospect of success; and soon after, in consequence either of the English cabinet having changed their opinion, or of his lordship having gone beyond his agreement with them, he was recalled, and a considerable irritation of the Catholic body was the consequence. This was taken advantage of by those who had revolutionary feelings, and who well knew how to avail themselves of the popular ferment. Incited by the success of the French, and maintaining a secret communication with the republican government, an organization of the people took place; a directory was formed, which consisted of leading members of the society of united Irishmen; and in 1798, a rebellion broke out, which, though soon subdued, was attended by circumstances that left the country in a very distracted state. If the first French expedition, in 1796, had not been dispersed by a storm; and the second, in 1798, been too late to act in concert with the rebels, Ireland would, in all probability, have felt the evils of separation from England, and of French connection, and the people would have learned from bitter experience to value the privileges of British subjects; but disappointed of foreign aid, the rebels were shortly reduced, and it became the arduous task of government, by a combination of vigour and of mercy, to restore tranquillity. It has indeed been asserted, that government could have suppressed the rebellion without any effort, or rather have entirely prevented it; but that they facilitated its growth, and accelerated its explosion, with a view to bring about their favourite measure of union. The confession of the members of the Irish directory, and other leaders, afford ample proof to every candid person that such a charge is unfounded; and that if ministers had acted in the manner recommended by their parliamentary opponents, all exertion to save the country would have been in vain. Such a charge is equally the result of party virulence, as that which attributed to Mr. Grattan and his Whig friends a participation in the rebellion. But though it would be uncandid to suppose that government excited or facilitated the rebellion with a view of bringing about the union, it is certain, that when this auspicious conjuncture did occur, the minister lost no time in bringing it forward. The rebellion took place in 1798, and in the succeeding session of parliament the union was discussed.

Previous, however, to the meeting of parliament, a pamphlet published in favour of the measure, which was attributed to Edward Cooke, esq. one of the under-secretaries, produced a controversy, which was carried on with much spirit. The repugnance to the measure was very great; some of the principal officers of the crown declared their determination to oppose it, and lost their situations in consequence; the majority of the gentlemen of the bar took the same side, and several meetings of counties and large towns were held for the purpose of instructing their representatives to oppose it. Some of these were influenced by the utter incompatibility of the union with their private interests, and others by high notions of Irish independence, as settled in 1782.

On the 22d of January, 1799, the question of union was regularly brought before parliament by the marquis Cornwallis, the lord lieutenant, who concluded his speech from the throne in these words; "The more I have reflected on the situation and circumstances of this kingdom, considering on the one hand the strength and stability of Great Britain, and on the other those divisions which have shaken Ireland to its foundation, the more anxious I am for some permanent adjustment, which may extend the advantages enjoyed by our

filter kingdom to every part of this island." The unremitting industry with which our enemies persevere in their avowed design of endeavouring to effect a separation of this kingdom from Great Britain, must have engaged your particular attention; and his majesty commands me to express his anxious hope that this confederation, joined to the sentiment of mutual affection and common interest, may dispose the parliaments in both kingdoms to provide the most effectual means of maintaining and improving a connection, essential to their common security, and of consolidating, as far as possible, into one firm and lasting fabric, the strength, the power, and the resources of the British empire."

The address, which was moved by the earl of Tyrone, eldest son of the marquis of Waterford, the head of the Beresford family, and seconded by colonel Uniacke Fitzgerald, one of the members for the county of Cork, only intimated a readiness to discuss any measure likely to cement and strengthen the connection, but the opposers of it would not allow even of this. An amendment was accordingly moved by Mr. George Ponsonby, an eminent barrister, who since filled the high office of lord chancellor of Ireland during the lieutenancy of the duke of Bedford, and on retiring from it, became leader of the opposition in the British parliament; a man of great talents united with great moderation and judgment, and seconded by sir Laurence Parsons, now earl of Ross, and one of the postmasters-general. The amendment was, that after the passage which declares the willingness of the house to enter on a consideration of what measures may best tend to confirm the common strength of the empire, should be inserted, "maintaining, however, the undoubted birth-right of the people of Ireland to have a resident and independent legislature, such as it was recognised by the British legislature in 1782, and was finally settled at the adjustment of all differences between the two countries." This amendment was supported by sir John Parnell and Mr. J. Fitzgerald, who had been just removed from the offices of chancellor of the exchequer and prime serjeant, by the friends of Mr. Foster, the speaker, by Mr. Plunket, and many others, distinguished for their talents, or their influence in the country. A legislative union was however approved by several who could not be justly suspected of improper motives, and amongst others by the right honourable Thomas Conolly, who used the strong expression, "that the constitution of 1782 could not work, two independent legislatures in one empire being as absurd and monstrous as two heads on one pair of shoulders." This was indeed a striking reason for a union of legislatures, or some other expedient, if any other could be devised, which would preclude all possible future collisions of supposed national interests, especially with regard to commercial matters. In this debate, however, the advocates for a union chiefly confined themselves to urging the propriety of discussing the measure coolly and impartially, when it had been recommended by the crown. The opposers of it took a wider range. Almost all the lawyers who spoke denied the competence of parliament to entertain the question. In 1785, Mr. Grattan had maintained "that parliament was not omnipotent to accomplish their own destruction, and propagate death to their successors; that they, the limited trustees of delegated powers, born for a particular purpose, confined to a particular time, and bearing an inviolable relationship to the people who sent them to parliament, could not break that relationship, counteract that purpose, or derogate from those privileges they lived but to preserve." This opinion was maintained by several, and Mr. Plunket, one of the most eloquent speakers, as well as one of the ablest lawyers the country has produced, in express terms denied

the competency of parliament. "I warn you," said he, "do not dare to lay your hand on the constitution; I tell you, that if, circumstanced as you are, you pass this act, it will be a mere nullity, and that no man in Ireland will be bound to obey it; I make the assertion deliberately, I repeat it, and I call on any man who hears me to take down my words; you have not been elected for this purpose; you are appointed to make laws and not legislatures; you are appointed to act under the constitution, and not to alter it; you are appointed to exercise the functions of legislators, and not to transfer them; and if you do so, your act is a dissolution of the government; you resolve society into its original elements, and no man in the land is bound to obey you." Such is the strong language with which this gentleman is reported to have opposed the union; yet since it has taken place, he has not disdained to be a representative of Ireland in the imperial parliament, and has been heard with that attention and admiration to which he is entitled. The ablest advocate for the competency of parliament was Mr. William Smith, son of the master of the rolls, and since one of the barons of the exchequer, who maintained that a contrary "doctrine would not only impugn the express authority of Coke and Blackstone, and other constitutional writers, but would shake the fabric of our rights and liberties to its foundation; would go to cancel the title-deed of 1706, by virtue of which his majesty holds his Scottish crown; would question the legitimacy of that mixed assembly, which was formed by the coalition of the Scotch and English legislatures; and impeach the force of every statute which has been enacted since their junction; and would confound and violate the very elements of our constitution, by transferring the supreme authority from the parliament to the people." Whilst on this particular subject it may be observed, that the competency of parliament was also maintained by that eminent lawyer Barry, lord Yelverton, who had taken a lead in the measures of 1782. "Union," says he, "is only a law common to two states; and to say that the parliaments of both are incompetent to frame such a law, is to say that they are incompetent to answer the ends of their institution. For a distinction is to be made between the physical and moral power of parliaments. They can do any act, but there are certain acts which they ought not to do; and therefore every question of *competence*, ultimately resolves itself into a question of *expediency*. And surely it will not be argued, that though Great Britain and Ireland should stand on the precipice of destruction; that though their distinctness must be productive of misery in the extreme, and union be ever so necessary to their happiness; that they must continue distinct for want of power to unite: in other words, that though the measure should be ever so expedient, the parliaments of the two countries are yet incompetent to enact it. It is a wretched argument, and such as no man in his senses can contend for. 'The bare idea of a state,' says judge Blackstone, 'without a power somewhere vested to alter every part of its laws, (and it is the laws of every country which make its constitution,) is the height of political absurdity.'" When men of the greatest knowledge and abilities have held such opposite opinions on this question, it would be presumptuous in the writer of this article to do more than record their opinions; but he may be permitted to inquire how it has happened that such difference could exist. It appears to him, that those who deny the competence, refer to some original compact or constitution, such as the National Convention established in France, from which there is no power of departing, without the consent of an assembly, chosen for this purpose; but where is such compact to be found? Was there ever a period when the government of England

or of Ireland was to be set up anew, and when it was referred to any single person, or assembly or committee to frame a charter for the future government of the country, or when a constitution so prepared and digested, was by common consent received and established? The advocates of the competence of parliament, on the other hand, evidently consider the constitution to be founded on acts of parliament, on decisions of courts of law, and on immemorial usages. As therefore parliaments had united Wales and Scotland to England, and as the power of parliament to do whatever it deemed expedient had not been questioned in former times, they saw no solid objection to the competence of the independent parliaments of Great Britain and Ireland to form a junction for the common benefit. The constitution of England has grown out of occasion and emergency, from the fluctuating policy of different ages; from the contentions, successes, interests, and opportunities of different orders and parties of men in the community. There is no regular plan to be referred to, and therefore Paine said that we had no constitution. To return to the debate on Mr. Ponsonby's amendment, after seventy-three members had given their opinion for or against it, a division took place, and it was lost by a majority of one only. Encouraged by such a close division, the opposition used greater exertions; and when, two days after, the amendment was again moved on this report, it was carried by 109 to 104. This prevented the further direct discussion of the question during that session, the minister declaring it would not be again brought forward until its introduction should be justified by public sentiment. In the house of lords, several amendments were proposed, but the original address was carried by 52 to 17. In the minority was James, earl of Charlemont, a nobleman whose conduct was ever guided by what he deemed the interest of Ireland, and whom no selfish motives could swerve. The protest he signed on this occasion was one of the last acts of his public life, as he died on the 4th of August, 1799, before the measure could be again brought forward. As one of the arguments in favour of a union was the conduct of the Irish parliament during the king's illness, which might have led to two separate and distinct governments, Mr. Ponsonby brought in a bill to regulate the appointment of a regent, the discussions on which included the question of union. This bill went to enact that the regal power of the two kingdoms should reside in the same person, and that the regent of Ireland should be subject to the same restrictions as the regent of England, thus giving up the supremacy of the Irish legislature. The bill was opposed by lord Castlereagh, on the ground that it was incomplete, and that the danger of separation could not be cured by half-measures; and it was finally lost. In the committee on it, however, the speaker, Mr. Foster, had the first opportunity of delivering his sentiments against the union, which he availed himself of in a speech which was published, and which by its able details contributed very much to confirm members in their opposition to the measure. At the close of the session, the lord lieutenant again introduced the subject; and, after noticing the joint address of the two houses of parliament of Great Britain, recommending a complete and entire union between Great Britain and Ireland, said, "that his majesty, as the common father of his people, must look forward with earnest anxiety to the moment when, in conformity to the sentiments, wishes, and real interests of his subjects in Great Britain and Ireland, they may all be inseparably united in the full enjoyment of the blessings of a free constitution, in the support of the honour and dignity of his majesty's crown, and in the preservation and advancement of the welfare and prosperity of the whole British empire."

The proceedings in the parliament of Great Britain will now demand our attention. On the 22d of January, 1799, the same day on which it was brought before the Irish parliament, a message from the king was delivered to the house of lords, by lord Grenville, one of the secretaries of state, and to the house of commons by Mr. Dundas, the other secretary, recommending it to both houses to consider of the most effectual means of finally defeating the design of separating Ireland from England, and of settling such a complete and final adjustment as would best tend to improve and perpetuate a connection essential for their common security, and to consolidate the strength, power, and resources of the British empire. In the lords, an address expressing a readiness to concur in any measure which might be found necessary or expedient towards the consolidation of the general interests of the British empire, was carried without opposition; but in the commons, a similar address was warmly opposed by Mr. Sheridan, who used arguments of the same nature as those of the Irish opposition. He particularly dwelt upon its being a breach of what he called the *final* arrangement in 1782, and it was much disputed, whether this had been intended to be final or not. General Fitzpatrick, who had been secretary to the duke of Portland, lord lieutenant at that time, as well as Mr. Grattan and others, maintained that it was so understood; whilst the duke of Portland himself and lord Yelverton asserted that further measures were in contemplation. It seems a matter of little consequence in what manner it was regarded at that time, but as the veracity of neither party can be called in question, it affords a striking proof of the difficulty of ascertaining the views by which public men are actuated. Mr. Sheridan moved an amendment, but it was feebly supported, and finally withdrawn. On the 31st of January, notwithstanding the amendment adverse to a union, which had been carried in Ireland, Mr. Pitt brought forward eight resolutions in a committee of the house, which were to form a ground-work for articles of union. He did not dispute the competence of the parliament of Ireland to accept or reject any proposition, but he had a right, as a member of the parliament of Great Britain, "to express the general nature and outline of the plan, which, in his estimation, would tend to insure the safety and the happiness of the two kingdoms." In the course of a very eloquent speech, Mr. Pitt said, "in answer to the question, what are the positive advantages that Ireland is to derive from a union, I might enumerate the general advantages which Ireland would derive from the effects of the arrangement, the protection which the will secure to herself in the hour of danger; the most effectual means of increasing her commerce, and improving her agriculture; the command of English capital; the infusion of English manners and English industry, necessarily tending to ameliorate her condition, to accelerate the progress of internal civilization, and to terminate those feuds and dissensions which now distract the country, and which she does not possess, within herself, the power either to controul or to extinguish. She would see the avenue to honours, to distinctions, and exalted situations in the general seat of empire, opened to all those whose abilities and talents enable them to indulge an honourable and laudable ambition. But, independent of all these advantages, I might also answer, that the question is not what Ireland is to gain, but what she is to preserve; not merely how she may best improve her situation, but how she is to avert a pressing and immediate danger. In this view, what she gains is the preservation of all those blessings arising from the British constitution, and which are inseparable from her connection with Great Britain."

The right honourable gentleman then proceeded to state, that a union would be the means of securing permanently to Ireland the great commercial advantages which she then held at the discretion of Great Britain, while it would open a more free and complete commercial intercourse; and intimated, that "if ever the overbearing power of prejudice and passion should produce that fatal consequence (separation), it would too late be perceived and acknowledged, that all the great commercial advantages which Ireland at present enjoys, and which are continually increasing, were to be ascribed to the liberal conduct, the fostering care, of the British empire, extended to the sister kingdom as to a part of ourselves, and not to any thing which had been done, or could be done, by the independent power of her own separate legislature." After enlarging upon some other points, and replying to some objections, he concluded with moving that the resolutions be referred to a committee of the whole house. Mr. Sheridan urged that, "under the present circumstances of the convulsed and disordered system of policy and general government of Ireland, it was not only impolitic, but even unsafe, to agitate the discussion of topics, the issues of which were to lay the most hardy and stout-hearted prostrate at the feet of a British minister." This indeed seemed to be the principal objection urged against the resolutions, that the discussion would tend to inflame Ireland, already in a state of considerable irritation. When the house divided on the question of the speaker's leaving the chair, the ayes were 140, the noes 15. On the 7th of February, the day fixed for considering the resolutions, Mr. Sheridan, after some prefatory remarks on the state of Ireland, in the course of which he asserted that all the advantages proposed might take place without a union, moved the following resolutions:

"That no measures could have a tendency to improve and perpetuate the ties of amity and connection, now existing between Great Britain and Ireland, which have not for their basis the manifest, fair, and free consent of the two countries. That whoever shall endeavour to obtain the appearance of such consent and approbation, in either country, by employing the influence of government for the purposes of corruption and intimidation, is an enemy to his majesty and the constitution."

In the latter resolution, Mr. Sheridan particularly alluded to the dismissal of the chancellor of the exchequer and prime serjeant, because they would not support the union; but Mr. Pitt maintained, that if many gentlemen were connected together with the fair intention of acting for the service of their country, it would be necessary, in order to preserve a unity of action, that they should agree in their system. The previous question was carried by 141 to 25. In the debate which followed on the motion for the speaker's leaving the chair, Mr. Grey (now earl Grey) urged, that the calamities of Ireland were not caused by the independence of her legislature, but had been in great measure owing to the conduct of government. "Look," said he, "at the history of Ireland, and you will find, that if it had not been for the interference of British councils, and of British intrigue, none, or but few of the evils which were felt would ever have taken place: evils of which government was the parent, and which were now made the reason for taking away all the semblance of liberty among the Irish people. All the feuds and religious animosities and dissensions which had distracted Ireland had been caused by government, and yet government was making use of these evils as a pretext for taking away the liberty of the people of Ireland." The motion was carried by 149 to 24; but from the lateness

of the hour, the consideration of the resolutions was deferred. On the 11th of February another long debate took place, in which the topics chiefly discussed were, the conduct of the minister to the Catholics in 1795, and the settlement of 1782, which rendered it necessary to put off the main subject till the following day, on which the house went into a committee. The first resolution, stating the utility of uniting the two kingdoms, was opposed by Mr. (now Sir B.) Hobhouse, and Mr. Banks, and supported in a very able speech by the speaker (now Lord Viscount Sidmouth). The debate was not long, and all the resolutions were adopted without any division. On the 16th of February, on the question being put that the report be brought up, there was an animated debate, in which several members delivered their opinions, chiefly in favour of the measure: after which the resolutions were agreed to *seriatim*, and sent to the house of lords. The arguments used in that house were similar to those in the commons; the opposition was chiefly made by the earls Fitzwilliam and Moira, and Lord Holland, but no division took place. Several able speeches were delivered in favour of a union, some of which, particularly those of lords Auckland and Minto, were printed separately, and circulated throughout Ireland. The marquis of Lansdowne, and the bishop of Llandaff (Dr. Watson), though not in the habit of supporting ministers, were favourable to the measure. On the resolutions being returned by the house of lords, with an address to his majesty, in which the concurrence of the commons was requested, Mr. Pitt moved that concurrence on the 22d of April, and after a debate, in which nothing was advanced, the address was agreed to.

The resolutions thus agreed to were, 1. "That in order to promote and secure the essential interests of Great Britain and Ireland, and to consolidate the strength, power, and resources of the British empire, it will be advisable to concur in such measures as may best tend to unite the two kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland into one kingdom, in such manner, and on such terms and conditions, as may be established by acts of the respective parliaments of his majesty's said kingdoms. 2. That it would be fit to propose, as the first article, to serve as a basis of the said union, that the said kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland shall, upon a day to be agreed upon, be united into one kingdom, by the name of the *United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland*. 3. That for the same purpose it would be fit to propose, that the succession to the monarchy and the imperial crown of the said united kingdom, shall continue limited and settled in the same manner as the imperial crown of the said kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland now stands limited and settled, according to the existing laws, and to the terms of the union between England and Scotland. 4. That for the same purpose it would be fit to propose, that the said united kingdom be represented in one and the same parliament, to be styled the *Parliament of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland*; and that such a number of lords, spiritual and temporal, and such a number of members of the house of commons, as shall be hereafter agreed upon by acts of the respective parliaments as aforesaid, shall sit and vote in the said parliament on the part of Ireland, and shall be summoned, chosen, and returned, in such manner as shall be fixed by an act of parliament of Ireland previous to the said union; and that every member hereafter to sit and vote in the said parliament of the united kingdom shall, until the said parliament shall otherwise provide, take and subscribe the same oaths, and make the same declarations, as are by law required to be taken, subscribed, and made by the members of the parliaments of Great Britain and

Ireland. 5. That for the same purpose it would be fit to propose, that the churches of that part of Great Britain called England, and of that part of Great Britain called Scotland, and of Ireland, and the doctrine, worship, discipline, and government thereof, shall be preferred as now by law established. 6. That for the same purpose it would be fit to propose, that his majesty's subjects in Ireland shall at all times hereafter be entitled to the same privileges, and be on the same footing in respect of trade and navigation in all ports and places belonging to Great Britain, and in all cases with respect to which treaties shall be made by his majesty, his heirs and successors, with any foreign power, as his majesty's subjects in Great Britain; that no duty shall be imposed on the import or export between Great Britain and Ireland, of any articles now duty free; and that on other articles there shall be established, for a time to be limited, such a moderate rate of equal duties, as shall, previous to the union, be agreed upon and approved by the respective parliaments, subject, after the expiration of such limited time, to be diminished equally with respect to both kingdoms, but in no case to be increased; that all articles which may at any time hereafter be imported into Great Britain from foreign parts, shall be importable through either kingdom into the other, subject to the like duties and regulations, as if the same were imported directly from foreign parts: that where any articles, the growth, produce, or manufacture of either kingdom, are subject to any internal duty in one kingdom, such countervailing duties (over and above any duties on import, to be fixed as aforesaid) shall be imposed as shall be necessary, to prevent any inequality in that respect. And that all other matters of trade and commerce, other than the foregoing, and than such others as may before the union be specially agreed upon for the due encouragement of the agriculture and manufactures of the respective kingdoms, shall remain to be regulated from time to time by the united parliament. 7. That for the same purpose it would be fit to propose, that the charge arising from the payment of the interest or sinking fund for the reduction of the principal of the debt incurred in either kingdom before the union, shall continue to be separately defrayed by Great Britain and Ireland respectively. That for a number of years to be limited, the future expences of the united kingdom, in peace or war, shall be defrayed by Great Britain and Ireland jointly, according to such proportions as shall be established by the respective parliaments previous to the union; and that after the expiration of the time to be so limited, the mode of jointly defraying such expences shall be regulated according to such rules and principles as shall be in like manner agreed upon previous to the union, for the purpose of establishing gradually an uniform system of taxation through every part of the united kingdom. 8. That for the same purpose it would be fit to propose, that all laws in force at the time of the union, and all the courts of civil or ecclesiastical jurisdiction within the respective kingdoms, shall remain as now by law established within the same, subject only to such alterations or regulations, from time to time, as circumstances may appear to the parliament of the united kingdom to require."

Such were the resolutions submitted by the lords and commons of Great Britain to the king, as best calculated to form the basis of a union, and which were afterwards laid before the Irish parliament. The sixth and seventh propositions contain much matter for discussion, in settling the duties and proportions; but the general outline appears to be founded on equal and liberal principles. The next object was to secure such a majority in the Irish house of commons, and such declarations in favour of it, as would enable the Irish

government

government to bring it before parliament in the ensuing session. During the summer of 1799, the lord lieutenant visited many parts of Ireland, with a view to conciliate jarring interests, and was received with great marks of respect.

This nobleman had, by his conciliating humanity, engaged the affections, and by his exalted virtues and great military talents, had attracted the esteem and the confidence of the nation. He was therefore peculiarly qualified for such a purpose. Addresses were presented to him by public bodies, wherever he directed his course, most of which expressed or implied approbation of a union, and the papers were crowded with declarations in favour of that measure, signed by the principal landed proprietors. The secretary, lord Castlereagh, also, was not idle; several who had been adverse to the union were induced either to change their opinion, or to resign their seats; and it was generally supposed that the minister would not be again in a minority. Much has been said of the corruption used on this occasion; it has been charged repeatedly in parliament, and but faintly denied, yet charges of this kind are not easily established. This is certain, that either from gratitude for their support, or by a previous arrangement, the relatives of many gentlemen who voted for this measure were promoted in various ways; and that for years after, what were called *union engagements* obstructed almost any other preferment at the bar, in the church, or in the revenue and state offices. Some have vindicated this as necessary to the attainment of a great benefit, but the true patriot will never admit that a good end will justify dishonest means; and whatever posterity may think of the measure itself, the impartial inquirer will be compelled to acknowledge that it had not the *unbiased* support of a majority of the two houses of parliament, and that it was regarded with abhorrence by the great body of the people. At the same time, no exertions were spared by the opposers of the measure; seats were vacated to bring in active combatants; money was said to be subscribed to purchase boroughs; and other means, perhaps not strictly constitutional, were resorted to. Forty-eight members were brought in by one side or the other, in place of gentlemen who retired, and eight or nine were re-elected, on being appointed to lucrative places under the crown.

On the 15th of January, 1800, the lord lieutenant opened the session, by a speech from the throne, in which no mention was made of the union, and of course it was unnoticed in the address proposed by the friends of administration; but Mr. Ponsonby, having required the speech of the lord lieutenant at the close of the last session, in which he noticed the proceedings of the British parliament, to be read, moved as an amendment to the address, "humbly to assure his majesty, that this kingdom is inseparably united with Great Britain, and that it is the sentiments, wishes, and real interests of all his majesty's subjects, that it ever shall continue so united, in the full enjoyment of the blessings of a free constitution, in the support of the honour and dignity of his majesty's crown, and in the preservation and advancement of the welfare and prosperity of the whole empire, which blessings of a free constitution we owe to the spirited assertion of this kingdom of its birth-right to a free and independent parliament resident within it, and to the parental kindness of your majesty, and the liberality of the British parliament, ratifying the same in the year 1782, and which we have at all times felt, and do now particularly feel it our bounden duty to maintain." Ninety-six members voted for this amendment, and one hundred and thirty-eight against it, so that the minister had a majority of *forty-two*, on that

question, on which, in the preceding session, there was a majority of *five* against him. On the 5th of February, after a number of petitions against the union had been laid on the table, the business was formally introduced by a message from the lord lieutenant, in which his excellency stated that he had it in command from his majesty to lay before both houses of legislature the resolutions of the British parliament, and to recommend to their consideration the great objects they embrace.

A long and spirited debate took place, in consequence of which the house did not adjourn till half past twelve on the following day, when a motion for referring the lord lieutenant's message to a committee was carried by a majority of 43; the ayes, including the tellers, being 158, and the noes 117; so that, reckoning the speaker, 276 members were present at the division. The great abilities of Mr. Grattan, which had been voluntarily cast into obscurity, by his retiring from parliament, were once more brought before the public on this interesting occasion. Mr. Saurin and Mr. Bushe, who now fill the important situations of attorney and solicitor general, also distinguished themselves in opposition to the measure, in addition to the gentlemen who spoke in the preceding session; so that lord Castlereagh, with very inadequate support, had to withstand a combination of men of talents, such as have seldom co-operated on any other occasion. It seemed as if in this last struggle for independence, Ireland had united all her powers of eloquence, sarcasm, and invective, to resist her supposed enemies. In a debate which took place in the committee of the whole house, on the first article of the union, Mr. Grattan opposed the measure with such a degree of vehemence, that the chancellor of the exchequer (Mr. Isaac Corry) accused him of associating with traitors, and of disaffection to the government. The reply of Mr. Grattan to this harsh and unwarrantable charge was so pointed and severe, that Mr. Corry conceived himself under a necessity of retorting it by a challenge. A meeting ensued, and Mr. Corry was wounded. The question, however, was carried by a majority of 161 against 115; and as the discussion proceeded, the numbers of opposition appeared to diminish. There was, however, no relaxation of the energy with which the union was opposed. The table of the house was crowded with petitions, the debates were frequently protracted through the whole night, and the minister was harassed by frequent divisions. On the 13th of March, before the committee had gone through the resolutions, sir John Parnell moved, "That an humble address be presented to his majesty, praying that he will be graciously pleased to dissolve the present parliament, and call a new one, before any final measure shall be concluded respecting a legislative union between Great Britain and Ireland." This motion was, of course, supported by all the force of the anti-unionists; but on the division it was lost by a majority of 46. A similar division, after a very long debate, took place on the question for receiving the report of the committee, which was delivered on the 21st of March, and being agreed to by the house, was sent to the lords for their concurrence. On the 27th of March, the resolutions were returned with some amendments, the leading articles having been carried in the upper house by a majority of 75 to 26. On the 2d of April, the resolutions, as they finally passed the Irish parliament, were laid before the British house, in which, though there were several spirited debates, the measure was carried by a great majority. In the lords, the principle was carried by 82 to 3, and the final division was 75 for and 7 against. In the commons, a motion of Mr. Grey's for an address to his majesty, "That he would be

be graciously pleased to suspend all proceedings on the Irish union till the sentiments of the Irish people respecting that measure could be ascertained;" was rejected by 236 to 30. The bill founded on these resolutions received the royal assent in England on the 2d of July, and in Ireland on the 1st of August, when the lord lieutenant, on proroguing parliament, congratulated it on the accomplishment of this great work.

As the general outline of the measure, already stated in the resolutions of the British parliament, was not departed from, and as much of the detail must be uninteresting, it will be sufficient here briefly to state the articles, enlarging only on those points which have not been before noticed. The first article was, That the two kingdoms should be united for ever from 1st Jan. 1801; the second, That the succession to the crown should continue as at present; the third, That the united kingdom should be represented in one parliament; the fourth, That four lords spiritual, by rotation of sessions, and twenty-eight lords temporal, elected for life by the peers of Ireland, should sit in the house of lords of the parliament of the united kingdom; and that one hundred commoners (two for each county of Ireland, two for the city of Dublin, two for the city of Cork, one for the university of Dublin, and one for each of the thirty-one most considerable cities, towns, and boroughs,) should be the number to sit and vote on the part of Ireland in the house of commons of the united kingdom. Under the fourth article were contained provisions, that the Representation Act of the Irish parliament should form part of the treaty of union; that the rotation and election of the lords spiritual and temporal should be according to a form prescribed; that Irish peers, who are not elected to serve as peers, may serve as British commoners, during which time they are not to have any privilege of peerage; that the crown may create new Irish peers on the extinction of others, under certain regulations, so that one hundred may be kept up over and above those entitled to an hereditary seat in the house of lords of the united kingdom; that peerages in abeyance shall be considered as existing peerages; that questions touching the election of Irish commoners shall be decided in the same manner as those touching English ones, subject to such particular regulations as local circumstances may require, and the united parliament deem expedient; that qualifications as to property shall be the same in both parts of the united kingdom; that the king may constitute the lords and commons of the present parliament of Great Britain, members of the respective houses of the first parliament of the united kingdom, on the part of Great Britain, to sit with those returned for Ireland; that no more than twenty Irish commoners holding places shall sit in the united parliament; that the lords of parliament on the part of Ireland, shall have the same privileges as those of Great Britain, and take precedence next to those of the same rank; and that the peers of Ireland, not representatives, shall have all privileges of peerage, except the right and privilege of sitting in the house of lords, and on the trial of peers. The fifth article provided for the union of the churches of England and Ireland, so that the preservation of the said united church should be deemed an essential and fundamental part of the union. By the sixth article, his majesty's subjects of Great Britain and Ireland are from the 1st of January, 1801, entitled to the same privileges, and are to be on the same footing as to encouragements and bounties on the like articles, and in respect of trade and navigation in all places in the united kingdom and its dependencies; there is to be no duty or bounty on exportation of the produce of one country

to the other; but there shall be countervailing duties on several articles enumerated, some for twenty years only, and others as the united parliament may direct, but never to exceed those paid at the time of the union. By the seventh article, the charges for debts incurred by either kingdom before the union shall be separately defrayed; for twenty years the contribution towards the expenditure of Great Britain and Ireland shall be as fifteen to two, after which the expenditure shall be defrayed in such proportion as the parliament of the united kingdom shall deem just and reasonable, according to a system detailed in the article; the revenues of Ireland shall be a consolidated fund, which shall be charged in the first instance with the interest of the debt of Ireland, and with the sinking fund applicable to the reduction of the said debt, and the remainder shall be applied towards defraying the proportion of the expenditure of the united kingdom to which Ireland may be liable in each year. Under this head it is provided, that no article shall be more highly taxed in Ireland than in England; that any surplus of the revenues of Ireland shall be applied to the peculiar benefit of that country; that all monies raised after the union shall be a joint debt; and that premiums for the internal encouragement of agriculture or manufactures, or for maintaining institutions for pious and charitable purposes, shall be continued for twenty years in Ireland. By the eighth article, all civil and ecclesiastical laws and courts shall remain as established at the time, subject to future alterations; all writs of error and appeals shall be decided by the lords of the united kingdom; and there shall be a court of admiralty in Ireland, with an appeal to the court of chancery in Ireland. Such were the provisions of the Act of Union, as it was finally passed. We shall now add an address moved in the house of commons of Ireland on the 6th of June 1800, the purpose of which was to record the objections to this measure on the journals of parliament. When we consider the great abilities of the members who drew up and supported it, a Grattan, a Foster, a Ponsonby, a Plunket, and many others of distinguished talents, we may suppose that every thing has been urged which ingenuity could devise, or an acquaintance with the affairs and interests of Ireland could suggest; and, therefore, it should be read by every person wishing to form an opinion on the subject. It was moved that the following address be presented to his majesty.

"We, your majesty's loyal and dutiful subjects, the commons of Ireland, at all times sensible of the numerous and essential advantages which we, in common with your subjects in Ireland, have derived under your auspicious reign, beg leave to assure you, that none have more impressed the hearts of your majesty's subjects, than the adjustment, at your majesty's gracious recommendation, entered into by the parliaments of Great Britain and Ireland in 1782, thereby forming the most solemn compact which can subsist between two countries under a common sovereign; that the result of that compact was the increase of our trade and of our revenue, together with the harmony of the two parliaments, and the support of the connection; that the said compact on the part of your majesty's parliament of Ireland has been religiously and beneficially adhered to, inasmuch that a final termination of all constitutional questions between the two nations took place, and the commercial points which at that time remained to be settled, have since, without agitation or ferment, been gradually and satisfactorily disposed of.

"That under these circumstances, it is with the deepest concern and the greatest surprise we have seen a measure propounded, under the name of Union, to set aside this most

UNION.

most important and sacred covenant, to deprive this country of her parliament in time to come, and in lieu thereof to introduce an innovation, consisting of a separate Irish government without an Irish parliament, whose power is to be transferred to a British parliament without an availing Irish representation therein, an innovation such as may impair and corrupt the constitution of Britain, without preserving the liberties of Ireland, so that this country shall be in time to come taxed without being duly represented, and legislated for by a body out of the realm, incapable of applying proper remedies, and remote from the means of knowing her wants, her wishes, and her interests.

"That giving the name of Union to the measure is a delusion; the two kingdoms are already united to each other in one common empire, one in unity of interest, and unity of constitution, as has been emphatically pronounced from the throne by your majesty's former viceroy; bound together by law, and, what is more effectual than law, by mutual interest, mutual affection, and mutual duty, to promote the common prosperity of the empire, and it is our glory and our happiness that we form an inseparable part of it.

"That this union has stood the test of ages, unbroken by the many foreign wars, civil commotions, and rebellions which have assailed it; and we dread the rash and desperate innovation which now would wantonly and unnecessarily put it to the hazard, an innovation which does not affect to strengthen the unalterable interest of each country in supporting the revolution that placed your majesty's illustrious family on the throne, for that interest cannot be increased by any law; it is implanted in our hearts, it is interwoven with our prosperity, it grows with our growth, and strengthens with our strength.

"Neither does it profess to create an interest in either country to preserve their connection together, because that interest already exists, and we know and feel that such connection includes all that is dear to us, and is essential to the common happiness, and to the existence of both nations. We therefore do, with all humility, implore your majesty's protection of that glorious revolution, and of that essential connection against the perseverance of your majesty's ministers in their endeavours to force this ruinous measure.

"Their avowed object is a union of the two nations, but the only union they attempt is a union of the two parliaments, and the articles which are to attend their partial and defective union are all so many enumerations of existing distinct interests in the two kingdoms, which it cannot identify, and which require separate parliaments resident in each duty to attend to them. In respect to taxes, the purse of each nation is vested in its own house of commons by the principles of the constitution; the security of our liberty, and the great constitutional balance of the powers of the state, lie in its being left there; but the articles acknowledge a separate purse, and a separate interest in that purse, by providing for a separate proportion of expence, separate modes and laws of taxation, separate debts, separate sinking funds, separate treasury, separate exchequer, separate accounts of revenue to be kept, and separate articles of produce to be placed in the way of debtor and creditor between the two kingdoms, as between two unconnected parties; and though they state, acknowledge, and attempt to form regulations for all these many distinct interests, which no laws can identify or consolidate; and though even the legal interest of money remains different in the two kingdoms without their attempting to assimilate it, yet they take away the Irish parliament, which these distinctnesses ought rather to have suggested the creation of,

if it did not exist, and they lay the foundation of distress, discontent, and jealousies in this kingdom, if not of worse evils, and tend to familiarize ideas of separation instead of union, to the utter ruin of this your ancient kingdom, and your loyal subjects therein.

"In regard to manufactures, they acknowledge the interests in them to be so distinct, that they are forced to provide in express terms against a free intercourse being allowed between the two kingdoms, in more than twenty general denominations, and they establish countervailing duties on the mutual import of at least twenty-four species of goods, on account of the necessary difference in taxation, and the distinctness of revenue, which, from the separate interests of the two kingdoms in them, will not admit of consolidation.

"On the mutual interchange of corn, that great necessary of life, they not only continue duties, but they provide for retaining prohibitions and bounties, and instead of even alleging an identity of interest in so important and general an article, they avow such separate interests to exist in it as law cannot remove; and an interdict is necessary to be laid on its free communication between the two kingdoms, which your majesty's ministers have at the same time the hardihood to tell us, their project is to unite, identify, and consolidate, throughout all their interests.

"We see with them that these interests are distinct, and we, therefore, raise up our voices to your majesty against their impracticable attempt to consolidate them; an attempt which they themselves acknowledge to be so, by their many provisions, all intended to secure a continuance of their distinctnesses.

"But however separate these interests are in taxes, in revenue, in trade, and in manufactures; and however incapable of being identified, we have the happiness of knowing that in the great point of constitution no difference exists: both nations have a full right to all the blessings of the British constitution; and we have an identity, not a distinctness of interest, in the possession of it. Yet such is the strange passion of your majesty's ministers for innovation, that not finding any such distinctness, they do by these articles create several highly alarming to us, and to all your majesty's subjects of this kingdom, who claim an equal right with Great Britain in the full and free enjoyment of that constitution. All the Irish temporal lords, except twenty-eight, are to be incapacitated by this measure from exercising their rights and duties as peers and hereditary counsellors, while every British temporal lord is to retain his full functions. Four spiritual lords only are to have a share in the legislature, while all the British spiritual lords are to continue theirs; and two-thirds of the Irish commoners are to be disqualified, while every British commoner remains. The articles further declare, that all Irish peerages shall be considered as peerages of the united kingdom, whereby the Irish peers, who are to be incapacitated from legislating as peers, are to continue peers, and may legislate as commoners, against every known principle and established practice of the constitution: nay, even when chosen commoners, they are not to represent any place in Ireland, the country from which they derive their honours, although their voices as commoners will extend equally with that of every other commoner to all the concerns of this kingdom; and thus the Irish purse will be eventually put into the hands of the Irish peerage, in direct defiance of a great and fundamental principle of the constitution.

"All these degrading, dangerous, and unconstitutional distinctions are not only created in the Irish peerage, but are to remain for ever, without power of alteration, by a provision being made in the articles for a constant creation of

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peers for Ireland. That the Irish peerage is to be kept for ever a distinct body from the British, though the project professes a union of the two kingdoms of Britain and Ireland, and attempts a union of the two parliaments, of which the peerage is a constituent part; and this continuance of a separate Irish peerage, stripped as it will be of all parliamentary function, perpetuates a distinction insulting and degrading to this kingdom, which our ministers, if they had solely in view, without any regard to influence, a lasting union of the parliaments, to which this continuance no way contributes, would have avoided, by providing that the Irish peers, when reduced to the proposed number of twenty-eight, should be declared peers of the united empire equally with the British; and thus would have dissolved all national distinctions between them for the time to come.

"But it is not in trade, revenue, and manufactures only that distinct interests are declared to exist, nor in constitution alone that separate interests are to be created; the same distinctness is to be preserved in the administration of justice: every difference of law, every variation of practice and of regulation which now prevails, is to be allowed to distinguish the civil and ecclesiastical courts, with this one exception only, that, in the ultimate appeal, every Irish suitor is to be again at the expence and hazard of going to Westminster, instead of having a court in Dublin to resort to.

"We enlarge the more on these several enumerations of separate interests, avowed or created by your majesty's ministers, because the many provisions they propose for their future regulation are so many acknowledgments that no force of law can identify them, so as to admit of their consolidation; provisions all in themselves presumptuous and insufficient, inasmuch as it is not in the power of human wisdom to foresee the events of time, and provide now, by a system declared immutable, for the varying changes which must naturally take place in the lapse of years.

"Under the same conviction, though they profess a union of the two parliaments, they do not attempt to form out of them one with equal and common powers for both kingdoms: it is to be free in all its functions in respect to Britain, but shackled and bound up by restrictions as to Ireland. In this they deprive your majesty's Irish subjects of a parliament, such only as the British constitution acknowledges, free in its deliberations for every part of the empire it is to legislate for; such as we have a right to enjoy, equally unrestrained in its powers, and unfettered in its proceedings, as to the interests of this your majesty's kingdom; and such a one, free and independent in all its functions, as we solemnly claimed to be our birth-right in 1782, and as your majesty, in your wisdom and justice, did then graciously confirm to this kingdom for ever; but which claim and gracious confirmation your ministers now seek to take away from the kingdom for ever.

"That having thus shewn to your majesty how very inefficient the project of your ministers is to answer even the purpose it avows, and how very ruinous its operation must be, if you shall not be graciously pleased to interfere, we feel it our further duty to expose fully to your majesty's view, not only the artful delusions which those ministers have presumed to hold out of supposed advantages in commerce, in revenue, in taxes, and in manufactures, to deceive the people into an approbation of their scheme, but the corrupt and unconstitutional means which they have used, the undue manner in which they have employed the influence of the crown, and the misrepresentations which they have made of the sense of your majesty's people of Ireland on the measure. Were all the advantages, which without any foundation they have declared that this measure offers, to be

its instant and immediate consequence, we do not hesitate to say expressly, that we could not harbour the thought of accepting them in exchange for our parliament, or that we could or would barter our freedom for commerce, or our constitution for revenue. But the offers are mere impositions; and we state with the firmest confidence, that in commerce or trade their measure confers no one advantage, nor can it confer any: for by your majesty's gracious and paternal attention to this your ancient realm of Ireland, every restriction under which its commerce laboured has been removed during your majesty's auspicious reign, and we are now as free to trade to all the world as Britain is.

"In manufactures, any attempt it makes to offer any benefit which we do not now enjoy is vain and delusive; and wherever it is to have effect, that effect will be to our injury. Most of the duties on import, which operate as protections to our manufactures, are under its provisions, either to be removed or reduced immediately; and those which will be reduced are to cease entirely at a limited time; though many of our manufactures owe their existence to the protection of those duties, and though it is not in the power of human wisdom to foresee any precise time when they may be able to thrive without them.

"Your majesty's faithful commons feel more than an ordinary interest in laying this fact before you, because they have, under your majesty's approbation, raised up and nursed many of those manufactures; and by so doing, have encouraged much capital to be vested in them, the proprietors of which are now to be left unprotected, and to be deprived of the parliament on whose faith they embarked themselves, their families, and properties, in the undertaking.

"In revenue we shall not only lose the amount of the duties which are thus to be removed or lowered, and which the papers, laid before us by the lord lieutenant, shew to amount to the immediate annual sum of 50,000*l.*, but we shall be deprived of nearly as much more by the annihilation of various export duties, which have subsisted for above a century on other articles of intercourse, without being felt or complained of by us; and this whole revenue of 50,000*l.*, which operated beneficially to our manufacture, and of near 50,000*l.* more, which oppressed no manufacture, is to be wantonly given up, without the desire or wish of either nation, at a time when our income is more than ever unequal to our expences, and when the difficulty of raising new taxes to supply its place is alarmingly increased, by our having been obliged, in this very session, to impose new burthens to the estimated amount of 300,000*l.* a year; and we cannot but remark, that in this arrangement, while we give up this revenue of near 100,000*l.* a year, Great Britain is to give up one not amounting quite to 40,000*l.*; an inequality no way consonant with the impartiality or justice professed by your majesty's ministers, nor any wise consistent with the comparative abilities of the two countries to replace the loss.

"But the imposition of your majesty's ministers is still more glaring, in their having presumed to fix a proportion of contribution towards the general future expences, to be observed by the two kingdoms, in the ratio of one part by Ireland for every seven parts and a half by Britain. If they had any plausible grounds whereon they calculated this proportion, they have not deigned to lay them before your parliament; and the usual and established forms of committees, to investigate into matters of such intricate and extended calculation, have been superseded by them. Your majesty's faithful commons are satisfied that the calculation is extremely erroneous, and that, on a just and fair inquiry

inquiry into the comparative means of each country, this kingdom ought not and is not able to contribute in any thing like that proportion. They feel it a duty, too, to protest most solemnly against any arrangement of taxation, on which they have had no documents, or made any inquiry to guide their judgment, and in which they understand no consideration whatever has been had to the different legal interest of money in this kingdom, which causes a disadvantage of *20l. per cent.* in procuring capital, nor to the relative quantity of shipping possessed and used by each country, nor to the export trade in foreign articles, nor to the extent of manufacture for home consumption, nor to the balance of trade, which shews the annual increase of its clear profit, and of course the annual increase of the fund it creates to contribute from; in all of which, the means of Britain very far exceed the foregoing proportion, and particularly in the balance of trade, which in Ireland amounts to little more than half a million with all the world, but is stated by authority to have amounted to fourteen millions eight hundred thousand pounds in Britain, exclusive of an annual influx of money from the East and West Indies to the amount of four millions to the proprietors resident in Britain, and of two millions from Ireland to the proprietors of Irish estates resident there, and of another million from Ireland for the charges of her debt due in Britain; whereas the only known or visible influx of money into Ireland is the above balance of trade of half a million only: and these two sums of two millions and one million, while they add to the means and wealth of Britain, unfortunately take away in the same amount from the ability of Ireland.

"Thus, had a due investigation been made, and a fair inquiry gone into, with a view to obtain a true knowledge of facts whereon to ground a just calculation, it would have appeared that this proportion for Ireland is not only unjust, but far beyond what it will be in her power to discharge; and the rashness of your majesty's ministers, in hazarding such a measure, is the more to be lamented or wondered at, because should Ireland engage to pay more than she is able to answer, the necessary consequence must be a rapid decrease of her capital, the decline of her trade, a failure in the produce of her taxes, and, in the end, her total bankruptcy. But under such circumstances, she cannot be alone a bankrupt; and should she fatally become so, by an injudicious or avaricious apportionment of constitution, Great Britain must share in her ruin, and our great and glorious empire be brought to the brink of destruction, by an innovating attempt to take from Ireland its constitution, and substitute a theoretic, visionary, and untried system in its room. We should, therefore, earnestly supplicate your majesty to oblige your ministers to defer the measure, until a full and satisfactory investigation should be made, if we did not feel that it ought to be entirely relinquished, and that the injuries and dangers attending on it could not be removed by any change of that proportion, or reconciled by any modification of detail whatsoever. Subordinate, however, as the consideration of it is, we cannot omit remarking to your majesty, that there is cunningly and insidiously annexed to it a provision for its ceasing, even within the short period of three years, should the war continue so long; and that when we shall increase our debt, so as that it shall bear the like proportion to the permanent debt of Britain, all the delusive benefit held out by this proportion is to cease, and we are to undergo common taxes with Britain. We lament that such delusion should be resorted to; it is too palpable not to be seen; and instead of the confidence which ought to attend every arrangement between the kingdoms, such conduct must excite diffidence and distrust.

VOL. XXXVII.

"This proportion of their respective permanent debts is to be attained by increasing our debt, which we must do, and by Britain lessening hers, which she is in the actual course of reducing, as rapidly at least as that of Ireland increases. The absurdity, therefore, of the position is self-evident; for it says, that Ireland by increasing her debt, and its annual charges, will become more wealthy, and more able to bear equal taxes with Britain; but that Britain, by decreasing hers, will be less able to defray her contribution, and can only pay equal taxes. Another delusion (omitted, however, in the articles proposed) has been also plausibly offered, still further to deceive your majesty's subjects of Ireland into an approbation of this destructive measure, and a promise has been authoritatively announced or artfully insinuated by your ministers in this kingdom, that Ireland is to save by it, or that Great Britain is to give her a million a year of revenue in time of war, and half a million a year in time of peace. But we know that during a war like the present, such a promise is impracticable; and both kingdoms must strain every nerve, and draw forth every resource. We seek not to load our sister kingdom unnecessarily, by lessening our own burden; and our loyalty forbids us to listen to arguments, which offer to save our purse at the expence of Britain. But it is all a delusion, for we see nothing in the uniting of the two parliaments, which can change the course of the war, or lessen the total mass of expence of both nations; and we assert most confidently, that no gift can be made, or saving ensue in our expences, by the union, however they may be attempted to be increased by the unfounded and unfair proportion ascertained for us to bear of the general expenditure. But were the offer founded, were it effectual and desirable, its advantages rest on the misfortunes of war; and we should feel ourselves unworthy of the trust reposed in us, if we could suffer a hope; arising from the continuation of such a dreadful calamity, to direct our conduct in any measure, much less in one which calls on us to give up our constitution for ever.

"Neither can we look forward to any proposed saving from the union in peace; for we are not told, nor could we believe it, if your majesty's ministers did tell us, that a bill professing to unite the two kingdoms, inseparably united without a bill, can have an influence on the situation of the affairs of Europe, or that it can allow us, during the next peace, to dispense with keeping up the same military force as during the last; and we are further given to understand, that your majesty's royal court, and all its establishments, the courts of law, the exchequer, and all the revenue expences, are to be continued without the parliament equally as with it. But were the saving practicable, we feel it is our own duty to make it without a union; and we know that no parliament can do it for Ireland with the same knowledge, the same efficacy, and the same safety, as the resident parliament of Ireland.

"But it is not only in respect to these delusions held out as to trade and revenue, that we feel it our duty to lay before your majesty the conduct of your ministers on this measure: we must state the means by which they have endeavoured to carry it. That in the first instance, admitting the necessity of conforming to the sense of the parliament and the people, they took the sense of the commons, and found that sense to be against it; that they then affected to appeal against the parliament to the people, at the same time endeavouring by their choice of sheriffs to obstruct the regular and constitutional mode whereby the sense of the people has been usually collected: that, on the contrary, they did use or abet and encourage the using of various arts and stratagems to procure from individuals of the lowest

order, some of whom were their prisoners and felons, scandalous signatures against the constitution: that, notwithstanding these attempts to procure a fallacious appearance of strength and muster against parliament, the people have expressed their sentiments decidedly against the union; and twenty-one counties at public meetings legally convened, and also many other counties by petitions signed by the freeholders, and many cities and towns, have expressed either to your majesty, or to this house, or to both, their decided and unalterable hostility to this union; yet your ministers have, as we believe, taken upon them to state to your majesty and your ministers in Britain, in defiance of all these facts, that the sense of the nation is not adverse to the measure: that if there could be any doubt that your majesty's ministers in the appointment of sheriffs did consider how they might obstruct the people in delivering their opinion regarding the union, that doubt is fully explained by their continuing in office the sheriff of the former year in more than one instance, whence it also appears how decidedly the sense of the country is against this measure, when your majesty's ministers found it difficult to procure any person to serve the office of sheriff who was properly qualified, and was also a friend to the measure: that, finding the sense of the people as well as the parliament to be against it, your majesty's ministers attempted to change the parliament itself, and refusing to take the sense of the nation by a general election, they procured a partial dissolution, and did so publicly abuse the disqualifying clause in the place-bill (which was enacted for the express purpose of preserving the freedom and independence of parliament), that by vacating seats under its authority, very many new returns were made to this house for the purpose of carrying it; and thus did they change the parliament without resorting to the people: that before the ministry had perverted the place-bill, the sense of parliament was against their union; and if that bill had not been so perverted, that sense had remained unaltered: that of those who voted for the union, we beg leave to inform your majesty, twenty-six had places or pensions under the crown, and others were under the immediate influence of constituents who held great offices under the crown: that the practices of influence above-mentioned, were accompanied by the removal from office of various servants of the crown who had seats in parliament, particularly the chancellor of the exchequer, the prime serjeant, three commissioners of the revenue, a commissioner of accounts, a commissioner of barracks, and the curitor of the court of chancery, because they would not vote away the parliament; also by their withdrawing their confidence from others of your majesty's faithful and able counsellors for the same reason: that they procured or encouraged the purchase of seats in this house to return members to vote for the union; also the introduction of persons unconnected with this country to vote away her parliament: that they have also attempted to prostitute the peerage by promising to persons, not even commoners in parliament, her sacred honours, if they would come into this house and vote for the union: and that, finally, they have annexed to their plan of union an artful device, whereby a million and a half of money is to be given to private persons possessing returns, who are to receive said sum on the event of the union, for the carrying of which to such an amount said persons are to be paid; and this nation is to make good the sale by which she is thus disinherited of her parliament, and is to be taxed for ever to raise the whole amount, although, if your ministers shall persevere in such a flagrant, unconstitutional scheme, and the money is to be raised, it is for the union, and being therefore an imperial concern, ought to be borne in the pro-

portion already laid down for imperial expences, that is, two seventeenths by Ireland, and fifteen seventeenths by Britain: that under these unconstitutional circumstances your majesty's ministers have endeavoured, against the declared sense of the people, to impose upon them a new constitution, subverting the old one.

"That when we consider the peculiar situation of this kingdom, with the annual drains of money from it by persons possessing property in it, who do not reside, to the estimated amount of at least two millions annually; when we advert to the further inevitable drain of a million a year by the public revenue, to be remitted to Britain for the annual charges of our public debt; and that to countervail these great and tremendous issues of money, amounting to three millions, we have only our general balance of trade, not 600,000*l.* a year, to set against them; we look with dread at a measure which must on the one hand necessarily add to those drains, by adding a new and large portion of our wealthiest fellow-subjects to the present absentees, and which must on the other hand decrease that balance, by encouraging and promoting new imports of manufacture in the room of those which will decline here. We look to it with the more dread, because, notwithstanding the great loans from England, to the amount of six millions in the last three years, we have not been able to counterbalance the existing drains from hence, and the exchange has been and still continues regularly and uniformly against us. And further, because our inability to raise the necessary loans within this kingdom, even to the small extent that has been expected, is unfortunately now too evident; and the continuing to supply our treasury by loans from Britain, though it may afford some temporary relief, will regularly increase the evil. Your majesty's ministers, therefore, if they promise to themselves or to the British nation any easement to their own taxes, from the supposed accession of power over our wealth and over our resources, will find themselves most thoroughly disappointed; and if the difficulty of remittance shall increase, the manufacturers of Britain, who have hitherto supplied this kingdom, will find the demand for their goods decrease in proportion as that difficulty shall rise.

"That we understand one benefit which they hold out from the proposed measure is, what your ministers affect to call tranquillizing Ireland; but that when we look to our parliament, and see with what efficacy and promptness it has contributed to put down the late unfortunate rebellion, how inadequate a parliament not resident would have been; when we reflect that in a kingdom containing four and a half millions of people, a resident parliament must possess the quick and authoritative means of giving energy to the executive, which a parliament in another country cannot have; that the removing of the parliament tends to remove with it from the kingdom those men of large property and influence, of talents and respectability, whose presence is at all times essential to tranquillity, and may at some conjuncture be alone capable of preserving it; that their absence will leave room for political agitators and men of talents, without principle or property, to disturb and irritate the public mind; we tremble for the consequences of a measure at once the most rash and unnecessary, that ever was brought forward by any ministers, and at a time most fitted to produce every evil dreaded, and least fitted to promote any one benefit held forth."

"That when we consider the time chosen to introduce such a measure, we feel additional repugnance, it being the moment of our weakness and distress, when the country is of course less free to deliver its full and heartfelt sentiments against the illiberality of such an attempt; peculiarly mortifying

tifying to those of your majesty's subjects who had recently exerted themselves in defence of that constitution which they are now called upon to surrender, and at a time too when the spirit of innovation is abroad, and likely to be much encouraged by the example of your majesty's ministers in this their proceeding against the ancient liberties of the people, who may be rendered an unprofitable or dangerous part of the British empire, whether in consequence of this union they become slavish and abject, or restless and dissatisfied.

"That when we reflect on the great value of the acts for trying controverted elections, how eminently and effectually they have been framed for preserving the purity of election, without which the purity of parliament cannot exist; and when we see that your ministers, well knowing the value we set on them, have proposed various means to continue those benefits to us in the few elections which will remain to be held here after the union, and have withdrawn them all from their inefficacy and insufficiency almost as soon as they were proposed, and have now abandoned all hope of framing any; we foresee and dread the formidable power which the measure of union will give to the minister in all Irish elections, by destroying the beneficial operation of these acts; for the expence, trouble, and delay of trying controverted Irish elections in London, will deter many candidates entitled to be returned from seeking redress; the sheriffs, who are all appointed by the minister, will in fact nominate the members, and many of them having already obeyed the wishes of the minister in endeavouring to still the constitutional voice of the people, give us too sure an omen of the conduct which may be expected from them in elections.

"That whether we rest on this incontrovertible and self-evident truth, that no parliament in another kingdom can have the local information or knowledge of the manners, habits, wants or wishes of the nation, which its own parliament naturally possesses, and which is necessary for beneficial legislation, nor can be supplied with the necessary information, either as promptly or accurately; or whether we look to the clear proofs of that truth which the progress of this measure has afforded, by your ministers having called to their assistance in London the great officers of this kingdom most likely from their station to give full information for framing their measure, and though all their talents and all their own information, and what they obtained by letters while it was pending, were employed for months there, yet when they brought it back, a few hours or rather a few minutes inquiry on the spot in Dublin, forced them to alter their project in very many articles, complete and perfect as they thought it;—we have strong additional reason to feel and to represent the manifest and irreparable injuries which this kingdom must sustain by the want of a resident parliament, and the impossibility of legislation being carried on for it as it ought to be.

"Therefore, inasmuch as the measure of a union is an unnecessary innovation, and innovation at all times hazardous, and rendered peculiarly so now by the awful situation of the times; inasmuch too, as far from being an innocent experiment, it is replete with changes injurious to our trade and manufactures and our revenues; inasmuch also, as it destroys our constitution which has worked well, and substitutes a new one, the benefits of which we cannot see, but the numerous evils and dangers of which are apparent, and which in every change it offers militates against some known and established principle of the British constitution; inasmuch also, as it so far endangers the constitution of Britain, as not to leave us the certainty of enjoying a free constitution there when our own shall be destroyed; inasmuch as it tends to impoverish and subjugate Ireland, without giving

wealth or strength to Britain; inasmuch as it tends to raise and perpetuate discontent and jealousies, to create new and strengthen old distinctions of interests in our concerns of trade, manufactures, revenue, and constitution; and instead of increasing the connection between the two kingdoms, may tend to their separation, to our consequent ruin, and to the destruction or dismemberment of the empire; inasmuch as it endangers instead of promoting or securing the tranquillity of Ireland, as it degrades the national pride and character, debases its rank from a kingdom to that of a dependent province, yet leaves us every expence and mark of a kingdom but the great essential one of a parliament; inasmuch as it has been proposed and hitherto carried against the decided and expressed sense of the people, notwithstanding the improper means resorted to, to prevent that sense being declared and to misrepresent it when known; inasmuch as it is not grounded in all its intricate and momentous parts on that solemn and full investigation which ought to attend every measure of great moment, and has been introduced and conducted with various delusions and impositions, and with an unbecoming and suspicious haste; inasmuch as it provides for sending one hundred of the present representatives to legislate in another kingdom, though elected only to fit in the parliament in this, and does not give the people an opportunity, by a new election, to exercise their discretion in a new choice of persons for such a new altered and increased trust; inasmuch as it leaves to the chance of drawing lots the choice of thirty-two members to represent as many great cities and towns with a levity which tends to turn into ridicule the sacred and serious trust of a representative; and while it commits to one person the office which the constitution commits to two, of speaking the voice of the people and granting their money, it does not allow the electors to choose which of the two they will intrust with that power; and inasmuch as means the most unconstitutional, influence the most undue, and bribes openly avowed, have been resorted to, to carry it against the known sense of the commons and people during the existence of martial law throughout the land;—we feel it our bounden duty to ourselves, our country, and our posterity, to lay this our most solemn protest and prayer before your majesty, that you will be graciously pleased to extend your paternal protection to your faithful and loyal subjects, and to save them from the danger threatened by your majesty's ministers in this their ruinous and destructive project, humbly declaring, with the most cordial and warm sincerity, that we are actuated therein by an irresistible sense of duty, by an unshaken loyalty to your majesty, by a veneration for the British name, by an ardent attachment to the British nation, with whom we have so often declared we will stand or fall, and by a determination to preserve for ever the connection between the two kingdoms on which the happiness, the power and the strength of each irrevocably and unalterably depend."

Such was the protest which the Irish parliamentary opposition had recorded on the journals of the house; a protest which deserves the attention of the political enquirer, as well on account of the objections it dwells upon, as on account of the weakness of some of its arguments, shewing how men of the first talents and information may be biassed by prejudice and passion. To this it will be useful to add an extract from a work already referred to, (Mr. Newenham's View of the Circumstances of Ireland,) a work which may be safely recommended, as containing much valuable statistical information respecting the country, being the production of a gentleman who spares no exertions to obtain the most authentic accounts, and whose honourable character

places him far above the suspicion of wilful misrepresentation. Mr. Newenham was in parliament when the measure was brought forward and discussed, and from his connections had the best means of knowing the sentiments of many leading persons at that time. "Of those who supported the union," says he, "few appeared to be duly impressed with the real expediency of that measure; which consisted, rather in precluding all possible future collisions of supposed national interests, especially with regard to commercial matters; and in the admission of the Roman Catholics to an equal participation with the Protestants of all the political benefits of the constitution, without endangering the political power of the latter, or even affording them the smallest ground for apprehension, than in any other considerations. And yet that a legislative union of the two kingdoms, or some compact, involving a limited and occasional acquiescence of the legislature of one in the decisions of that of the other, was requisite to preclude the hostile effects which might very possibly result from those accidental collisions; and that an incorporation of the British and Irish legislatures was necessary to remove those groundless, but prevailing apprehensions which operated in excluding the Roman Catholics from parliament, and consequently had the effect of keeping them in a perpetual and dangerous state of discontent and irritation, were truths by which, it might reasonably have been expected, every unbiassed man, after due reflection, would be sufficiently governed. In opposing or supporting such a measure, a man who had the welfare of his country, and also that of the empire at heart, would naturally have been governed entirely by his perception of the benefit or inconvenience likely to accrue from the different articles proposed as constituent parts thereof. If these articles did not appear equally beneficial to both of the contracting countries; if they were not strictly suited to the respective circumstances of each; if they were not susceptible of such modifications as future variations of these circumstances might require; if they appeared calculated to create or continue dissatisfaction in either country; if they were not such as to ensure the permanence of the contract, the dissolution whereof might occasion much more extensive and serious mischiefs than those which the projectors of it aimed at precluding,—the duty of every true Irish patriot, and of every sincere advocate for the welfare of the empire, certainly required him to oppose it. On the contrary, if these articles were evidently calculated to diffuse future general satisfaction, by securing, under all changes and emergencies, an equitable participation of commercial and political benefits to the people of both countries, true patriotism unquestionably required the sacrifice of that ridiculous national pride which was to be outraged by a surrender of legislative independence.

"Instead of patiently and prudently discussing the proposed contract, with reference to its constituent stipulations, which positively was the only method by which its real eligibility could be ascertained, the Irish house of commons preposterously entered, in the first stage of the business, into violent and declamatory debates on the measure in the abstract; and suffered themselves to be governed more by national pride, individual interest, and speculative political notions, than by considerations of national benefit. The consequence of which was, that the minister, having a majority in favour of the measure in the abstract, found it eventually an easy matter to secure a sufficient concurrence in its several articles; for those who had been swayed to support it at large, and had pledged themselves to do so, would have been guilty of unusual tergiversation by resisting it in detail. Had the assent of parliament been suf-

ficient, until the different articles of the contract were thoroughly investigated, in all their bearings and effects: had each article been made the subject of a separate debate; it is not unreasonable to suppose that the union might have been rendered much more advantageous to Ireland; and, in the end, more beneficial to the empire. For, sooner than have his long meditated and indeed expedient project defeated, the minister of Britain would probably have conceded much to the desires of the Irish parliament, as he had before done to the British opposition, in the case of the commercial propositions. To the impatience and precipitancy therefore of the parliament of Ireland, which the minister ought, in prudence, rather to have restrained than encouraged, we must impute the defects of the act of union, and the probable future dissatisfaction of the Irish, consequent thereon."

These defects, in Mr. Newenham's opinion, are, 1. That Ireland should have had some appropriate advantages in compensation for the loss of a local legislature. 2. That the commercial arrangement between the two countries ought to have been regulated by the consideration that much of the wealth acquired in Ireland would necessarily flow into Britain and remain there, while none of that acquired by the latter would finally be fixed in the former. 3. That Ireland should have had some indemnification for the increased pressure of taxes from the increase of absentees. 4. That there should have been the same protection to other manufactures as to the cotton manufacture. 5. That the Catholics should by an article of the union have acquired the right of sitting in parliament; and lastly, That the number of representatives was not as great as it ought, on fair principles, to have been. It is a melancholy fact that domestic tranquillity has not hitherto been produced by the union, but it would be unfair to attribute the continuance of disturbance to that measure, and it would be perhaps too soon to despair of those advantages resulting which many unbiassed men expected from it, and which in a great degree reconciled them to the objectionable manner in which it was carried. One effect it has produced; we see Irishmen filling the highest departments of the united kingdom; and we must allow that government has shewn a general disposition to promote the interests of Ireland. It is to be desired that English members may not be prevented by false delicacy or indifference, from taking a part in the internal regulations of Ireland, as it was a benefit which many looked for from the union, that it would take legislation out of the hands of an Irish party. On the whole, it may be said that the union might have been and still may be rendered extremely beneficial to Ireland, consistently with the welfare of Britain, but that hitherto it cannot be considered, even by its most sanguine advocates, as having afforded matter of congratulation to the people of Ireland. Journals of the Lords and Commons of Ireland. Various Pamphlets respecting the Union. Newenham's View of the Natural, Political, and Commercial Circumstances of Ireland. Annual Register. Wakefield's Account of Ireland, &c. &c.

UNION, in the *Manege*, denotes the action by which a horse draws together and assembles the parts of his body, and his strength, in distributing it equally upon his forelegs, and in reuniting and drawing them together; as we ourselves do when we are going to jump, or perform any other action which demands strength and agility. This posture alone is sufficient to settle and place the head of the animal, to lighten and render his shoulders and legs active, which, from the structure of his body, support and govern the greatest part of his weight. Being then, by these means, made steady, and his head well placed, you will perceive in every motion which he makes a surprising correspondence

respondence of the parts of the whole. The legs and shoulders of a horse support, as we have said, the greatest part of his weight; and, therefore, his fore-part, either when he is in motion, or in a state of rest, is always employed, and consequently needs the assistance of art to ease it; and in this consists the union or putting together, which, by setting the horse upon his haunches, counterbalances and relieves his fore-part. Besides, the union not only helps and relieves the part of the horse that is the weakest, but it is so necessary to every horse, that no horse that is disunited can go freely: he can neither leap nor gallop with agility and lightness, nor run without being in manifest danger of falling, and pitching himself headlong; because his motions have no harmony nor agreement with one another. The trot is very efficacious in bringing a horse to this union; *i. e.* the trot, in which he is supported and kept together, and yet suppled at the same time: this compels the horse to put himself together, and to collect and unite his strength. In order to support the horse in this trot, the horseman should hold his hand near his body, keeping his horse together a little, and having his legs near his sides. The effect of the hand is to confine and raise the fore-parts of the horse; the effect of the legs is to push and drive forward the hinder parts. Now, if the fore-parts are kept back or confined, and the hinder parts are driven forward, the horse, in a quick motion, such as the trot, must necessarily sit down upon his haunches, and unite and put himself together. For the same reason, the making of your horse to launch out vigorously in his trot, and the quickening of his cadence from time to time, the putting of him to make paces, the stopping of him, and making him to go backward, will all contribute towards his acquiring the union. If your horse trots, prefers him a little; in the instant when he redoubles and quickens his action, moderate and shorten the hurry of his pace; and the more he presses to go forward, the more will his being checked and confined tend to unite his limbs, and the union will be owing to opposite causes; *viz.* on the one hand, to the ardour of the horse who presses to go forward, and to the diligence and attention of the horseman on the other, who, by holding him in, slackens the pace, and raises the fore-parts of the creature, and at the same time distributes his strength equally to all his limbs. The action of a horse, when going backward, is directly opposite to his abandoning himself upon his shoulders: by this he is compelled to put himself upon his haunches; and this lesson is so much the more effectual, as the cause of a horse's being disunited is often owing to the pain he feels in bending his haunches.

The paces have not less effect, especially upon horses that are clumsy and heavy-shouldered; because they are thus taught to use them and raise them up; and when they raise them up, it necessarily follows, that their whole weight must be thrown upon their haunches. A light and gentle hand, then, and the aids of the legs, judiciously managed, are capable of giving a horse the union; but before a horse is put upon his haunches, his fore-part must be lightened, and he must acquire that suppleness, which is the source of light and free action. Nothing can supple the shoulder more than the working of a horse upon large circles; walk him first round the circle, in order to make him know his ground; afterwards try to draw his head in, or towards the centre, by means of your inner rein and inner leg: *e. g.* I work my horse upon a circle; and I go to the right; I draw his head to the right, by pulling the right rein; I bring *in* his outward shoulder by means of the left rein; and I support him at the same time with my inner leg. Thus the horse has his head in the centre, although the

croupe is at liberty. The right leg crosses over the left leg; and the right shoulder is suppled, while the left leg supports the whole weight of the horse in the action. In working him to the left hand, and following the same method, the left shoulder is suppled, and the right is pressed and confined. When this lesson, which tends not only to supple the shoulders, but likewise to give an appui, is well comprehended by the horse, let him be led along the side of the wall. Having placed his head, the horseman is to make use of the inner rein, which draws in his head, and to bring in his outward shoulder by means of the other rein. In this posture the horseman supports him with his inner legs, and he goes along the wall; his croupe being *out*, and at liberty, and his inner leg passing over and crossing his outward leg at every step he makes. By this his neck and shoulders are suppled, his haunches worked, and he is taught to know the heels. The haunches are thus worked, though the croupe of the horse is at liberty; because it is from the fore-parts only that a horse can be upon his haunches. In effect, after having placed his head, draw it *in*, and you will lengthen his croupe: if you raise him higher before than behind, his legs come under his belly, and consequently he bends his haunches. It is the same when he comes down hill, his croupe, being higher than his fore-parts, is pushed under him, and the horse is upon his haunches; since it is evident, that the hinder support all the fore-parts; therefore, in going along the side of the wall, by means of the inner rein, the horse is put together and united. When a horse has acquired union, he becomes able to undertake and execute, with justness and grace, whatever the horseman demands of him, conformably to his strength and disposition. Berenger's Art of Horsemanship, vol. ii. chap. 7.

UNION by the first Intention, in Surgery, denotes the process by which the opposite surfaces of recent wounds grow together and unite without suppuration; when they are kept in contact with each other. It is observed by professor Thomson, that among the various powers inherent in living animals, there is none more interesting to the surgeon, nor more remarkable in the eyes of a philosophical observer, than that by which wounds are healed, or by which the different parts of animal bodies, that have been recently divided, either by accident or design, are made to reunite with each other. This is a power, the effects of which in the human body are so obvious and important, that it would not fail at a very early period to attract, in some degree, the attention of every observer of nature; and accordingly we find, from the records of medicine, that the various circumstances which promote, retard, or prevent the healing of wounds, have at all times been more or less known to the practitioners of the healing art. A very slight degree of observation, however, must soon have been sufficient to convince them, that the phenomena which the healing of wounds exhibits, are neither simple in their nature, nor uniform in the order of their appearance; but variable according to the kind of wound, and the mode of treatment, which, in the different external and internal conditions of the body, is employed for its cure.

In slight wounds, inflicted by the sharper kinds of instruments, says the same author, even the most inattentive medical practitioners must have seen, that a reunion is often speedily effected merely by keeping the edges of the wound in contact with each other; whereas in wounds in which the divided surfaces are much torn or bruised, or where, from retraction, or loss of substance, they cannot be brought into contact, the healing is always accomplished in a much slower, more uncertain, and more complicated manner. These diversities in the process of reunion (continues Dr. Thomson),

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are taken notice of by the earliest writers upon physic and surgery; and distinguished from one another by different appellations or terms of art. Union by the first intention was the term which Galen employed to express that mode of healing wounds, in which the union is speedily produced merely by keeping their edges in contact: an operation of nature, now frequently denominated healing by the process of adhesion; while union by the second intention was a term employed by the same physician to indicate the series of phenomena which occur in that slower mode of healing wounds, in which their edges coalesce more slowly; phenomena to which modern surgeons now usually give the name of healing by the process of granulation. See *Lectures on Inflammation*, p. 206, 207.

We have also examples of an union, very similar to that by the first intention, in bones which have been fractured; in tendons which have been ruptured; and even sometimes in muscles which have been wholly or partially torn asunder, without any division having been produced in the skin which covers such parts. In the sudden and violent division of these textures, a greater or less quantity of blood is always effused into the line of separation between the divided parts, and a quantity of that fluid is at the same time poured out also into the cellular membrane contiguous to or immediately surrounding the solution of continuity. When the blood which is effused is not very considerable in quantity, and when the parts from which it has been effused have not been too severely injured, it is observed to be gradually absorbed; and in proportion as the effused blood is absorbed, the divided parts seem to approach nearer together. If the divided surfaces be examined a few hours after the division, or solution of continuity, has been produced, they will be found to be covered with a substance, which, in its appearance and other properties, resembles very exactly the coagulable lymph, or, as it is now often termed, the fibrin of the blood.

This coagulable lymph appears to be effused very soon after the injury. Professor Thomson found, that in animals, a distinct layer of it was effused over their wounds in less than four hours. (P. 209.) But, says he, whatever may be the period at which it is first formed, it is now well ascertained, that in healthy subjects, when fractured, torn, or ruptured surfaces, to which the external air has not been admitted, are properly covered with this layer of coagulable lymph, and come into contact, they speedily coalesce, and that, by this lymph becoming a living intermedium, the continuity of the divided part is at length restored.

Appearances, precisely similar to those occurring in divisions without communication with the external air, take place in simple incised wounds, the edges of which have been brought together before, or soon after the bleeding from the divided vessels has ceased. If a wound of this kind be torn open soon after its reunion, the surfaces which had been united are seen covered with a substance resembling an animal jelly. This is the coagulable lymph or fibrin of the blood. It has been supposed, that the lymph is poured out from the smaller vessels which are divided; but professor Thomson thinks it more probable that it is chiefly, if not wholly, formed by the secreting action of the capillary vessels of divided surfaces.

The coagulable lymph, soon after its exudation, becomes penetrated with blood-vessels, which proceed from the divided surfaces, appear to join in the process of reunion by open extremities, or, in other words, to inosculate with one another. The blood now circulates freely through the newly formed channels of communication established between the vessels which penetrate the lymph effused upon the surfaces

formerly divided. This is the state or stage of reunion, which Mr. Hunter has denominated the adhesive inflammation. The vessels which shoot into the coagulable lymph often acquire, in the course of a few hours, a size rendering them capable of being injected.

The precise manner in which the vessels are extended into the coagulable lymph is still unknown. It has not been positively settled, whether it is the divided vessels which penetrate the lymph. The extremities of the larger branches are closed with the effused lymph, and removed by means of it, and their natural elasticity, to a distance from each other. Dr. Thomson conceives, that these circumstances are insurmountable bars to their immediate inosculature; and he observes, that if it be the closed vessels which are prolonged into the lymph, each small artery, it is obvious, must have its corresponding vein. And though the vessels from the opposite divided surfaces may by prolongation pass each other in a wound, it is not easy to conceive the manner in which they will join, or inosculate, nor how the artery becomes afterwards connected with the vein. But the inosculature, or direct union of the small blood-vessels, from the opposite surfaces of wounds, however difficult to conceive or explain, is a truth undeniably established. Thomson, p. 212.

Duhamel made an experiment, which fully proves, that in the reunion of parts which have been divided, the blood-vessels from the opposite surfaces inosculate directly, and do not merely pass one another. He broke the legs of six chickens, and after the bones had reunited, he cut through about one-third of the soft parts, covering the callus, or new bone. When the wound had healed up, he divided another third part, and, in the same manner, the remaining third part, sparing neither blood-vessel, tendon, nor nerve. Only one of the six chickens survived these cruel operations; but upon injecting the artery at the upper part of the thigh, the injection was found to have penetrated to the lowest part of the leg. "I cannot say (Duhamel remarks) whether the large vessels, filled by the injection, were dilated capillary vessels, or the large vessel of the leg itself, which had been reunited; but the experiment proves irrefragably the inosculature of the blood-vessels." Later observations than those of Duhamel (says professor Thomson) have shewn that it is by the small vessels, and not by the larger trunks, that the inosculatures are formed by which the divided parts in a limb are supplied with blood.

Mr. Hunter conceived that he had certainly succeeded in observing inosculature on the tunica conjunctiva of the eye, the vessels of which are frequently divided by surgeons in cases of ophthalmia. He states, that the two ends of the cut vessel are seen to shrink; but, after a little while, they are perceived to unite, and the circulation is carried on as before. (Hunter on the Blood, &c. p. 193.) Dr. Thomson's experiments and observations lead him, however, to believe, that it is not the divided extremities of the arteries that again unite, but the folds of small branches, that are prolonged into the intermediate space, which become the channels of communication between the larger trunks that had been divided, but the extremities of which had been previously closed.

Mr. Hunter was of opinion that blood sometimes served as a medium of reunion, or vital bond of connection between parts which have been divided, and that blood-vessels formed and inosculated with each other in this effused or extravasated blood. The practical surgeon, however, finds the interposition of this fluid between the surfaces of a wound disadvantageous, and if any material quantity be so situated, it always becomes a certain impediment to union by the first intention. There are, it is true, some instances in which

this process is not prevented by the presence of inconsiderable effusion of blood; but even in these cases, professor Thomson doubts whether the blood be not absorbed before adhesion takes place.

The lymph which is thrown out during adhesive inflammation, professor Thomson and the generality of modern surgical writers consider to be invariably formed by a process analogous to secretion or exhalation.

Our knowledge of the process of adhesion, or of union by the first intention, has been considerably extended by the attempts which have at different times been made to repair and improve those parts of the human body which had been cut off, or otherwise mutilated. Celsus treats professedly of the method of repairing mutilations of the ears, lips, and nose; but the only practice of this kind with which he was acquainted, consisted simply in paring off the callous edges of mutilated parts, in raising these edges by dissection from the parts below them, in drawing them nearer to each other, and retaining them together with sutures and adhesive plasters.

Early in the sixteenth century, a new mode of repairing mutilated parts began to be first practised in Italy. Alexander Benedictus, who published about the year 1527, particularly mentions, that some ingenious men had discovered a way of correcting the deformities occasioned by the mutilations of the nose. The plan consisted in raising a flap of skin from the arm, stitching it to the mutilated part, and after dividing this flap from the arm, modelling it as much as possible into the shape of the nose. These new noses, Benedictus remarks, bear ill the cold of winter, and he gives some wholesome advice about not rashly or severely pulling them, lest they yield and come away.

This curious subject was afterwards noticed by Gourmelin in 1566, by Vesalius in 1569, and by Ambrose Paré in 1582. The two latter erred in supposing it a necessary part of the operation to cut out a portion of the biceps muscle.

But, says professor Thomson, the best, and by far the most interesting account that is any where to be found of this mode of repairing mutilated parts, is that which is contained in the elaborate and not inelegant, though certainly prolix work of the celebrated Gaspar Taliacotius, entitled "*De Curtorum Chirurgia per Infisionem*," printed at Venice 1597. He describes most minutely and circumstantially his manner of restoring, by engraftment, noses, lips, and ears, which had been cut off. He gives a full account of the mode of preparing the flap of skin upon the arm; the manner in which it was to be marked out, and a slip of cloth inserted under it for some days; of the division of the upper extremity of this flap from the arm; of paring the mutilated part, and sewing, with mathematical precision, the flap to the nose; of the apparatus necessary for retaining it in this position; of the division of the lower end of the flap from the arm, after a union had taken place between the nose and the flap; of the modelling, or configuration of the septum; of the plasters and bandages to be applied in this stage of the process; and of the means to be used for some time to defend the nose from accidental injury. He then treats, in separate chapters, of the repair of the upper and lower lips, and of the formation of new ears. The instruments to be employed, and the progress of the artist in the different stages of his work, are likewise illustrated in twenty-two plates.

In the repair of the upper lip, this part was joined, like the nose, to the upper extremity of the flap; but in that of the lower lip, it became necessary to divide the lower end of the flap first from the arm, and connect it with the lip, so that the skin of the engrafted part might always be outermost.

The occasions for imitating the mode of practice so fully described by Taliacotius, now seldom occur in Europe; but in India, where the punishments are in some places similar to those which were inflicted in Europe in the time of Taliacotius, the art of restoring noses is still held in considerable repute. The Indian method differs from the Taliacotian chiefly in taking the flap of skin of which the new nose is to be formed, from the forehead instead of the arm. See *Gent. Mag.* Oct. 1794. Also, *An Account of Two successful Operations for restoring a lost Nose from the Integuments of the Forehead*, &c. by J. C. Carpus.

Boyer mentions, that the late M. Chopard had employed a piece of the skin of the neck to fill up a void space left after an operation for a cancerous lip. The union took place, and a tolerably well-formed lip was procured.

It has been a question, whether parts which have been completely separated from the rest of the body can be again united. This reunion, says professor Thomson, was long conceived to be in every instance impossible; but the success which in some cases has attended the transplantation of the teeth, has clearly shewn, that in one instance at least, in the human body, this reunion is possible. Of the possibility of this mode of reunion in brute animals, numerous examples are to be found in authors.

Duhamel mentions, that it was a very common practice in the poultry yards in France, to engraft the spurs of young cocks upon their combs, and that, in this situation, the spurs were observed to grow to a larger size than when they were allowed to remain on their legs. From a variety of experiments and dissections, Duhamel deduces the following conclusions. "We see then (says he) that an organized part, detached from the leg of a cock, when it was not bigger than a hemp-feed, and placed upon the head of the same animal, forms there an union sufficiently intimate to become several inches in length, while it preserves in this new situation its original organization in every respect, except in the mere circumstance of becoming larger. This, therefore, is a true engraftment performed upon an animal. Secondly; we see a bony nucleus, covered first with a periosteum, and then with a horny substance; in a word, a horn similar to that of oxen, and which grows in the same manner, connected to the cartilaginous ring by the ligamentous bands which have been already mentioned. Thirdly; this horn, by its size, and by the continual motions of the head, being prevented from uniting firmly, or, in other words, from ankylosing with the cranium, forms a kind of joint, furnished with several ligaments sufficiently strong to support it. But these organs are not to be found in the natural state, either under the comb of the cock, or in the neighbourhood of their spurs; at least, I have never been able to perceive them there. Nature in this manner chooses to supply her own wants by the development of new organs." Duhamel in *Mem. de l'Acad. des Sciences*, 1746.

The experiments of Duhamel were repeated by Mr. Hunter with similar results; and he even prosecuted the enquiry further. Amongst other points, he endeavoured to ascertain whether parts peculiar to the male would grow on the female; and if the parts of the female, on the contrary, would grow on the male. He took the spur from the leg of a young cock, and placed it in the situation of a spur in the leg of a hen chicken; it took root: the chicken grew to a hen; but, at first, no spur grew; while the spur which was left on the other leg of the cock grew as usual. "This experiment (says Mr. Hunter) I have repeated several times in the same summer with the same effects, which led me to conceive, that the spur of a cock would not grow upon a hen, and that they were therefore to be considered as distinct.

tinct animals, having very distinct powers. In order to ascertain this, I took the spurs of hen chickens, and placed them on the legs of young cocks. I found that those which took root grew nearly as fast, and to as large a size as the natural spur on the other leg, which appeared to be a contradiction to my former experiments. Upon another examination of my hens, however, I found that the spurs had grown considerably, although they had taken several years to do it; for I found that the same quantity of growth in the spur of the cock, while on the cock, during one year, was as much as that of the cock's spur on the hen in the course of three or four years; or as three or four to one." Mr. Hunter also inserted a human tooth into the comb of a cock, and there are preparations in his museum, fully proving that a vascular union was formed between these parts, as the membrane of the cavity of the tooth is seen beautifully coloured with red injection. The same distinguished observer likewise undertook experiments, with a view of learning whether the testicles of the cock would unite to the inner surface of the peritoneum of the abdomen of the hen. The attempt often failed; but four specimens are preserved in his museum, marked N° 54, 5, 6, and 7, in which a vascular union has actually taken place; and in which, though the size of the testicles does not appear to have received any addition after their attachment to the parietes of the abdomen of the hen, still their vitality had been completely preserved by the communication of blood-vessels which had been formed.

The experiment of engrafting the parts of one animal upon another, has been frequently performed on the human body in the well-known practice of transplanting teeth. That a vascular reunion may take place between the vessels of the tooth and those of the socket, seems proved by the experiments of Mr. Hunter and Mr. A. Cooper, in which the vessels of the membrane lining the cavity of the tooth, and probably the only vessels which the tooth has, were filled from the vessels of the comb, into which the tooth had been inserted.

From some facts related in the article CRANIUM, however, it appears, that if a dead tooth, or, in other words, one that has been, for a long time pulled, be inserted into the comb of a cock, it will adhere, as well as a living or recently pulled tooth. The ingenious author of that article had seen an example of a dead tooth adhering firmly in the comb of a cock, where it had been placed by the late Mr. Moore, a dentist and lecturer in London. It is known, also, that a tooth dead in every respect may be fixed without any external mechanical means in the living socket, so as not only to remain there for months, or for years, but to become so firmly fixed as not to admit of being readily pulled out, and to serve very well for the purpose of mastication. Professor Thomson informs us, that this fact was first mentioned by M. Fauchard, and the observation has been confirmed by cases, related by M. Bourdet in his book on the Art of the Dentist, p. 199. The union of the dead tooth to the living socket must be effected in all probability by the contraction of the socket around the inequalities of the fang and neck of the tooth; for the art of fixing a dry tooth principally consists in making several notches on its root with a file, before it is introduced into the socket. Bourdet remarks, that though this operation often succeeds, it does so less frequently than the transplantation of fresh teeth.

If we exclude from consideration the transplantation of teeth, the instances of the reunion of parts which have been entirely separated, are very rare in the human body; so rare indeed, says Dr. Thomson, that most practitioners still treat with disbelief and ridicule the few instances which

have been put upon record. But, he properly observes, that the different facts which have been learned respecting the transplantation of the teeth, together with the experiments of Duhamel and Mr. Hunter, prove indubitably the possibility of parts being reunited, which have been completely separated from the animal system, to which they belonged, and in which the circulation of the blood must necessarily have ceased for a time. The reader will find a variety of cases, proving the accuracy of this statement, collected in professor Thomson's valuable Lectures on Inflammation, p. 239, &c. It is to be acknowledged, at the same time, that when surgeons have attempted to reunite parts which had been entirely separated from the body, they have generally failed. But should the part retain the connection of only a few fibres, before it is replaced for the purpose of union, the circumstance makes an important difference; and union is then more frequently accomplished. The writer of this article was lately informed of a case, in which an ear, entirely separated, with the exception of a very slender piece of skin, was successfully reunited to the head again.

For most of the preceding observations, we are indebted to professor Thomson's Lectures, a work which displays a profound knowledge of all the most important doctrines of surgery.

Some additional observations on union by the first intention, and on the best means of promoting it, will be found in the article WOUNDS.

UNION, in *Geography*, one of the Grenadine islands, in the West Indies. N. lat. 12° 30'. W. long. 61° 20'.

UNION, a town of America, in the district of Maine and county of Lincoln, containing 1266 inhabitants; 50 miles N.E. of Brunswick.—Also, a town of the state of Connecticut, in the county of Tolland, containing 752 inhabitants; 12 miles E. of Tolland.—Also, a village of New York, in the township of Nassau, and county of Rensselaer, situated on the turnpike road to New Lebanon, 11½ miles about S.E. from Albany; with 50 houses and stores, a church, and a post-office of the same name, and incorporated as a village.—Also, a village of New York, in Greenwich, Washington county, situated on the Battenkill, 34 miles N. of Albany, and incorporated as a village; containing 48 houses and stores, two meeting-houses, an academy, two extensive cotton, and 12 woollen manufactures, several mills, a trip-hammer, a manufactory of files and of cast-steel, and about 500 inhabitants.—Also, a village of Albany county, in the township of Bern, 21 miles from Albany, on the road to Schoharie, from which it is distant 14 miles. It contains about 26 dwellings, several stores, &c. and a Presbyterian meeting-house.—Also, a village of New York, in Clinton county, pleasantly situated on a handsome plain, in the township of Para, 3 miles N. of the bridge across the Table river; 150 miles N. of Albany; in which are a post-office, 45 houses and stores, a Quaker meeting-house, and some other buildings.—Also, a town of Essex county, in New Jersey, containing 1428 inhabitants.—Also, a township of Berks county, in Pennsylvania, containing 766 inhabitants.—Also, a township of Huntingdon county, in Pennsylvania, containing 706 inhabitants.—Also, a township of Fayette county, containing 1821 inhabitants.—Also, a township of Mifflin county, Pennsylvania, containing 1114 inhabitants.—Also, a township of Belmont county, in Ohio, containing 1514 inhabitants.—Also, a township of Champaign county, in Ohio, containing 861 inhabitants.—Also, a township of Delaware county, in Ohio, containing 165 inhabitants.—Also, a township of Fayette county, in Ohio, containing 503 inhabitants.—Also, a township in Gallia county, Ohio, containing 367 inhabitants.

bitants.—Alfo, a township of Highland county, Ohio, containing 744 inhabitants.—Alfo, a township in Knox county, Ohio, containing 431 inhabitants.—Alfo, a township in Licking county, Ohio, containing 375 inhabitants.—Alfo, a township in Madison county, Ohio, containing 250 inhabitants.—Alfo, a township in Miami county, Ohio, containing 683 inhabitants.—Alfo, a township in Mufkingum county, containing 430 inhabitants.—Alfo, a township in Rofs county, Ohio, containing 2273 inhabitants.—Alfo, a township in Scioto county, Ohio, containing 541 inhabitants.—Alfo, a diftrict of South Carolina, containing 10,995 inhabitants.

UNION Borough, a town in Fayette county, Pennsylvania, containing 999 inhabitants.

UNION River, a river of the diftrict of Maine, which runs into Penobscot bay.

UNION Springs, a post-office in the fouth-weft corner of Aurelius, in Cayuga county.

UNION Fire-Office. See INSURANCE.

UNIONS, UNIONES, in *Phylogy*, the fame with *margarite*, or *pearls*. See PEARL.

UNIQUE is fometimes anglicized, and ufed to denote a thing which is the only one of its kind.

UNISETA, in *Natural Hiftory*, the name of a fpecies of fly, found frequently fitting on the ammi or biftops weed, and diftinguished by having one long hair or bristle growing out at its tail. See HENOTHRIX.

UNISON, in *Mufic*, is the effect of two founds, which are equal, in degree of tune, or in point of gravity and acutenefs.

Unifon may be defined a confonance of two founds, produced by two ftrings, or other bodies of the fame matter, length, thicknefs, and tenfion, equally ftruck and at the fame time; fo that they yield the fame tone or note.

Or it is the union of two founds, fo like each other, that the ear, perceiving no difference, receives them as one and the fame found. See SOUND.

What conflitutes *unifonance* is the equality of the number of vibrations of the two fonorous bodies in equal times; where there is an inequality in that refpect, and, of confequence, an inequality in degree of tune, the unequal founds conflitute an interval.

Since ifochronous vibrations produce founds that are mufical, and that are faid to continue at the fame pitch, and flower vibrations produce graver, flatter, or lower founds, and quicker vibrations produce founds that are acuter, fharper, or higher; it follows, that if feveral ftrings, however different in length, thicknefs, denfity, and tenfion, or other founding bodies, vibrate all together in equal times, their founds will have one and the fame pitch, however they may differ in loudnefs, or other qualities, and are, therefore, called unifons; and, on the contrary, the vibrations of unifons are ifochronous. This obfervation reduces the theory of all forts of mufical founds to that of the founds of a fingle ftring, with refpect to gravity or acutenefs. Confequently, the wider and narrower vibrations of a mufical ftring, or of any other body founding mufically, are all ifochronous very nearly: otherwife, while the vibrations decrease in breadth till they ceafe, the pitch of the found could not continue the fame as we perceive it does, if the firlt vibrations be not too large; in which cafe, the found is a little acuter at the beginning than afterwards. In like manner, fince the pitch of the found of a ftring or bell, or other vibrating body, does not fenfibly alter, while the hearer varies his diftance from it; it follows, that the larger and leffer vibrations of the particles of air, at fmaller and greater diftances from the founding body, are all ifochronous; and confequently, that the little fpaces defcribed

by the vibrating particles are every where proportional to the celerity and force of their motions, as in a pendulum; and this difference of force, at different diftances from the founding body, caufes a difference in the loudnefs of the found, but not in its pitch. It follows alfo, that the harmony of two or more founds, according as it is perfect or imperfect at any one diftance, will alfo be perfect or imperfect at any other diftance; and this is a known fact, *e. gr.* in a ring of bells. If two mufical ftrings (fee STRINGS) have the fame thicknefs, denfity, and tenfion, and differ in length only, mathematicians have demonftrated, that the times of their fingle vibrations are proportional to their lengths. Hence, if a ftring of a mufical inftrument be ftopped in the middle, and the found of the half be compared with that of the whole, we may acquire the idea of the interval of two founds, whose fingle vibrations (*i. e.* the times) are in the ratio of 1 to 2; and by comparing the founds of $\frac{2}{3}$, $\frac{3}{4}$, $\frac{4}{5}$, $\frac{5}{6}$, $\frac{6}{7}$, $\frac{7}{8}$, &c. of the ftring with the found of the whole, we may acquire the ideas of the intervals of two founds, whose fingle vibrations are in the ratio of 2 to 3, 3 to 4, 3 to 5, 4 to 5, 5 to 6, 8 to 9, and 9 to 10, &c. See CHORD. Smith's Harmonics, p. 2, &c.

Unifon is the firft and greateft of concords, and the foundation, or, as fome call it, the *mother* of all the reit; yet others deny it to be any concord at all, maintaining it to be only that in founds, which unity is in numbers.

Thefe refrain the word *concord* to intervals, and make it include a difference of tune: but this is precarious; for as the word *concord* fignifies an agreement of founds, it is certainly applicable to unifons in the firft degree.

But though *unifonance*, or an equality of tune, makes the moft perfect agreement of found, it is not true that the nearer any two founds come to an equality of tune, they are the more agreeable. The mind is delighted with variety; and the reafon of the agreeablenefs or disagreeablenefs of two founds muft be afcribed to fome other caufe than the equality or inequality of the number of their vibrations.

It is a famed phenomenon in mufic, that an intenfion found being raifed, either with the voice, or a fonorous body, another fonorous body near it, whose tune is either unifon, or octave to that found, will found its proper note unifon, or octave, to the given note.

The experiment is eafily tried by the ftrings of two inftruments; or by a voice and an harpichord; or a bell, or even a drinking-glafs.

This our philofophers account for thus: one ftring being ftruck, and the air put in motion thereby; every other ftring, within the reach of that motion, will receive fome impreffion therefrom: but each ftring can only move with a determinate velocity of recourfes or vibrations; and all unifons proceed from equal, or equidurnal vibrations; and other concords from other proportions. The unifon ftring, then, keeping equal pace with the founded ftring, as having the fame meafure of vibrations, muft have its motion continued, and ftill improved, till its motion become fenfible, and it give a diftinct found. Other concurring ftrings have their motions propagated in different degrees, according to the frequency of the coincidence of their vibrations with thofe of the founded ftring: the octave, therefore, moft fenfibly; then the fifth; after which, the croffing of the motions prevents any effect.

This they illuftrate (as Galileo firft fuggested) by the pendulum, which being fet a moving, the motion may be continued and augmented, by making frequent, light, coincident impulfes; as blowing on it when the vibration is juft finifhed: but if it be touched by any crofs or oppofite motion, and this, too, frequently, the motion will be interrupted, and ceafe altogether. So of two unifon ftrings, if

the one be forcibly struck, it communicates motion, by the air, to the other; and both being equidistant in their vibrations, that is, finishing them precisely together, the motion of that other will be improved and heightened, by the frequent impulses received from the vibrations of the first, because given precisely when that other has finished its vibration, and is ready to return: but if the vibration of the chords be unequal in duration, there will be a crossing of motions, less or more, according to the proportion of the inequality; by which the motion of the untouched string will be so checked, as never to be sensible. And this we find to be the case in all consonances, except unison, octave, and the fifth. See CHORD.

UNISSONI, Ital. This word written at full length, or abridged over an empty staff in a score, if over the second violon, implies that it is to play in unison with the first; if over the first violin in vocal music, that it is to play in unison with the voice.

UNIT, UNITE, or *Unity*, in *Arithmetic*, the number *one*, or one single individual part of discrete quantity. See NUMBER.

If a number consists of four or five places, that which is outmost towards the right end, is called the place of units.

Number, in general, is by Euclid defined to be ποσίδιον ποσότης, a multitude, or aggregate of units; but, in this sense, unity is not a number.

UNITARIANS, in *Ecclesiastical History*, a name given to those who confine the glory and attribute of divinity to the *One*, only great and supreme God, and father of our Lord Jesus Christ; and who maintain, that this one supreme God is the only object of religious worship.

This denomination is sometimes applied to those that are otherwise called Arians; but it is now more commonly appropriated to the Socinians, who maintain that the Father alone is the God of the universe, the only true God; that our Lord Jesus Christ was a mere man, with a reasonable soul and human body, who had no existence before he was born, either in the ordinary course of nature, or by the immediate operation and miraculous power of God, at Bethlehem, and who, in the course of his life and ministry, death, resurrection, and exaltation, was honoured with peculiar and extraordinary tokens of the divine influence and favour; and that the Holy Spirit was not a person, or distinct intelligent agent, but only the power, influence, and energy of God. Some, in imitation of Socinus, allow that Christ is an object of worship; but most of the modern Unitarians restrict prayer and divine worship to God alone: to this constitutes the distinction between Unitarians and other Christians, though many of the modern Socinians, renouncing that discriminating distinction, have appropriated the appellation, without sufficient reason, to themselves.

For an account of the progress of Unitarianism in our own country, see an Historical View of the State of the Unitarian Doctrine and Worship from the Reformation to our own Times, by Mr. Lindsey, 8vo. 1783.

UNITAS FRATRUM, or *United Brethren*, a name distinguishing those Christians who are frequently called abroad Herrnhuters, and with us Moravians.

To those who are acquainted with the history of this sect, it is well known, that their most approved writers have taken great pains to derive their origin from those formerly distinguished by the appellation of Moravian or Bohemian Brethren, and who were afterwards denominated Hufites.

Mosheim, however, observes, that they may be said with more propriety to imitate the example of that famous community, than to descend from those who composed it: for, he adds, it is well known, that there are very few Bohemians and Moravians in the fraternity of the Herrnhuters; and it is extremely doubtful, whether even this small number should

be considered as the posterity of the ancient Bohemian brethren that distinguished themselves so early by their zeal for the Reformation. But from the Moravian writers, and from Crantz in particular, *ubi infra*, we are furnished with a circumstantial account of the rise and progress of this sect from the ninth century, when the Bohemians and Moravians, and the whole Slavonian nation, were first professed to the faith of Christianity, to the revival of it by count Zinzendorf. To this purpose they allege, that when by the instrumentality of Methodius and Cyrillus, two Greek monks, Bogaris, king of Bulgaria, and king Suatopluck, in Moravia, were converted, they and their respective countries united with the Greek church; Methodius being the first bishop, and Cyrillus having translated the bible into the Slavonian language. After various struggles, the Greek Christians were constrained to submit to the see of Rome. Some few, however, still adhered to the rites of the Greek church, who, in 1176, being joined by the Waldenses and instructed by them, associated in acts of worship, and sent missionaries into many countries. In this state they continued for more than two hundred years, till a severe persecution was commenced against them in 1391. In the beginning of the next century they acquired the denomination of Hufites, and were also called at different periods *Frates Legis Christi*, or Brethren of the Law of Christ; *Unitas Fratrum*, or the Unity of the Brethren; or *Frates Unitatis*, United Brethren. Notwithstanding very severe treatment, they maintained strict church discipline among themselves; and, at the synod of Lhota in 1467, chose twenty, and out of these nine persons, of whom they appointed three by lot for elders.

Having, at this time, no bishops of the Bohemian church who had not submitted to the see of Rome, they obtained consecration for three of their priests of Stephen, bishop of the Waldenses in Austria; and these, on their return, ordained ten co-bishops, or consensors, from among the rest of the presbyters. After many intervals of persecution and of peace, towards the beginning of the sixteenth century, there were two hundred congregations in Bohemia and Moravia, which had the bible translated into the Bohemian tongue, first from the Vulgate, and afterwards another from the original text.

In 1523, after the dawn of the Reformation, a friendly correspondence commenced between the Brethren and Luther, and afterwards with Calvin, and others of the reformers. This correspondence involved them in a severe persecution, which greatly oppressed and dispirited them. The dissensions also that prevailed amongst themselves threatened their ruin, which were, at length, happily terminated at the synod of Sendomir, in 1570, when the three *Tropuses*, (*i. e.* those who held different tenets and rites with regard to non-essentials,) viz. the episcopal brethren, the Lutheran, and reformed, or followers of Calvin, agreed that they would perform divine service and communicate together. In 1575 they obtained an edict for the public exercise of their religion, which was confirmed in 1609, when they obtained leave to erect new churches. But, in 1612, a civil war broke out in Bohemia; and, in 1621, a violent persecution occasioned the dispersion of their ministers, and great distress to the Brethren in general. Among the ministers was one John Amos Comenius, bishop of the church of the Brethren. Crantz has given the succession of the Bohemian, Moravian, and Polish bishops from Stephen, in 1467, to the renewal of the church of the United Brethren in this century. In 1662, Comenius consecrated Peter Figulus, commonly called Jablonky; and, in 1699, his son, Daniel Ernest Jablonky, was consecrated bishop; and by him, it is said, the episcopal ordination has been

committed to the present Unity of the Brethren, adhering to the Augsbuurg confession, renewed by the emigration of many out of Bohemia and Moravia. This emigration was so considerable, and such numbers of others conformed to the rites of the church of Rome, that, at the close of the seventeenth century, it was apprehended that this ancient church was become utterly extinct.

Several, however, it is said, continued in Bohemia and Moravia, and retained their principles in secret; and from these the Moravian writers derive the present church, known by the name of Unitas Fratrum, or United Brethren, which, they say, is a renewal and continuation of the ancient church. About the year 1720, the revival commenced among the posterity of the Brethren about Fulneck in Moravia, and Leutomischel in Bohemia. In Moravia, one Christian David had been the chief instrument of the edification of his brethren, and the instructions which he received from ministers, whose names were Schoefer and Schwedler, he communicated, in 1717, to the descendants of the ancient Brethren. But being persecuted in their native country, some of them migrated under the conduct of Christian David, and, in 1722, put themselves under the protection of Nicholas Lewis, count of Zinzendorf, in Upper Lusatia; where they built houses upon the hill called the *Hutberg*, *Hut des Herrn*, i. e. the Watch Hill, and hence the new settlement was called *Herrnhut*, i. e. the Watch of the Lord, and the Brethren were denominated *Herrnhuters*. The count soon after removed to Bertholdsdorf, and superintended their rising settlement. Count Zinzendorf says of himself, that he had formed a design, when only ten years old, of collecting a small society of believers, who should altogether employ themselves in exercises of devotion under his direction. Accordingly, when he became of age, in the year 1721, he settled at Bertholdsdorf, and was soon after joined by a number of proselytes. In 1724, more emigrants arrived at Herrnhut from Moravia, just as the Brethren were beginning to lay the foundation of an edifice intended for the education of the children of the noblesse, for printing cheap bibles, and preparing medicines for their neighbours, in which building was also to be a chapel.

It would far exceed our limits to recount the successive emigrations to Herrnhut, and the additions that were made by the means of the preaching of the Rev. Mr. Rothe, minister at Bertholdsdorf, and the zeal of Christian David. Among these settlers there were persons of different opinions, which engaged the attention of count Zinzendorf, who endeavoured to establish an union among them in the fundamental truths of the Protestant religion, and, in 1727, formed statutes for their government in conformity to these truths.

From this period in particular, when elders and wardens were chosen, and an union established between the Brethren from Moravia, both among themselves, and with their Lutheran and reformed Brethren, the Moravian writers date the renewal of the Unity of the Brethren. The whole congregation was divided into classes of married men, married women, widowers, widows, maids, bachelors, and children, called choirs; and one of their own sex and station in life appointed to have the special care of each choir, under the inspection of the elders. The officers were appointed by lot, which has continued to be the case to the present day.

Particular attention was paid by these several classes to the instruction of youth; and as a great part of their worship consisted in singing, they proposed to instruct their children in their religion by hymns. There are some persons of both sexes appointed by rotation to pray for the society, who are said to be admonished of their duty by an inward feeling; and to determine the divine will in particular cases by casting lots. All matrimonial contracts are subject

to the direction and approbation of the elders. Such was the origin of the new sect, denominated Herrnhuters; or, as others say, the revival of that of the Moravian Brethren. In process of time, however, it became very considerable and extensive; and it adopted tenets and practices of a very singular kind. Some have charged it with adopting very pernicious notions, and with recommending very unwarrantable practices; such as disfigure the truths of the gospel, and sap the foundations of morality. The count is accused of speaking in very derogatory terms of the scripture, and with expressly asserting that the reading of the scripture appears to him to be more dangerous than useful to the society. To avoid idolatry, he says, people ought to be taken from the Father and Holy Ghost, and conducted to Christ, with whom alone we have to do. The Holy Ghost is called by the Herrnhuters the eternal wife of God, the mother of Christ, the mother of the faithful, and of the church. The language of their devotion has been charged with obscenity, and with exciting ideas not very chaste and decorous. Count Zinzendorf has incurred just censure by declaring, that the law is not a rule of life to a believer; that the word now belongs only to the Jews; and that a converted person cannot fin against light. It has been said, that no example can be found of a fanaticism more extravagant, and a mysticism more gross and scandalous, than those of the Herrnhuters. These charges principally depend upon the authority of Rimius, in his *Candid Narrative of the Rise and Progress of the Herrnhuters*, commonly called *Moravians*, or *Unitas Fratrum*, &c. 1753, and Supplement, &c. published in 1755, sanctioned by the recital of Mosheim (*Eccl. Hist.* vol. v.), and bishop Warburton, in his "*Doctrine of Grace*," vol. ii. We are persuaded, however, by unquestionable testimonies communicated to us by the Rev. B. Latrobe, a very respectable minister among the Moravians in London, that the irregularities in principle and practice that have been charged upon them are much exaggerated; and that the accusation has been chiefly owing to some unguarded expressions introduced into their discourses and forms of devotion, which, as Mr. Crantz, their historian, candidly acknowledges, "being not clear and determinate enough, and in part unrestrained, proved offensive to many divines both in and out of their congregations."

From the year 1727 to 1731, deputations were sent from Herrnhut to Denmark, Sweden, England, Livonia, Switzerland, and other places in Germany; and thus the renewed unity of the Brethren became more known.

In 1729, a deed was signed by several, and ratified by the count and Mr. Rothe, in which they declare that they are neither Separatists, nor a new sect, but descendants of the Moravian Brethren, &c.

We acknowledge, say they, no visible congregation of Christ, but where the word of God is taught in simplicity and purity, and the members lead a holy life; yet we will not separate from any one of any other Christian denomination who truly believes in Christ, though he gives a different exposition to this or the other text of Scripture, &c.

They guard against latitudinarianism in religion; they determine to maintain their ancient church discipline, without forsaking divine service in the Protestant parish church at Bertholdsdorf; they agree to the confession of Augsbuurg; they will not be called Hussites or Lutherans, but retain their ancient name, The Brethren; thus hoping for the protection of their sovereign, and that their whole cause might be examined by government.

The count's journey to Copenhagen to the coronation of Christian VI. in 1731, where he heard of the miserable condition of the negroes in the island of St. Thomas, was the occasion of the first mission of the Brethren among the

heathen, so that two Brethren went thither in the year 1732, and the mission to Greenland commenced in 1733. In 1732, the count determined to devote himself to the ministry of the gospel, and accepted the office of warden, which he had held before, in 1733. In 1734, the first Brethren went to America. The count having been examined and received into the clerical order, by the theological faculty of Tübingen, corresponded with Jablonsky, eldest bishop of the Brethren's unity, about the renewal of episcopal ordination; and he consecrated a bishop for the church of the Brethren of Berlin, with the concurrence of his colleague, the senior, or bishop of Lissa, in Poland, in 1735. And in 1737, the count himself was consecrated a bishop of the Unitas Fratrum by these three bishops; having previously obtained the opinion of Dr. Potter, archbishop of Canterbury, that the Moravian Brethren were an apostolical and episcopal church, not maintaining any doctrines repugnant to the thirty-nine articles of the church of England: and he afterwards received a congratulatory letter from the archbishop on his consecration. From this time the count is called the ordinary of the Brethren. The count seems to have been zealous and indefatigable in his labours; and it appears that, in 1739, the Brethren were dispersed in about forty places, most of which were missions among the heathen. New settlements were made in Europe and America; institutions for the education of children were established in many places; and many regulations were adopted for mutual edification, in conformity to the constitution of the ancient church of the Brethren. In 1748, a formal and very respectable commission, consisting of three counts, two doctors of law, and three divines, was appointed to examine the charges that had been urged against the principles and practice of the Brethren, the result of which was very favourable to them. In consequence of the report of the commissioners, the bailiwick and palace of Barby, where the college and seminary of the Brethren are now established, were ceded in lease to count Henry, twenty-eighth Reufs, and his consorts, and the chapel of the palace given to the Brethren.

In 1749, a royal mandate was published, importing, that the congregations of the Protestant Moravian Brethren, avowing the unaltered Augustan confession, should be received in all Saxony, in the same manner as in Upper Lusatia and the county of Barby.

An eminent divine of Saxony, dean of the king's chapel, became this year, with the approbation of the sovereign, honorary president of the Lutheran Tropolis in the Unity of the Brethren; Dr. Cochius, dean of the king of Prussia's chapel, was, with the approbation of the king, introduced as honorary president of the reformed Tropolis in the Unity, to which he had been appointed in 1746, and after his death, in 1749, was succeeded in that office by Dr. Thomas Wilson, bishop of Sodor and Man. After the state of the Brethren's church had been deliberately examined by the British parliament, an act passed on the 6th of June, 1749, in behalf of the ancient episcopal church known by the name of Unitas Fratrum.

In the mean time, as their number increased, and their local congregations became more numerous, men of different connections and principles were introduced among them; some of whom had imbibed extravagant notions, which they zealously propagated. This occasioned what they called a time of sifting in doctrine and in conduct. Their phraseology in expounding divine truths often bordered upon error; and the passions being warmed, a kind of joy took place, which produced extravagant actions. Crantz, however, observes, that this sifting did not arise from irreligious principles, nor did it end in immoral practices. Many among

the Brethren were offended, and their adversaries took occasion to reproach them. The count, it is said, interposed with such success, that in the years 1750 and 1751, almost all that had been chargeable with these excesses, in doctrine and practice, acknowledged their error with shame; those who did not retract deserted them; and those, whose relapse was dreaded, were dismissed from their offices. The consequence of these excesses was, indeed, in another respect, more serious and alarming; for the count of Buedingen was so prejudiced against them, that an edict was published, requiring the inhabitants of Herrnhaag, who would not renounce the count and the ministers of the Brethren's church, to leave the country; whereas those who complied were allowed to remain in their habitations, under the protection of the reigning count. On this occasion, more than a thousand persons, from 1750 to 1753, left a beautiful village, which they had erected at a great expence, and were dispersed in other congregations in Germany, Holland, England, and America; and the French reformed Brethren and Sisters, who lived at Herrnhaag, formed a settlement at Neuwied, which is now in a flourishing condition.

The increase of the Brethren, their new settlements, and numerous journeys and missions, involved the society in a great expence, and threatened ruin. Their debts were many and great, discouraged their friends, and gave their enemies occasion for calumny. The count, however, became security for their whole debt, which, at a stipulated time, was discharged. As soon as they were extricated from these difficulties, new regulations were adopted to prevent future distresses of a similar kind. We can only add, that the count lived to see congregations and missions settled in the four quarters of the globe; and these, it has been urged, were the most effectual apologies and defences of the principles and practice of the Brethren.

In 1760 the count died, with a memorial among the Brethren of having been their patron, and the instrument by whom God restored and built up the church of the Brethren.

But though they counted him a distinguished servant of God, yet they did not regard him as their head; for they acknowledged, from the beginning, no other head and elder but the Lord Jesus Christ, and no other father but the Father in heaven.

At the first synod of the Unity, after his decease, in 1764, a number of Brethren were chosen to have collectively, the superintendency of the whole Unity; and, in the following synods, the arrangement then made was continued with some amendments. This company is called the Elders Conference of the Unity, and consists of thirteen Brethren, who are chosen at every synod of the whole Unity.

The Brethren appeal to their lives for a refutation of the calumnies that have been circulated against them, professing themselves to be a people who walk in honesty and godliness as followers of the Lord Jesus Christ: and, as to doctrine, they avowedly adhere to the Augsburg, or Augustan confession; and, with respect to this, the public, we are informed, may read an exposition of Christian doctrine as taught in the church known by the name of Unitas Fratrum.

In England, the congregations belonging to the Unitas Fratrum are the following: viz. two in London; one at Bedford, where are houses belonging to the single Brethren and single Sisters, to which belong their chapels and societies at Northampton, Rifeley, &c.; one at Ockbrook, near Derby; one at Fulneck, near Pudsey, in Yorkshire, where are houses for the single Brethren, and Sisters, and widows, and schools for children; to this the members of the societies near Leeds and Bradford belong; one at Wyke, near Halifax, another at Merfield, and another at Little Gumerfals; one at Duckenfield, in Cheshire, where they have

two choir houses; one for the single Brethren, and one for the single Sisters; one at Leominster, in Herefordshire; one at Bristol, where are houses for the single Brethren and Sisters, to which belongs that at Kingwood; one at Bath; one at Tetherton, in Wiltshire, to which the chapel at Malmesbury belongs: a congregation was also collected, in 1759, at Haverfordwest, in Pembrokeshire. Besides these congregations, the Brethren have chapels in several parts of England; viz. at Apperly, in Gloucestershire; Frome, in Somersetshire; Plymouth, in Devonshire; Eden and Culworth, in Northamptonshire.

The wild enthusiasm of this sect forms as singular a contrast with the wisdom and perseverance of their attempts to convert and civilize the heathens, as the smallness of their own numbers does with the variety and distant scenes of their missionary undertakings. Their numbers did not exceed 600, when they first began their attempt to convert the heathens; and, in the period of eight or nine years, they sent missionaries to Greenland, to St. Thomas's, to St. Croix, to Surinam, to the Rio de Berbice, to the Indians of North America, to the negroes of South Carolina, to Lapland, to Tartary, to Algiers, to Guinea, to the Cape of Good Hope, and to the island of Ceylon. We cannot follow Dr. Brown (*ubi infra*) through his details of these missions, which he has derived from the well-known works of Crantz, and the periodical accounts. In Greenland, where they have three settlements, viz. at New Hernhuth, Lichtenfels, and Lichtenau, the number of Christians, in the year 1810, was 998; but it appears to be diminishing, not so much from their defection to Paganism, as from a general decrease in the population of this inhospitable region. In St. Thomas's, where their number, in 1812, was 2285, and St. Croix, where they have three congregations, consisting in 1812 of 8443 persons, they have been favoured by the ruling powers, and have been very successful; in Jamaica, their undertaking has been viewed with jealousy, and they have made little progress; while in Antigua they have established the most flourishing of all their missions, and reckon 11,824 members of their different congregations. Their efforts on the continent of America, both North and South, have been almost uniformly unsuccessful; at Berbice the settlement was broken up in 1763, by a rebellion of the negroes; at Hope, on the river Corentyn, in Surinam, after several partial calamities, they were dispersed in 1808, in consequence of the burning of their settlement; and at Bamby and Paramaribo their establishments appear to be on the point of dissolution. The missions to North America have been almost without exception disastrous. However, they have five settlements among the Indians.

Their late missions, excepting the one that went to the Cape, appear to have been undertaken with very little prudence, and attended with no success. In the year 1812, according to an estimate by Mr. Latrobe, they had 33 settlements among the heathen, under whose care were 27,000 converts. From the account given of their method of conversion, it should seem that argument and evidence have nothing to do with it; since they never enter into any discussions concerning the several truths or doctrines of religion, till the savages appear to believe in *Christ*, and to feel the transforming influence of the gospel on their hearts and lives. Stripped of its technical language, the meaning of this statement is that the passions, and not the judgment, are the channel by which conviction is brought to the mind; and that conversion must begin by exciting terror or sympathy, before any knowledge of the cause of either can be acquired. The ultimate effect, however, is good, though the process is absurd; and perhaps no alternative presents itself but that of beginning, like the Quakers in America, with cultivating the understanding before the evidence of

Christianity is proposed to it; or operating by impassioned oratory and awful denunciations, on those feelings and sympathies which man in every condition carries within him, and which are even most powerful where the least of intellectual culture exists.

For other particulars relating to the sentiments, discipline, mode of worship, &c. of the Unitas Fratrum, we must refer to Crantz's Ancient and Modern History of the Brethren, 8vo. published in 1780, by the Rev. B. Latrobe; and to a Concise Historical Account of the present Constitution of the Unitas Fratrum, translated from a work entitled *Neueste Religions Geschichte*, by Dr. Walch, of Goettingen, and published in 1775, by Mr. Latrobe. See also Crantz's History of Greenland, &c. published in 2 vols. 8vo. 1767. A Succinct View of the Missions established among the Heathen by the Church of the Brethren, in a Letter to a Friend, by M. Latrobe, in 1771; and a Brief Account of the Mission established among the Esquimaux Indians, on the Coast of Labrador, in 1774. Brown's History of the Propagation of Christianity among the Heathen, since the Reformation, 2 vols. 8vo. London, 1817.

UNITE, in the *Manege*. See UNION.

UNITED AFFECTION. See AFFECTION.

UNITED FLOWER, in *Botany* and *Vegetable Physiology*, are such as are furnished with stamens and pistils in the same flower. This term has been thought more commodious and unexceptionable, in English, than any translation of the Greek *ἑνὸς ἀνθέος*; however just and proper the latter may be in scientific or learned works. Most flowers come under the above description, the separation of the stamens and pistils, either in distinct flowers on the same plant, or upon different plants, of the same species, being far less common. Such a separation, however, when it does occur, presents one of the strongest evidences in favour of the Linnean doctrine of impregnation; and decidedly refutes the opinion of Tournefort, that the anthers were destined to carry off excrementitious matter from the germen and young seeds, as the kidneys of animals secrete urine. The reniform structure of the anthers, in many cases, may offer an *apology*, it cannot be called a *reason*, in favour of such a doctrine. See FERTILIZATION of Plants.

The advantage of the union of both organs of impregnation in the same flower, as vegetables are not endowed with voluntary motion, is obvious. But nature seems occasionally under some disadvantage in bringing both to perfection; and one or other is rendered, by circumstances, deficient in its usual power. Thus in *Mentha* and *Lilium*, the increase by root being inordinate, the stamens become imperfect in some flowers, the pistils in others. In *Rhodiola*, which scarcely differs in any material respect from *Sedum*, they are always so, on distinct plants. Polygamous flowers (see POLYGAMIA) exhibit a sort of precaution in nature, to guard against any casual imperfection, from starvation, in either organ of united flowers. This is effected by providing a superfluous stock of stamens, for these generally predominate, in separate individuals, whose vigour is not impeded by the maintenance of any pistil of their own, and which are, therefore, at full liberty to supply the deficiencies of their neighbours.

UNITED PROVINCES, in *Geography*, a name given to the seven Protestant states of the Netherlands, which threw off the yoke of Spain, and became independent. (See HOLLAND and NETHERLANDS.) These now form a distinct kingdom, and by an arrangement which has taken place since the French revolution, William Frederick, grand duke of Luxemburgh, and prince of Orange and Nassau, is king of the Netherlands. This prince married princess Frederica Sophia of Prussia, October 14, 1791, by whom

he has issue, William Frederick, hereditary prince, a general in the British army, married Feb. 21, 1816, to the grand duchess Anne, sister to the emperor of Russia; and Frederick.

UNITED STATES, comprehend an extensive portion of North America, situated between $25^{\circ} 50'$ and $40^{\circ} 37'$ N. lat., and between 10° E. and $48^{\circ} 20'$ W. long. from Washington. The most northern part is bounded by a line running due W. from the N.W. corner of the Lake of the Woods, and the southern extremity is the outlet of the Rio del Norte. The eastern extremity is the great Menan island, on the coast of Maine, and the western is Cape Flattery, N. of Columbia river, on the Pacific ocean. The greatest extent of the country from N. to S. is 1650 miles, and from E. to W. 2700. The area is about 2,379,350 square miles, or 1,522,784,000 acres. The population by the last census was 7,239,903, being less than three to each square mile of territory, so that every inhabitant has nearly 200 acres of land. The United States are bounded on the E. by the Atlantic ocean, and the British province of New Brunswick; on the N. by the British possessions of Lower and Upper Canada, and the large unsettled country to the westward of those provinces; on the W. by the Pacific ocean; on the S.W. by the Spanish internal provinces and the Rio del Norte; and on the S. by the gulf of Mexico and Florida. In the definitive treaty of peace between the United States and Britain, executed at Paris on the 3d of September, 1783, the northern and eastern boundaries are described as follows, *viz.* "From the N.W. angle of Nova Scotia; *viz.* that angle which is formed by a line drawn due N. from the source of St. Croix river to the Highlands; along the said Highlands which divide those rivers that empty themselves into the river St. Lawrence, from those which fall into the Atlantic ocean, to the north-westernmost head of Connecticut river; thence down along the middle of that river, to the 45th degree of N. lat.; from thence by a line due west on said latitude, until it strikes the river Iroquois or Cataraguy; thence along the middle of said river into lake Ontario, through the middle of said lake until it strikes the communication by water between that lake and lake Erie; thence along the middle of said communication into lake Erie, through the middle of said lake until it arrives at the water communication between that lake and lake Huron; thence along the middle of said water communication into lake Huron; thence through the middle of said lake to the water communication between that lake and lake Superior; thence through lake Superior northward of the isles Royal and Philippeaux, to the Long Lake; thence through the middle of said Long Lake and the water communication between it and the Lake of the Woods, to the said Lake of the Woods; thence through the said lake to the most north-western point thereof, and from thence on a due west course to the river Mississippi. East by a line to be drawn along the middle of the river St. Croix, from its mouth in the Bay of Fundy to its source, and from its source directly N. to the aforesaid Highlands which divide the rivers that fall into the Atlantic ocean from those which fall into the river St. Lawrence; comprehending all islands within twenty leagues of any part of the shores of the United States, and lying between lines to be drawn due E. from the points where the aforesaid boundaries between Nova Scotia on the one part, and East Florida on the other, shall respectively touch the bay of Fundy and the Atlantic ocean; excepting such islands as now are, or heretofore have been, within the limits of the said province of Nova Scotia."

As to the country west of the Lake of the Woods, it is evident that the commissioners were of opinion, that it should be part of the territory of the United States, as

high as a line to be run due W. from the N.W. corner of that lake until it reached as far W. as the Mississippi; which was at that period the western boundary of the United States. Subsequent events have annexed the whole of Louisiana to the country, so that the northern boundary of it behoves to be ascertained, as it was possessed by France; but the country never having been settled, the boundary has not been accurately defined. The best course, says Mr. Melish, in the construction of his map, has appeared to be to run the boundary line due W. from the N.W. corner of the Lake of the Woods to the gulf of Georgia, and thence along that gulf, and the straits of Juan de Fuca, to the Pacific ocean. As the French were the first settlers in Louisiana, maps founded on their claims furnish evidence as to the western limits of Louisiana of undoubted authority, and fix the boundary line on the W. side of the Rio del Norte, to the Rio Salado, corresponding to the Rio Puerco of more modern maps; and it is continued along that river nearly to its source. From thence it passes to the E. of Santa Fé, to between the 37th and 38th degrees of N. lat., where it crosses the Rio del Norte, and is so continued to about half a degree W. of that river; then along that river to its source, where the limits of Louisiana are undefined. Towards the Pacific ocean, we have no very correct data, says Mr. Melish, for forming an opinion as to the boundaries. The following view of the subject, he says, is the result of the best information that can be obtained.

The Missouri and its waters are unquestionably part of the United States territory, in virtue of the purchase of Louisiana; and it is presumed, that the title is equally unquestionable as to the Columbia and its waters, to a line drawn due W. from the N.W. corner of the Lake of the Woods. This includes the Multnomah on the S., but leaves the question undetermined in the unexplored country between that river and the bay of St. Francisco. From the latest accounts, it appears that the Spaniards have no settlements above that bay, and probably will have none, so that the country may be considered virtually a part of the United States territory, provided they should consider it of importance to take possession, and settle it.

The face of the country in the United States presents every variety. The north-eastern part on the coast is broken and hilly; and is remarkably indented with numerous bays and inlets. Towards the S., and along the gulf of Mexico, the land is level and sandy, interspersed with many swamps, and numerous islands and inlets. At the outlets of many of the rivers, there is a large portion of alluvial land, which is particularly the case along the Mississippi. Beyond the head of tide waters, there is a tolerably rich and agreeably uneven country, which extends to the mountains. The mountainous district, on the Atlantic side of the country, is about 150 miles in breadth, and 1200 miles in length; extending in large ridges from N.E. to S.W. These ridges are generally known by the name of the Alleghany mountains, and are of various elevations, from 2000 to 4000 feet. The highest point seems to be the White Hills, in New Hampshire, which rises to the elevation of nearly 9000 feet. Beyond the mountains we have a view of the great valley of the Mississippi and its tributary streams, presenting a body of the finest land in the world, and possessing great natural advantages. To the westward of this valley are the mountains of Louisiana, presenting features singularly bold and grand. The rocky mountains, in particular, are very majestic; and the vast variety produced by the great mass of waters forming the tributary streams of the Missouri and Columbia, must render the scenery in that region singularly interesting. Beyond these principal

UNITED STATES.

principal feature is the great confluence of waters at the outlet of the Columbia river, and the bold shores of the Pacific ocean.

The principal rivers of the United States are the St. Lawrence and its waters, the Columbia and its waters, the St. Francisco, the Rio del Norte, and the Missouri and Mississippi, and the waters that flow into them. The river St. Lawrence is formed by the waters that are collected about lake Superior, from which they issue into lake Huron through the straits of St. Mary, and from it, by the straits of that name about forty miles long, into lake St. Clair. From this lake the waters pass into lake Erie, through the straits of Detroit, an important and beautiful passage, about 30 miles long. (See DETROIT.) Between Buffalo on one side and Fort Erie on the other, the water is discharged from the lake, and by a rapid course runs towards lake Ontario, through the passage called Niagara river. About five miles below lake Erie, the stream is divided by Grand island, below which is Navy island, where it expands to a considerable breadth, above the falls of *Niagara*; which see. Below the falls the river runs very rapidly for nine miles, through a deep chasm, and is navigable to lake Ontario, a distance of seven miles. From lake Ontario the river issues through a great number of islands, situated between Kingston and Sackett's Harbour. Here it assumes the name of St. Lawrence, though from the lake to Montreal it is frequently denominated *Cadaraqui*. In its progress it expands into a considerable lake, called St. Francis; and when it reaches Montreal, it receives the Utawas, or Grand river, which forms the boundary between the two Canadas. Below Montreal, it receives the Richelieu, or Sorel river, from lake Champlain, and in succession the St. Francis, St. Maurice, and Chaudiere, below which, at a small distance, stands Quebec, and below this city the river is divided into two branches by the island of Orleans. Beyond this island it gradually expands into the spacious bay and gulf of St. Lawrence, which communicates with the ocean by the straits of Bellefleur, and what is called the South Entrance. See ST. LAWRENCE.

Columbia river is supposed to take its rise about 300 miles N.E. of the point at which it interlocks with the head waters of the Unjigah or Peace river. It was first discovered by the enterprising British traveller, Mr. McKenzie, in N. lat. $54^{\circ} 40'$. W. long. $120^{\circ} 25'$, from London; and he descended it about 150 miles, and then leaving it, travelled the country to the ocean. From the point where he left it, its course is unknown till it is joined by Clark's river, where it is a large stream. About seventy miles below Clark's river, after receiving some tributary streams, the Columbia forms a junction with Lewis's river, formed of many branches, which rise in the Rocky mountains, where, like Clark's river, they interlock with the head waters of the Missouri. Below Lewis's river, the Columbia bends to the S. and E., and then passes through the mountains; and about 300 miles below are the Great Falls. About twenty miles below the falls, the river makes a considerable bend, and passes through another chain of mountains; below which, about 60 miles, it receives from the S.E. the large and important river called the Multnomah. From the Multnomah, supposed to rise near the head waters of the Rio del Norte, to the ocean, which is a distance of about 90 miles, it is all tide-water, through good land, with many Indian settlements. The waters of the Columbia are clear, and abound with every variety of fish.

The *St. Francisco* river is a very large stream, 270 miles in the interior of the country; a part of it being formed by the Rio Buenaventura, and its waters, which interlock with the waters of the Rio del Norte and La Platte, and open-

ing, in process of time, an excellent communication with the settlements on the W. coast of America.

The *Rio del Norte* rises among the mountains between N. lat. 44° and 42° , and 33° and 34° W. long. Its head waters interlock with those of the Missouri, Columbia, La Platte, Arkansas, Multnomah, and Francisco: and the waters of the Rio Colorado of the west, which fall into the gulf of California, approach near it. In a progress of about 300 miles to the point where the traveller Pike and his party first encamped upon it, it is presumed to be the S.W. boundary of Louisiana. About 100 miles below this is Santa Fé, an interesting Spanish settlement: below Santa Fé, the river runs about 450 miles in a direction E. of S., without any material augmentation, when the Rio Conchos falls into it from the S.W. Below this it makes a bend of about 100 miles, and receives the Rio Puerco from the N. At this river the Rio del Norte again becomes the S.W. boundary of Louisiana. Below this it pursues an E. course of between 50 and 60 miles, when it receives a considerable stream from the N.; and from hence, without much increase, its course is nearly S.E., about 400 miles, to the gulf of Mexico. See RIO.

The Missouri and Mississippi, with their numerous branches, water the interior of the United States. The highest source of the *Missouri* (which see) lies on Jefferson's river, a little above the 44th degree of latitude, and near the 35th degree of W. longitude, 3000 miles from the Mississippi. From this point, in descending it, we arrive in succession at Philanthropy river, Wisdom river, Philosophy river, Madison's river, Gallatin's river, Ordway river, Dearborn's river, and Smith's river, and then reach the falls of the Missouri, which are perpendicular descents, and partly rapids, the river falling no less than 365 feet in the course of 18 miles. The highest pitch is 87 feet, the next 47, and the next 26. Passing the falls, we arrive at Portage river, Snow river, Maria's river, Stone-wall creek, Slaughter river, Big Horn river, Judith river, Turtle creek, Windfor creek, North Mountain creek, others of less note, Bralton's creek, Milk creek, Porcupine creek, and Martha's creek, and then come to the Yellowstone river, which flows in from the S.W. The Yellowstone is a large river, the main branch of which rises in lake Eulatus, and after receiving numerous tributary streams, the Big Horn, a river nearly equal to it in size, which rises in lake Biddle, falls in from the southward; and the streams thus united and augmented by others, particularly the Tongue river, form a confluence with the Missouri, in N. lat. 48° . W. long. 27° . Beyond this, at a small distance, the Missouri reaches its northern extremity in N. lat. $48^{\circ} 22'$, where it receives the White-earth river, and beyond this the head waters of the Moose river approach within one mile of the main stream of the Missouri. Below this, the river is augmented by the Little Missouri, and after passing the Knife river, we arrive at Fort Mandan. Between 43° and 44° , there is a great bend in the river; and below it the river receives a number of pretty large streams, before we reach the La Platte, a little above N. lat. 41° . This is a very large stream, extending through several ridges of the rocky mountains, the head waters of which are higher than either the Arkansas or Rio del Norte. Passing the La Platte, the Missouri receives many tributary streams, before it reaches the Kansas, a large river, which falls in from the W., a little above the 39th degree of N. lat. Below this it is augmented by some important streams from the N., and afterwards the beautiful Ogage river falls in from the S.W. Below this river, about 120 miles, the Missouri joins the Mississippi, above St. Louis; from whence the united streams flow with majestic rapidity to the ocean.

UNITED STATES.

The *Mississippi* (which see) rises; says Mr. Melish, in Turtle lake, N. lat. $47^{\circ} 47'$, and after receiving several tributary streams, reaches the falls of St. Anthony in N. lat. 44° , which falls are 16 feet perpendicular, with a rapid below of 58 feet. Below the falls, St. Peter's river forms a junction with the Mississippi from the W., and a little further, St. Croix river falls in from the E. About 15 miles below this, the river spreads out into a beautiful sheet of water, called lake Pepin, at the lower end of which it receives the waters of the Chippeway river. About 90 miles below this river, the Ouifconfin falls in from the eastward, which river approaches within $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile of the Fox river, which falls into lake Michigan. At the mouth of the Ouifconfin river is Prairie du Chien, where the United States have lately formed a military establishment, which will undoubtedly be very important to the settlements of this part of the country. After passing the Ouifconfin river, the Mississippi makes a considerable bend to the eastward, and meets the northern boundary of the Illinois territory; then bending westward about 30 miles, it receives Stony river. About 80 or 90 miles below this, the Riviere des Moines falls in from the westward, and then the Illinois falls in from the eastward, a little above the junction of the Mississippi and the Missouri. The Illinois is a large river, the head waters of which interlock so closely with those falling into lake Michigan, that canoes, it is said, have sometimes in the wet season passed from the one to the other. About 12 miles below the confluence of the Illinois with the Mississippi, we arrive at the junction of the Mississippi and Missouri: the former of which is, according to Mr. Melish, inferior in importance to the latter. The Missouri, he says, is the main stream, and the Mississippi only a tributary branch. The former is in length double the latter, and receives before its junction with it, the waters of many streams, one of which, the La Platte, is longer than the Mississippi. The Arkansas and Red river are also much longer; and the Ohio, allowing for its great bends, is also longer; and taken in connection with the Cumberland and Tennessee, is a river of much greater importance.

After leaving St. Louis, we pass along the Mississippi about 80 miles to Kaskaskia, where the Kaskaskia, a considerable stream, falls in from the eastward; and about 90 miles further below this, the Ohio river, augmented by its numerous branches, joins the Mississippi. About 350 miles below the Ohio, the White river, a beautiful stream, falls in from the westward: 14 miles below this river, the Arkansas, a very large and important river, having its sources in the mountains above Santa Fé, falls in from the westward. Below the Arkansas river, 100 miles, the Yazoo falls in from the eastward: the Big Black river also falls into the Mississippi 63 miles by water, but only 30 in a direct line by land, below the Yazoo. A few miles below this, we pass the 31st degree of N. lat., which forms the boundary between the state of Louisiana and the Mississippi territory; after which the river bends to the westward, and receives the waters of the Red river. The Red river rises in the mountains, E. of Santa Fé, between 37° and 38° of N. lat., and pursuing mostly a S.E. course, makes several bends, and receives no considerable streams until it joins the Wachitta, and its great mass of waters, a few miles before it reaches the Mississippi. The latter passes to the sea by New Orleans and the Red river, through the Atchafalaya. As this river receives no streams of importance after passing the Atchafalaya, it may be considered as having reached its maximum; and it may be viewed in its progress from hence to the ocean, as having an average breadth of 800 yards, its depth about 120 feet, and the velocity of its current about one mile *per* hour. Accordingly, it runs on with majestic

sway, and passes St. Francisville, Baton-Rouge, Donaldsonville, Manchac, and, 250 miles below the Atchafalaya, reaches New Orleans, where it makes a considerable bend to the S. and E. After passing the English Turn, a considerable bend in the river, 16 miles below New Orleans, situated on its northern bank, we next meet fort St. Philip, or Plaquemines, distant 54 miles. Below this, at the interval of 19 miles, the river separates into three grand divisions, *viz.* the South-east or Main Pass, the South Pass, and the South-west Pass. Four miles below the Forks, on the Main Pass, a stream issues to the N.E., called Pass à la Loutre, and the Main Pass is divided into two parts at the outlet, one called the North and the other the South-east Pass. The South-west Pass is also divided into two parts at the outlet; the western one being called the West Pass. On all these passes there are bars at the outlet, with the water comparatively shallow: the Main Pass has about 13 feet; the South-west Pass 12; the West Pass 9; and the South Pass 8. The course of the river may be traced to a considerable distance from the shore, when it is finally lost in the mals of waters forming the gulf of Mexico.

Mr. Darby, in his valuable work on Louisiana, has given the following calculation of the quantity of water discharged by the Mississippi. In one foot longitudinal section of the river, it is estimated that there are 141,372 cubic feet of water, the mean velocity being one mile *per* hour; and as the mile contains 5280 feet, the river will of course discharge 5280 times 141,372, or 746,444,160 cubic feet of water every hour. This being reduced to gallons, gives 4,573,938,000, being upwards of 76 millions of gallons in a minute, and of 1270 thousand gallons in every second of time. The magnitude and importance of this river are exhibited by Mr. Melish in another point of view, thus: the eastern extremity of the waters of this river is the head waters of the Alleghany, which are situated in Pennsylvania, about 190 miles N.W. of Philadelphia: the western extremity is the head waters of Jefferson's river, about 540 miles from the Pacific ocean; and the distance between these two extremities, in a direct line, is about 1700 miles. The northern extremity is a branch of the Missouri, in $50^{\circ} 42'$ N. lat., 550 miles W. by N. of the Lake of the Woods: the southern extremity is the fourth pass into the gulf of Mexico, 29° N. lat., 90 miles below New Orleans; and the distance between these two extremities, in a direct line, is 1680 miles. Hence it appears, by a subjoined statement, that the river and its branches spread over nearly 1,500,000 square miles, or above two-thirds of the whole territory of the United States.

The lakes of the United States are some of the largest in the world. The principal of these lie in a chain along their northern boundary, upon the Canada line, and are, lakes Superior, Michigan, Huron, St. Clair, Erie, Ontario, Champlain, George, Memphremagog, Umbagog, Chilmacook, and Moosehead, &c. &c. The chief of these are described under their appropriate names, and others under the account of the states to which they belong.

Of the minerals, soil, produce, and climate of the United States, it is needless to give in this place more than a general statement, as they are mentioned under the appellations of the respective states and territories to which they pertain.

As to *minerals*, iron, lime-stone, and free-stone abound through the country. Coal is plentiful in the western territories, and is found in several districts in the Atlantic states. Lead abounds in the district near St. Louis, where the mines are extensive and valuable. Copper mines are also found in several places, and it is said that gold and silver, in great profusion, exist in Upper Louisiana. In this province marble

ble is abundant, and forms the bed of the White river for 300 miles. In the neighbourhood of Philadelphia, and in other places, the benefit derived from the marble quarries is very considerable. Quicksilver, zinc, saltpetre, and sulphur, are plentiful. Upper Louisiana affords great quantities of antimony, and the whole western territory abounds with salt-springs. The soil in this extensive country is various. On the Atlantic coast, to the N. and E., it is stony, and towards the S. sandy; but in both situations, intermixed with much alluvial land. Towards the mountains the soil improves, and is in many places very fertile. On the mountains it is light and thin, but in the valleys rich. Beyond the mountains, in the valleys of Ohio, Mississippi, and Missouri, several tracts of land are exceedingly rich and fertile. Towards the S.W. parts of the Missouri territory, the soil is light, thin, and sandy. The mountainous region to the N.W. is similar to the Allegany mountains, but the hills are more lofty, and the soil more variable. Beyond these mountains there is much good soil, as far as the Pacific ocean.

The produce consists of every variety that can be named; wheat, maize, rye, oats, barley, rice, and other grain; apples, pears, cherries, peaches, grapes, currants, gooseberries, plums, and other fruit, and a vast variety of vegetables. Lemons, oranges, and some other tropical fruits, are raised in Louisiana and some of the other southern countries. Hops, flax, and hemp are abundant. Tobacco is an article of extensive cultivation in Virginia, Maryland, and other districts. Cotton is a staple commodity in the southern states. Indigo is produced in Louisiana, and sugar is a commodity much cultivated in that country, and in some places along the Atlantic coast. The northern and eastern states, and the mountains in the interior, are fine grazing countries, and furnish a great number of cattle and sheep, and abundance of butter and cheese. The Merino breed of sheep have been introduced, and are said to thrive as well as they do in Spain. Horses for draught and saddle abound, and some of them are excellent, particularly in Pennsylvania. Other domestic animals, as asses, goats, hogs and dogs, are plentiful. Of tame fowl, the United States have turkeys, geese, ducks, common poultry, pigeons, peacocks, and guinea fowls. The wild animals are numerous; among which may be enumerated the bison or wild ox, moose, deer, bear, wolf, fox, lynx, panther, weasel, ermine, martin, mink, otter, opossum, hare, squirrel, mouse, bat, rat, beaver, seal, &c. The game and wild fowl peculiar to the country are turkeys, pheasants, partridges, woodcocks, snipes, wild swans, wild geese, wild ducks, pigeons, teal, plovers, widgeons, rail, &c. The other birds are eagles, hawks, vultures, turkey-buzzards, starlings, blue birds, red birds, humming-birds, &c. Of fishes, these states have the whale, dolphin, porpoise, grampus, skate, shark, sturgeon, cod, flounder, perch, whiting, salmon, trout, roach, shad, drum, black fish, and many others, with which the seas, interior lakes, and rivers abound. Among the amphibious reptiles we may reckon the tortoise, frog, lizards of various species, the alligator, &c. To the class of serpents belong the snakes and vipers, which abound in the United States. Of natural timber the United States have various kinds; but some of the most useful are the elm, cherry, locust, oak, beech, pine, cedar, cypress, willow, hickory, ash, walnut, chestnut, birch, maple, &c.

The climate must vary in the different parts of the United States. In the N.E. parts the winters are very cold, and the summers hot, changing as you proceed southward. In the S.E. and along the gulf of Mexico, the summers are very hot, and the winters mild and pleasant. Among the mountains it is cold towards the N., and temperate in the S. Beyond the mountains, in the rich valleys of Ohio, Mississippi,

and Missouri, the climate is temperate and delightful, till we approach the Rocky mountains, when it is subject to extremes, the winters being very cold. The climate must be chilled among mountains constantly covered with snow. West of these mountains the climate changes, until we reach the shores of the Pacific ocean, where it resembles that of the western parts of Europe. The prevailing winds are from the west, and as they pass over a wide expanse of water, they cool the air in summer, and in winter deluge the country with frequent rain.

The history of the United States has been already given, during the rise and progress, and to the termination of that dispute which separated them from this country, under AMERICA. From the time of their first settlement to July 1776, they continued to be British colonies; but in that month Congress declared them to be independent states. At this period their number was thirteen, and they contained about three millions of inhabitants. Since that time they have increased in an astonishing degree, and now amount to nineteen states, and five territories, containing, by the census of 1810, 7,239,903 inhabitants: and it is said by Melish (1816) that about 253,400 may be added as the annual increase since that year. This writer observes, that the progress of agriculture, manufactures, and the mechanic arts, is more remarkable than that of the population. At the period of the revolution the settlements were almost wholly confined to the eastward of the mountains, and principally along the sea-board, depending on Britain for manufactures, and many of the necessities of life. The settlements now extend across the Mississippi, the interior being studded with towns, villages, and farm-houses; and abounding with grist-mills, fulling-mills, carding and roving machines, paper-mills, cotton-mills, iron foundries and forges, tan-works, glass-works, in such profusion, and increasing so rapidly, that the internal manufactures will soon be sufficient not only to supply the demand at home, but to furnish vast quantities of cotton yarn and cloth, and of hemp articles, for exportation. The estimated amount of manufactures in 1810, was 120,000,000 dollars. The increase since that time has been so great, that they may be now estimated at upwards of 200,000,000. The United States have heretofore exported flour, wheat, Indian corn, rice, asses, cotton, indigo, tobacco, timber, fish, live-stock, tar, turpentine, &c. In 1812, the amount was 45,294,043 dollars. They have imported dry goods, groceries, tea, coffee, sugar, wine, brandy, &c. In 1812, the amount of the imports was nearly equal to the exports. The state of commerce, it is said, is rapidly changing from external to internal trade.

The government of the United States is a federal republic. Each state has a constitution for the management of its internal affairs, and they are all formed into one united body by the "federal constitution." By this constitution the legislative power is vested in a congress of delegates from the several states, divided into two distinct bodies, the "senate," and "house of representatives." The members of the latter are elected every two years by the people, and the senators are elected every six years by the state legislatures. The executive power is vested in a president (which see), chosen every four years, by a number of delegates in each state, appointed in such manner as the state legislatures may direct, and equal to the number of members which they respectively send to both branches of congress. The constitution guarantees for ever freedom of speech and liberty of the press. In the eye of the law all the inhabitants are equal. All must bear arms, or pay an equivalent; and all are equally interested in the defence of the country. The military strength of the country is a well-disciplined militia; and here is also an in-

creasing navy, to the maintenance of which the fishing trade is peculiarly important. Trial by jury is to be preserved inviolate. A republican form of government is guaranteed to all the states, and hereditary titles and distinctions are prohibited.

With regard to the religion of the United States, it is stipulated that no law shall ever be passed to establish any particular form of religion, or to prevent the free exercise of it: and no religious test shall be required as a qualification to any office of public trust under the United States. The following denominations of Christians are more or less numerous; *viz.* Congregationalists, Presbyterians, Episcopians, Dutch reformed church, Baptists, Quakers or Friends, Methodists, Roman Catholics, German Lutherans, German Calvinists, Moravians, or brethren of the episcopal church. The Congregationalists are said to be the most numerous, particularly in New England, and also in the middle and southern states. Next to these are the Presbyterians, who inhabit chiefly the middle and southern states, and they are united under the same constitution. In 1796 these were divided into five synods, *viz.* those of New York, Philadelphia, Virginia, Carolinas, each of which four meet annually: and besides, they have a joint meeting, by their commissioners, once a year, in general assembly at Philadelphia. The Presbyterian churches are governed by congregational, presbyterial, and synodical assemblies; but these assemblies possess no civil jurisdiction. The Dutch reformed churches maintain the doctrine of the synod of Dort, held in 1618, and constitute six classes, which form one synod, styled "the Dutch reformed Synod of New York and New Jersey." The classes consist of ministers and ruling elders; each class delegating two ministers and an elder, to represent them in synod. The number of Protestant episcopal churches is not ascertained. There are some in New England, but they are most numerous in the southern states. The Baptists are chiefly upon the Calvinistic plan as to doctrines, and Independents as to church government and discipline. The Friends or Quakers went to America about the year 1656; the first settlers of Pennsylvania being of this description. The Methodists are Arminian and Calvinistic. The Roman Catholics are principally settled in Maryland, where they have a bishop. The German inhabitants in these states principally belong to Pennsylvania and New York, and are divided into a variety of sects, the principal of which are Lutherans, Calvinists, Moravians, Tunkers, and Mennonites. But the German Lutherans are the most numerous. The Moravians are dispersed over Pennsylvania, at Bethlehem, Nazareth, and Lititz; and they have also other settlements in New Jersey, North Carolina, Rhode island, New York, &c. The Tunkers appeared in 1719, and landing in Philadelphia, dispersed themselves in various parts of Pennsylvania; they are General Baptists, and believe in universal redemption and salvation. Their principal settlement is at Ephrata, called Tunker's-town, in Lancaster county. The Mennonites are chiefly settled in Pennsylvania. The Universalists, who maintain the doctrine of the ultimate salvation of all men, are said not to be numerous. The Unitarians are an increasing body. The Shakers form a small body. There are some few Jews, and many Deists. Provision is made for education and the improvement of the mind throughout the United States.

Accounts in the United States were formerly kept in pounds, shillings, and pence currency, which practice is still retained on some occasions; but the value of the currency is not the same in different states.

In Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Delaware, and Maryland, the ratio of currency to sterling is as 3 to 5: and therefore

1*l.* sterling = 1*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* currency; or 1*l.* currency = 12*s.* sterling.

In New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island, and Virginia, the ratio is as 3 to 4; and therefore 1*l.* sterling = 1*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* currency; or 1*l.* currency = 15*s.* sterling.

In New York and North Carolina, the ratio is as 9 to 16; and therefore 1*l.* sterling = 1*l.* 15*s.* 6½*d.* currency; or 1*l.* currency = 11*s.* 3*d.* sterling.

In South Carolina and Georgia, the ratio is as 27 to 28; and therefore 1*l.* sterling = 1*l.* or 8½*d.* currency; or 1*l.* currency = 19*s.* 3½*d.* sterling.

Hence the exchange between England and the United States is at par, when, for every 100*l.* sterling, Pennsylvania, Maryland, &c. give 166*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* currency; New England and Virginia, 133*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* do.; New York and North Carolina, 177*l.* 15*s.* 6½*d.* do.; Georgia and South Carolina, 103*l.* 14*s.* 0½*d.*

Most of the European coins pass in the United States, but Spanish dollars are most common: hence the value of other European monies is commonly expressed in dollars, and hundredth parts of a dollar, called cents.

The dollar is valued in the different states according to the currency of each place. Thus in Pennsylvania, Maryland, Delaware, and Jersey, it passes for 7*s.* 6*d.*; in New England and Virginia, for 6*s.*; in New York and North Carolina, for 8*s.*; in South Carolina and Georgia, for 4*s.* 8*d.*

An uniform way of keeping accounts has been established in the United States (by an act of Congress in 1789) namely, in dollars of 10 dimes, 100 cents, or 1000 mills; and this method is used in all public accounts.

The American government, at the same time, established a mint, and ordered money to be coined, in gold, silver, and copper, according to the following denominations and values; *viz.*

Eagles, each to be of the value of 10 dollars, or units, and to contain 247½ grains of pure, or 270 grains of standard, gold, the standard being 22 carats, or ½ fine. Its intrinsic value in English gold is, therefore, 2*l.* 3*s.* 8*d.* nearly. Half eagles and quarter eagles were also ordered to be coined in the same proportion.

Dollars or units, each to be of the value of a Spanish milled dollar, and to contain 371½ grains of pure, or 416 grains of standard, silver, the standard being ½ fine, or 1002.14 dwts. nearly. Its intrinsic value in English silver is, therefore, 4*s.* 3½*d.* nearly. Half dollars, quarter dollars, dimes, or tenths of dollars, and half dimes, were also ordered to be coined in the same proportion. Hence the proportion of gold to silver is as 1160 to 270, or as 15½ to 1.

Cents, each to be of the value of the one-hundredth part of a dollar, and to contain 208 grains of copper. Half cents were ordered to be coined in the same proportion.

The remedy of the mint is one part in 144.

In the public bank established at Philadelphia in 1790, chartered by Congress, and empowered to appoint branch-banks in the different states, the capital was fixed at ten millions of dollars, and divided into 25,000 shares, of 400 dollars each; none of the subscribers were to hold more than 1000 shares; one-fourth of the subscription was to be paid in specie, and three-fourths in public stock. These shares are transferrable, and yield a dividend, payable half yearly, of 7 or 8 per cent. *per ann.* The constitution and government of this bank are nearly on the plan of the bank of England.

The bank discounts, at 6 per cent. *per ann.*, bills and notes that have no more than 65 days to run; the three days of grace are included, and discount allowed for them. Bills

UNITED STATES.

or notes intended to be offered for discount must be delivered at the bank on the preceding day, inclosed under a cover, and directed to the cashier, mentioning the name of the holder of the bill.

Money deposited in the bank may be drawn out again at pleasure, free of expence; but no money is paid to any person beyond the balance of his account.

Other banks have been established in Philadelphia, as well as in Boston, New York, Baltimore, Alexandria, and Charlestown, some of which were prior to the bank of Philadelphia, called the "United States' Bank;" but they are chartered only by their respective states. Kelly's Cambiit.

The United States comprise three grand divisions: denominated *Northern*, or more properly *Eastern, Middle*, and *Southern* states.

The first division (the Northern or Eastern States) comprehends

Vermont,	Massachusetts Proper,
New Hampshire,	Rhode Island,
District of Maine,	Connecticut.
(belonging to Massachusetts)	

These are called the New England States, and comprehend that part of America which, since the year 1614, has been known by the name of New England.

The second division (the Middle States) comprehends

New York,	Ohio,
New Jersey,	Indiana Territory,
Pennsylvania,	Michigan Territory.
Delaware,	

The third division (the Southern States) comprehends

Maryland,	Tennessee,
Virginia,	South Carolina,
Kentucky,	Georgia,
North Carolina,	Mississippi Territory.

To which we may now add Louisiana.

The states, districts, and territories of the United States are described under their appropriate appellations: but the area, extent, population, chief towns, &c. of each, are exhibited in one view of them in the following

TOPOGRAPHICAL TABLE.

States and Territories.	Medium.		Area in Square Miles.	Population last Census.	Seat of Government.	Memb. to Congress.
	Length. N. and S.	Breadth E. and W.				
Maine - - -	216	162	31,750	228,705	Portland }	20
Massachusetts - - -	70	140	8,500	472,040	Boston }	
New Hampshire - - -	160	70	8,500	214,460	Concord -	6
Vermont - - -	152	60	8,700	217,895	Montpellier -	6
Rhode Island - - -	48	42	1,500	76,931	Providence -	2
Connecticut - - -	50	80	4,000	261,942	Hartford -	7
New York - - -	198	256	46,000	959,049	Albany -	27
New Jersey - - -	138	50	6,600	245,562	Trenton -	6
Pennsylvania - - -	153	273	42,500	810,091	Harrisburg -	23
Delaware - - -	90	25	1,700	72,674	Dover -	2
Maryland - - -	108	198	10,800	380,546	Annapolis -	9
Virginia - - -	220	370	64,000	974,622	Richmond -	23
Ohio - - -	204	210	39,000	230,760	Columbus -	6
Kentucky - - -	138	300	39,000	406,511	Frankfort -	10
Tennessee - - -	102	420	40,000	261,727	Nashville -	6
North Carolina - - -	120	345	45,000	555,500	Raleigh -	15
South Carolina - - -	162	216	28,700	415,115	Columbia -	9
Georgia - - -	300	240	58,000	252,433	Milledgeville -	6
Louisiana - - -	240	210	48,000	76,556	New Orleans -	1
Indiana - - -	240	138	34,000	24,520	Corydon*	0
District of Columbia	10	10	100	24,023	Washington -	0
Mississippi Territory -	312	324	89,000	40,352	Washington -	0
Illinois Territory -	306	210	50,000	12,282	Kaskaskia -	0
Michigan Territory -	234	138	27,000	4,762	Detroit -	0
North-west Territory -	360	456	147,000			
Missouri Territory -	1380	1680	1,580,000	20,845	St. Louis -	0
			2,459,350	7,239,993		
Each state sends two senators						182
						36
Total legislature						218

* Indiana is about to be constituted into a state, when it will send two senators, and one representative.

UNITED STATES.

From this table it appears, that if we refer the district of Maine to Massachusetts, and admit Indiana, the number of states is now nineteen; of districts, two; and of territories, four. Their respective topographical tables, extracted from Mr. Melish's valuable publication, appear either in the sequel of this article, or under the appellation to which we refer.

The district of *Maine*, according to the statement of Melish, is situated between $43^{\circ} 5'$ and $47^{\circ} 45'$ N. lat., and $5^{\circ} 55'$ and 10° E. long. from Washington; extending from N. to S. about 216 miles, from E. to W. 162, and comprehending about 31,750 square miles, or 19,720,000 acres. For other particulars, see **MAINE**.

Topographical Table.

Counties.	Townships.	Population.	Chief Towns.
Cumberland	24	42,831	PORTLAND 7,169
Hancock	76	30,031	Calhoun 1,036
Kennebec	33	32,564	Hallowell 2,068
Lincoln	36	42,992	Wiscasset 2,083
Oxford	37	17,630	Paris.
Somerset	37	12,910	Norridgewock 880
Washington	24	7,870	Machias 1,570
York	21	41,877	York 3,046
	288	228,705	

The state of *Massachusetts* is situated between $41^{\circ} 13'$ and $42^{\circ} 52'$ N. lat., and $3^{\circ} 20'$ and $6^{\circ} 55'$ E. long. from Washington, extending from N. to S. 70 miles, from E. to W. 140 miles, and comprehending 8500 square miles, or 5,440,000 acres. See **MASSACHUSETTS**.

Topographical Table.

Counties.	Townships.	Population.	Chief Towns.
Barnstable	14	22,211	Barnstable.
Berkshire	32	35,907	Stockbridge 1,261
Bristol	16	37,168	Taunton.
Duke's	3	3,290	Edgarton 1,365
Essex	23	71,888	{ Salem 12,612 Newbury Port 1,634
Franklin.*			
Hampden.*			
Hampshire	64	76,275	Springfield 2,767
Middlesex	44	52,789	Concord 1,633
Nantucket	1	6,807	Sherburne.
Norfolk	22	31,245	Dedham 2,172
Plymouth	18	35,169	Plymouth 4,228
Suffolk	2	34,381	BOSTON 33,250
Worcester	51	64,910	Worcester 2,577
	290	472,040	

* Laid out since last census.

The state of *New Hampshire* is situated between $42^{\circ} 42'$ and $45^{\circ} 13'$ N. lat., and $4^{\circ} 23'$ and $6^{\circ} 10'$ E. long. from Washington; extending from N. to S. 160 miles, from E. to W. 70, and comprehending 8500 square miles, or 5,440,000 acres. See **HAMPSHIRE**.

Topographical Table.

Counties.	Townships.	Population.	Chief Towns.
Chefshire	35	40,988	Keene tp. 1,646
Coos	24	3,991	Lancaster tp. 717
Grafton	35	28,462	Haverhill tp. 1,105
Hillsborough	42	49,249	Amherst tp. 1,554
Rockingham	46	50,175	{ CONCORD tp. 2,393 Portsmouth 6,934 Exeter tp. 1,759
Strafford	31	41,595	Dover tp. 2,288
	213	214,460	

For an account of the state of *Vermont*, see **VERMONT**.

The state of *Rhode Island* is situated between $41^{\circ} 22'$ and 42° N. lat., and 5° and $5^{\circ} 50'$ E. long. from Washington; extending from N. to S. 48 miles, from E. to W. 42, and comprehending 1500 square miles, or 960,000 acres. See **RHODE ISLAND**.

Topographical Table.

Counties.	Townships.	Population.	Chief Towns.
Bristol	3	5,972	Bristol 2,692
Kent	4	9,834	Warwick.
Newport	7	16,294	NEWPORT 7,907
Providence	10	30,769	PROVIDENCE 10,071
Washington	7	14,962	S. Kingiton.
	31	76,931	

The state of *Connecticut* is situated between 41° and 42° N. lat., and $3^{\circ} 20'$ and 5° E. long. from Washington; extending from N. to S. 50 miles, from E. to W. 80, and comprehending 4000 square miles, or 2,560,000 acres. See **CONNECTICUT**.

Topographical Table.

Counties.	Townships.	Population.	Chief Towns.
Fairfield	17	40,950	Fairfield.
Hartford	18	44,733	HARTFORD 3,995
Litchfield	22	41,375	Litchfield.
Middlesex	7	20,723	Middletown 2,014
New Haven	17	37,064	NEWHAVEN 5,772
New London	13	34,737	New London 3,238
Tolland	10	13,779	Tolland 1,638
Windham	15	28,611	Windham 500
	119	261,942	

For an account of the state of *New York*, see **NEW YORK**.

The state of *New Jersey* is situated between $38^{\circ} 56'$ and $41^{\circ} 20'$ N. lat., and $1^{\circ} 33'$ and $3^{\circ} 5'$ E. long. from Washington; extending 138 miles in length and 50 miles in breadth, and comprehending 6600 square miles, or 4,224,000 acres. See **NEW JERSEY**.

UNITED STATES.

Topographical Table.

Counties.	Townships.	Population.	Chief Towns.
Bergen	7	16,603	Hackensack tp. 1,958
Burlington	12	24,979	Burlington tp. 2,419
Cape May	3	3,632	C.H.
Cumberland	8	12,670	Bridgetown.
Essex	10	25,984	Newark tp. 8,008
Gloucester	10	19,744	Gloucester tp. 1,726
Hunterdon	10	24,553	TRENTON tp. 3,002
Middlesex	8	20,381	N. Brunswick tp. 6,312
Monmouth	7	22,150	Freehold tp. 4,784
Morris	10	21,828	Morristown tp. 3,753
Salem	9	12,761	Salem 929
Somerfet	7	14,728	Boundbrook.
Suffex	15	25,549	Newtown tp. 2,082
	116	245,562	

The state of *Pennsylvania* is situated between 39° 43' and 42° N. lat., and 2° 20' E. and 3° 30' W. long. from Washington; extending from N. to S. 153 miles, from E. to W. 273, and comprehending 24,500 square miles, or 27,200,000 acres. See PENNSYLVANIA.

Topographical Table.

Counties.	Townships.	Population.	Chief Towns.
Adams	18	15,152	Gettysburg.
Alleghany	15	25,317	Pittsburg - 4,768
Armstrong	7	6,143	Kittaning 309
Beaver	12	12,168	Beaver 426
Bedford	15	15,746	Bedford 547
Berks	33	43,146	Reading tp. 3,462
Bradford.*			
Bucks	29	32,371	Newton 790
Butler	13	7,346	Butler tp. 458
Cambria	3	2,117	Ebensburg 75
Centre	11	10,681	Bellefont 303
Chester	40	39,596	West Chester 471
Clearfield	1	875	Clearfield tp. 875
Columbia.*			
Crawford	14	6,178	Meadville 457
Cumberland	18	26,757	Carlisle 2,491
Dauphin	15	31,883	HARRISBURG tp. 2,287
Delaware	21	14,734	Chester 1,056
Erie	14	3,758	Erie 394
Fayette	19	24,714	Union 999
Franklin	14	23,083	Chambersburg 2,000
Greene	10	12,544	Greene tp. 1,708
Huntingdon	18	14,778	Huntingdon 676
Indiana	7	6,214	Indiana 200
Jefferson	1	161	Jefferson tp. 161
Lancaster	25	53,927	Lancaster 5,405
Lebanon.*			
Lehigh.*			
Luzerne	29	18,109	Wilkesbarre 1,225
Lycoming	18	11,006	Williamsport 344
M'Kean	1	142	Smethport.
Mercer	16	8,277	Mercer.
Mifflin	9	12,132	Lewistown 474
Montgomery	30	29,703	Norristown 1,330
Northampton	32	38,145	Easton.
Northumberl.	26	36,327	Northumberl. tp. 627
Philadelpha	18	111,200	{ Philadel. City 92,866 Do. County 18,344

Carry up 551 694,440

Counties.	Townships.	Population.	Chief Towns.
Brought up	551	694,440	
Potter	1	29	Cowdersport.
Pike*	1		Milford 83
Schuylkill.*			
Somerfet	15	11,284	Somerfet 489
Sufquehanna.*			
Tioga	2	1,687	Wellfborough.
Union.*			
Venango	8	3,060	Franklin 159
Warren	2	827	Warren.
Washington	23	36,289	Washington 1,301
Wayne	12	4,125	Bethany.
Westmoreland	14	26,392	Greensburg 685
York	22	31,958	York 2,847
	651	810,091	

* Laid out since last census.

The state of *Delaware* is situated between 38° 29' and 39° 48' N. lat., and 1° 18' and 1° 58' E. long. from Washington; extending from N. to S. 90 miles, from E. to W. 25, and comprehending about 1700 square miles, or 1,088,000 acres. See DELAWARE.

Topographical Table.

Counties.	Hundreds.	Population.	Chief Towns.
Kent	5	20,495	DOVER 800
New Castle	9	24,429	Wilmington 4,406
Suffex	11	27,750	Georgetown 400
	25	72,674	

The state of *Maryland* is situated between 38° and 39° 43' N. lat., and 2° E. and 2° 30' W. long. from Washington; extending from N. to S. 90 miles, from E. to W. 198, and comprehending 10,800 square miles, or 6,912,000 acres. See MARYLAND.

Topographical Table.

Counties.	Population.	Chief Towns.
Alleghany	6,909	Cumberland.
Ann Arundel	26,668	ANNAPOLIS 2,000
Baltimore	29,255	
Ditto City	35,583	
E. precincts of do.	4,050	Baltimore - 46,556
W. do.	6,922	
Cecil	13,066	Elkton.
Calvert	8,005	St. Leonard's.
Caroline	9,458	Denton.
Charles	20,245	Port Tobacco.
Dorchester	18,108	Cambridge.
Frederick	34,437	Fredericktown 4,500
Harford	21,258	Harford.
Kent	11,450	Chester.
Montgomery	17,980	Unity.
Prince George	20,589	Marlborough.
Queen Ann's	16,648	Centerville.
St. Mary's	12,794	Leonard T.
Somerfet	17,195	Princes Ann.
Talbot	14,230	Easton.
Washington	18,730	Elizabeth-town.
Worcester	16,971	Snow Hill.
	380,546	

For

UNITED STATES.

For an account of the district of *Columbia*, see TERRITORY, COLUMBIA, and WASHINGTON.

For an account of the state of *Virginia*, see VIRGINIA.

The state of *Ohio* is situated between 38° 30' and 42° N. lat., and 3° 32' and 7° 40' W. long. from Washington; extending from N. to S. 204 miles, and from E. to W. 210, and comprehending about 39,000 square miles, or 24,960,000 acres. See OHIO.

The State of *Kentucky* is situated between 36° 30' and 39° 5' N. lat., and 4° 48' and 12° 20' W. long. from Washington; extending from N. to S. 138 miles, from E. to W. 300, and comprehending 39,000 square miles, or 24,960,000 acres. See KENTUCKY.

Topographical Table.

[illegible]

* Laid out since the last census.

* Laid out since the last census was taken.

UNITED STATES.

For an account of the state of *Tennessee*, see TENNESSEE.

The state of *North Carolina* is situated between $33^{\circ} 45'$ and $36^{\circ} 30'$ N. lat., and 1° E. and $6^{\circ} 50'$ W. long. from Washington; extending from N. to S. 120 miles, and from E. to W. 345, and comprehending 45,000 square miles, or 28,800,000 acres. See *North CAROLINA*.

Topographical Table.

Counties.	Population.	Chief Towns.
Anson -	8,831	Wadesborough.
Ash -	3,694	
Beaufort -	7,203	Washington - 600
Bertie -	11,218	Windfor.
Bladen -	5,671	Elizabethtown.
Brunswick -	4,778	Brunswick.
Buncombe -	9,277	Ashville.
Burke -	11,007	Morgantown.
Cabarras -	6,158	Concord.
Camden -	5,347	Jonesburg.
Carteret -	4,823	Beauford.
Caswell -	11,757	Leafburg.
Chatham -	12,977	Pittsborough.
Chowan -	5,297	Edenton - 1,500
Columbus -	3,022	Whiteville.
Craven -	12,676	Newbern - 2,467
Cumberland -	9,382	Fayetteville - 1,800
Currituck -	6,985	Indiantown.
Duplin -	7,863	Sarecto.
Edgecomb -	12,423	Tarborough - 600
Franklin -	10,166	Louifburg.
Gates -	5,965	C. H.
Granville -	15,576	Williamsborough.
Green -	4,867	C. H.
Guilford -	11,420	Martinsville - 300
Halifax -	15,620	Halifax.
Haywood -	2,780	
Hertford -	6,052	Winton.
Hyde -	6,029	Germantown.
Iredel -	10,972	Stateville.
Johnfon -	6,867	Smithfield.
Jones -	4,968	Trenton.
Lenoir -	5,572	Kington.
Lincoln -	16,359	Lincolnton.
Martin -	5,987	Williamfton.
Mecklinburg -	14,272	Charlotte.
Moore -	6,367	Alfordtown.
Montgomery -	8,430	Henderfon.
Nash -	7,268	C. H.
New Hanover -	11,465	Wilmington. 1,689
Northampton -	13,082	C. H.
Onflow -	6,669	Swanborough.
Orange -	20,135	Hillborough.
Pasquotank -	7,674	Nixonton.
Perfon -	6,642	Roxboro'.
Pitt -	9,169	Greenville.
Perquimans -	6,052	Hartford.
Randolph -	10,112	C. H.
Richmond -	6,695	Rockingham.
Robefon -	7,528	Lumberton - 208
Rockingham -	10,316	Danbury.
Rowan -	21,543	Salisbury - 500
Rutherford -	13,202	Rutherfordton.
Sampfon -	6,620	C. H.

Carry up 480,830

Counties.	Population.	Chief Towns.
Brought up -	480,830	
Stokes -	11,645	Upper Sara.
Surry -	10,366	Salem - 700
Tyrrel -	3,364	Elizabethtown.
Wake -	17,086	RALEIGH - 1,000
Warren -	11,004	Warrenton - 300
Washington -	3,464	Plymouth.
Wayne -	8,687	Waynesboro'.
Wilkes -	9,054	Wilkes C. H.
	555,500	

The state of *South Carolina* is situated between $32^{\circ} 6'$ and 35° N. lat., and $1^{\circ} 30'$ and $6^{\circ} 25'$ W. long. from Washington; extending from N. to S. 162 miles, from E. to W. 216, and comprehending 28,700 square miles, or 18,368,000 acres. See *South CAROLINA*.

Topographical Table.

Districts.	Population.	Chief Towns.
Abbeville -	21,150	Abbeville.
All Saints.*		
Barnwell -	12,280	
Beaufort -	25,887	Beaufort - 1,000
Charleston city	24,711	
Charleston district	38,468	
Chester -	11,479	Chester.
Chesterfield -	5,564	
Claremont.*		
Clarendon.*		
Colleton -	26,359	
Darlington -	9,047	
Edgefield -	23,160	
Fairfield -	11,857	Fairfield.
Georgetown -	15,679	Georgetown - 2,000
Greenville -	13,133	Greenville.
Horry -	4,349	
Kershaw -	9,867	
Lancaster -	6,318	
Laurens -	14,982	Laurens.
Lexington -	6,641	
Liberty.*		
Marion.*		
Marlborough -	4,966	Marlborough.
Mafon -	8,884	
Newbury -	13,964	Newbury.
Orange -	13,229	Orangeburg.
Pendleton -	22,897	Pendleton.
Pinckney.*		
Richland -	9,027	COLUMBIA - 1,500
Spartan -	14,259	Spartanburg.
St. Peters.*		
Sumpter -	19,054	Statesburg.
Union -	10,995	Union.
Williamsburg -	6,871	Williamsburg.
York -	10,052	York.
	415,115	

* Laid out since the last census.

UNITED STATES.

The state of *Georgia* is situated between 30° 30' and 35° N. lat., and 3° 50' and 9° 5' W. long. from Washington; extending from N. to S. 300 miles, and from E. to W. 240, and comprehending about 58,000 square miles; or 37,120,000 acres. See *GEORGIA*.

Topographical Table.

Counties.	Population.	Chief Towns.
Baldwin -	6,356	MILLEDGEVILLE, 1257
Bryan -	2,827	C. H.
Bullock -	2,305	Statesburgh
Burke -	10,858	Waynesborough 224
Camden -	3,941	St. Mary's - 585
Chatham -	13,540	Savannah - 5,215
Clarke -	7,628	Athens - 273
Columbia -	11,242	Applington.
Effingham -	2,586	Ebenezer - 19
Elbert -	12,156	Petersburg - 3 32
Emanuel.*		
Franklin -	10,815	Carneville - 78
Glynn -	3,417	Brunswick.
Greene -	11,679	Greensborough 411
Hancock -	13,330	Sparta - 317
Jackson -	10,569	Jefferson - 70
Jasper -	7,573	Monticello - 220
Jefferson -	6,111	Louisville - 524
Jones -	8,597	Clinton - 85
Laurens -	2,210	Dublin.
Liberty -	6,228	Riceboro'.
Lincoln -	4,555	Lincolnton - 108
Madison.*		Danielsville.
McIntosh -	3,739	Darien - 206
Montgomery -	2,954	C. H.
Morgan -	8,369	Madison - 229
Oglethorpe -	12,297	Lexington - 222
Pulaski -	2,093	Hartford.
Putnam -	10,029	Eatonton - 180
Richmond -	6,189	Augusta - 2,476
Scriven -	4,477	Jacksonborough 20
Tattal -	2,206	C. H.
Telfair -	744	C. H.
Twiggs -	3,405	Marion.
Walton -	1,026	
Warren -	8,725	Warrenton - 123
Washington -	9,940	Saundersville
Wayne -	676	C. H.
Wilkes -	14,887	Washington - 596
Wilkinson -	2,154	Irwinton.

254,433

* Laid out since the last census.

The state of *Louisiana* is situated between 29° and 33° N. lat., and 12° and 17° W. long. from Washington; extending from N. to S. 240 miles, from E. to W. 210, and comprehending 48,000 square miles, or 30,540,000 acres. See *LOUISIANA*.

Topographical Table.

Parishes.	Population.	Chief Towns.
Aicension -	2,219	Donaldsonville - 200
Assumption -	2,472	
Avozelles -	1,109	
Baton Rouge West	1,463	
Concordia -	2,875	Concordia - 200
Iberville -	2,679	
Interior of La }	1,995	
Fourche }		
Natchitoches -	2,870	Natchitoches - 600
Ouachitta -	1,077	
Ocatahoola -	1,164	
Orleans -	24,552	NEW ORLEANS 17,242
Plaquemines -	1,549	
Point Coupee -	4,539	
Rapides -	2,300	Alexandria - 300
St. Bernard -	1,020	
St. Charles -	3,291	
St. John Baptiste	2,990	
St. James -	3,955	
St. Landre }	5,048	Opelousas - 150
Opelousas }		
St. Mary's and St. Martin's Attacapas }	7,369	St. Martin's - 150
	76,556	
Add the four Parishes from the Mississippi Territory.		
Baton Rouge E. }	10,000	Baton Rouge - 800
New Feliciana }		St. Francisville - 400
St. Helena }		Springfield - 150
St. Tammany }		C. H.
	86,556	

The state of *Louisiana* is divided into twenty-five parishes, whose natural positions are, six north of 31° N. lat.; three south of 31° N. lat. and west of Atchafalaya river; and sixteen east of Atchafalaya. Their respective extent in square miles, and population in 1810, is exhibited by the following table.

Statistical TABLE of the Extent of the Parishes of the State of Louisiana, and their Population in 1810.

Parishes.	Square Miles.	Acres.	Arpens.	Population in 1810.
Plaquemines - - - - -	1,500	960,000	1,134,300	1,549
Orleans - - - - -	1,300	832,000	983,060	24,552
St. Bernard - - - - -	400	256,000	302,480	1,020
St. Charles - - - - -	300	192,000	226,860	3,291
St. John Baptiste - - - - -	150	96,000	113,430	2,990
St. James - - - - -	170	108,800	128,554	3,955
Ascension - - - - -	350	224,000	264,670	2,219
Assumption - - - - -	500	320,000	378,100	2,472
Interior of La Fourche - - - - -	2,500	1,600,000	1,890,500	1,995
Iberville - - - - -	350	224,000	264,670	2,679
West Baton Rouge - - - - -	850	544,000	642,770	1,463
Point Coupée - - - - -	600	384,000	453,720	4,539
St. Mary's and St. Martin's Attacapas	5,100	3,264,000	3,856,620	7,369
St. Landré, Opelousas - - - - -	7,600	4,864,000	5,747,120	5,048
Natchitoches - - - - -	10,600	6,784,000	8,015,720	2,870
Ouachita - - - - -	4,000	2,560,000	3,024,800	1,077
Rapides - - - - -	2,300	1,472,000	1,739,260	2,300
Ocatahoola - - - - -	2,000	1,280,000	1,512,400	1,164
Concordia - - - - -	2,100	1,344,000	1,588,020	2,875
Avoyelles - - - - -	700	448,000	529,340	1,109
New Feliciana - - - - -	1,050	672,000	794,010	10,000
East Baton Rouge - - - - -	500	320,000	378,000	
St. Helena - - - - -	1,300	832,000	983,060	
St. Tammany - - - - -	2,000	1,280,000	1,512,400	
	48,220	30,860,800	36,463,964	86,556

For an account of the state of *Indiana*, see TERRITORY and INDIANA.

For an account of the *Mississippi Territory*, see TERRITORY and MISSISSIPPI.

For the *Illinois Territory*, see TERRITORY and ILLINOIS.

For the *North-West Territory*, see TERRITORY.

For the *Missouri Territory*, see TERRITORY and MISSOURI.

For the *Michigan Territory*, see TERRITORY and DETROIT.

The territory of *Orleans* comprehends the county of Orleans, the German coast, Acadia, Lafourche, Iberville, Point Coupée, Concordia, Ouachita, Rapides, Natchitoches, Opelousas, and Attacapan; and by the census of 1810, its whole population consisted of 76,556 persons. (See ORLEANS and LOUISIANA). Melish's Geographical Description of the United States. Philadelphia. 1816. Morfe's Geography.

To the preceding general account of the United States, the Editor subjoins the pleasing information with which he is furnished by the 13th report of the British and Foreign Bible Society (1817), that 130, or upwards, of such societies have been established in these States, among which are numerous female institutions: and that, in consequence of a convention of delegates from different Bible Societies, held in the city of New York, in May 1816, a society was instituted under the name of "The American Bible Society," of which the sole object should be to encourage a wider circulation of the Holy Scriptures, without note or comment. Several of the American societies have received pecuniary aid from the British and Foreign Bible Society.

UNITED STATES' Saline, a township of the Illinois territory, in the county of Randolph, containing 845 inhabitants.

UNITY, UNITAS, the abstract, or quality, which constitutes, or denominates a thing *unum*, or one.

The school philosophers generally define unity, by a thing's being undivided in itself, and divided from every thing else. Others, more accurately, define it, a mode of being, by which it agrees to any particular being, once: these make two kinds of unity, *viz. unity of simplicity*, which is both undivided and indivisible; such as that of God, angels, and human souls: the other, *union of composition*, which, though undivided, is divisible in the being, as consisting of divers parts; such as that of man, &c.

Hence, unity is also divided into that *per se*, which agrees to any being whose parts are collected into one substratum: and unity *per accidens*, whose parts are not united into one substratum, as that of a flock of sheep, &c.

Some also make a *figural*, or *numerical* unity, and an *universal* unity; a *real*, and an *imaginary* unity, &c.

It is disputed among mathematicians, whether or not unity be a number? The generality of authors hold the negative, and make unity to be only inceptive of number, or the principle of it; as a point is of magnitude, and an unison of concord.

Stevinus is very angry with the maintainers of this opinion: and yet, if number be defined a multitude of units joined together, as many authors define it, it is evident that unity is not itself a number.

It is to be observed in algebra, that unity itself has three different expressions of its cube root, one real, and the other two impossible, or imaginary. Thus the three cube roots of

$$1, \text{ are } 1, \frac{-1 + \sqrt{-3}}{2}, \text{ and } \frac{-1 - \sqrt{-3}}{2}.$$

This is, sometimes of use in finding the cube roots of quantities, appearing under impossible expressions.

The two impossible expressions of the $\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{-3}$ may be thus found: let $x = 1$, then $x^3 = 1$, or $x^3 - 1 = 0$, and $x - 1 = 0$. Divide $x^3 - 1$ by $x - 1$, the quotient is $x^2 + x + 1 = 0$, or $x^2 + x = -1$. Resolve this quadratic equation, by adding $\frac{1}{4}$ to both sides. Then $x^2 + x + \frac{1}{4} = -\frac{3}{4}$, and extracting the square root, $x + \frac{1}{2} = \sqrt{-\frac{3}{4}} = \frac{\sqrt{-3}}{2}$.

Therefore $x = -\frac{1}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{-3}}{2} = \frac{-1 \pm \sqrt{-3}}{2}$. That is,

$$x = \frac{-1 + \sqrt{-3}}{2}, \text{ and } x = \frac{-1 - \sqrt{-3}}{2}. \text{ See Mac-$$

laurin's Algebra, p. 128. 226.

UNITY, among *Divines*. The Romanists, and the reformed, dispute, whether or not the church be one single body, all the members of which are joined together, either really, or in inclination; so that whatever does not appertain to that body, is no part of the church; which is what they call the *unity of the church*; and which the Romanists maintain to be restrained to one single society, or one communion, under one visible head; and out of which the Protestants are excluded. These last, on the contrary, hold, that the unity of the church may still subsist, without the members being united under any one visible head; it being sufficient, that all Christians be united by the bonds of mutual love and charity; and that they be agreed in the fundamental points of religion.

All the difficulty is, to fix what those fundamentals are; some inclining to make the door of the church wider than others. See *UNIFORMITY*.

UNITY, in *Poetry*. In the drama there are three unities to be observed; the unity of *action*, that of *time*, and that of *place*.

In the epic poem, the great and almost only unity is that of the action. Some regard, indeed, ought to be had to that of time: but that of place there is no room for. The unity of character is not reckoned among the unities.

The unity of the dramatic action consists in the unity of the intrigue in comedy, and that of the danger in tragedy; and this not only in the plan of the fable, but also in the fable extended and filled with episodes.

The episodes are to be worked in, without corrupting the unity, or forming a double action; and the several members are to be so connected together, as to be consistent with that continuity of action so necessary to the body; and which Horace prescribes, when he says, "*sit quodvis simplex duntaxat et unum*."

The unity of the epic action, M. Dacier observes, does not consist in the unity of the hero, or in the unity of his character and manners; though those be circumstances necessary to it. The *unity of action* requires, that there be but one principal action, of which all the rest are to be incidents, or dependencies.

F. Boffu assigns three things requisite to it: the first, that no episode be used, but what is fetched from the plan and ground of the action, and which is a natural member of that body: the second, that these episodes and members be well connected with each other: the third is, not to finish any episode, so as it may appear a whole action; but to let each be always seen in its quality of member of the body, and an unfinished part.

The same excellent critic examines the *Æneid*, *Iliad*, and *Odyssey*, with respect to these rules, and finds them strictly observed. Indeed, it was from the conduct of those divine poems, that he took the hint of the rules themselves. In-

stances in which these rules are all neglected, he gives us in Statius's *Thebaid*.

To the *unity of time*, it is required, in the drama, that the action be included in the space of a day. Aristotle says expressly, it must not exceed the time the sun employs in making one revolution, which is a natural day, under pain of irregularity: some critics will even have it included in the space of twelve hours, or an artificial day.

Indeed, the ancient tragic poets sometimes dispensed with this rule; and many of the modern English ones disallow it: and very few of them practise it.

In the epic poem, the unity of time is still less established. In effect, there is no fixing the time of its duration; in regard, the warmer and more violent the action is, the less must be its continuance; whence it is, that the *Iliad*, representing the anger of Achilles, only contains forty-seven days at most; whereas the action of the *Odyssey* holds eight years and a half, and that of the *Æneid* almost seven years.

But the length of the poem Aristotle gives us a rule for; which is, that it be such as that it may be read over in one day: pretending, that if it exceeds that compass, the imagination will be bewildered in it, and that one cannot see the end, without having lost the idea of the beginning.

As to the *unity of place and scene*, neither Horace nor Aristotle give us any rules relating to them. It were to be wished, indeed, that what is presented to the audience on the same stage, which is never shifted, might be supposed to have passed in the same house, and the same apartment. But as such a constraint would cramp the poet too much; and as such an uniformity would suit very ill with abundance of subjects; it has been agreed, that what passes any where in the same town or city, shall be allowed for unity of place. At least, if two different places be unavoidable; yet the place is never to be changed in the same act.

Shakspere, it is well known, paid no regard to the unities of time and place. On this subject Dr. Johnson observes, in the preface to his edition of Shakspere's plays, that perhaps a nearer view of the principles on which they stand will diminish their value, and withdraw from them the veneration which, from the time of Corneille, they have very generally received, by discovering that they have given more trouble to the poet than pleasure to the auditor.

As nothing is essential to the fable but unity of action, and as the unities of time and place arise evidently from false assumptions, and by circumscribing the extent of the drama, lessens its variety, Dr. Johnson does not think we need much lament their not being known or not observed by Shakspere.

He adds, as the result of his enquiries, that the unities of time and place are not essential to a just drama; that though they may sometimes conduce to pleasure, they are always to be sacrificed to the nobler beauties of variety and instruction; and that a play written with nice observations of critical rules, is to be contemplated as an elaborate curiosity, as the product of superfluous and ostentatious art, by which is shewn rather what is possible than what is necessary.

He that, without diminution of any other excellence, shall preserve all the unities unbroken, deserves the like applause with the architect, who shall display all the orders of architecture in a citadel, without any deduction from its strength; but the principal beauty of a citadel is to exclude the enemy; and the greatest graces of a play are to copy nature and instruct life.

UNITY of *Possession*, in *Law*, signifies a joint possession of two rights, by several titles.

Thus,

Thus, if I take a lease of land upon a certain rent, and afterwards buy the fee simple; this is an unity of possession, by which the lease is extinguished: by reason I, who before had only the occupation for my rent, am now become lord of the same, and am to pay rent to none but myself.

Unity of possession amounts to the same with what civilians called *consolidation*; which fee.

The unity of a joint estate is fourfold, *viz.* unity of interest, the unity of title, the unity of time, and the unity of possession; or, in other words, joint-tenants have one and the same interest, accruing by one and the same conveyance, commencing at one and the same time, and held by one and the same undivided possession. See Blackf. Com. b. ii.

UNITY of a Sentence, in *Grammar and Rhetoric*. See STYLE.

UNITY of Melody. This is an ingenious idea, which we think merits a place among musical desiderata: it was first suggested and recommended by Rousseau, in his *Letter on French Music*, 1751, and afterwards enforced in his *Musical Dictionary*, in the following manner. "There is in all the fine arts some object of unity, or symmetry, the source of intellectual pleasure: for attention divided by two different objects, has no repose; and when two objects occupy us at once, it is a proof that the mind is satisfied with neither. (Baretti used to say that two misfortunes were better than one, because they divided the attention.) There is in music a successive unity with respect to the subject, by which all the parts well combined constitute a whole, whence we perceive the *ensemble* and all its relations.

"But there is another more refined and more simultaneous object of unity, whence there insensibly arises the energy of music and force of its expressions.

"When I hear our palms sung in four parts, I begin to listen with great delight at the full and nervous harmony; and the first chords, when they are perfectly in tune, affect me even to shivering; but before I have listened many minutes to the rest, my attention diminishes, till by degrees I am stunned with the noise; I become indifferent, and, at length, tired with hearing nothing but chords.

"This does not happen when I hear good modern music, though the harmony is not so vigorous; and I remember at the opera in Venice, a beautiful air well executed never tired me, whatever was its length; and if repeated, my attention was renewed, and I heard it with more interest the second time than the first.

"This difference arises from the character of the two musics, of which one is only a succession of chords, and the other a series of single sounds in melody. Now the pleasure which we receive from harmony, is only that of pure sensation, and the enjoyment of the senses is always short. Satiation and fatigue follow each other very closely; but the pleasure from melody, is an interesting pleasure of sentiment which speaks to the heart, and which an artist may always sustain and renew by force of genius.

"Music ought therefore necessarily to sing, in order to interest, please, and support the attention. But in our systems of chords and mere harmony, can music sing, or have any interesting melody? If each part has its own melody, all these melodies heard at once, mutually destroy each other, and annihilate all melody: if all the parts perform the same melody, we shall have no harmony, and the concert will be wholly in unison.

"The manner in which a musical instinct, a certain impulse of genius, has vanquished this difficulty without seeing it, and at the same time turned it to advantage, is very remarkable. Harmony, which, abused, would suffocate me-

lody, animates, enforces, and gives it a character: the different parts, judiciously arranged, concur in producing the same effect, and though each seems to have a melody of its own, from all these parts united, we hear only one and the same melody. This is what I call *unity of melody*.

"Let us now explain how harmony itself, far from injuring, concurs in supporting this unity. Our melodies are characterized by our keys and measures, and our keys are governed by harmony. Whenever the harmony enforces and determines the sentiment of the mode or key and the modulation, it adds to the expression of the melody, provided it does not cover and render it insignificant.

"The composer's art, therefore, after rendering himself a master of harmony and modulation, should be principally pointed to the unity of melody. 1. When the key is not sufficiently determined in the melody, to render it more certain by the harmony. 2. To select and use his chords in such a manner, that the most interesting sound should be always in the principal melody, and that its interest should arise from the base. 3. To add to the energy of each passage by harsh chords, if the expression is harsh, and by pleasing chords, if the expression is sweet. 4. To pay attention in the style of the accompaniment to the piano and forte of the melody: and 5. To contrive that the melody of the parts of accompaniment do not counteract the principal, but sustain, second, and give it a more lively and marked accent.

"The unity of melody particularly requires that two melodies equally interesting should not be heard at the same time, but not that the melody should never pass from one part to another. (In the quartets of Haydn, Mozart and Pleyel, there is nothing more amusing to the hearers, or more flattering to the performers, than giving the melody alternately to the different parts, in the way of dialogue.) But a treatise would be necessary to shew in detail the application of this principle to duos, trios, quartets, choruses, and symphonies. Men of genius will discover its extent and use, and their works will instruct others. I therefore conclude by asserting, upon the principle which I have been trying to establish; first, that all music which does not sing is tiresome, in whatever harmony it may be clothed; secondly, that all music in which many different simultaneous parts are distinguished, is bad, and that there results from it the same effect as from two or more people speaking upon different subjects at the same time. From this opinion, which admits of no exception, will be pointed out what we ought to think of those wonderful compositions, where one air serves for an accompaniment to another.

"It is from this principle of the unity of melody, which the Italians have felt and followed without knowing it, but which the French have neither known nor followed; it is, I repeat it, from this grand principle, that the essential difference of the two musics arises; and it is, I believe, what every impartial judge will allow, who shall listen to both with equal attention, if however that is possible."

UNITY, in *Geography*, a town of America, in the district of Maine and county of Kennebeck, containing 793 inhabitants; 60 miles N. of Brunswick.—Also, a town of New Hampshire, in the county of Cheshire, containing 1044 inhabitants: N.E. of Charlestown.—Also, a township of Pennsylvania, in Westmoreland county, containing 2174 inhabitants.—Also, a township of Ohio, in the county of Columbiana, containing 827 inhabitants.

UNITY Bay, a bay on the E. coast of Labrador. N. lat. 57° 8'. W. long. 61° 30'.

UNIVALVE, in *Conchology*, a genus of shells. See CONCHOLGY and SHELLS.

UNIVERSALS.

UNIVERSAL, something that is common to many things; or, it is one thing belonging to many, or all things.

The word, according to some, is compounded of *unum* *versus alia*.

There are universal instruments, for measuring all kinds of distances, as heights, lengths, &c. called also *pantometers* and *holometers*.

An universal dial is that by which the hour may be found by the sun all over the earth; or under any elevation of the pole. See *UNIVERSAL DIAL*.

Several learned authors have had it in view to establish an universal character; by which the different nations might understand each other's writings, without learning their language. See *UNIVERSAL CHARACTER*.

The Romanists are divided among themselves about the title of *universal bishop*, which some of the popes have arrogated to themselves; though others of them have declined it. Baronius holds the appellation to belong to the pope *jure divino*; and yet St. Gregory, opposing the same quality given by a council in 586 to John, patriarch of Constantinople, asserted expressly, that it did not belong to any bishop; and that the bishops of Rome neither could, nor ought to take it. Accordingly, St. Leo refused to accept it, when offered him by the council of Chalcedon; for fear, lest, giving something particular to one bishop, they should take from all the rest; since there could not be an universal bishop, but the authority of the rest must be diminished.

UNIVERSAL, *Universale*, in *Logic*, is either *complex* or *incomplex*. A *complex* universal, is either an universal proposition, as, "Every whole is greater than its parts;" or whatever raises a manifold conception in the mind; as the definition of a reasonable animal.

An *incomplex* universal, is what produces one only conception in the mind, and is a simple thing, respecting many; as human nature, which relates to every individual in which it is found.

Now in an universal, two things are distinguished; the *matter*, called the *material universal*, *universale materiale*, which is the one nature multiplicable into many; as humanity in Peter, Paul, &c.; and the *form*, called the *formal universal*, which is the unity of that nature.

Wherefore, to constitute an universal, it is requisite the nature be one, yet multiplicable; but what such a nature is has proved matter of great controversy, both among the ancient and modern philosophers.

The Platonists will have universals to be nothing but divine ideas. By idea, they mean the pattern or form which the artificer has in view when he makes any thing; but as this is twofold; *internal*, which is a sort of image of the thing to be done, which the artificer frames in himself; and *external*, which is something out of himself, which the artificer imitates; the philosophers have been infinitely perplexed to find which of the two Plato meant. The Peripatetics insist he meant the *external*; but the Platonists, and most of the Christian divines, were advocates for the *internal*.

The Peripatetic system of species and phantasms, as well as the Platonic system of ideas, is grounded, says Dr. Reid, in his reasoning against the ideal theory (see *IDEA*), upon this principle, that in every kind of thought, there must be some object that really exists; in every operation of the will, something to work upon. Whether this immediate object be called an idea with Plato, or a phantasm or species with Aristotle; whether it be eternal and uncreated, or produced by the impressions of external objects, is, as he thinks, of no consequence in the present argument.

The Stoics and Nominalists maintain this in common with the Platonists, that universals are not in the things themselves, but out of them. The Stoics particularly, for universals, put a kind of formal conceptions, or acts of knowing; by reason they represent many things at the same time; e. g. knowledge, representing all men, is, according to the Stoics, an universal.

The Nominalists make words universals; because the same word represents many things, as the word *man* represents all men; but both Stoics and Nominalists make universals to be something extrinsic to things themselves; alleging that whatever exists, or is produced, is singular; so that there is no universal really in things. See *NOMINALS* and *REALISTS*.

The Peripatetics, however, contend, that there are universal and common natures in things themselves; or that things and natures like each other form a material universal. But as to the manner in which they are universal, or whence they derive their universality, that is, their unity and aptitude of being in many, whether from nature, or from our understanding, is great matter of dispute among them. If they derive that unity in which their universal form is placed from nature, then there is an universal *à parte rei*; which is the opinion of the Scotists.

If they do not derive it from nature, but only from our minds or understandings, then the doctrine of the Thomists is allowed, who contend, that a formal universal has no other existence, but by an act of the intellect.

"As in all the ancient metaphysical systems," says the ingenious professor Dugald Stewart, "it was taken for granted, that every exertion of thought implies the existence of an object distinct from the thinking being; it naturally occurred, as a curious question, What is the immediate object of our attention, when we are engaged in any general speculation? or, in other words, what is the nature of the idea corresponding to a general term?"—"In answer to this question," says the professor, "the Platonists, and, at an earlier period, the Pythagoreans, taught, that although these universal ideas are not copied from any objects perceivable by sense, yet that they have an existence independent of the human mind, and are no more to be confounded with the understanding, of which they are the proper objects, than material things are to be confounded with our powers of external perception: that as all the individuals which compose a genus, must possess something in common; and as it is in consequence of this, that they belong to that genus, and are distinguished by that name, the common thing forms the essence of each; and is the object of the understanding, when we reason concerning the genus. They maintained also, that this common essence, notwithstanding its inseparable union with a multitude of different individuals, is in itself one and indivisible." Our author substitutes the term *essence* for *idea*, as more intelligible to the modern reader, and more suited to convey the true import of Plato's expressions. (See *ESSENCE*.) On most of these points, the philosophy of Aristotle very nearly agreed with that of Plato; though they used different language in developing their respective opinions. Plato, fond of the marvellous and mysterious, maintained the incomprehensible union of the same idea or essence, with a number of individuals, without multiplication or division. Aristotle, aiming at greater perspicuity, contented himself with saying, that all individuals are composed of matter and form; and that in consequence of possessing a common form, different individuals belong to the same genus. "But they both agreed, that, as the matter, or the individual natures of objects were perceived by sense; so the general idea, or essence,

UNIVERSALS.

or form, was perceived by the intellect; and that, as the attention of the vulgar was chiefly engrossed with the former, so the latter furnished to the philosopher the materials of his speculations.

"The chief difference between the opinions of Plato and Aristotle on the subject of ideas, related to the mode of their existence. That the matter of which all things are made, existed from eternity, was a principle which both admitted; but Plato farther taught, that, of every species of things, there is an idea or form which also existed from eternity; and that this idea is the exemplar or model according to which the individuals of the species were made; whereas Aristotle held, that, although matter may exist without form, yet that forms could not exist without matter.

"The doctrine of the Stoics concerning universals, differed widely from those both of Plato and Aristotle, and seems to have approached to a speculation which is commonly supposed to be of a more recent origin, and which an eminent philosopher of the present age has ranked among the discoveries which do the greatest honour to modern genius." See Hume's *Treatise of Human Nature*, book i. part i. sect. 7.

Our author's preceding statement of Aristotle's doctrine, as far as it is commonly supposed to differ from that of Plato, is founded on the authority of Brucker, whom we have cited under the appropriate titles; though Harris, in his "*Hermes*," and the author of the "*Origin and Progress of Language*," give a different account of the difference subsisting between them.

The opinion which generally prevailed among the Scholastics in the dark ages was, "that universals do not exist before things, nor after things, but in things; that is, universal ideas have not (as Plato thought) an existence separable from individual objects; and, therefore, they could not have existed prior to them in the order of time; nor yet, (according to the doctrine of the Stoics,) are they mere conceptions of the mind, formed in consequence of an examination and comparison of particulars; but these ideas or forms are from eternity united inseparably with that matter of which things consist; or, as the Aristotelians sometimes express themselves, the forms of things are from eternity immersed in matter."

This opinion concerning the nature of universals was generally maintained till the eleventh century, when a new doctrine, borrowed from the school of Zeno, was propounded by Roscelinus, and propagated by Abelard. According to these philosophers, there are no existences in nature corresponding to general terms, and the objects of our attention in all our general speculations, are not ideas, but words. The Scholastics from this time formed themselves into two sects, *viz.* the Nominalists and Realists: the former attaching itself to the opinions of Roscelinus and Abelard, and the latter to the principles of Aristotle. See NOMINALS and REALISTS.

Our author's opinion coincides with that of the Nominalists; and from his elaborate statement of the process of the mind, in pursuing general speculations, he infers, "that idea, which the ancient philosophers considered as the essence of an individual, is nothing more than the particular quality or qualities in which it resembles other individuals of the same class; and in consequence of which, a generic name is applied to it. It is the possession of this quality, that entitles the individual to the generic appellation; and which, therefore, may be said to be essential to its classification with that particular genus; but as all classifications are to a certain degree arbitrary, it does not necessarily follow, that it

is more essential to its existence as an individual, than various other qualities which we are accustomed to regard as accidental. In other words (if I may borrow the language of modern philosophy), this quality forms its nominal, but not its real essence." See CLASSIFICATION, ABSTRACTION, and GENERALIZATION.

After the death of Abelard, the Realists began to revive; the sect of the Nominalists declined, and in the fourteenth century was almost completely extinct. Their doctrine was equally reprobated by the two great parties which then divided the schools; the followers of Duns Scotus and of Thomas Aquinas. (See SCOTISTS and THOMISTS.) At length, William Occam vindicated the long-abandoned philosophy of Roscelinus. See NOMINALS.

Although the names of the contending parties no longer exist, the subject of controversy between them has at a very late period interested the attention of philosophers. The most distinguished advocates for the doctrine of the Nominalists, since the revival of letters, are Hobbes, Berkeley, and Hume.

"The universality of one name to many things," says Hobbes (*Tripos*, chap. v. § 6), "hath been the cause that men think the things themselves are universal; and so feverishly contend, that besides Peter and John, and all the rest of the men that are, have been, or shall be, in the world, there is yet something else that we call man, *viz.* man in general; deceiving themselves, by taking the universal, or general appellation, for the thing it signifieth: for if one should desire the painter to make him the picture of a man, which is as much as to say, of a man in general; he meaneth no more, but that the painter should chuse what man he pleaseth to draw, which must needs be some of them that are, or have been, or may be; none of which are universal. But when he would have him to draw the picture of the king, or any particular person, he limiteth the painter to that one person he chuses. It is plain, therefore, that there is nothing universal but names; which are therefore called indefinite, because we limit them not ourselves, but leave them to be applied by the hearer: whereas a singular name is limited and restrained to one of the many things it signifieth; as when we say, this man, pointing to him, or giving him his proper name, or by some such other way."

Berkeley and Hume do not materially differ from one another. "A very natural question," says the latter, (*Treatise of Human Nature*, book i. part i. § 7.), "has been started concerning abstract or general ideas: Whether they be general or particular in the mind's conception of them? A great philosopher has disputed the received opinion in this particular; and has asserted, that all general ideas are nothing but particular ones annexed to a certain term, which gives them a more extensive signification, and makes them recall, upon occasion, other individuals, which are similar to them. As I look upon this to be one of the greatest and most valuable discoveries that have been made of late years in the republic of letters, I shall here endeavour to confirm it by some arguments, which, I hope, will put it beyond all doubt and controversy."

Leibnitz has also declared himself a partisan of this sect, in a dissertation entitled "*De Stilo Philosophico Marii Nizolii*." Dr. Campbell, in his "*Philosophy of Rhetoric*," has founded an interesting speculation on the principles of Berkeley and Hume. See ABSTRACTION.

Attempts have been made, says our author, for reviving the system of the Realists; and he reckons among the ablest of these that of the excellent Dr. Price, to whom he pays a tribute of merited respect. This approved writer employed, he says, his ingenuity in support of some of the

old tenets of the Platonic school, and has even gone so far as to follow Plato's example, in connecting the speculation about universals, with the sublime questions of natural theology. His reasonings, he adds, "in proof of the existence of universals, are the more curious, as he acquiesces in some of Dr. Reid's conclusions with regard to the ideal theory of perception. That there are in the mind images or resemblances of things external, he grants to be impossible; but still he seems to suppose, that in every exertion of thought, there is *something* immediately present to the mind, which is the object of its attention." To this purpose, Dr. Price reasons in the following manner: "The word *idea* is sometimes used to signify the immediate object of the mind in thinking, considered as something in the mind, which represents the real object, but is different from it. This sense of an idea is derived from the notion, that when we think of any external existence, there is something immediately present to the mind, which it contemplates distinct from the object itself, that being at a distance. But what is this? It is bad language to call it an image in the mind of the object. Shall we say then, that there is indeed no such thing? But would not this be the same as to say that, when the mind is employed in viewing and examining any object, which is either not present to it, or does not exist, it is employed in viewing and examining nothing, and therefore does not then think at all? When abstract truth is contemplated, is not the very object itself present to the mind? When millions of intellects contemplate the equality of every angle in a femicircle to a right angle, have they not all the same object in view? Is this object nothing? Or is it only an image or kind of shadow?—These inquiries carry our thoughts high."

To the difficulty suggested by Dr. Price, our author says, "I have no answer to make, but by repeating the fact which I have already endeavoured to establish; that there are only two ways in which we can possibly speculate about classes of objects; the one, by means of a word or generic term; the other, by means of one particular individual of the class which we consider as the representative of the rest; and that these two methods of carrying on our general speculations, are at bottom so much the same, as to authorize us to lay down as a principle, that, without the use of signs, all our thoughts must have related to individuals. When we reason, therefore, concerning classes or genera, the objects of our attention are merely signs; or if, in any instance, the generic word should recall some individual, this circumstance is to be regarded only as the consequence of an accidental association, which has rather a tendency to disturb, than to assist us in our reasoning."

For the opinions of a sect that may be regarded as intermediate between the Nominalists and Realists, we refer to CONCEPTIONALISTS. See Stewart's Elements of the Philosophy of the Human Mind. See also *Mental Philosophy*.

UNIVERSAL CAUSE, *Charactere, Consumption, Geography, Gravity, Joint, Maps, Palsy, Prostitution, Rheumatism, Ring-dial, System, and Theorem*. See the substantives.

UNIVERSALISTS, in *Polemical Divinity*, an appellation given to such as hold an universal grace; in like manner as the denomination Particularists is given to those who hold a *particular and efficacious* grace.

The Arminians are particularly denominated Universalists.

UNIVERSALISTS, *Hypothetical, in Ecclesiastical History*, an appellation given to those doctors of Saumur, who attempted to reconcile the doctrine of predestination, as it had been taught at Geneva, and confirmed at Dort, with the sentiments of those who represent the Deity as offering the displays of his goodness and mercy to all mankind. The first person who

made this attempt was John Cameron (see CAMERONIANS), whose sentiments were supported, and farther illustrated, by Moses Amyraut, a man of uncommon sagacity and erudition. The latter applied himself, from 1634, with such zeal to this work, that he produced no small changes in the doctrine commonly received among the reformed in France. The form of doctrine which he propounded with this view may be summed up in the following propositions; viz. that God desires the happiness of all men, and that no mortal is excluded, by any divine decree, from the benefits that are procured by the death, sufferings, and gospel of Christ; that, however, no one can be made a partaker of the blessings of the Gospel, and of eternal salvation, unless he believe in Jesus Christ; that such is the immense and universal goodness of the Supreme Being, that he refuses to none the power of believing; though he does not grant unto all his assistance and succour, that they may wisely improve this power to the attainment of everlasting salvation; and that, in consequence of this, multitudes perish through their own fault, and not from any want of goodness in God. Those who embraced this doctrine were called Universalists, because they represented God as willing to shew mercy to all mankind; and hypothetical Universalists, because the condition of faith in Christ was necessary to render them objects of his mercy. Mosh. Eccl. Hist. vol. iv. 8vo.

UNIVERSALITY, the quality that denominates a thing universal.

The Catholics assert the universality of their church, both as to time and persons; and maintain this to be a note or mark of the true church, which distinguishes it from all other societies that pretend to the name.

UNIVERSALITY, in the Schools. Logicians made two kinds of universality, the one *metaphysical*, the other *moral*.

UNIVERSALITY, *Metaphysical*, is that which excepts nothing; as this proposition, "Every man is mortal."

UNIVERSALITY, *Moral*, is that which admits of some exception; as, "All old men praise the times past." In such like propositions, it is enough that the thing be ordinarily so; it not being strictly required, that every old man should be of that disposition. See PREDICABLE.

UNIVERSE, a collective name, signifying the assemblage of heaven and earth, with all things in them, called by the Greeks *το πᾶν*, and by the Latins *mundus*.

The ancients, and after them the Cartesians, imagine the universe to be infinite. The reason they give is, that it implies a contradiction to suppose it finite or bounded; since it is impossible not to conceive space beyond any limits that can be assigned it; which space, according to the Cartesians, is body, and consequently part of the universe. But that the universe is finite, appears from the two following considerations: 1. That whatever consists of parts cannot be infinite, since the parts that compose it must be finite, either in number or magnitude; which, if they be, what they compose must be so too; or, 2. They must be infinite, either in number or magnitude; but an infinite number is a contradiction; and to suppose the parts infinitely big, is to suppose several infinities, one bigger than another; which, though it may pass among mathematicians, who only argue about infinities, in *posse*, or in imagination, will not be allowed in philosophy.

UNIVERSITY, UNIVERSITAS, a collective term, applied to an assemblage of several colleges established in a city, or town, in which are professors in the several sciences, appointed to teach them to students; and where degrees, or certificates of study in the divers faculties, are taken up.

In each university four faculties are usually taught; theology, medicine, law, and the arts and sciences.

They

They are called *universities*, or *universal schools*, because the four faculties are supposed to make the grand world, or whole compafs of ftudy; or rather, becaufe they form one whole out of many individuals.

In the eye of the law, an univerfity is held a mere lay body, or community; though, in reality, it be a mixed body, compofed partly of laymen, and partly of ecclefiaftics. See CORPORATION.

The definition of the term *universitas*, by foreign civilians, answers nearly to our common law term of body politic or corporate; and fuch towns as had this appellation in Germany, &c. might hold lands and rents in common, and do all other acts as one aggregate body. And in this fenfe, the word *universitas* came to be applied to fuch academies for learning as were incorporated, which archbifhop Uther thinks began about the year 1250.

Univerfities had their firft rife in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. Thofe of Paris and Bologna pretend to be the firft that were fet on foot; but then they were on a very different footing from the univerfities among us.

The univerfity of Paris is faid to have commenced under Charlemagne, and to owe its rife to four Englifhmen, difciples of Venerable Bede, who, going to that city, made a propofal to fet up and fell learning, and accordingly held their firft lectures in places affigned them by that prince: fuch is the account given by Gaguin, Gilles, De Bauvais, &c. Though the authors who wrote in thofe days, as Eginhard, Aïmon, Region, Sigebert, &c. make not the leaft mention of this memorable fact.

Add, that Falquier, Du Tillet, &c. declare openly againft the opinion; and assert, that the firft foundations were not laid till the time of Lewis the Young, and Philip Augufte, in the twelfth century. The earlieft mention we find made of the univerfity of Paris, is in Regordus, who lived in that age, and who was contemporary with Peter Lombard, the mafter of the fentences, the great glory of that univerfity; in memory of whom an anniversary has been long obferved by that body in the church of St. Marcel, where he lies buried.

But it is certain it was not eftablifhed all at once; it appears to have been at firft no other than a public fchool in the cathedral church; from which it grew, by little and little, under the favour and protection of the kings, into a regular body.

Our own univerfities, Oxford and Cambridge, feem intitled to the greateft antiquity of any in the world; and Univerfity, Balol, and Merton colleges in Oxford, and Peter's in Cambridge, all made colleges in the thirteenth century, may be faid to be the firft regular endowments of this kind in Europe.

For though Univerfity college in Oxford had been a place for ftudents ever fince the year 872, yet this, like many of the other ancient colleges beyond fea, and Leyden to this day, was no proper college; but the ftudents, without any diftinction of habits, lived in citizen's houfes, having only meeting-places to hear lectures, and to difpute.

In after-times, there were houfes built for the ftudents to live in fociety; only each to be at his own charge, as in the inns of court. Thefe, at firft, were called *inns*, but now *halls*.

At laft plentiful revenues were fettled on feveral of thefe halls, to maintain the ftudents in diet, apparel, &c. and thefe were then called *colleges*.

The univerfities of Oxford and Cambridge are governed, next under the king, by a chancellor, who is to take care of the government of the whole univerfity, to maintain its liberties, &c.

Under the chancellor is the high-fteward, whole office is to affift the chancellor, and other officers, when required, in the execution of their offices, and to hear and determine capital caufes, according to the laws of the land, and the privileges of the univerfity. See *Univerfity Court*.

The next officer is the vice-chancellor, who officiates for the chancellor in his abfence.

In the univerfity of Oxford there are four pro-vice-chancellors: in the univerfity of Cambridge, the vice-chancellor, and five others, conftitute the *caput*, which every univerfity grace mult pafs before it can be introduced into the fenate.

There are alfo two proctors, who affift in the government of the univerfity, particularly in the bufinefs of fchool-exercise, the taking up degrees, punifhing violators of the ftatutes, &c.

In the univerfity of Cambridge there are alfo two moderators, two fcrutators, and two taxors. In this univerfity there are nineteen profefors, befides lady Margaret's preacher: in that of Oxford there are twenty-one profefors, including the readers in anatomy and chemiftry. Add to thefe a public orator, keeper of records, librarians, regifter, efquire and yeoman beadles, clerk, and verger. See COLLEGE. See alfo CAMBRIDGE and OXFORD.

For the degrees taken up in each faculty, with the exercises, &c. requifite to them, fee DEGREE.

The univerfities of Scotland are four, viz. that of St. Andrew's, that of Glaigow, that of Aberdeen, and that of Edinburgh. See each place refpectively, and alfo SCOTLAND.

In noticing the different European univerfities, under the names of the refpective cities and towns in which they are eftablifhed, we have detailed the hiftories and prominent events of each. Under the prefent head it was our intention to have inquired into the progrefive and prefent ftate of claffical learning and fcience, as thefe have been offenfively influenced by the univerfities; and at the time of writing the account of Oxford, for a previous volume, it was our wifh to have investigated, with caution and candour, the ftate of difcipline and tuition of the moft eminent univerfities of Europe. The fubject is certainly of intereft and importance; and it is rather fingular, that in the vaft range of literary inquiry and difquifition which characterizes the prefent age, we have not a work devoted to a comparative view and impartial elucidation of the practical fyftems of the national fchools. For fome centuries paft thefe have been regarded as effential to complete the ftudies of the fcholar and gentleman: to thefe nearly all the national eftablifhments, and even the legiflative afsemblies, have looked with refpect bordering on reverence. Laws have conferred on them many important dignities, privileges, and immunities; their riches and influence have progrefively increafed; and their powers of directing the minds and talents of their refpective pupils, and confequently the countries in which they are placed, are of the higheft reponfibility. To elucidate thefe facts with any degree of fatisfaction, would occupy a large volume. We mult depair of effecting it in a work like the prefent, and therefore content ourfelves with a few remarks and references. By examining the conftitutions of the Britifh univerfities, and the ftatutes of the different colleges, we fhall obferve that a laudable and liberal fpirit actuated the original foundders; and we fhall alfo readily perceive that they have produced great and good effects on the morals and literature of the country. But it will alfo appear, that many of their ordinances and laws, having been adapted to an age and ftate of fociety very different from the prefent, are now become either obfolete, ufelefs, or, what is much worfe, injurious. Thefe fhould be remodelled: for as the natural tendency of mankind is to advance in know-

ledge, it should be the practice of organized learned bodies to direct the youthful mind in the best and readiest way to learning; to point out the path that should be pursued, rather than follow in a beaten track. An university has been long regarded as the fountain of science and literature, and hence it becomes an imperious duty of its guardians to preserve its streams fresh and pure.

Within the last half century many great revolutions and changes have been produced in the civilized world. Empires, kingdoms, and subordinate states, have been created and have fallen; have been dismembered, torn asunder, overrun with armies, and, in various degrees, affected by political causes. Universities and academies must have been materially influenced by these events: and hence it is not the least difficulty of the historian to ascertain their recent and present states. In some of the cities on the continent they have been entirely altered. Their old foundations have been either abrogated, or remodelled on a new and broader basis. The revolution of France was not merely political, but it produced extensive effects on the old establishments in arts, science, and literature. Many pamphlets and essays were, soon after that event, published on the latter subjects: some vindicating and recommending the old systems, others urging the necessity of modifications, and others contending for the adoption of entirely new establishments. These controversies produced the "National Institute," the constitution and novelties of which have excited much general attention, and produced great changes in the discipline of public schools. (See PARIS, *Literary Institutions*.) Other universities on the continent have been roused by the shock of that revolution, and have endeavoured to adapt their routine of studies, and the subjects of them, to the demands of the age. "All the north of Germany," observes baroness Stael, in her recent work on Germany, "is filled with the most learned universities in Europe. In no country, not even in England, have the people so many means of instructing themselves, and bringing their faculties to perfection. Intellectual education is perfect in Germany; but every thing passes into theory: practical education depends solely on things actually existing: it is by action alone that the character acquires that firmness which is necessary to direct the conduct of life. The German universities possess an ancient reputation, of a date several ages antecedent to the Reformation. Since that epoch the Protestant universities have been incontestably superior to the Catholic, and the literary glory of Germany depends altogether upon these institutions. A sketch of these is presented in a work just published by M. de Villers, an author who is always found at the head of all noble and generous opinions. The English universities have singularly contributed to diffuse among the people of England that knowledge of ancient languages and literature which gives to their orators and statesmen an information so liberal and so brilliant. It is a mark of good taste to be acquainted with other things besides matters of business, when one is thoroughly acquainted with them; and, besides, the eloquence of free nations attaches itself to the history of the Greeks and Romans, as to that of ancient fellow-countrymen. But the German universities, although founded on principles analogous to those of Oxford and Cambridge, yet differ from them in many respects: the multitude of students assembled together in Gottingen, Halle, Jena, &c. formed a kind of free body in the state: the rich and poor scholars were distinguished from each other only by personal merit; and the strangers, who repaired from all parts of the world, submitted themselves with pleasure to an equality which natural superiority alone could disturb."

Although there are no universities in Belgium, yet the college of Ghent is instituted for the same purpose, and calculated to produce very beneficial effects. Its plan of education, and general regulations, are worthy of imitation. The functionaries consist of a regent, two sub-regents, and six professors in Greek and Latin poetry, and in rhetoric; besides six other professors in French, English, German, drawing, and mathematics. These have not only the charge of educating the pupils, but of watching their morals and manners. They are required to make monthly reports to the mayor, and to the parents of the respective children. See a full and interesting account of this seminary in Mitchell's "Tour through Belgium," &c. 8vo. 1816; in which work is also contained, a review of the system of education in the college of Brussels, the central schools of France, the university of Leyden, and the university of Utrecht.

In Great Britain, some useful and essential improvements have been adopted in the present century: but they do not appear to have been produced so much from rivalry with foreign schools, as by the general emulation excited by metropolitan and provincial institutions. Within the last twenty years, London has presented nearly all the advantages, without any of the fetters, of established universities; for in this vast city, many literary and scientific institutions have been formed, and many courses of lectures delivered, all calculated to improve the rising generation. (See LONDON, *Literary Institutions*; LIVERPOOL, and MANCHESTER.) Hence the emulous mind has exhausted sources of learning: and hence a new era has been created in the annals of England.

In no one subject, perhaps, is the advantage of a free press more apparent than in that now under consideration. But for this, many useful plans would never have been carried into effect; many errors of the dark ages would have continued and increased; many establishments would have descended in utility, whilst they ascended in wealth and power. Public discussion on these subjects occasions a minute investigation into the principles and practices of old establishments; places them in a state of comparison with new; and causes a deliberate enquiry into the utility and practicability of new theories, before they have gone through the routine of experience. Many authors have thus been induced to publish their opinions and animadversions on the discipline and practices of the old universities of England; and these have produced useful effects. Still, however, some of the writers contend that the old establishments do not sufficiently attend to the demands and improvements of the age: but that they persist in studies which are useless and obsolete, to the neglect of those which are necessary, and which are calculated to be practically useful. Gibbon, in his "Life and Opinions," says, "The schools of Oxford and Cambridge were founded in a dark age of false and barbarous science; and they are still tainted with the vices of their origin. Their primitive discipline was adapted to the education of priests and monks; and the government still remains in the hands of the clergy, an order of men whose manners are remote from the present world, and whose eyes are dazzled by the light of philosophy." The same learned and eloquent writer enters into a disquisition on the prejudices, errors, and wrong discipline of these schools.

Dr. Knox also, in his "Moral and Literary Essays," the Edinburgh Review, vol. xvi. and other writers, have published their opinions on the same subject. In reply to which, and in vindication of the present practice, Mr. Copplestone of Oxford published a pamphlet in 1810. Other members of the respective universities have also come forward in defence of their schools; and hence the subject is brought

brought before the public tribunal, the ultimate decision of which is generally just and sound. See also Monthly Review, vol. lxxviii. p. 277. The Oxford and Cambridge University Calendars, for 1816 and 1817. Chalmers's Account of the Colleges and Halls of Oxford, 2 vols. 8vo. Dyer's History of the University and Colleges of Cambridge, 2 vols. 8vo.

The chief foreign universities are those of Abo, in Finland, frequented by students from Russia, and, in number, equalling that of Upsal; of Austria, at Vienna, founded in 1237, and improved since 1752; at Prague, founded in 1347; at Inspruck, dated from 1677; and at Gratz, from 1585; of Benares, in Hindoostan; of Buda, in Hungary; and of Calcutta, established by the marquis of Wellesley, the plan of which is extensive and liberal. Besides Hindoo, Mahomedan, and English law, and the local regulations, it was designed to have professors of civil jurisprudence, political economy, geography, history, &c. The languages to be taught were Arabic, Persian, Sanscrit, Hindoostanee, Bengal, Telinga, Maratta, Tamula, and Canara. But this institution has declined. We may mention also the universities of Coimbra in Portugal, of Copenhagen, of Debitzina, and of Erlau. France formerly boasted of twenty-one universities; viz. in the North Douay, Caen, Paris, Rheims, Nancy, Strasbourg; in the middle provinces, Nantes, Angers, Poitiers, Orleans, Bourges, Dijon, Besançon; and in the south, Bourdeaux, Pau, Perpignan, Toulouse, Montpellier, Aix, Orange, and Valence. Of these, the Sorbonne of Paris was the most celebrated, though somewhat degraded by its tendency to prolong the reign of scholastic theology. The university of Georgia, in America, founded at Louisville in 1801, though Dr. Morse says it had its charter in 1785, and possessing funds to the amount of 50,000 acres of land. The university of Gottingen, in Hanover, was founded by George II. in 1734, solemnly opened in 1737, and has acquired considerable celebrity. Harvard university, in Cambridge, Massachusetts, founded in 1638, is the most ancient literary establishment in North America. The universities of Holland are those of Leyden, formerly much celebrated and frequented, but somewhat declined, on account of certain commercial regulations; of Utrecht, of Harderwyck, of Franche, and Groningen. Ingolstadt has an university, and so has Kiel, in Denmark. The university of St. Mark, in Lima, was founded in 1576, and is conducted on the plan of the Spanish universities. The university of Lund, in Sweden, accommodates about 300 students. The universities of Hesse, in Germany, are those of Marburg and Rindeln, and that of Giessen, belonging to Hesse-Darmstadt. In Mexico an university was founded in 1551, and it is styled royal and pontifical; and the cloister is composed of 251 doctors, of all sorts of faculties. Its library was collected about forty years ago, and consists of many old books of divinity, but few modern publications. The universities of the Netherlands were formerly numerous, considering the extent of the country. Exclusive of Tournay (Dornick), which has been long subject to the French, there were others at Douay and St. Omer, much frequented by the English Catholics; and one of still greater celebrity at Louvain, founded in 1425. Their illustrious professors, though celebrated by Guicciardini, nephew of the great historian, have been long since forgotten. The universities of Parma and Placentia need only be mentioned. The university of Pavia is in high reputation, and is regarded as the first in Italy. Its professors have distinguished themselves in natural history. The university of Pennsylvania was founded at Philadelphia during the war,

VOL. XXXVII.

and having been since united with the college, is become a respectable seat of learning. Rostock, in the duchy of Mecklenburg, has an university. In Portugal, besides the university of Coimbra already mentioned, there is that of Evora, founded in 1553. Prussia has several universities, that of Frankfort on the Oder, founded in 1516, and that of Konigsberg, in 1544. Of the Polish universities, Cracow, founded in 1364, has fallen to Austria; and Wilna, founded in 1570, to Russia. Posen or Posen has become subject to Prussia. The university of Peterburgh was founded by the late empress Catharine II. The universities of Spain are computed at upwards of 20; but the most noted is that of Salamanca, founded in 1200. The universities of Sweden are those of Upsal, Lund, and Abo. The university of Tubingen on the Neckar was founded in 1477; that of Turin was founded in 1405; that of Vienna has been already mentioned. In the province of Yemen, in Arabia, there are two universities or celebrated academies, one at Zebid, for the Sunnis, and another at Damar, for the Zeidites.

UNIVERSITY Courts. See UNIVERSITY COURT, and UNIVERSITY, *supra*.

UNIUM, the *Odiel*, in *Ancient Geography*, a river of Hispania, in Bætica, which united with the *Luxia*.

UNIVOCAL, in the *Schools*, is applied to two or more names, or terms, that have but one signification: in opposition to *equivocal*, which is, where one term has two or more significations.

Or, univocal terms are such whose name, as well as nature, is the same; in opposition to *equivocals*, whose names are the same, but their natures very different.

For a thing to be predicated univocally of any others, it is to be attributed to all of them alike, and in the same proper sense. See PREDICATE and PREDICABLE.

UNIVOCAL Generation. The doctrine of the ancients, with respect to propagation, was, that all perfect animals were produced by univocal generation, that is, by the sole union, or copulation, of a male and female of the same species, or denomination; and that insects were produced by equivocal generation, without any seed, and merely of the corruption of the earth exalted, and, as it were, impregnated by the sun's rays; but this is wholly erroneous.

Some philosophers make a kind of intermediate generation between equivocal and univocal, which they call *analogous generation*. See GENERATION.

UNIVOCAL ACTION. See ACTION.

UNIVOCAL Cause. See CAUSE.

UNIVOCALS, called by the Greeks *synonyma*, are defined by Aristotle to be those things whose name is common, and also the reason corresponding to the name; that is, the definition of the idea affixed to it the same.

Thus, under the name and definition of *animal*, man and brute are equally included; and circle and square, in the reason or definition of a *figure*.

Here, the word, as *figure*, they use to call *univocum univocans*, or *univocating univocal*; and the things included under the univocal name, as circle and square, *univoca univocata*, *univocated univocals*.

UNIVOCATION, in *Logic* and *Metaphysics*. The schoolmen have long disputed about the univocation of being, *i. e.* whether the general idea of *being* agree in the same manner, and in the same sense, to the substance, and the accident, to God and the creature?

UNIVOCUE, Fr., in *Music*. Univocal concords are the octave, and its recurrences or repetitions above or below, as they never change their name or effect. Ptolemy was the first who gave them this appellation.

UNKA, in *Geography*, a town of Sweden, in the province of Smaland; 85 miles N. of Calmar.

UNKEI-TENKY, a town of Hindoostan, in Baglana; 7 miles N.E. of Chandor.

UNKEL. See UNKEL.

UNKENACH, a town of Austria; 6 miles W. of Schwanaftatt.

UNLACING, in *Sea Language*, the act of loosening and taking off the bonnet of a sail from its principal part.

UNLAWFUL, ILLEGAL, something prohibited by, or contrary to the terms of a law, either divine or human.

UNLAWFUL *Assembly*, the meeting of three or more persons together, by force to commit some unlawful act; as, to assault any person, to enter his house, or land, &c. and thus abiding together, whether they attempt the execution or not. See REBELLIOUS *Assembly*, RIOT, and ROUT.

By the stat. 16 Car. II. if five persons, or more, shall be assembled together, above those of the family, at any conventicle, or meeting, under colour of any exercise of religion, it is unlawful, and punishable by fines, and otherwise, as in that statute is provided. See CONVENTICLE.

UNLIKE *Quantities and Signs*, in *Algebra*. See LIKE *Signs and Quantities*.

UNLIMITED, or *Indeterminate Problem*, is such a one as is capable of infinite solutions. As, to divide a triangle given into two equal parts; to make a circle pass through two points assigned, &c. See DIOPHANTINE and INDETERMINATE.

UNLUTING, in *Chemistry*, the taking away of the lute, loam, or clay, with which a vessel was before closed, joined to another, or covered.

UNMOOR, *To*, in *Sea Language*, is to reduce a ship to the state of riding by a single anchor and cable; after she has been moored or fastened by two or more cables.

UNNA, in *Geography*, a river which rises in Bosnia, on the borders of Croatia; 28 miles S. of Bihaç, and runs into the Save, 16 miles N.W. of Gradisca.—Also, a town of Germany, in the county of Mark. This place is in rank the second town of the county, and lies in a fine plain, on a rivulet named the Kottelbecke. It has a Lutheran parish-church, and a hospital church, which the Calvinists use for their worship, but in which also on Saturdays worship is performed by a Lutheran preacher; as also a nunnery, together with a chapel, and a Lutheran school. This town is possessed of a very extensive and profitable territory. Formerly it constituted one of the Hanse towns. So early as the year 1032, Unna was a considerable village, and, together with its extent of territory, belonged to the archbishop of Cologne. In the year 1250, it was environed with walls, and endowed with the immunities of a town; 23 miles S. of Munster. N. lat. 51° 33'. E. long. 7° 48'.

UNNAP-POUPPY, a town of Meckley; 75 miles S.S.E. of Munnypour.

UNNARY, a town of Sweden, in the province of Smaland; 43 miles W. of Wexio.

UNONA, in *Botany*, a name evidently contrived to preserve an analogy with *Annona*, to which the genus which bears it is nearly related. Perhaps Linnæus had in view the union of the filaments with the germen, in the formation of this name.—Linn. Suppl. 44. Schreb. Gen. 375, 834. Willd. Sp. Pl. v. 2. 1271. Mart. Mill. Dict. v. 4. Jusf. 283.—Class and order, *Polyandria Polygynia*. Nat. Ord. *Coadunata*, Linn. *Annonæ*, Jusf.

Gen. Ch. Cal. Perianth inferior, of three small, acute, close-pressed leaves. Cor. Petals six, lanceolate, sessile, gibbous at the base externally, and concave at the same part

within. Stam. Filaments none; anthers innumerable, oblong, collected into a dense ball, within the hollow of the base of the corolla. Pist. Germens several, closely covered by the anthers; styles about ten, bristle-shaped, crowded, rather longer than the anthers; stigmas. . . . Peric. Berries several, stalked, ovate, gibbous, comping a spreading umbel. Seeds two, one above the other, ovate, very smooth, abrupt at the base.

Eff. Ch. Calyx three-leaved. Petals six. Berries several, stalked, each with two seeds.

Obf. Linnæus suggests that this genus ought to be referred to *Gynandria*, and he has led the writer of the present article into the same mistake, concerning *Nymphaea*, in Prodr. Fl. Græc. v. 1. 360, corrected in v. 2. 359, of the same work. We are now convinced, that no genus can be safely termed gynandrous, except the filaments are inserted into the pistil above the germen. *Unona* is closely connected in character and habit with *Uvaria*, and perhaps ought to be united therewith. Willdenow has referred hither two species of *Desmos* of Loureiro, and *Uvaria zeylanica* of Aublet; but having no original information relative to these three plants, we prefer retaining the Linnæan *Unona* by itself.

1. *U. difcreta*. Linn. Suppl. 270.—Gathered by Dahlberg in Surinam, where it is called *Peyricboom*. This is a tree with slender, flexible, round, alternate branches, clothed when young with rusty down. Leaves alternate, willow-like, on short stalks, lanceolate, two inches long, taper-pointed, bluntish, entire; smooth above; beautifully silky beneath. Flowers axillary, solitary, on short stalks. Petals externally silky. Fruit the size of a large pea. In a dried state it seems rather a capsule than a berry.

UN POCO, in *Italian Music*, a little; as, *un poco piu allegro*, a little quicker; *un poco piu largo*, a little slower.

UNQUES PRIST, *Always ready*. See UNCURE *Priest*.

UNRECLAIMED HAWK, one that is untamed.

UNREEVING a Rope. See REEVING.

UNREST, in *Geography*. See UNREST.

UNRIGGING of a Ship, is the taking away of the standing and running rigging.

UNSEELING, in *Falconry*, a taking away of the thread that runs through the hawk's eye-lids, and hinders her sight. See HAWK.

Drawing the strings of the hood, to be in readiness to pull off, is called *unstriking the hood*.

UNSER FRAU, in *Geography*, a town of Austria; 1 mile N. of Weitra.

UNSA FRAU NAZARETH, a town of the duchy of Stiria; 10 miles S.W. of Windisch Gratz.

UNSA FRAU WEISTEN, a town of the duchy of Stiria; 11 miles W. of Marburg.

UNST, is the most northern of the Shetland isles, and the most northern territory of the British empire, being situated in the latitude of 61°. Its form is of an irregular oblong square, extending in length about ten miles, and in breadth from two to four. In comparison with the other Shetland isles, Unst may be considered level, yet its surface is diversified by several extensive ridges of hills; the most remarkable are, Vallafeld, which rises to the height of 600 feet, and Saxaforth, elevated 700 feet above the level of the sea. The island is not intersected by rivers, but contains several fresh-water lakes; Loch Cliff, the largest, is two miles long, and about half a mile in breadth. The seashores are remarkably indented with bays and creeks, having many small islands and pasture holms scattered around. Along the coast are several natural caves, of considerable extent;

extent; one of which, under a promontory of the hill of Saxaforth, penetrates at least 300 feet under ground. In general, the soil is tolerably fertile, even under the worst modes of culture; and the pasture-grounds are mostly covered with a short tender heath, which affords excellent feeding for sheep, of which about 7000 are kept here, with about 2000 cows, and 1000 horses. Hogs are also fed in great numbers, and rabbits are very abundant. Fishing is an important branch of the industry of the inhabitants, and about eighty tons of cured fish are annually exported. Unst abounds in iron-stone, and possesses many large veins of jasper: rock-crystals have sometimes been found, and free-stone is abundant. The parish-church, which was built in 1764, stands at a place called Balcaita, at the distance of three miles from the minister's residence. Formerly there were twenty-four chapels on the island, the remains of which may still be distinctly traced. Unst constitutes a parish of itself; and according to the return of the year 1811, contains a population of 2288, occupying 385 houses. Here is no post-office; the only office in Shetland is forty miles distant from hence: so that, from its remote situation, and its little intercourse, especially during winter, with the mother country, the inhabitants of Unst are frequently strangers, for many weeks, to the greatest national occurrences. In this island, the longest day is nineteen hours fifteen minutes, and consequently, the shortest day is four hours forty-five minutes.—*Beauties of Scotland*, vol. v. Shetland, 1808. *Gazetteer of Scotland*, 1806. *Carlisle's Topographical Dictionary of Scotland*, 1813.

UNSTRUT, a river which rises four miles W. of Dingelkadt, in the territory of Eichsfeld, and joins the Saal, about two miles N. of Naumburg.

UNSUMMED, a term used by falconers for a hawk's feathers before they have arrived at their full length.

UNTERART, or ART, in *Geography*, a town of Switzerland, in the canton of Schwitz, at the southern extremity of the lake of Zug; 7 miles N. of Schwitz.

UNTERBURG, a town of Saxony, in the Vogtland; 1 mile S. of Plauen.

UNTERMUDORFF, a town of Austria; 6 miles N. of Aggsbach.

UNTERSEER, a lake in the duchy of Carinthia; 10 miles W. of Velach.

UNTERSEEN, a town of the duchy of Holstein; 5 miles N.W. of Pinneberg.—Also, a town of Switzerland, in the canton of Berne, purchased of the counts of Hohenzollern. This town is situated between the lakes of Brienz and Thun; 26 miles S.E. of Berne.

UNTOORAH, a town of Hindoostan, in Goondwana; 60 miles W. of Nagpour.

UNTZINA, a town of Walachia; 30 miles N.E. of Bucharest.

UNUCA, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Africa Propria, upon the route from Carthage to Cæsarea, between Carthage and Sicilibræ. Antou. Itin.

UNUNGE, in *Geography*, a town of Sweden, in the province of Upland; 28 miles E. of Upsal.

UNXIA, in *Botany*, from *unxo*, *unxi*, to *anoint*, because of its saline-like odour, and its external, as well as internal, use as a sudorific.—Linn. Suppl. 56. Schreb. Gen. 554. Willd. Sp. Pl. v. 3. 2339. Mart. Mill. Dict. v. 4. Julf. 186. Lamarck Illust. t. 699. Gertn. v. 2. 421.—Clafs and order, *Syngenesis Polygamia-necessaria*. Nat. Ord. *Compositæ oppositifoliæ*, Linn. *Corymbifera*, Julf.

Gen. Ch. *Common Calyx* roundish, of five ovate, nearly equal, concave leaves, in a simple row. *Cor.* compound, radiated; florets of the disk five, or more, male, funnel-

shaped, in five equal segments; those of the radius five, or more, female, small, lanceolate. *Siam.* Filaments, in the florets of the disk, five, capillary; anthers united into a pentagonal tube, rather longer than the corolla. *Pist.* in the same florets imperfect; in those of the radius, German ovate; style simple; stigma cloven. *Peric.* none, except the permanent calyx. *Seeds* in the circumference only, ovate, abrupt, hard, without any feed-down, or crown. *Recept.* naked, flat.

Elix. Ch. *Receptacle* naked, flat. *Seed-down* none. *Calyx* of five leaves, simple.

Obf. Schreber was led by the disagreement between the description of this genus, and the place allotted to it by Linnæus in his system, to make some corrections, without seeing the plant. The above, taken from the original specimen, will be found nearer the truth. *Unxia*, in fact, belongs, as truly as *Calendula*, to the order of *Polygamia-necessaria*, the florets of the disk having no more of a germin than is necessary to serve as a partial stalk.

1. *U. camphorata*. Camphorated Balsam-weed. Linn. Suppl. 368. Willd. n. 1.—Leaves lanceolate. Young branches downy.—Gathered by Dahlberg, in sandy situations in Surinam, where it goes by the name of *Camphertplant*, being remarkable for a strong camphor-like smell. A watery decoction of this herb, taken internally, is esteemed an excellent and powerful sudorific, in the obstinate lumbago which prevails at Surinam. The dry plant, applied outwardly, is supposed useful in restoring perspiration. The root is probably annual. *Stem* herbaceous, two feet high, round, slender, striated, forked; the young branches shaggy, with soft hairs. *Leaves* opposite at each fork of the stem, sessile, lanceolate, an inch and a half long, sparingly toothed, five-ribbed, clothed on both sides with soft hoary hairs. *Flowers* from the forks of the stem, mostly solitary, on hairy stalks of various lengths. *Calyx* the size of a pea, nearly smooth. *Corolla* yellow. *Seeds* tumid, angular, half the length of the calyx, of a pale grey. Lamarck's figure is the only one extant of this genus, and is sufficiently expressive of the original species here described. With the following we are unacquainted.

2. *U. birsuta*. Hairy Balsam-weed. Richard Aftes de la Soc. d'Hist. Nat. de Paris, v. 1. 112. (not 105.) Willd. n. 2.—"Leaves oblong, somewhat heart-shaped, hairy. Stem villous."—Native of Cayenne. This is said to be extremely hairy in every part. *Leaves* blunthly, somewhat ovate. *Florets* numerous. *Root* annual.

The habit and characters of *Unxia* approach *ECLIPSA*; see that article.

UNZA, in *Geography*, a town of Russia, in the government of Koltrom; and capital of a province on a river of the same name; 92 miles E.N.E. of Koltrom. N. lat. 57° 56'. E. long. 44° 14'.—Also, a province of Russia, forming a part, and the largest part, of the government of Koltrom, 160 miles in length, and from 80 to 112 in breadth; bounded on the north by the government of Volodga, on the east by the government of Viatka, on the south by the government of Nizgorod, and on the west by the province of Koltrom.—Also, a river of Russia, which runs into the Volga, near Jurev Povolskoi, in the government of Koltrom.

VOAM-TCHIM HOTUN, a town of Corea; 642 miles E.N.E. of Peking. N. lat. 43° 3'. E. long. 129° 44'.

VOAN-TSUSEN, a city of China, of the second rank, in Pe-tche-li; 22 miles N.N.W. of Suen-hoa.

VOARCHADUMIA, a kind of cabala, or enigmatic art relative to metals, which professes the exaltation of gold

by cementations, and other methods; among which, charms made of the Hebrew letters have their place.

VOBARNO, in *Geography*, a town of Italy, in the department of the Benaco; 5 miles N.W. of Salo.

VOBERGA, or **VOBISCA**, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Hispania Citerior, in a hunting country, according to Martial, l. i. epig. 52. v. 14.

"Præstabit illie ipfa fingendas prope,
Vobifca prandenti feras."

VOBERNA, or **VOBERNUM**, a town of Gallia Tranfpadana, upon the banks of the river Clufius (the Chiefa).

VOBRIX, a town of Africa, in the interior of Mauritania Tingitana; now faid to be Lempta, in the kingdom of Fez, with confiderable ruins.

VOCA, a town of Hispania Citerior, belonging to the Callaici Lucenfes. Ptolemy.

Voca, in *Ichthyology*, a name given by Gaza, and some other writers, to the fifh called *boops* by the generality of writers. It is a fpecies of the *fpari*, and is diftinguifhed from the reft by having four longitudinal parallel lines of a bright yellow and white colour, refembling gold and filver, on its fides.

VOCABULARY, **VOCABULARIUM**, formed of *vocabulum*, *word*, in *Grammar*, denotes the collection of the words of a language, with their fignifications; otherwife called a *dictionary*, *lexicon*, or *nomenclature*.

The vocabulary is, properly, a lefs kind of dictionary, which does not enter fo minutely into the origins, and different acceptations of words. Though the Italian vocabulary of the Academy de la Crusca feems to be an exception from this diftinction, as being a copious and exact work, in three volumes folio, faid to have been forty years in compiling. And the like holds of the *Vocabulario Portuguez* of F. Bluteau, in ten volumes folio; in the titles of both thefe books the word is ufed in a larger fenfe.

VOCAL, fomething that relates to the voice or fpeech. Thus, *vocal prayer* is that which is fpoken out, or delivered in words, in contradiftinction to *mental prayer*.

In our ancient cuftoms, *vocalis* is frequently ufed for *fo called*: "poft hæc Mergeran de tribu Walenum, &c. alter nomine Madocus vocalis princeps eorum." Matt. Paris.

VOCAL is fometimes alfo ufed fubftantively, in fpeaking of matters of election, to fignify a perfon who has a right to vote. Thus the Romanifts fay, a man muft have been a religious a certain number of years to be vocal.

Vocal Music, is mufic fet to words, efpecially verfes, and to be performed with the voice: in contradiftinction to *inftrumental mufic*, compofed only for inftruments, without finging.

Poetry then makes a neceffary part of vocal mufic; and this appears to have been the chief, if not the only practice of the ancients, from the definitions which they give us of mufic.

Their vocal mufic feems to have had fome advantage over ours, in that the Greek and Latin languages were better contrived to pleafe the ear than the modern ones. In effect, Voffius taxes all the later languages as unfit for mufic; and fays, "We fhall never have any good vocal mufic till our poets learn to make verfes on the model of the ancients;" i. e. till the ancient metrical feet and quantities are reftored.

But it is to be obferved, that the rhythmus of their vocal mufic was only that of their poetry, and had no other forms and mutations than what the metrical art afforded.

Their changes were no other than from one kind of me-

trum or verfe to another, as from iambic to choric. See **MEASURE** and **RHYTHMUS**.

Their vocal mufic, then, confifted of verfes fet to mufical tunes, and fung by one or more voices, in chorus, or alternately; fometimes with, and fometimes without the accompaniments of inftruments.

As for inftrumental mufic, in the manner we have defined it, it is not very clear that they ever had any. See **SYNAULIA**, &c.

VOCANUS AGER, in *Ancient Geography*, a territory of Africa Propria, in the vicinity of the town of Acholla, and of that of Thapfus. Livy.

VOCATES, a people of Gallia Aquitanica, of the number of thofe who were fubjugated by Craffus, according to Cæfar.

VOCATION, **CALLING**, among *Divines*, the grace or favour which God does any one in calling him out of the way of death, and putting him into the way of falvation.

In this fenfe we fay, the *vocation of the Jews*, the *vocation of the Gentiles*, &c. There are two kinds of vocation; the one *external*, the other *internal*. The firft confifts in a fimple and naked propofing of objects to the will; the fecond is that which renders the firft effectual, by difpofing our faculties to receive thofe objects.

VOCATION is alfo ufed for a deftination to any ftate or profeflion. It is a rule that none are to enter the ecclefiaftic or monaftic ftate, without a particular vocation, or call.

The Romanifts hold the vocation of the reformed divines null and invalid. Among ourfelves, fome hold an uninterrupted fucceffion neceffary to the validity of the vocation of a prieft.

VOCATIVE, in *Grammar*, the fifth cafe, or ftate of nouns.

When we name the perfon we are fpeaking to, or addrefs ourfelves to the thing we are fpeaking of, as if it were a perfon, the noun or name acquires a new relation, which the Latins and Greeks exprefs by a new termination, called the *vocative*.

Thus, of *Dominus*, *Lord*, in the nominative, the Latins have made *Domine*, *O Lord*, in the vocative; of *Antonius*, *Antoni*, &c. But as this was a thing not abfolutely neceffary, and as the nominative cafe might very well ferve on fuch occafions, this new cafe, or termination, was not univerfal: in the plural, for instance, it was the fame with the nominative; and even in the fingular, it was only practifed in the fecond declenfion among the Latins; and in Greek, where it is the moft common, it is frequently neglected, and the nominative ufed inftead of it; as in that paffage in the Greek Pfalms, quoted by St. Paul, *Θρόνος σου ο Θεός, thy throne, O God*.

In Englifh, and moft of the modern tongues, this cafe is ordinarily expreffed in nouns that have an article in the nominative, by fuppreffing that article; as, the *Lord* is *my hope*.—*Lord, thou art my hope!* though on many occafions we ufe an interjection.

VOCATORES, among the *Romans*, were fervants whole bufiness it was to call the guefts, receive them, and affign every one a place according to his dignity.

VOCAYAMO, in *Geography*, a town of Japan, in the ifland of Niphon; 15 miles N.W. of Meaco.

VOCE SOLA, in the *Italian Mufic*, denotes a piece compofed for a fingle voice, generally accompanied with a thorough-bafe on the harpfichord or organ, without other inftruments. But if, befides that it is to be accompanied by other inftruments, they add, *con violini*, with violins; *duo violini*, *e violoncello*, *e baffo per l'organo*, i. e. with two violins,

a base violin, and a thorough-base on the organ; *con violini o stromenti*, i. e. with violins or instruments; *parti con, parti senza violini*, i. e. part with, part without violins, &c.

VOCETIUS MONS, in *Ancient Geography*, a mountain mentioned by Tacitus, in Helvetia, applicable to a branch of mount Jura, which approaches the Rhine above Augusta Rauracorum.

VOCHY, in *Botany*, Aubl. Guian. v. i. 18. t. 6. Poiret in Lam Dict. v. 8. 681. the Caribbean name of a fine tree in Guiana. (See *CUCLARIA*.) It is scarcely credible that Jussieu and Lamarck should have attempted to render the above name admissible, or have thought they improved it, by changing it to *Vochifia*; Juss. Gen. 424. Lamarck Illustr. t. 11. The natural order of this genus remains doubtful.

VOCIFERATIO, in our old *Law-Books*, the same with *buc and cry*.

“—Qui furem plegi tum dimiserit, qui ei obviaverit, et gratis sine vociferatione dimiserit, &c.” Leg. Hen. I.

VOCLADE, in *Ancient Geography*, a place of Gallia Aquitania, belonging to the Pictavi, celebrated by the defeat of Alaric, slain by Clovis.

VOCOKIURA, in *Geography*, a town of Japan, in the island of Ximo; 33 miles N. of Nangasaki.

VOCONIAN LAW, in *Roman Antiquity*, a testamentary law prepared by Q. Voconius, tribune of the people, which prohibited every citizen from making any woman universal legatee, not excepting an only daughter, and enjoined a daughter's fortune, after her father's death, to be proportioned to his estate, according to the estimation of prudent men; and this proportion was usually one-fourth of her father's estate; and, moreover, that all the legacies of the testator should not exceed one half of his estate. This was intended as a supplement to the Furian law; the time of its passing is fixed by Cicero, de Senect. to the year of Rome 584, when Q. Marcus Philippus, and Cn. Servilius Cæpio, were consuls. It was revoked by Augustus in favour of Livia, to whom he was resolved to devise by will a great part of his estate. However, though, by the abrogation of this law, married women were not restrained from receiving any legacies above a certain sum, yet Augustus bestowed on such women as had vowed perpetual virginity the same rewards and privileges as upon mothers.

VOCONTII, in *Ancient Geography*, a people of Gallia Narbonensis, N. of the Mœmini. According to Strabo, they extended themselves to the frontier of the Allobroges, in valleys that were deep and difficult of access. Mela mentions them, and Vasio their capital. The Vocontii were governed by their own peculiar laws. They appear to have occupied not only the dioceses of Vaison and of Die, but a part of the diocese of Gap and of that of Sisteron.

VODABLE, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Puy de Dôme; 4 miles S.W. of Issoire.

VODANA, a town of Arabia, in the province of Oman, on the Moiesur; 40 miles S.W. of Oman.

VODERKAMP, a town of the duchy of Holstein; 31 miles E. of Lutkenborg.

VODLA, a river of Russia, which runs from lake Vodlo, and enters lake Onozkoë, near Pudoga.

VODLITZA, a river of Russia, which runs into lake Ladoga; 16 miles N.W. of Olonetz.

VODLO, a lake of Russia, in the government of Olonetz; 16 miles N. of Pudoga.

VOECA, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Hispania Citerior, belonging to the Callicæ Lucenses. Ptolemy.

VOEGLARBY, in *Geography*, a town of Sweden, in Dalecarlia; 17 miles S. of Fahlun.

VOEN, a river of China, which runs into the Hoai, 10 miles E.N.E. of Ngan-kieou, in the province of Chantong.

VOERDEN. See **VORDEN**.

VOET, GISEBERT, in *Biography*, an eminent Dutch divine, was born at Heusden in the year 1589; and after having pursued his studies at Leyden for seven years, and superintending some churches taken from the Catholics, he settled in 1617 in his native place, where he exercised his ministry with exemplary diligence. In 1634 he was advanced to the chair of theology and the oriental languages in the university of Utrecht, and became co-pastor in one of the churches. About this time the Cartesian philosophy engaged attention, and its progress so alarmed Voet, that, in 1639, he made a public attack upon its principles, charging them with an atheistical tendency; and in this attack, though Des Cartes defended himself with acuteness, and not without treating his adversary with some degree of contempt, Voet was supported by the majority of the Dutch clergy, and also by the States of Holland. Besides his writings against Des Cartes, he wrote also several theological works; and continued in the exercise of his various functions at Utrecht till his death in 1677, at the advanced age of eighty-eight years. His son, PAUL VOET, was born in 1619, and became professor of law at Utrecht, where he published various works in the department of his profession. He died in 1667. JOHN VOET, the son of Paul, was a professor of law at Leyden, and the author of a highly valued “Commentary on the Pandects,” 2 vols. folio, 1698—1704. He died in 1714. Moreri. Mosheim.

VOG, in *Commerce*, a weight in Denmark, containing three bismers, or thirty-six pounds.

VOGEL, in *Geography*, a small island in the East Indian sea. S. lat. 5° 12'. E. long. 130° 46'.—Also, a river of Austria, which runs into the Traun, 8 miles S.W. of Wels.

VOGEL Islands, a cluster of small islands near the W. coast of Siam. N. lat. 7° 38'. E. long. 98° 55'.

VOGELIA, in *Botany*, bears that name, doubtless, in memory either of Benedict Christian Vogel, professor at Altorf, born in 1744, who published in 1768, a small academical essay, on the Generation of Plants; or of Rudolph Augustin Vogel, professor at Gottingen, who died in 1774, aged 50, having written on the sleep of plants, on the balsam of Mecca, and on various mineralogical subjects.—Lamarck Illustr. v. i. 376. t. 149.—Clafs and order, *Pentandria Monogynia*.

Eff. Ch. Calyx inferior, of five-ovate, folded, transversely corrugated leaves. Corolla of one petal, tubular; plaited, five-cleft. Stigma in five-capillary segments.

The figure represents a branched plant, with small, alternate, nearly sessile, inversely heart-shaped, entire leaves, each tipped with a small point, and dotted on the surface. Flowers in solitary terminal spikes near two inches long. Corolla an inch long. Stamens within the tube, equal, capillary. Germen ovate. Style capillary.—The letter-press of Lamarck's work has not extended to this, his 40th genus, except so far as to give its essential character, nor do we find any traces of *Vogelia* in his or Poiret's part of their Dictionary. We are therefore in the dark as to the number of species of this genus, its native country, or any other particular in its history. The plate above quoted is in Plumier's style.

Vogelia is also a synonym of *TRIPTERELLA*; see that article.

VOGELSANG, in *Geography*, a town of Prussia, on the Frisch Nering; 13 miles N. of Elbing.

VOGESUS,

VOGESUS, or **VOSSEUS**, **MONS**, in *Ancient Geography*, a chain of mountains, which commenced on the confines of the Lingones; and after having covered the northern part of the country of the Sequani, prolonged itself towards the N., between the Leuci and Mediomatrici on one side, and the Triboci and Nemetes on the other.

VOGHERA, in *Geography*, a town of Italy, in the Pavese; 12 miles S. of Pavia.

VOGIA, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Hispania, in the interior of Bætica, belonging to the Turduli. Ptol.

VOGLABRUCK, in *Geography*, a town of Austria, on the river Vogel. This place enjoys the privilege of granting protection to all slaves, and its burghers and merchants, together with their wares, are toll free throughout all the Austrian countries; 27 miles S.S.E. of Passau. N. lat. 48° 1'. E. long. 13° 35'.

VOGLAMARCK, a town of Austria; 3 miles S.W. of Voglabruck.

VOGLER, **GEORGE JOSEPH**, the *Abbé*, in *Biography*, honoured by the pope with the order of the *Speron d'oro*, or golden spur, was born at Murzburg in 1749. He studied composition at Padua under Padre Valotti, and became early in his life a very learned and ingenious practical musician. He travelled all over Europe, exhibiting in almost every capital and great city his talents on the organ, an instrument which he had made his peculiar study, particularly in the use of the pedals, and in producing new effects by the *crescendo* and *diminuendo*, not by the usual method of a common swell with pipes inclosed in a particular chest, but by boxing up the whole instrument, and increasing and diminishing the tone, not only of single stops, but of the entire chorus or full organ.

In 1776, he opened a music-school at Mannheim, for organ-playing, for the harpsichord, and for composition. In 1780 he began his travels, went to Paris, performed to the king, queen, and royal family at Versailles, composed operas, and had several of his choral compositions performed at the concert spirituel. In 1786 he was appointed maestro di capella to the king of Sweden at Stockholm. But in 1790, after visiting Denmark, Germany, and Holland, he arrived in London, where he had pedals put to the organ in the Pantheon, before that beautiful building was burned down, and a general swell contrived for the whole instrument; and in a series of morning performances on that organ, shewed his dexterity in the use of the pedals, not only in the *crescendo* and *diminuendo*, but in innumerable imitations, many of which were thought imaginary, and but for the ample promises and description in his bills of fare, would perhaps not have been discovered.

The science of this extraordinary musician was thought by some to degenerate into pedantry, and the splendid promises in his advertisements to border on *charlatanerie*; so that his success was not equal in our country to his real merit. Had he promised and attempted less, the public would have been more just and even generous in the estimation of his talents; but having injudiciously promised seeming impossibilities, what was possible, and what he really did perform, was fully heard with an unwillingness to be pleased. What he really did achieve was often uncommon and well deserving of applause, though perhaps not so much as he expected.

His publications in different parts of Europe are innumerable; but those in theory favour so much of the marvellous, that, on the continent, they are become proverbial. So that when any thing extraordinary in music was proposed or advertised, musicians used to cry out, oh! this is à la *Vogler*!

His advertisement in Holland, concerning an organ of his own construction, which he denominated an *orchestrian*, surpasses the marvellous of all the magnificent musical promises that we remember.

"The abbé Vogler, director of the Royal Academy of Music to his Swedish majesty, has constructed, after his own invention and design, (and at his own expence,) an organ with four rows of keys, sixty-three stops, thirty-nine pedals, and three swells, with proper resources to modify the sound: of which the first opens and shuts the general case of the pipes; the second, which is a pneumatic measure, stops the wind; the third divides and reunites the resources proportionably to the harmonic progression. The breadth, height, and depth of this organ is nine feet; the temperament of it is beyond conception exact. With respect to the body of tone, when in full chorus, it is equal to a church organ of sixteen feet. In depth of sound, it surpasses those of thirty-two feet; in sweetness, the *armonica*. Its *crescendo* governs all it plays; its *diminuendo* is qualified by the most minute gradations; and with respect to variety, the connoisseurs have declared, that a concert given by the abbé on his *orchestrian*, being a combination of all the instruments in Europe, and the result of thirty years' travelling, is the utmost extent of perfection possible in the art of playing and constructing organs."

His theoretical works are the following: 1. The Knowledge of Harmony, and its Use in Concert, Manheim, 1776, 8vo. 2. The Tuning Art, or System of Temperament. 3. His Course of Lectures delivered in his Harmonic School during three years. 4. A practical work for the Catholic church, entitled "Paradigma Modorum Ecclesiasticorum." 5. Ecce Panis, Chorus. 6. German Mass for the Organ. 7. Suscepit Israel, composed for the Concert Spirituel at Paris. 8. Four-part Fugues, upon the Stabat Mater of Pergolesi. 9. Psalmum Miserere decantandus 4 Vocib. cum Organ. et Bassis. S.D. Pio VI. pontifici composuit. Spire. 10. Vesperæ Chorales. Spire. For the theatre, The Merchant of Smyrna, an operette; and six more operas, serious and comic, to French words, at Paris. And works for the organ and piano forte, published throughout Europe, innumerable.

We believe that this active and indefatigable musician has at length become stationary in Denmark, and in the capital of that kingdom has been some time projecting new plans for the cultivation and improvement of music as a science, as well as a liberal and practical art.

VOGOGNA, in *Geography*. See **UGOGNA**.

VOGTLAND, a country included in the kingdom of Saxony, situated between the territory of Erzgebirg, Bohemia, the electorate of Saxony, and the principality of Culmbach. It is very hilly, and abounds in woods, but the former cannot be said to be altogether unfruitful, as producing either trees and plants, or being improved by tillage. In some parts likewise they yield copper, iron, lead, and silver, with other minerals, such as alum. Here is also no want of any kind of provisions; the fields affording grain and esculent herbs; the fine pastures in the valleys droves of excellent cattle, the woods plenty of venison and game, and the waters a variety of fish. The principal rivers are the Elster and the Saal. The name of Vogtland signifies the country possessed by the ancient advocates of the empire, who were predecessors to the present counts of Reussen. But the counts of Reussen at present enjoy only a part of it. The greatest part of this country belongs to the electoral house of Saxony. The margraves of Brandenburg Culmbach are possessed of the lordship of Hof, and the lordship of Ronneburg is vested in the house of

Saxe Gotha. What the name and dignity of a vogt imported in those ancient vogts of the empire is not yet agreed among the learned. One of the most probable conjectures is, that this dignity of a vogt was an hereditary office belonging to the empire, and the vogts themselves subordinate to the palatine of the Rhine, as arch-vogt of the empire. No less uncertainty exists concerning the epocha of this title, though it appears to have been used in the 11th century, the ancient statutes of the town of Weyda having been given to it in the year 1027, by Henry, vogt of Weyda. Towards the middle of the 14th century this title was discontinued.

VOGULES, a tribe or nation of Finns, who inhabit the western, and, in a greater degree, the eastern part of the northern Ural, and nomadize chiefly about the rivers which unite with the Irtysh and the Obi to the Frozen ocean, or with the Kama and the Volga into the Caspian, and therefore principally in the governments of Perma and Tobolsk: they call themselves *Voguli*, or according to M. Georgi Manfi, and are denominated by the Russians *Vogulitschi*. They allege their traditions in evidence of their having always resided where they are now found: and they came under the Russian sovereignty previously to the conquest of Siberia, at which time they were so brave and warlike, that they were with difficulty subdued. For some time they were thought to be the same with the Ostiaks; but in existing documents, which are more than 300 years old, they are specified as a distinct nation. All the stems of the Vogules, dispersed in various districts, taken collectively, compose a numerous nation, of unascertained population. The Vogules nomadizing in the circle of Tscherdyn, in the government of Perma, amounted in the year 1783 to no more than 111 persons, composing nine families, and so nearly related in consanguinity, that they were obliged to fetch women to be their wives from other races. Tooke's Russia, vol. i.

VOHBURG, a town of Bavaria; 10 miles E. of Ingoldstadt.

VOHEMARO BAY, a bay on the island of Madagascar. S. lat. $12^{\circ} 25'$. E. long. $51^{\circ} 8'$.

VOHENSTRAUS, or **FOHENSTRAUS,** a town of Bavaria, in the principality of Sulzbach; 8 miles E. of Weiden.

VOHIRIA, in *Botany*, Juss. Gen. 141, a barbarous name, altered, if not improved, from Aublet's *Voyria*. See *LITA*.

VOHL, or **VOHLE,** in *Geography*, a town of Hesse Cassel; 5 miles W. of Waldeck.

VOHLENBACH, a river which runs into the Lauchart, 2 miles N. of Voringen, in the principality of Hohenzollern.

VOICE, *Vox*, in *Physiology*, a sound produced in the throat and mouth of an animal, by an apparatus of instruments for that purpose: or, it is the sound produced by the passage of the air through the rima glottidis of the larynx.

Voices are either *articulate* or *inarticulate*.

Voices, Articulate, are those of which several conspire together to form some assemblage, or little system of sounds. Such are the voices expressing the letters of an alphabet, numbers of which, joined together, form words.

Voices, Inarticulate, are such as are not organized, or assembled into words; such is the barking of dogs, the braying of asses, the hissing of serpents, the singing of birds, &c.

The formation of the human voice, with all its varieties observed in speech, music, &c. makes a very curious article

of investigation; and the apparatus and organism of the vocal parts which contribute to the formation of musical tones, constitute a very complicated and surprising anatomical article of enquiry.

The structure and mechanism of the larynx adapted to this purpose are described under **LARYNX**; which see. But as the subject is curious and important, we shall here resume it, and furnish the reader with a connected detail of some observations, that may serve farther to elucidate this operation of nature. The human voice depends principally on the vibrations of the membranes of the glottis, excited by a current of air, which they alternately interrupt and suffer to pass; the sounds being also modified in their subsequent progress through the mouth. The parts subservient to the formation of sound are, the *trachea*, or wind-pipe, through which the air passes and repasses into the lungs; and which serves, as it were, for a bellows; the *larynx*, which is a short cylindrical canal, at the head of the trachea, particularly described, with its cartilages, &c. under that article; and the *glottis*, which is a little oval cleft, or chink, over which the epiglottis inclines backwards, as it ascends from its origin at the upper part of the thyroid cartilage. Within the glottis are extended its ligaments, contiguous to each other before, where they are inserted into the thyroid cartilage, and capable of diverging considerably behind whenever the arytenoid cartilages separate. These ligaments, as they vary their tension, in consequence of the motions of the arytenoid cartilages, are susceptible of vibrations of various frequency, and as they vibrate, produce a continuous sound. Properly speaking, there are two ligaments on each side; but this mode of operation is not fully understood; probably one pair only performs the vibrations, and the other assists, by means of the little cavity interposed, in enabling the air to act readily on them, and in communicating the vibrations again to the air.

The long canal of the trachea, terminated at the top with the glottis, appears so like a flute, that the ancients made no doubt but the trachea contributed the same to the voice, as the body of the flute does to the sound of that instrument. Galen himself fell, in some measure, into the mistake: he perceived, indeed, that the principal organ of voice was the glottis; but he still allowed the trachea a considerable share in the production of sound.

Galen's opinion was followed by all the ancients after him, and even by all the moderns, before M. Dodart. But that author observes, that we do not either speak or sing, when we inspire, or take in the air, but only when we expire, or expel it; and that the air, coming out of the lungs, passes always out of the minute vesicles of that part into larger; and at last into the trachea itself, which is the largest of all: that thus its passage becoming still more free and easy, and this more than ever in the trachea, it can never undergo such a violence, and acquire such a velocity in that canal, as is required to the production of sound; but that, as the aperture of the glottis is very small, in comparison with the width of the trachea, the air can never get out of the trachea by the glottis, without a vast compression, and augmentation of its velocity; and that, by this means, in passing, it communicates a brisk agitation to the minute parts of the two lips of the glottis, and gives them a kind of spring, and occasions them to make vibrations; which, communicated to the passing air, are what really occasion the sound.

This sound, thus formed, proceeds into the cavity of the mouth and nostrils, where it is reflected and rebounds; and on this resonance, M. Dodart shews, it is, that the agreeableness of the voice entirely depends. The different con-

stancies,

filicencies, forms, &c. of the divers parts of the mouth, contribute to the resonance, each in their way; and from this mixture of so many different resonances in their due proportion, there results a melody in the human voice superior and more affecting than it is in the power of the greatest musician to equal upon instruments. Hence it is, that when any of these parts are disordered, *e. gr.* when the nose is stopped, the voice becomes displeasing.

The resonance in the cavity of the mouth does not seem to consist in a simple reflection, such as that of a vault, &c. but in a resonance proportionate to the tones of the sound sent into the mouth from the glottis; and, accordingly, we find this cavity to lengthen and shorten itself, according to the depth, or acuteness, of the tone.

Now, for the trachea to effect this resonance, as it was the common opinion it did, it would be required, that the air, after its being modified, and turned into sound, by the glottis, instead of continuing its course from within outwards, should return from without inwards, and thus strike on the side of the trachea; which can never happen, except in those who have a violent cough, and in ventrilous persons. Indeed, in most river-fowl, which have a very strong voice, the trachea does resound; but the reason is, that in them the glottis is placed at the bottom of the trachea, and not at the top, as in men.

The canal, then, which at first passed for the principal organ of voice, is now found not to be so much as the secondary one, *i. e.* not that which occasions the resonance. It does not serve the glottis, as the body of the flute does its plug; but, instead of that, the mouth serves the glottis, as the body of some other wind-instrument not yet known in music. In effect, the office of the trachea is no other than that of the port-vent in an organ; *viz.* to furnish wind.

The vowels and semivowels are continuous sounds, chiefly formed by this apparatus in the glottis, and modified either in their origin or in their progress by the various arrangements of the different parts of the mouth. Of simple vowels, sixteen or eighteen may be enumerated in different languages: in the French nasal vowels, the sound is in part transmitted through the nostrils, by means of the depression of the soft palate: the perfect semivowels differ from the vowels only in the greater resistance which the air undergoes in its passage through the mouth; there are also nasal and feminal semivowels. The perfect consonants may be either explosive, fufurrant, or mute; the explosive consonants begin or end with a sound formed in the larynx, the others are either whispers, or mere noises, without any vocal sound. By attending to the various positions of the organ, and by making experiments on the effects of pipes of different forms, it is possible to construct a machine which shall imitate very accurately many of the sounds of the human voice; and this has indeed been actually performed by Kratzenstein and by Kempen.

A kind of experimental analysis of the voice may be thus exhibited. By drawing in the breath, and at the same time properly contracting the larynx, a slow vibration of the ligaments of the glottis may be produced, making a distinct clicking sound: upon increasing the tension, and the velocity of the breath, this clicking is lost, and the sound becomes continuous, but of an extremely grave pitch: it may, by a good ear, be distinguished two octaves below the lowest A of a common base voice, consisting in that case of about twenty-six vibrations in a second. The same sound may be raised nearly to the pitch of the common voice; but it is never smooth and clear, except perhaps in some of those persons called ventriloquists. When the pitch is raised still

higher, the upper orifice of the larynx, formed by the summits of the arytenoid cartilages and the epiglottis, seems to succeed to the office of the ligaments of the glottis, and to produce a retrograde falsetto, which is capable of a very great degree of acuteness. The same difference probably takes place between the natural voice and the common falsetto: the rimula glottidis being too long to admit of a sufficient degree of tension for very acute sounds, either the upper orifice of the larynx supplies its place, or some other similar change is produced; hence, taking a note within the compass of either voice, it may be held, with the same expence of air, two or three times as long in a falsetto as in a natural voice; hence, too, arises the difficulty of passing smoothly from the one voice to the other. It has been remarked, that the larynx is always elevated when the sound is acute: but this elevation is only necessary in rapid transitions, as in a shake; and then probably because, by the contraction of the capacity of the trachea, an increase of the pressure of the breath can be more rapidly effected this way, than by the action of the abdominal muscles alone. The reflection of the sound, thus produced from the various parts of the cavity of the mouth and nostrils, mixing at various intervals with the portions of the vibrations directly proceeding from the larynx, must, according to the temporary form of the parts, variously affect the laws of the motion of the air in each vibration; or, according to Euler's expression, the equation of the curve conceived to correspond with this motion, and thus produce the various characters of the vowels and semivowels. The principal sounding-board seems to be the bony palate: the nose, except in nasal letters, affords but little resonance; for the nasal passage may be closed, by applying the finger to the soft palate, without much altering the sound of vowels not nasal. A good ear may distinctly observe, especially in a loud base voice, besides the fundamental note, at least four harmonic sounds, in the order of the natural numbers; and, the more ready the tone of the voice, the more easily they are heard. Faint as they are, their origin is by no means easy to be explained. This observation is precisely confirmed, in a late dissertation of M. Knecht, published in the musical newspaper of Leipzig. Perhaps, by a close attention to the harmonics entering into the constitution of various sounds, more may be done in their analysis than could otherwise be expected. Young's Philosophy, vols. i. and ii.

Voice, For the Cause of the different Tones of. As the organs that form the voice make a kind of wind-instrument, we might expect to find in this instrument some provision answerable to that which produces the differences of tones in some other wind-instruments. The tone, therefore, must be attributed either to the mouth and nostrils, which occasion the resonance, or to the glottis, which produces the sound; and as all the different tones are produced in man by the same instrument, it follows, that the part which produces them must be capable of similar instrumental changes.

Now, for a grave tone, we know there is more air required than for an acute one. The trachea, therefore, to let this greater quantity pass, must dilate and shorten itself; by which shortening, the external canal, that is, the canal of the mouth and nose, reckoned from the glottis to the lips, or nostrils, is lengthened. For, the shortening of the internal canal, *i. e.* of the trachea, brings the larynx and glottis lower down; and, of consequence, makes its distance from the mouth, &c. greater; and there is a change in the length of each canal, for every change of tone and semitone. Accordingly, it is easy to observe, that the knot of the larynx alternately rises and falls in all divisions, shakes,

shakes, or rapid changes of intervals in singing, however small may be the difference of tone.

Hence, as the depth of the tone of an hautbois is answerable to the length of the instrument; the longest fibres of the wood, whose vibrations make the resonance, making always the slowest vibrations, and consequently the deepest tone, it may appear probable, that the concavity of the mouth, by its lengthening for grave tones, and shortening for acute ones, might serve very well for the production of the divers tones; but M. Dodart observes, that in the stop of the organ called the *human voice*, the longest pipe is six inches; and yet, with all that length, it does not make any difference of tone; but the tone of the pipe is precisely that of the plug: whereas the concavity of the mouth of a man of the gravelly voice, not being above six inches deep, it is evident that cannot modify, vary, and give the tone.

It is the glottis, then, that forms the tone, as well as the sound; and the manner of forming the various tones is by varying its aperture: a piece of mechanism too admirable not to be here particularly inquired into.

The human glottis, then, represented in *Plate XXIV. Miscellaneous, fig. 9.* is only capable of one proper motion; viz. that of an approach of its lips ADB, and ADB. Accordingly, the dotted lines AEB, AFB, AGB, exhibit three different degrees of approach. These different apertures of the glottis anatomists usually attribute to the action of the muscles of the larynx; but M. Dodart shews, from their position, direction, &c. that they have other uses; and that the opening and shutting of the glottis is effected by other means, viz. by two tendinous cords, or strings, inclosed in the two lips of that aperture.

In effect, each of the two semicircular membranes, whose interstice forms the glottis, is doubled back upon itself; and within each duplicate there is a cord, or string, which is fastened at one end of the fore-part of the larynx, and to the hind-part at the other. It is true, they appear more like ligaments than muscles, as consisting of white and membranous fibres, not of red and fleshy ones; but the vast number of minute changes in this aperture necessary to form the vast variety of tones, make an extraordinary kind of muscle, by whose contraction they should be effected, absolutely necessary. Common fleshy fibres, in which the blood is received in large quantity, had been infinitely too coarse for such delicate motions.

These strings, which, in their state of relaxation, make each a little arc of an ellipsis, as they contract more and more, become longer, but less and less curve; and at last, with the greatest contraction they are capable of, they degenerate into two right lines, applied close to each other; so close, and so firm, that an atom of air cannot escape out of the lungs, how full soever they may be, and how great an effort soever all the muscles of the lower venter may make against the diaphragm, and, by the diaphragm, against these two little muscles.

The different apertures of the lips of the glottis, then, produce all the different tones in the several vocal parts of music; viz. *bass, baritone, tenor, counter-tenor, and trebles*; and the manner is thus:

The voice, we have shewn, can only be formed by the glottis; but the tones of the voice are modifications of the voice; and these can only be produced by the modifications of the glottis. Now the glottis is only capable of one modification, which is the mutual approach, or recede of its lips: it is this, therefore, that produces the different tones. Now that modification includes two circumstances: the first and principal is, that the lips are stretched more and more, from

the lowest tone to the highest; the second is, that the more they are stretched, the nearer they approach.

From the first it follows, that their vibrations will be so much the quicker, as they come nearer their highest tone; and that the voice will be just, when the two lips are equally stretched; and false, when they are unequal; which agrees perfectly well with the nature of stringed-instruments.

From the second it follows, that the higher the tones are, the nearer will they approach to each other; which agrees perfectly well with wind-instruments governed by reeds or plugs.

The degrees of tension of the lips are the first and principal cause of tones; but their differences are insensible. The degrees of approach are only consequences of that tension; but their differences are more easily assigned.

To give a precise idea of the thing, therefore, we had best keep to that, and say, that this modification consists in a tension, from whence results a very numerous subdivision of a very small interval: which yet, small as it is, is capable, physically speaking, of being subdivided infinitely.

The doctrine is confirmed from the different apertures found in differing persons of different ages, of both sexes. The aperture is less, and the exterior canal always shallower, in the sex and ages fittest to sing treble. Add, that the reed of a hautbois, separated from the body of the instrument, being a little pressed between the lips, will yield a tone somewhat higher than its natural one; and if pressed still more, will yield another still higher: and thus an able musician may run successively through all the tones and semitones of an octave. They are different apertures, then, that produce, or, at least, that accompany, different tones, both in natural wind-instruments and artificial ones; and the diminution of the aperture raises the tones both of the glottis, and the reed.

The reason why lessening the aperture heightens the tone is, that the wind passes through it with the greater velocity; and from the same cause it is, that if any reed or plug, of an instrument, be too weakly blown, its tone will be lower than ordinary.

Indeed the contractions and dilatations of the glottis must be infinitely delicate: by an exact calculation of the ingenious author above-mentioned, it appears, that to perform all the tones and semitones of a common voice, which is computed to reach twelve tones; to perform all the particles and subdivisions of those tones into commas, and other minuter, though still sensible parts; to perform all the shakes, or the differences in a tone when sounded more or less strong, without changing the tone; the little diameter of the glottis, which does not exceed one-tenth of an inch, but which varies within that extent at every change, must be actually divided into 9632 parts; which parts are yet very unequal, and, therefore, many of them much less than the $\frac{1}{963200}$ th part of an inch: a delicacy scarcely to be matched by any thing but a good ear, which has so just a sense of sound, as, naked, to perceive differences in all these tones; even those whose origin is much less than the $\frac{1}{963200}$ th part of an inch.

With respect to the organ of voice, Rousseau, in 1768, when he published his *Musical Dictionary*, was able to find no more satisfactory account than that which he has given from Duclous and Dodart; nor have we since been able to find that any further progress has been made into this mystery of nature. We have conversed with the late Dr. William Hunter, and his brother, the great anatomist, Mr. John Hunter, on the subject, who agreed that there was no work of nature more subtle and inexplicable than the formation

ation of a fine musical voice; and agreed, that it was impossible, from any external appearance or dissection, to discover the least difference in the vocal organ of an individual who had been possessed of a fine voice, and of one who had no voice at all, but for speech; of a voice of high pitch or low; of a voice of extensive or contracted compass.

The great Haller combated the system of Dodart, and gave a very scientific and anatomical theory of his own; but not more intelligible and satisfactory to common readers than that of Dodart.

Buffon was of opinion, that those who sung out of tune heard better with one ear than the other; that those who sung in falset closed the larynx, and narrowed the passage of the voice; by which means octaves were produced, as in the flute and hautbois, by blowing with more force for the high notes than the low, with the same ventages open or closed.

The falset voice is literally *voce da testa*, and formed in the throat; never like the notes formed in the chest, called *voce di petto*.

This subject, one of the most curious in physiology, has tempted us to extend the article beyond our intention or usual limits: we must not yet, however, quit the subject.

The organ of voice had been always regarded by anatomists and natural philosophers as a wind-instrument, till the time of M. Ferrein, who, in 1741, presented a memoir to the Academy of Sciences at Paris, to prove it to be a stringed instrument, played on by the wind, which serves as a bow. An allusion, however, to the Æolian harp would have been more happy, than to a violin. The Æolian harp (see *ÆOLUS's Harp*) was well known in England about this time. An idea of it, too, might have been seen in Kircher's *Musurgia*, quoted by M. Ferrein for other purposes; and it was thence that Thomson the poet took it, who wrote an ode on this aerial instrument, which was set to music, and performed at a morning concert at viscountess Townshend's, mother of the present marquis. The ode is in Dodsley's Collection, and in Thomson's Works. Oswald, the celebrated player of old Scots tunes on the violoncello, and composer of many new, passed for the inventor of the Æolian harp; but as he was unable to read the account of it in the *Musurgia*, written in Latin, Thomson gave him the description of it in English, and let it pass for his invention, in order to give him a better title to the sale of the instrument at his music-shop in St. Martin's Church-yard.

M. Ferrein was of opinion, that there are strings in the lips of the glottis, capable of lengthening and shortening, and vibrating and sounding, like those of stringed instruments. His opinion surprises at first, and seems paradoxical; but he has supported it by experiments, which cannot easily be eluded. According to him, the organ of voice is at once a stringed and a wind-instrument. The air which comes from the lungs, and which passes through the glottis, performing the office of a bow upon the tendinous fibres of its lips, M. Ferrein calls *vocal strings* or *ribands* of the glottis. By the violent collision of the air against these vocal strings, they are put in motion; and it is by their quick and slow vibrations that they produce tones differing in gravity and acuteness, in proportion as they are more or less extended, according to the common and well-known laws of stringed instruments.

M. Ferrein has made a thousand experiments before the Academy, and individuals, in confirmation of his doctrine, as well upon the human subject as upon different animals. He took the *trachea arteria* from the dead body of a man

defined for dissection, with his larynx, and blew into the *trachea*, holding at the same time the ribands, as he calls them, of the glottis lengthened or shortened, and the human voice was heard to rise or fall in tone, or remain stationary, in proportion to these circumstances.

And it is very remarkable, that, contrary to the expectation of M. Ferrein, the different voices produced, in the course of these experiments, were so like those of the particular animals upon whose organs they were made, that they were always to be discovered and distinguished one from the other. The roaring of a bull, the cry of a dog in pain, &c. were constantly discoverable, notwithstanding the want of innumerable parts used in modifying these sounds in living animals, such as the palate, the teeth, lips, &c. The larynx torn from the animal was usually mutilated, and sometimes without the epiglottis, as well as all the bits of cartilages surrounding or covering the glottis and vocal strings, which were removed in order to exhibit more plainly the visible play and vibrations of these strings; and notwithstanding all these defects, the voice of each animal preserved almost every peculiarity of sound which distinguishes it from that of other animals.

M. Ferrein says, that the necessary tension, or lengthening and shortening of the vocal strings, for the purpose of forming the whole extent of the human voice, is not above two or three lines, or twelfth parts of an inch.

In common stringed instruments, lengthening a string makes it flatter, or of a tone more grave; and shortening it has a contrary effect: but with respect to these vocal strings it is quite different; for they are rendered more acute by being lengthened, as at the same time their tension is increased.

Many have gone through M. Ferrein's experiments with success; though Haller says that he himself was not so happy, not having been able to produce different voices of animals, as others had done, by blowing on the ribands. (See *Eloge de M. Ferrein*, in the *Hist. de l'Acad. Royal des Sciences* for the year 1769, published 1772, p. 15.) M. Ferrein was a physician and professor of anatomy and surgery, who died at Paris in 1769.

If a pipe could be formed to resemble the vocal organ, as described by M. Ferrein, we might hope for a true and exact imitation of the human voice, which has never yet been attained, owing perhaps to the mistaken notion of the voice being a kind of flute or mere wind-instrument.

VOICE, in *Grammar*, is a circumstance in verbs, by which they come to be considered as either active or passive, *i. e.* either as expressing an action impressed on another subject; as, *I beat*: or receiving it from another; as, *I am beaten*.

The Greeks have a third voice, called medial, because it has sometimes an active, and sometimes a passive signification.

VOICE, in matters of election, denotes a *vote*, or *suffrage*. In this sense, a man is said to have a *deliberative* voice, when he has a right to give his advice and opinion in a matter of debate, and his suffrage is taken; an *active* voice, when he gives his vote for the election of any one; and a *passive* voice, when the suffrages may fall on himself to be elected; an *excitative* voice, when he may act to procure another to be elected; a *consultative* voice, when he can only offer reasons and remonstrances, on which the chief, or head, determines at his own discretion: such the cardinals have, with regard to the pope; and the masters in chancery, with regard to the lord chancellor, &c.

VOICE, in *Oratory*, is one of the parts of pronunciation, upon the proper regulation of which much of the orator's success

success depends. For this purpose it will be right to observe, in general, what nature does, when free and unconstrained. As persons are differently affected when they speak, so they naturally alter the tone of their voice: it rises, sinks, and has various inflexions given it, according to the present state and disposition of the mind. When the mind is calm and sedate, the voice is moderate and even; when the former is dejected with sorrow, the latter is languid; and when that is inflamed by passion, this is raised and elevated. It is the orator's business, therefore, to follow nature, and to endeavour that the tone of his voice appear natural and unaffected: and for this end, he must take care to suit it to the nature of the subject; but still so as to be always grave and decent.

The principal affections or properties of the voice may be referred either to *quantity* or *quality*. The quantity of the voice consists in its highness or lowness, swiftness or slowness, and the intermediate degrees between them. Every person who speaks in public should endeavour, if he can, to fill the place where he speaks, without exceeding the natural key of his voice; in which case it will be either harsh and rough, or too shrill and squeaking; nor will he be able to give every syllable its full and distinct sound, and to infect it properly. He should also take care, that it does not sink too low, which will give him pain to raise it again to its proper pitch, and be no less offensive to the hearers. The last word of a sentence ought, in a particular manner, to be expressed distinctly, because the meaning of the whole sentence often depends upon it. The medium between these two is a moderate and even voice, which every person must regulate by the natural key of his own voice. But this equality of voice must be accompanied with a variety of inflexions and changes within the same pitch; and the gradations, whether higher or lower, must be gentle and regular; the voice moving from one key to another, so as rather to glide like a gentle stream than pour down like a rapid torrent; and the degree of these inflexions and various tones of voice should differ according to the nature of the subject, and design of the speaker.

The next property of the voice is swiftness; and with regard to this, care should be taken to avoid the two extremes of hurrying precipitately without pausing, which destroys not only the necessary distinction between sentence and sentence, but likewise between the several words of the same sentence; and of speaking so slowly, as to argue a heaviness in the speaker, and to render the discourse flat and lifeless.

In order to avoid both these extremes, the voice ought to be sedate and distinct; for which purpose it is necessary, not only that each word and syllable should have its full and just sound, both as to time and accent, but likewise that every sentence, and part of a sentence, should be separated by its proper pause and interval. See *PAUSE*.

Those properties of the voice, that respect its *qualities*, are chiefly strength or weakness, clearness or obscurity, fullness or smallness, smoothness or roughness. Temperance is a great preservative of the voice in all these respects, and all excess is highly prejudicial to it. A strong voice is very serviceable to the orator, because, if he wants some other advantages, he is however able to make himself heard; and if he is forced to strain it, he is less in danger of its failing him, before he has finished his discourse. But he who has a weak voice should be careful not to strain it, especially at first: he ought to begin low, and rise gradually to such a pitch, as the key of his voice will carry him, without being obliged to sink again afterwards. Frequent inflexions of the voice will likewise relieve him; and he should speak de-

liberately, and ease his voice, by allowing due time for respiration at all the proper pauses.

A voice is said to be clear, when the organs of speech are suited to give every single letter, and all the combinations of them in syllables and words, their proper and distinct sound. Such a voice is agreeable to the hearers, and advantageous to the speaker; as by speaking moderately, he may be distinctly heard, and thus be able to modulate his voice at pleasure.

An obscure and confused voice is sometimes owing to a deficiency in the organ, but often it is the effect of bad habit, acquired either by misplacing the accent, confounding the sound of the letters, or huddling the syllables one upon another, so as to render what is said unintelligible. When this confused voice arises from a natural defect, it may be remedied, as well as weakness of voice, in the manner pursued by Demosthenes. See *Pronunciation*.

But the most likely way of mending faults proceeding from bad habit, is to speak deliberately.

A full voice is not the same as a strong or a loud voice; it fills the ear, but it is often not pleasant; and, therefore, to render it so, as well as audible, it should be frequently varied. Those who have the misfortune of a very small voice, should be cautious of raising it to too high a pitch, especially at once; because the sudden compression of the organ is apt to occasion a squeaking and very disagreeable sound. A soft and smooth voice is of all the most musical, especially if it be flexible; and, on the contrary, nothing is less harmonious than a voice that is harsh and rough.

Upon the whole, we may conclude that voice to be the best or fittest for an orator, which is moderate, distinct, firm, clear, and smooth, and also easily flexible to the several degrees and variations of sound, which every part of the discourse may require. The different parts of a discourse require corresponding modulations of the voice. The orator should speak low at first, because this has the appearance of modesty, engages attention, and is best for the voice. In the narration, the voice ought to be raised to somewhat a higher pitch. The proposition, or subject of the discourse, should be delivered with a very clear and audible voice. The confirmation admits of great variety, both of the voice and gestures: in reasoning, the voice is quick and pungent, and should be enforced with suitable actions; and in descriptions, whilst the orator is pointing out the images of things, he should so endeavour to adapt both his voice, and the motions of his body, particularly the turn of his eyes, and action of his hands, as may best help the imagination of his hearers. Where he introduces another person speaking, or addresses an absent person, it should be with some degree of imitation; and in dialogue, the voice should alter with the parts. When he diverts from his subject by any digression, his voice should be lively and cheerful; since that is rather designed for entertainment than instruction. In confutation, the arguments of the adverse party ought first to be repeated in a plain and distinct manner, unless they appear unworthy of a serious answer; and then a facetious manner, both of expression and gesture, may be the most proper way to confute them. In the conclusion, both the voice and gesture should be brisk and sprightly.

There are sometimes certain words, which require an emphasis and distinction of the voice: such are often pronouns, as *this is the man*; and many words that denote the circumstances and qualities of a thing, some of which heightening or magnifying the idea of the thing to which they are joined, elevate the voice, and others debasing or lessening it, depress the voice, or at least protract the tone.

Some tropes likewise, as metaphors, and verbal figures, which consist in the repetition of a single word, should have a particular emphasis.

In sentences, regard should be had to their length, and the number of their parts, in order to distinguish them by proper pauses. The frame and structure of the period ought likewise to be considered, that the voice may be so managed, as to give it the most musical accent. Unless there be some special reason for the contrary, it should end louder than it begins. In an antithesis, one contrary must be louder than the other; in a climax, or gradation, the voice should rise with it.

As to the passions, it is evident that each of them requires a different voice and action. Love and esteem are expressed in a smooth and cheerful tone; but anger and repentment with a rough, harsh, and interrupted voice. Joy raises and dilates the voice; as sorrow sinks and contracts it. Fear occasions a tremor and hesitation of the voice; and assurance gives it strength and firmness. Admiration elevates the voice, and should be expressed with pomp and magnificence; the expression of it being often accompanied with an elevation both of the eyes and hands: on the contrary, contempt sinks and protracts the voice.

All exclamations should be violent. When we address inanimate things, the voice should be higher than when we address animated beings; and appeals to heaven must be made in a loftier tone than those to men.

After all, it is impossible to gain a just and decent pronunciation of voice and gesture, merely from rules, without practice, and an imitation of the best examples. Ward's *Orat.* vol. ii. lect. 48. and lect. 50.

VOICE, *Part of the, in Music.* See PART.

VOICE of a Singer, *Accidents and Disorders to which it is liable.* The air received in the lungs, and expelled by compression of the chest, passing through the aperture of the larynx gently closed, produces a sound, which afterwards, by the modulation of the tongue and other parts of the mouth, form the voice of a singer; and as many things concur in this formation, such as the breast, the diaphragm, the lungs, the wind-pipe, the uvula, or palate, the tongue, the teeth, and the mucosity which lubricates the several parts, all subject to a number of acute and chronic disorders, which, though it may not be necessary to specify here, it seems expedient that vocal performers should be apprised of the accidents to which the voice is liable, to put them on their guard; and the public, to incline them to pity and tolerate what the utmost care cannot always avoid.

Natural defects in the voice are incurable, such as being of a coarse quality, husky, inflexible, and out of tune.

VOID, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Meuse; 10 miles W. of Toul.

VOID, in *Common Law*. See ANNULING.

VOID Bastion. See BASTION.

VOID Space, in *Physic*. See VACUUM, &c.

VOIDANCE, VACANCY, in the *Canon Law*, a want of an incumbent upon a benefice. See VACANCY, &c.

This is twofold; either in law, *de jure*; as when one holds several benefices that are incompatible; or *de facto*, in deed; as when the incumbent is dead, or resigns, or is actually deprived.

VOIDED, VUIDE, in *Heraldry*, is understood of an ordinary whose inner or middle part is cut out, leaving nothing but its edges to shew its form; so that the field appears through it. Hence, it is needless to express the colour, or metal, of the voided part; because it must, of course, be that of the field.

VOIDED, *The Crofs*, differs from the crofs *fimbriated*, in

that this latter does not shew the field through it, as the other does. And the same obtains in other ordinaries.

VOIDER, one of the ordinaries, whose figure is much like that of the flaque, or flanch; only that it doth not bend so much.

This armoury, they say, is properly the reward of a gentlewoman that has well served her prince. It is always borne by pairs.

VOIDER, in *Agriculture*, a term provincially applied, in some instances, to a sort of open-work shallow basket or sieve, in which different articles of farm produce are put, in order to be out of the way.

VOIDING, EVACUATING, in *Medicine*. (See EVACUATION.) In the Philosophical Transactions we have an account of one Matt. Milford, who voided a worm by urine, supposed to have come from the kidneys.

Dr. Lister mentions true caterpillars voided by a boy of nine years old. Mr. Jessop saw hexapods vomited up by a girl. Catharina Geilaria, who died in 1662, in the hospital of Altenburg, for twenty years voided, they say, by vomit and stool, toads and lizards. *Ephem. German.* tom. i. obl. 103.

In the same *Ephem.* is also a story of a kitten, bred in the stomach, and vomited up; and others of whelps, frogs, lacertæ aquaticæ, and other animals, bred and voided the like way. Bartholine gives us an instance of a worm bred in the brain, and voided by the nose of O. W. See WORMS.

VOIGTIA, in *Botany*, Roth in Roem. and Uft. *Mag. fasc.* 10. 17. 196. Poir. in Lamarck *Dict.* v. 8. 683; see ROTHIA.

VOIGTSBERG, in *Geography*, a town and citadel of Saxony, which gives name to a prefecture in the Vogtland; 1 mile N. of Oelnitz.

VOIR DIRE, in *Law*. When, upon a trial at law, it is prayed, that a witness may be sworn upon a *voir dire*, the meaning is, that he shall, upon his oath, speak or declare the truth, whether he shall get or lose by the matter in controversy. If he be unconcerned, his testimony is allowed, otherwise not.

VOIRE, in *Geography*, a river of France, which runs into the Aube, near Chalette.

VOIRON, a town of France, in the department of the Isère; 10 miles N.W. of Grenoble.

VOISENON, CLAUDE HENRY DE FUSÉE DU, in *Bio-graphy*, a literary person of singular character, was born at the chateau of Voisenon, near Melun, in 1708, and educated for the ecclesiastical profession. He commenced his career of advancement by being grand-vicar to the see of Boulogne; but having fought a duel, he afterwards contented himself with the abbacy of Jardy, which was probably a family benefice. He was of a lively, humorous disposition, and as he knew how to trifle agreeably, he was admitted into fashionable society. As a writer, he published several romances, the best of which is said to be a kind of moral tale, entitled "L'Histoire de la Félicité." His comedies of "Marriages assortis," 1744, and "La Coquette fixée," 1746, are reckoned to contain strokes of humour which would not have been disavowed even by Moliere. He was also the author of many fugitive pieces. His literary reputation caused him to be elected into the French Academy; and the duke of Choiseul settled on him a pension of 6000 livres to write a French history. He died in 1775, and his works were collected in 1782 by his friend, Mad. de Turpin, in 5 vols. 8vo. *Nouv. Dict. Hist.*

VOISEY, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Upper Marne; 6 miles S.E. of Bourbon les Bains.

VOISHA,

VOISHA, a town of Servia; 48 miles W. of Jenibafar.

VOISIN, JOSEPH DE, in *Biography*, a theological writer, was born at Bourdeaux, of a family distinguished in the department of law, but his disposition being devotional, he abandoned the legal for the ecclesiastical profession, and obtained priest's orders, and the degree of doctor in theology. He was a good Hebrew scholar, and very conversant with Rabbinical literature. In 1635 he published a Latin translation of a Rabbinical work on the soul; and in 1647 he gave to the public "Theology of the Jews," in Latin, 4to., and afterwards a "Treatise on the Jewish Jubilee," and other works of a similar kind. He was the editor, and partly author, of the work of the prince of Conti against theatrical spectacles, 1666; and after the death of that prince, of a defence of it against the abbé d'Aubignac. His translation of the Roman Missal into French was printed in 1660; but at the instigation of cardinal Mazarin, it was condemned by an assembly of the French clergy, though it had obtained the sanction of some bishops and doctors in theology. The plea urged against it was its being an attempt to prepare for the celebration of mass in French, and it was suppressed by a decree of the council. The grandvicar of Paris sanctioned the printing and sale of the work; but the king enforced the pope's brief, which prohibited a translation of the Missal. Voisin afterwards obtained a royal privilege for its impression. This learned and pious person died in 1685. Moreri.

VOISINNES, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Upper Marne; 6 miles W. of Langres.

VOITEUR, a town of France, in the department of the Jura; 6 miles N. of Lons le Saunier.

VOITSBERG, or **WOITSBERG**, a town of the duchy of Stiria, on the Kainach; 20 miles W.S.W. of Gratz. N. lat. 47° 4'. E. long. 15°.

VOITURE, VINCENT, in *Biography*, born at Amiens in the year 1598, was a lively French writer, and an agreeable companion in the fashionable circles. At the court of Lewis XIII. he was well received, whose brother, Gaston, duke of Orleans, made him master of the ceremonies, and introducer of foreign ambassadors, and whom he followed in his retirement to Languedoc. In 1634 he was admitted into the French Academy, of which he was a distinguished member, as he was well acquainted with the Latin, Italian, and Spanish languages. He held the office of interpreter to the queen-mother, and was employed in several court commissions. At Madrid he ingratiated himself with the count d'Olivares, and for the gratification of his curiosity made a tour to Africa. His Spanish verses were taken for those of Lopez de Vega; and at Rome he was elected, on account of his Italian literature, a member of the Academy degli Umoristi. On his return to France, he was appointed maitre d'hôtel to the king; and M. d'Avaux, superintendent of the finances, gave him the sinecure place of his "commis." But all his preferments and pensions were not a sufficient fund for supplying him with the means of gaming and of gallantry. Being naturally feeble in his constitution, his various indulgencies were the occasion of terminating his life, in 1648, at the age of 50 years. His heart was good, but he was vain and irritable; and he had the means to be ashamed of his descent from a father who was a wine-merchant, so that he could not bear pleasantries that referred to his origin; and it was therefore said of him, that "wine, which raised other people's spirits, flattened his." Against those whom he provoked by his sarcasms, he had not courage to defend himself; and therefore, when he once offended a court lord, and was ordered

to draw his sword, he replied, "the match is not equal: you are tall, and I am short; you are brave, and I am a poltroon; you want to kill me: well then! I reckon myself dead." By this kind of apology he disarmed his antagonists. His peculiar excellence, like that of Balzac, consisted in letter-writing, which he was very slow in executing, and in which he displayed much wit and pleantry, often degenerating into affectation, and sometimes into indelicacy. His letters, however, notwithstanding their imperfections and faults, were much admired, and served as a passport into the polite companies. His poems were of a similar character to that of his letters. They consist of epistles, elegies, sonnets, rondeaus, ballads, and songs. For want of nature and correct taste, his works have sunk into oblivion. The latest edition is that of Paris, in 2 vols. 12mo. 1759. Moreri.

VOIVRE, LA, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Voges; 9 miles E. of Remberviller.

VOJUSSA, a river of European Turkey, which runs into the Adriatic; 7 miles N. of Valona.

VOKINOSAMA, a town of Japan, in the island of Ximo; 18 miles N. of Funai.

VOKSA, a river of Russia, which runs from lake Saima to lake Ladoga, in the government of Viborg.

VOKSCHA, a river of Russia, which rises in the province of Uliug, and joins the Mezen, in the government of Archangel; 16 miles N. of Olenkski.

VOIX CELESTINE, in *Music*, a stop in the organ, an octave above the *vox humana*.

VOL, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Africa Propria, S. of Carthage, between the rivers Bagradas and Triton. Ptolemy.

VOL, among *Heralds*, signifies the two wings of a fowl joined together, borne in armoury; as being the whole that makes the flight. Accordingly, a *demi-vol* is a single wing.

VOLA, the palm, or inside of the hand, comprehended between the fingers and the wrist.

VOLANA, in *Ancient Geography*, a river of Gallia Cisalpina, called also Podi Volana.—Also, a town of Italy, in Samnium.

VOLANDUM, a fortified place of Asia, in Armenia, and the strongest in the country. It was taken by Corbulo without the loss of a single man, and all the inhabitants above the age of fourteen years were confined to the edge of the sword.

VOLANO, in *Geography*, a sea-port town of Italy, in the Ferrarese, at the mouth of the southern branch of the Po, which is called Po di Volano; 23 miles E. of Ferrara.

VOLANS. See **DRACO**, and **PISCIS**.

VOLANT, in *Heraldry*, is when a bird, in a coat of arms, is drawn flying, or having its wings spread out.

VOLANT, *Passi*. See **PASS-VOLANT**.

VOLANT, *Pont*. See **PONT-VOLANT**.

VOLAR, in *Geography*, a town of Transylvania; 4 miles S. of Hunyad.

VOLATA, Ital., in *Music*, a flight, rapid division, a rapid extemporaneous passage at a cloic, or pause.

VOLATERRÆ, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Italy, in Etruria, at a certain distance from the sea, situated on a mountain, which, according to Strabo, was fifteen stadia in height. It is placed by some authors in the rank of the twelve cities of Etruria. After its subjection to the Romans, it remained faithful. In the time of Sylla's prosercriptions, it was unsuccessfully besieged for two years. Its inhabitants obtained the right of Roman citizenship. At the fall of the empire it passed under the power of the Vandals, Huns, and Goths; but was retaken by Narfes, in the year

553. Some authors say that for a certain time the Lombards fixed their court there.

VOLATERRANA VADA, a town or borough of Italy, in Etruria, with a port at the mouth of the Cecinna, according to Pliny. It is now called Vadi.

VOLATICA, in *Medicine*, a name given by authors to a sort of wandering pain, attended with a tumour, and affecting, at different times, different parts of the body. It is by some accounted a species of the scurvy; by others, of the leprosy.

VOLATILE, in *Physics*, is commonly used to denote a mixt body, whose integral parts are easily dissipated by fire or heat; but it is more properly used for bodies whose elements, or first component parts, are easily separated from each other, and dispersed in air.

As those bodies which by heat suffer no diminution of their weight are said to be fixed, so those which do lose of their weight are said to be volatile; and they are said to be more or less volatile, according as a greater or less degree of heat is requisite for producing a separation of their parts. Perhaps, indeed, every body is, rigorously speaking, volatile: but as there are some, the volatility of which can be only rendered sensible by the action of a fire much more violent than any which we can produce, we consider these bodies as being fixed, or not volatile.

Minerals, for the generality, are less volatile than vegetables; and vegetables are less so than animals.

The chemists distinguish between volatile salts and fixt salts. The capitals of aludels stop and collect the volatile parts of substances, in sublimation, and make what we call *flowers*.

"The particles of fluids which do not cohere very strongly together, and are of such smallness as renders them most susceptible of those agitations which keep liquors in a fluid, are easily rarefied into vapour; and, in the language of the chemists, are volatile. Those which are grosser, and by that means less susceptible of alterations, or which cohere by a stronger heat, or, perhaps, not without fermentation; these are what the chemists call fixt bodies." Newton's *Optics*, p. 371.

VOLATILE Alkali. See **ALKALI**.

VOLATILE Salt of Amber. See **AMBER**.

VOLATILE Oil, in *Rural Economy*, is that sort which has a fragrant aromatic smell, and which is sometimes called *essential oil*. It is stated by sir Humphrey Davy to differ from fixed oil, in being capable of evaporation by a much lower degree of heat, in being soluble in alcohol, and in possessing a very slight degree of solubility in water. There is a great number of this sort of oils, distinguished by their smell, their taste, their specific gravity, and other sensible qualities. A strong and peculiar odour may, however, be considered as the great characteristic of each sort; the volatile oils inflame with more facility than the fixed oils, and afford by their combustion different proportions of the same substances, water, carbonic acid, and carbon.

It is said that the peculiar odours of plants seem, in almost all cases, to depend upon the peculiar oils of this sort they contain. All the perfumed distilled waters owe their peculiar properties to the volatile oils they hold in solution. By collecting the aromatic oils, the fragrance of flowers, so fugitive in the common course of nature, is as it were embodied and made permanent. It cannot be doubted, it is said, that the volatile oils consist of carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen; but no accurate experiments have as yet been made on the proportions in which these elements are combined. As the fragrance of flowers depends upon the volatile oils they contain; and these oils, by their constant evaporation,

surround the flower with a kind of odorous atmosphere; which, at the same time that it entices larger insects, may probably preserve the parts of fructification from the ravages of smaller ones; volatile oils, or odorous substances, seem, it is said, particularly destructive to these minute insects and animalcules which feed on the substance of vegetables: thousands of aphides may be usually seen in the stalk and leaves of the rose; but none of them are ever observed on the flower. Camphor is the substance used to preserve the collections of naturalists. The woods that contain aromatic oils are remarkable for their indestructibility, and for their exemption from the attacks of insects: this is particularly the case with the cedar, rose-wood, and cypress. The gates of Constantinople, which were made of this last sort of wood, stood entire, it is said, from the time of Constantine, their founder, to that of pope Eugene IV., a period of 1100 years.

This sort of oils is afforded by distillation, coming over with the water, and floating on the top of it in small globules. It is collected by pouring a quantity of the distilled water with the oil, as it comes over into a vessel, so constructed as to suffer the watery part to escape by a stop-cock near the bottom; the vessel or apparatus is again filled, and when settled, the water is again let out; in this manner the oil is collected in great quantities, floating as above. This essential or ethereal oil resides, it is supposed by some, in a particular part of the plant, but which is different in different sorts. And it is said that the oils vary in their nature or properties in different sorts of plants.

It is noticed by the above writer, that the volatile oils have never been used as articles of food; many of them are employed in the arts, in the manufacture of pigments and varnishes; but that their most extensive application is as perfumes in the hands of the perfumer, and manufacturer in that way. On the contrary, the fixed oils are very nutritive substances, and are of great importance in their applications to the purposes of life. See **OIL**.

VOLATILE, Sal Oleosum. See **SAL**.

VOLATILE Salt. See **SALT**.

VOLATILISATION, or **VOLATILIZATION**, the act of rendering fixt bodies volatile, or resolving them, by fire, into a fine, subtle vapour, or spirit, which easily dissipates, and flies away.

All bodies, even the most fixt, as gold, may be volatilized, either of themselves, or with the admixture of some volatile substance, or spirit; by distillation, or sublimation.

In the *Memoirs of the Royal Academy* we have a discourse on the volatilization of the fixed salts of plants, by M. Homberg.

VOLATILITY, in *Chemistry*, is a property that many bodies have of being reduced into light vapours, which exhale when they are exposed to the action of fire. This quality is opposed to fixity, and is owing to the greater or less dilatibility which bodies have, when exposed to fire. See **VOLATILE**, **SUBLIMATION**, &c.

VOLCÆ ARECOMICI, in *Ancient Geography*, contradistinguished from the *Tedofages*, were a branch of a people, who occupied, in the Narbonne province, the whole space that lies between the Rhone and the Garonne. The Arecomici were situated near the Rhone, and extended along the sea in that territory which is now called Lower Languedoc. When Hannibal traversed the southern part of Gaul, in his way to Italy, the Arecomici were not bounded by the Rhone, but possessed territory on both sides of the river. The chain of Mons Aberna separated the Arecomici from the Ruteni and the Gabati. But their limits with regard to the *Tedofages* are not easily ascertained. According

cording to Strabo, Narbonne was a part of the territory of the *Arecomici*; but Ptolemy extends the territory of the *Tectosages*, so as to assign to them the towns of Narbonne, Beziers, and Cessero upon the *Arur*. Before the Romans made Narbonne the capital of their first province conquered in Gaul, this city might have belonged to the *Arecomici* rather than to the *Tectosages*, agreeably to Strabo's account. But when Narbonne was elevated to this dignity, it found itself independent of both classes of the *Volcæ*, and appropriated to itself a distinct and separate territory. This territory is indicated by the position of *Fines*, between *Carcaffonne* and *Toulouse*. Ptolemy, however, not duly regarding the distinction between these several people, adjudged Narbonne and some other towns to the *Tectosages* rather than to the *Arecomici*, whose district was thus reduced to that of the capital, or of *Nemausus* in particular. The *Volcæ Tectosages* merit a particular distinction on account of the expeditions in which they engaged. They penetrated, according to *Cæsar*, into Germany, and established themselves in cantons of the forest of *Herinia*, acquiring the reputation of justice as well as of courage in war. *Justin* reports that a body of the *Tectosages* penetrated into *Illyria*, and fixed itself in *Pannonia*. But their most celebrated establishment was that in *Phrygia*, where they preserved their own name. They also occupied *Ancyra*, the principal town of the country, which took the name of *Galatia*. The *Tectosages* of the *Narbonne*, according to Strabo, approached the *Pyrenæes*, and attained one extreme of the declivity of mount *Commenus* or *Cebanna*. Their limit, with regard to the *Arecomici*, seems to have been determined by the position of *Fines*, of which we have already spoken.

VOLCANO, in *Geography*. See **VULCANO**.

VOLCANO, in *Geology*, is an opening made by subterranean fire in the surface of the earth, through which vapour, smoke, flames, and stones are ejected, with streams of melted stone, called *lava*. Some volcanoes throw out boiling water and mud.

Of all geological phenomena, volcanoes are the most impressive, as they not unfrequently change the appearance of a whole district in the course of a few days; and the only instances we have of the formation of rocks in our own times, are those produced by the agency of volcanic fires. In a former state of the globe, these fires appear to have been still more actively and extensively operative: this is proved by the numerous remains of extinct volcanoes of immense size, scattered over various parts of the world, and by the existence of rocks nearly resembling volcanic products, found in almost every country that has yet been explored. It is only within a short period that these phenomena have been attentively and accurately examined. We shall commence our account with a description of the external structure of volcanoes.

Many volcanoes are lofty mountains, surmounted by a truncated cone, having an aperture at the summit, nearly circular, and of greater or less depth, called the crater, from which the eruptions issue; but not unfrequently the eruptions burst from the side or the foot of the mountain, and they sometimes break forth at a great depth under the sea. The greatest number of active volcanoes are situated near the sea or large lakes, from which circumstance it has been supposed, by some geologists, that water is an agent in all volcanic eruptions. Most isolated volcanic mountains have a pyramidal or conical form, ascending at a moderate angle of inclination from the base to an elevated plain, from the centre of which rises the cone in which the principal crater is situated. The sides of this cone are generally steep, and are covered with volcanic sand, pumice,

or scoriae. The matter of which it is composed, as well as the shape, evidently indicate that it has been formed by substances thrown out of the volcano in a perpendicular direction, which in their descent have accumulated round the aperture, and from the laws of gravity have assumed a conical form. The shape of the cone is changed during great eruptions, sometimes they have been known to sink down and disappear, new volcanic cones forming in other parts of the mountain. A considerable part of the cone of *Vesuvius* fell down during the eruption of 1794. In 1727, when *M. d'Orville* visited *Vulcano*, one of the *Lipari* or *Æolian* isles, there were two distinct volcanic cones, each placed on an eminence, and containing a crater in a state of active eruption; whereas, at present, there is but one cone conspicuous in the island, the summit being single. *Spallanzani*, who visited these islands about sixty years after *M. d'Orville*, made inquiries of some of the oldest inhabitants respecting the double cone and crater of *Vulcano*, and he found some few persons who retained a recollection of it. The regular conical form does not characterize all volcanoes. The volcanic mountains in America, according to *Humboldt*, present a considerable diversity, both in shape and situation, from those in the old world.

In Europe and in Asia, as far as the interior of the latter continent is known, no burning volcano is situated in a chain of mountains; all being at a greater or less distance from these chains. In the new world, on the contrary, the volcanoes, the most stupendous for their masses, form a part of the *Cordilleras* themselves. The mountains of mica-slate and gneiss, in Peru and New Granada, immediately touch the volcanic porphyries of the province of *Quito* and *Paño*. To the south and north of these countries, in *Chili* and in the kingdom of *Guatemala*, the active volcanoes are grouped in rows. They are the continuation of the chains of primitive rocks; and if the volcanic fire has broken out in some plains far from the *Cordilleras*, as in mount *Sangay* and *Jorullo*, we must consider this phenomenon as an exception to the law which nature seems to have imposed on these regions.

The Peak of *Teneriffe* forms a pyramidal mass like *Etna*, *Tungurahua*, and *Popocatepetl*, but this character is far from being common to all volcanoes. We have seen, says *Humboldt*, some in the southern hemisphere, which, instead of having the form of a cone or bell, are lengthened in one direction, having the ridge sometimes smooth, at others rough, with small pointed rocks. This structure is peculiar to *Antisan* and *Pichinca*, two burning mountains of the province of *Quito*, and the absence of the conical form ought never to be considered as opposed to a volcanic origin.

M. Humboldt deduces the following inferences from his observations on the shape of different volcanoes. That mountains with slender conical peaks, are those which are subject to eruptions of the greatest violence, and at the nearest periods to each other. Mountains with lengthened summits, rugged, with small stony masses, are very old volcanoes nearly extinguished. Rounded summits, in the form of domes or bells, indicate those doubtful kinds of porphyries which are supposed to have been heated in their original place, and forced up in a softened state without ever having flowed as lavas. To the first of these mountains belong *Cotopaxi*, the Peak of *Teneriffe*, and that of *Orizava*, in Mexico. The second is common to *Carguazaro* and *Pichinca*, in the province of *Quito*, and to the volcano of *Purace*, near *Popayan*, and perhaps also to *Hecla*, in Iceland. The third and last form is seen in the majestic figure of *Chimborazo*, and in the great *Sarcony*, in *Auvergne*.
In

VOLCANO.

In order to form a more exact idea of the external structure of volcanoes, it is important to compare their perpendicular height with their circumference; but this can only be done with isolated mountains placed on a plain which is nearly on a level with the sea. The height of the Peak of Teneriffe is one twenty-eighth of the circumference of its base; that of Vefuvius, according to Von Buch, is a thirty-third; and of Etna, a thirty-fourth. Isolated volcanoes, in the most distant regions, are very analogous in their external structure. All have elevated plains, in the middle of which rises a cone perfectly circular. The greater the quantity of matter that has issued from the crater of a volcano, the more elevated is its cone of ashes, in proportion to the perpendicular height of the mountain. Nothing is more striking than the difference in this respect, says Humboldt, between Vefuvius, the Peak of Teneriffe, and Pichinca. The cone of Cotopaxi, the form of which is the most regular and elegant of any hitherto known, is 540 toises in height, but it is impossible to decide whether the whole of this mass is covered with ashes.

Cone covered with Ashes.

	Toises.	Toises.	
Vefuvius, height of	606	200	$\frac{1}{3}$
Peak of Teneriffe	1904	84	$\frac{1}{22}$
Pichinca	2490	240	$\frac{1}{10}$

The latter column shews the proportion of the cone to the total height of the mountain.

In most volcanic mountains, the cone, or sugar-loaf, as it has been not unaptly called, preserves its conic figure to the very summit; the whole of the declivity is inclined the same number of degrees, and is uniformly covered with layers of volcanic sand or powder. When we reach the top, nothing obstructs the view of the bottom of the crater. The Peak of Teneriffe and Cotopaxi, on the contrary, have a different construction. Their summits have a circular wall, surrounding the brink of the crater, which appears at a distance like a small cylinder placed on a truncated cone. According to Humboldt, this peculiar construction of Cotopaxi, is visible to the naked eye at the distance of nearly three leagues. No person has reached the crater of this volcano. On the Peak of Teneriffe, the wall that surrounds the crater is so high, that it would be impossible to enter, if there were not a breach which seems to have been made by the flowing of an ancient current of lava.

The shape of volcanic craters is generally that of a funnel, either circular or elliptical, the sides shelving down to the bottom, which is a plain of greater or less extent, having apertures or fissures, through which smoke and heated vapour are exhaled. At the bottom of many volcanic craters are one or more small cones, which during eruptions enlarge, and sometimes fill up the crater, and rise above its brim. The present cone of Vefuvius is supposed to have been raised within a crater of much larger size, of which mount Somma forms part of the remaining wall. (See VESUVIUS.) The size of the crater does not depend on the height and mass of the mountain, of which it forms the principal vent. Vefuvius, which is but a small hill compared with the Peak of Teneriffe, has a crater with a diameter five times larger than that of the latter mountain; and the present crater of Vulcano equals or exceeds that of Vefuvius, though the height of the cone is not more than 1500 feet above the level of the sea. When we reflect, says Humboldt, that very lofty volcanoes throw out less matter by their summits than by lateral openings, we should be led to conclude that the lower volcanoes are, their force and activity being the same, the more considerable

ought to be the size of their craters. There are immense volcanoes in the Andes, which have but very small openings, and we might establish it as a geological principle, that the most lofty volcanoes have craters of small extent at their summits, if the Cordilleras did not offer many instances to the contrary. The great volcanoes of Cotopaxi and Rucupichina have craters, which, according to the admeasurement of this indefatigable traveller, exceed half and three-quarters of a mile in diameter.

In a volcano like Vefuvius, the activity of which is principally directed towards the summit, the depth of the crater varies before and after every eruption; but at the Peak of Teneriffe, the depth of the crater appears to have been stationary for a long time. In 1715, it was estimated by Mr. Eden at one hundred and fifteen feet; in 1805, by M. Cordier, at one hundred and ten feet; and subsequently, by Humboldt, it was conjectured to have rather less depth. The inside of the crater indicates a volcano, which for a long period has emitted no fire at the summit. From the lapse of time, and the action of vapours, the inside walls have fallen in, and have covered the basin with great blocks of lava.

For an account of the cone and crater of mount *Ætna*, see *ÆTNA*.

Among the various changes that have taken place in this volcano, it is highly probable that the partition between the upper and lower crater may have been frequently removed. Lieut.-general Cockburn, who visited Etna in 1810, describes only one crater, though he ascended the highest pinnacle. This crater, he estimates at nearly two miles in circumference. At that time the bottom of the crater, which he distinctly saw, was not flat; it contained several minor mountains and their craters, some smoking like the most violent glass-furnace, or steam-engine. Cockburn's Travels in Sicily, vol. i. p. 137.

The whole cone of a volcano is sometimes swallowed up during an eruption, leaving a circular crater of a larger diameter and at a much lower level; which, when the volcanic fire becomes extinct, or remains dormant for ages, may form a lake. The celebrated lake of Avernus, near Naples, and the neighbouring lake Agano, are the craters of extinct volcanoes, the cones of which have probably been buried after a great eruption, or by an earthquake. Numerous circular lakes exist in volcanic countries which have had the same origin. Nor need we be surprised at the disappearance of a volcanic cone, however large, as it must stand and have its foundation on the brink of a much larger abyss, from which it has been thrown out, as we shall have occasion to remark in describing the formation of some of these cones, which have taken place in modern times.

The crater of a volcano can only be approached when the fire is in a dormant or nearly quiescent state; but as the intervals between volcanic eruptions sometimes last for many years, and even centuries, opportunities are offered for exploring their structure. The floor of the crater appears in many instances to be only a thin congealed crust, and returns a hollow sound when struck upon with a stone or any hard substance. This is the case at the Solfatara, which appears to be the floor of an extinct crater. See *SOLFATERRA*.

When M. de Luc walked over the bottom of the crater of Vulcano in 1757, it returned a hollow sound. The largest diameter of the crater was then above three-quarters of a mile, and the depth nearly a thousand feet. In 1781 it was visited by M. Dolomieu, who found it impossible to enter the crater; its depth he estimated at half a mile from the brink, and the bottom not more than two hundred and fifty feet in diameter. He threw in some large stones from

the edge of the crater, which he perceived sunk in some fluid when they reached the bottom. This fluid could not be aqueous, since it would soon have been evaporated by excessive heat; he supposed it to be melted sulphur, as he saw that substance trickle down the sides, against which it had sublimed. With a good telescope he could discover at the bottom two small pools, which he supposed to be full of the same combustible matter. He likewise observed, that the fumes which in the day-time appeared white, were by night splendid, but placid flames, that rose above the mountain, and diffused their light to some distance.

Spallanzani, who visited Vulcano seven years after Dolomieu, found the bottom only about a quarter of a mile deep, but intolerably hot.

The changes which took place in this interval, were probably occasioned by a violent commotion which occurred in the month of March 1786, during which the crater threw out a prodigious quantity of volcanic powder or sand with immense volumes of smoke and flame. This eruption lasted fifteen days.

That the bottom of the crater should vary considerably in depth after every eruption will not appear surprising, if we reflect that this bottom is a crust of congealed lava, more or less covered with loose materials, which have fallen upon it. When the lava which has been forced up near to the brink of the crater, remains stationary at the close of an eruption, and solidifies, the melted lava will gradually sink down as the intensity of the volcanic fire diminishes at the surface, thus leaving a crust of greater or less thickness over a hollow space below. The depth of this floor from the brink will depend on the quantity of lava which remains in the crater towards the end of an eruption.

The phenomena preceding and attending volcanic eruptions, vary according to the situation in which they break forth, and the magnitude or intensity of the volcanic fire. An eruption may proceed from ancient volcanoes, which have been dormant for a longer or shorter period, or it may break out from a new opening or from under the sea. The phenomena most common to each of these situations we shall briefly describe. The indications of an approaching eruption from a dormant volcano, are the increase of smoke from the summit of the crater, which sometimes rises to a vast height, branching in the form of a pine-tree. This was the case in the memorable eruption of Vesuvius, described by Pliny, in the year 79 of the Christian era. The cause of this appearance is probably the violent escape of elastic gas driving up the volatile materials into the higher regions of the atmosphere, which in their descent float at different heights, according to their specific gravity, the heaviest stratum floating over a larger space. Tremendous explosions, like the firing of artillery, commence after the increase of smoke, accompanied with tremors of the earth, more or less violent, and by eruptions of red-coloured flame and stones from the crater; after which, in most violent eruptions, currents of melted stone, called lava, flow either over the brink of the crater, or break through the sides of the mountain. These currents, when consolidated by cooling, frequently form a stratum thirty or forty miles in length, several miles broad, and several yards thick, equalling in extent any continuous stratum, among the regular formations of secondary strata. The eruption of lava has been known to continue for several months. Black clouds, composed of dark-coloured sand or powder, improperly called ashes, are thrown out of the crater after the lava ceases to flow. During one eruption of Etna, a space of one hundred and fifty square miles was covered with this sand twelve feet thick. Stones or globiform masses of melted lava are

thrown out at the same time, and fall at a greater or less distance, according to their size, and the force with which they are ejected, the larger masses falling nearest to the mouth of the volcano. The smoke and vapour are highly electrical, and vivid violent flashes of lightning dart from it, which frequently occasion much mischief. Towards the conclusion of the eruption, the colour of the volcanic sand changes to white; it consists of pumice in a finely comminuted state. It is observed, that when the lava flows freely, the tremors of the earth and the explosion become less frequent, which proves that they were occasioned by the confinement of the gaseous and solid matter that is afterwards discharged.

Most of the phenomena here mentioned occur in the eruptions of mount Vesuvius, near Naples. The first eruption of this mountain recorded in history, is that which happened in the time of Vespasian, A.D. 79; on which occasion, says Dion Cassius, great quantities of ashes and sulphureous smoke were carried not only to Rome, but also beyond the Mediterranean, into Africa, and even to Egypt. Birds were suffocated in the air, and fell down dead upon the ground, and fishes perished in the neighbouring waters, which were made hot, and infected by it. Sir William Hamilton reckons, that the eruption in 1767 was the twenty-seventh from that in the time of Titus. Since 1767 the eruptions have been frequent.

Bishop Berkeley has given a particular account of the eruption in 1717; for which, see Phil. Transf. N^o 354. p. 708, or the Life of Berkeley, in the Biographia Britannica, by Dr. Kippis.

We have an account of mount Vesuvius, and of the eruption from it in 1737, by the prince of Cassano, in the Philosophical Transactions, N^o 435, sect. 1, 2.

The matter thrown out flowed like melted lead, and moved about half a mile in an hour, which was then considered as an unusual velocity. The trees touched by this matter, immediately took fire, and fell. Glass in houses was melted into a paste.

Sir William Hamilton has given an accurate and circumstantial description of the eruptions in 1766, 1767, and 1779. See Phil. Transf. vol. lvii. p. 192, vol. lviii. p. 1, &c. vol. lix. p. 18, &c. vol. lxx. part i. p. 42, &c. We shall select his account of the latter. During the whole month of July the mountain continued in a state of fermentation. Subterraneous explosions and rumbling noises were heard, quantities of smoke were thrown up with great violence, sometimes with red-hot stones, scoriz, and ashes; and towards the end of the month these symptoms increased to such a degree, as to exhibit in the night-time the most beautiful fire-works that can be imagined.

On Thursday, the 5th of August, the volcano appeared most violently agitated; a white and sulphureous smoke issued continually and impetuously from its crater, one puff seeming to impel another, so that a mass of them was soon accumulated, to appearance four times the height and size of the volcano itself. These clouds of smoke were exceedingly white, so that the whole resembled an immense accumulation of bales of the whitest cotton. In the midst of this very white smoke, vast quantities of stones, scoriz, and ashes were thrown up to the height of two thousand feet, and a quantity of liquid lava, seemingly very heavy, was lifted up just high enough to clear the rim of the crater, and take its way down the sides of the mountain. This lava having run violently for some hours, suddenly ceased, just before it had reached the cultivated parts of the mountain, near four miles from the spot whence it issued. The heat all this day was intolerable at the towns of Somma and

Ottaiano, and was sensibly felt at Palma and Lauri, which are much farther off. Reddish ashes fell so thick on the two former towns, that the air was darkened, so that objects could not be distinguished at the distance of ten feet. Long filaments of a vitrified matter, like spun glass, were mixed and fell with these ashes; several birds in cages were suffocated, and the leaves of the trees in the neighbourhood of Somma were covered with a white and very corrosive salt.

About twelve at night on the 7th, the fermentation of the mountain seemed greatly to increase. Our author was watching the motion of the volcano from the mole at Naples, which has a full view of it. Several glorious picturesque effects had been observed from the reflection of the deep red fire within the crater of Vefuvius, and which mounted high amongst those huge clouds on the top of it; when a summer storm (called in that country a *tropea*), came on suddenly, and blended its heavy watery clouds with the sulphureous and mineral ones, which were already like so many other mountains, piled up on the top of the volcano. At this moment a fountain of fire was shot up to an incredible height, casting so bright a light, that the smallest objects were clearly distinguishable, at any place within six miles or more from Vefuvius. The black stormy clouds passing swiftly over, and at times covering the whole or a part of the bright column of fire, at other times clearing away and giving a full view of it, with the various tints produced by its reverberated light on the white clouds above it, in contrast with the pale flashes of forked lightning that attended the *tropea*, formed such a scene as no power of art can express. One of his Sicilian majesty's game-keepers, who was out in the fields near Ottaiano whilst the storm was at its height, was surprised to find the drops of rain scald his face and hands; a phenomenon probably occasioned by the clouds having acquired a great degree of heat in passing through the above-mentioned column of fire.

On the 8th, the mountain was quiet till towards six o'clock in the evening: when a great smoke began to gather over its crater; and about an hour afterwards, a subterraneous noise was heard in the neighbourhood of the volcano; the usual throws of red-hot stones and scoriz began and increased every instant. The crater, viewed through a telescope, seemed much enlarged by the violence of last night's explosions, and the little mountain on the top was entirely gone. About nine o'clock a most violent report was heard at Portici and its neighbourhood, which shook the houses to such a degree, as made the inhabitants run out into the streets. Many windows were broken and walls cracked by the concussion of the air on this occasion, though the noise was but faintly heard at Naples. In an instant, a fountain of liquid transparent fire began to rise, and gradually increasing, arrived at last at the amazing height of ten thousand feet and upwards. Puffs of smoke, as black as can possibly be imagined, succeeded one another hastily, and accompanied the red-hot transparent and liquid lava, interrupting its splendid brightness here and there, by patches of the darkest hue. Within these puffs of smoke, at the very moment of emission, a bright but pale electrical fire was observed playing briskly about in zig-zag lines. The wind was south-west, and though gentle, was sufficient to carry these puffs of smoke out of the column of fire, and a collection of them by degrees formed a black and extensive curtain behind it. In other parts of the sky it was perfectly clear, and the stars bright. The fiery fountain, of such immense magnitude, on the dark ground just mentioned, made the finest contrast imaginable; and the blaze of it reflected from the surface of the sea, which was at that time perfectly smooth, added greatly to this sublime view.

The lava, mixed with stones and scoriz, having risen to the amazing height already mentioned, was partly directed by the wind towards Ottaiano, and partly falling, still red-hot and liquid, upon the top of Vefuvius, covered its whole cone, part of the summit of Somma, and the valley between them. The falling matter, being nearly as much inflamed and vivid as that which was continually issuing fresh from the crater, formed with it one complete body of fire, which could not be less than two miles and a half in breadth, and at the extraordinary height above stated, cast a heat to the distance of at least six miles round. The brush-wood on the mountain of Somma was soon in a blaze, and the flame being of a different colour from the deep red thrown out by the volcano, and from the silvery blue of the electrical fire, still added to the contrast of this most extraordinary scene.

The black cloud, increasing greatly, once bent towards Naples, and threatened the city with speedy destruction; for it was charged with electrical fire, which kept constantly darting about in bright zigzag lines, like those described by Pliny the younger, in his letter to Tacitus, and which accompanied the great eruption of Vefuvius that proved fatal to his uncle. This fire, however, rarely quitted the cloud, but usually returned to the great column of fire whence it proceeded; though once or twice it was seen to fall on the top of Somma. Fortunately the wind carried back the cloud, just as it reached the city, and had begun to occasion great alarm. The column of fire, however, still continued, and diffused such a strong light, that the most minute objects could be discerned at the distance of ten miles or more from the mountain.

Mr. Morris informed our author, that at Sorrento, which is twelve miles distant from Vefuvius, he read the title-page of a book by that volcanic light.

Whilst the eruption lasted, a mixed smell, like that of sulphur, with the vapours of an iron-foundry, was sensible. The air, after one day's eruption, was filled at night for many hours with meteors, such as are vulgarly called falling stars, which shot generally in a horizontal direction, leaving behind them a luminous trace, which quickly disappeared. Many small volcanic stones and cinders were afterwards found to have fallen more than thirty miles from Vefuvius, and minute ashes fell in great abundance at the distance of a hundred miles.

During the eruption, the miserable inhabitants of Ottaiano were involved in the utmost distress and danger, by the showers of stones which fell upon them, and which, had the eruption continued for a longer time, would most certainly have reduced their town to the same situation with Herculaneum and Pompeii. The mountain of Somma, at the foot of which the town of Ottaiano is situated, hides Vefuvius from the view of its inhabitants; so that till the eruption became considerable, it was not visible to them. On Sunday night, when the noise increased, and the fire began to appear above the mountain of Somma, many of the inhabitants flew to the churches, and others were preparing to quit the town, when a sudden and violent report was heard, soon after which they found themselves involved in a thick cloud of smoke and ashes: a horrid clashing noise was heard in the air, and presently fell a vast shower of stones and large pieces of scoriz, some of which were of the diameter of seven or eight feet, and mult have weighed more than a hundred pounds before they were broken, as some of the fragments which Sir W. Hamilton found in the streets still weighed upwards of sixty pounds. When those large vitrified masses either struck against one another in the air, or fell on the ground, they broke in many pieces, and covered a large space of ground with vivid sparks of fire, which

which ignited every thing that was combustible. These masses were formed of liquid lava: their exterior parts were become black and porous, by cooling during their fall through such a vast space, whilst the interior retained an extreme heat, and were perfectly red. To add to the horror of the scene, incessant volcanic lightning darted from the black clouds that furrounded the inhabitants, and the sulphureous smell and heat would scarcely allow them to breathe: In this situation they remained about twenty-five minutes, when the volcanic storm ceased all at once, and Vefuvius remained fullen and silent.

Most volcanoes are observed to have intervals of repose of longer or shorter duration. Vefuvius has been known to remain inactive for many centuries. (See VESUVIUS.) The periods of intermission of Etna and the Peak of Teneriffe have extended to near a century. According to Humboldt, the long intervals of repose appear to characterise volcanoes highly elevated; and he adduces several instances in favour of this opinion; but other instances might be stated which oppose it: thus, the periods of repose of Vefuvius have been much longer than those of Etna; and Vulcano, which is far lower than Vefuvius, had no eruption from the fourth to the fifteenth century, or during a period of eleven hundred years.

The volcano of Stromboli is the only one at present known, which appears to be in a state of constant activity. The most ancient accounts of the conflagrations of Stromboli, transmitted by history, are prior to the Christian era about two hundred and ninety-two years; but at what time the eruptions first commenced we are entirely ignorant. Stromboli was burning in the time of Augustus and Tiberius; but for want of documents, we are unacquainted with the state of this volcano for a series of years afterwards. We know, however, from various public testimonies, that the continued eruptions have lasted some centuries. The crater is situated on the side of the mountain. Spallanzani, who looked into it from an eminence immediately above it, says that it has a circular conical form, and is about three hundred and forty feet in circumference at the brink. To a certain height the crater is filled with liquid red-hot matter, resembling melted brass: this is the fluid lava. It appeared to be agitated by two distinct motions: the one intestine, whirling, and tumultuous; by the other motion it was impelled upwards. The liquid matter is raised sometimes with more and sometimes with less rapidity within the crater; and when it has reached the distance of twenty-five feet from the upper edge, a sound is heard not unlike a very short clap of thunder; while, at the same instant, a portion of the lava, separated into a thousand pieces, is thrown up with indefinable swiftness, accompanied with copious eruptions of smoke and sand.

A few moments before the report, the surface of the lava is inflated and covered with large bubbles, some of which are several feet in diameter. On the bursting of these bubbles, the detonation and fiery shower take place. After the explosion, the lava sinks within the crater, but soon rises as before, and new bubbles appear, which again burst, and produce new explosions. When the lava sinks, it produces little or no sound; but when it rises, and begins to be inflated with bubbles, it is accompanied with a sound like that of liquor boiling vehemently in a cauldron, but greater in proportion to the magnitude of the crater. In the smaller and moderate ejections, the stones fell into the crater, and, at their collision with the lava, produced a sound similar to that of water struck by a number of flaves; but in the greater ejections, a considerable quantity of them fell without the mouth of the crater. The redness of the larger

stones was visible in the air, notwithstanding the light of the sun. The lava, when it rose or fell, emitted but little smoke; but a great quantity issued from the fissures, when it exploded. This disappeared almost instantly after the explosion, like the smoke from the firing of gunpowder. Though the ejection of the larger and heavier stones have short intermissions, those of the lesser have scarcely any. Did not the eye perceive from whence these showers of stone originate, they might be supposed to fall from the sky. The noise of the more violent eruptions, and the darkness from the ascending smoke, present together the image of a tempest. During the night, the red-hot stones spread like a sheaf, and have the appearance of a beautiful fire-work.

It has been observed of Stromboli, that the inflammation is in general more considerable in winter than in summer, and more intense on the approach of, or during, storms than in calm weather. The materials which supply the eruptions appear to be inexhaustible; and there is reason to believe that the volcanic fires of Stromboli and Vulcano have an internal communication with those of Etna and more distant countries, as we shall presently have occasion to notice.

Boiling water and mud are occasionally thrown out of volcanoes, but more frequently from the American volcanoes than from those in Europe. This phenomenon is very different from that of mud volcanoes, more properly so called, the water ejected from which is cold.

The water ejected from fire volcanoes is probably what finds access to the deep mass of melted lava, either from the sea in the vicinity, or from the neighbouring lakes. Vefuvius is stated at one time to have thrown out a considerable quantity of salt water.

The most remarkable circumstance attending the volcanic eruptions in America is that stated by Humboldt, who informs us that great quantities of fish are sometimes ejected from the crater at the top, and sometimes from the sides of the mountain, through lateral openings; but always from an elevation more than fifteen thousand feet above the level of the sea. M. Humboldt has given the name of *pimelodus cyclopus* to this species of fish. Some of them are found living in the rivers on the sides of the mountains, and in all probability they exist in subterranean lakes, the sides of which are broken down during violent commotions, or melted by heat: hence the water finds its way to the crater, and is ejected with other materials. From this access of water, the mud or slime thrown out, called by the Indians *moya*, is probably formed.

In many instances, however, the torrents of water which issue from volcanoes arise from the rapid thawing of the snow on the summit. According to Humboldt, the colossal volcanic cones in the Andes, covered with snow, have become so hot in a single night as to melt the whole of the snow, and occasion the most extensive and fatal inundations. Torrents of water issued from Etna, in the eruption of 1755; but, according to Ferrara, they did not flow out of the crater, but from the snow and ice on the surface suddenly thawed by the lava. A mass of this ice, partially melted by the lava, left a pile in the midst standing like a superb palace of crystal.

It is only by observations made in or near the crater, when a volcano is in a quiescent state, that we can gain any knowledge of the saline or inflammable matter, which may either have served as fuel to the volcano, or have been produced by the eruption, or been subsequently sublimed. Of these we shall speak more particularly, in describing *Volcanic Products*, infra. The rapidity and extent of a current of

lava will depend on its fluidity, the quantity thrown out, and on the more or less rapid declivity of the mountain.

From various experiments made by Spallanzani and others, on the melting of lavas, it appears that they are susceptible of different degrees of fluidity, according to the degrees of temperature to which they are subjected. These gradations of fluidity, proportioned to the degree of heat, take place in other stones or substances fusible by fire, as may be observed in the slag from our furnaces. In some instances, the lava appears to have the perfect fluidity of water. According to professor Bottis, who was an eyewitness in 1776, the lava spouted from three small cones or apertures on Vesuvius, precisely like water, forming three beautiful fountains of fire, which described curves of different dimensions as they fell. He says also, that he has twice seen the inflamed matter break forth and disgorge in the Atrio del Cavallo, at the foot of the volcanic cone of Vesuvius. From its great fluidity, it resembled water issuing with violence from under the earth, and inundating the adjacent country. The current of lava, which flowed from this mountain in 1776, struck upon the lava of 1771, and rebounded into the air, congealing in various figures, terminating in thin sharp points like needles. In the eruption of 1754, the lava formed two branches, which flowed thirty feet in forty-five seconds, or above half a mile an hour; and uniting lower down, proceeded at the rate of thirty-three feet in fifty seconds. In 1765, the lava is stated to have flowed at the rate of a mile an hour. Another branch of the same lava is said by Sir William Hamilton to have had a velocity equal to that of the river Severn at Bristol. In 1776, a torrent of lava from the summit of Vesuvius was observed to flow a mile and a half in fourteen minutes. When the declivity is very gentle, the motion is slow, if the current is not pressed forward by new supplies of melted matter. Notwithstanding the velocity of torrents of lava, their tenacity is much greater than might at first have been expected. Sir William Hamilton informs us, that the lava of Vesuvius in 1765, which flowed a mile an hour, almost resisted any impression made on it with a long pole; and some large stones, thrown upon it with great force, did not sink, but making only a slight impression, swam upon its surface. The tenacity and resistance of lavas, even when flowing, is, says Spallanzani, an evident consequence of the action of the cold atmosphere. The loss of heat occasioned is incomparably greater on the surface than in the internal parts, in which the lava still retains a considerable degree of fluidity, as appears on breaking the crust. The different currents of lava from Etna have flowed to the distance of fifteen, twenty, and even thirty miles from their source; and the current of lava, which flowed during the volcanic eruption of 1783 in Iceland, extended nearly sixty miles in length.

New Volcanoes.—When a volcano breaks out in a new situation, the phenomena are generally somewhat different; but it may be proper to remark, that we have no instances of volcanoes breaking out on land, in countries that are not or have not formerly been volcanic. New openings have indeed been made, at the distance of several miles from any existing volcano; but they have taken place in a volcanic or basaltic soil. From present appearances we are warranted in the conclusion, that all volcanoes were originally submarine. The most remarkable instance of the formation of a range of volcanic mountains in a new situation is that recorded by Humboldt of the volcano of Jorullo, and the adjoining hills, in the intendency of Valladolid, or Mechoacan, in New Spain, on the 29th of September, 1759.

A vast plain extends from the hills of Aguafarco nearly

to the villages of Teipa and Petatlan. This plain is in some parts not more than two thousand six hundred feet above the level of the sea: it contains various conical hills of basalt and porphyry, crowned with evergreen oaks and palm-trees. Till the middle of the eighteenth century, part of the plain was cultivated with sugar-canes and indigo. It was bounded by basaltic mountains, the structure of which indicated that, at a very remote period, this country had several times been convulsed by volcanoes. These fields, watered by artificial means, belonged to the plantation of San Pedro de Jorullo, one of the largest and richest in the country. In the month of June, 1759, hollow subterranean noises of a most alarming kind were accompanied by earthquakes, which succeeded each other for sixty days, to the great consternation of the inhabitants. After the commencement of September, tranquillity appeared re-established; but on the nights of the 29th and 30th, the horrible subterranean noises were renewed. The affrighted inhabitants fled to the mountains of Aguafarco.

A tract of ground, ten English miles in extent, rose up in the shape of a bladder above the old level of the plain. Near the edges it is only thirty-nine feet above the plain; but towards the centre, the convexity of the ground rises to the height of five hundred and thirty-four feet above its former level. This part of the ground is called *Malpays*. Those who witnessed the scene from the top of Aguafarco assert that flames were seen to issue forth from an extent of more than half a league, that fragments of burning rocks were thrown to a prodigious height, and that the softened surface of the earth seemed to swell like an agitated sea. The rivers Cuitambo and San Pedro precipitated themselves into the burning abyss, and appeared to invigorate the flames. Torrents of mud and clay, enveloping balls of basalt in concentric layers, were thrown out. Thousands of small cones rose up in the Malpays, from each of which a thick vapour ascended. In the midst of these cones was opened a large chasm, from which were thrown out six large masses or mountains, from thirteen to sixteen hundred feet in height above the level of the plain: the most elevated of these is the volcano of Jorullo. Here we have a range of volcanic hills formed in a few days, in the same manner as the Monte Nuovo near Naples, but of an extent and elevation exceeding that of the Malvern hills in Worcesterhire, or the Pentland hills near Edinburgh.

The volcano of Jorullo is still continually burning, and according to M. Humboldt's account, who visited it in 1803, it has thrown up on the north side an immense quantity of scorix and basaltic lavas, containing fragments of primitive rocks. The first great eruption continued to the year 1760; in the following years, the explosions became gradually less frequent. The traveller is still shewn where the rivers Cuitambo and San Pedro disappeared on the night of September 29, 1759. About one mile and a half lower down now rise up two rivers, impregnated with mineral matter, having a temperature of 126° Fahrenheit.

There is one circumstance attending this great eruption, which seems peculiar to the formation of new volcanoes or volcanic cones. An immense rent is made in the surface, through the whole of which the matter is ejected, until the chasm becomes choaked up in different parts, and the eruptions are confined to a few openings, round which the matter is accumulated, forming a series of craters or mountains, ranged in one line. A similar range of volcanic cones was formed on the side of Etna, nearest Lingua Grossa, in the year 1809. In this eruption, nine new boccas or craters were formed in the same line, near to each other. The ancient volcanoes in Auvergne, which are ranged in a line of

sixty miles, and also other volcanic ranges of great extent, have probably been formed by enormous chafms, partially choked up in the same manner. Indeed the new volcanic range, of which Jorullo forms a part, is placed in the direct line of a volcanic range of vast extent, which this eruption appears to have partially re-opened. Humboldt observes, that in New Spain there is a narrow zone placed between latitude $18^{\circ} 59'$ and $19^{\circ} 12'$, in which the lofty volcanoes that still continue to burn, or which from their form and the nature of the rocks may be inferred to have been once volcanic, are situated. In receding from the Atlantic, we find in the same line, ranging east and west, the Pic d'Orizaba, the two volcanoes of Le Puebla, the Nevada de Toluca, and the volcano of Colima. The parallel of their greatest elevation ranges nearly at right angles with the chain of mountains that form the Cordillera of Anahuac; and it is worthy of observation, that the volcano of Jorullo forms a prolongation of that line, on the same parallel with the ancient Mexican volcanoes. Do not these analogies, he adds, entitle us to suppose that in this part of Mexico there exists, at a great depth in the earth, a chafm, extending in a direction from east to west one hundred and thirty-seven leagues, along which the volcanic fire, at different epochs, has burst through the porphyritic crust, from the gulf of Mexico to the South sea? This chafm may also extend to the group of islands called the Archipelago of Revelgedo, placed in the same parallel of latitude, around which pumice-stone has been seen floating.

For an account of the volcanic eruption which formed Monte Rosso on Etna, see *ÆTNA*.

A tremendous noise and violent concussions of the earth preceded the repeated discharges of scorice and sand in this eruption; yet during all these convulsions, the summit of Etna was perfectly quiet, and only emitted a light smoke, which had issued with the same tranquillity before the eruption. A range of volcanic hills was formed in a similar manner near the foot of Vefuvius, in 1760. After repeated concussions of the earth, which were felt fifteen miles round the mountain, a vast opening was made in the territory of Torre del Greco, from which fifteen volcanoes arose; eight of these were soon covered by a torrent of lava, which rushed from one of them; the other seven remaining entire, and incessantly ejecting from their mouths vast quantities of ignited substances, which falling almost perpendicularly round the new volcanoes, produced in ten days seven small mountains of various heights, disposed in a right line. During the eruption, the noises sometimes resembled violent thunder, at others the discharge of artillery; large stones were thrown to the height of nine hundred and sixty feet. After the tenth day, the eruption ceased, and the newly-formed mountains gradually cooling, permitted a nearer approach; some of them had at their summits a cavity resembling a funnel, others a hollow of greater or less depth.

The Lipari islands extend in a right line about fifty miles from east to west, except Vulcano, which makes a small angle. These islands, as well as the volcanic isles of the Moluccas, which form a chain in the Indian ocean, probably originated from enormous chafms, like those which formed Jorullo, and the ranges on the sides of Etna and Vefuvius. These chafms were in all probability first opened under the ocean.

When a volcano opens in a new situation, the commotions which precede it will be greater than when the eruption takes place from craters already formed. The resistance occasioned by the congelation of lava in the mouth and passages of the principal crater, may be greater than

from other parts of the surface, in which case the liquid lava, confined and compressed by the expansive force of heat and elastic vapour, may be driven laterally to a great distance between the seams and fissures of the strata, upheaving the surface in some parts, and softening it or melting it in others, producing earthquakes in countries far remote from the principal crater, which will continue till a new opening is made.

It is related by Strabo, that the island of Eubœa had been for a long time violently agitated by earthquakes, when a large rent opened in the plain of Lelantum, from which was ejected a river of fiery mud; after this the earthquake ceased. Other instances of violent earthquakes, felt at the distance of many hundred miles from the place of eruption, are not uncommon, as we shall soon have occasion to notice. The lateral pressure occasioned by a column of lava two miles in height, must be enormously great, and from this cause alone we might expect, that in very lofty volcanoes, like Etna, the eruptions should be more frequent from the sides than the summit, which is found to be the fact. The sudden retiring of the sea from the shore before an eruption has frequently been noticed. This can only be satisfactorily explained by the upheaving of the softened surface of the ground; and during violent earthquakes, the anchors let down at a distance from the shore have been observed to be heated, proving the state of the ground below.

Submarine Volcanoes.—When a volcano breaks out under the surface of the sea, the phenomena attending the eruption vary considerably from those observed on land, owing to the opposition of conflicting elements, the resistance made to the eruption, and the more sudden cooling of the matter ejected. It is the opinion of Humboldt, that in all submarine volcanoes, the crust of the earth is softened and swelled by subterranean heat, till it rises above the surface of the ocean even from great depths, before any eruption takes place. From the narrative of eye-witnesses, we have reason to believe that in many instances the opinion of Humboldt is correct. There are, however, volcanic eruptions which undoubtedly take place at the bottom of the sea, and the appearance of new land is caused by the stones and scorice thrown up from thence: the more rapid cooling of the crust of the lava may also accelerate the formation of a new island. We have also instances of immense quantities of pumice floating in the ocean some hundred leagues from land, which could only proceed from the eruption of volcanoes at so great a depth under the sea as to prevent no other volcanic phenomena on its surface. The submarine volcanoes which have been observed since the records of authentic history are not very numerous, nor will this appear surprising, when we consider that the ocean has not been extensively traversed by civilized men more than a few hundred years. The numerous volcanic islands scattered over the globe, which are evidently formed by subterranean fire, may however convince us, that the phenomena of submarine volcanoes have been not unfrequent in a former condition of the globe. The submarine volcanoes of which we have the earliest account, are those in the Grecian Archipelago, near the island of Santorini. This island forms a triangle with the island of Melo, which is volcanic, and with Paros, so celebrated for its marble. The sides of the triangle are about fifteen leagues each.

Santorini, formerly Thera, and afterwards St. Irene, was furnished by the Greeks *Καμινος*, or *burnt*, and so in fact the soil is. There is a tradition, says Pliny, (lib. ii. cap. 87.) "that it rose out of the sea in a very remote but unknown period." The sea is very deep near Santorini, there being

no ground for anchorage near it. The ancients have left us the following account of the eruptions in its vicinity.

In the fourth year of the 135th Olympiad, or 236 B. C., the island of Therafa rose in the midst of fire from the sea; it is separated from Santorini by a strait of a mile and a half in breadth.

A hundred and thirty years afterwards, the island of Automate, called also Hiera, rose near it; and one hundred and ten years after this, another island, called Thia, rose two hundred and fifty paces from Hiera. These three eruptions are recorded by Pliny, in the place above cited; by Strabo, lib. i.; and by Seneca, in the *Quæstiones Naturales*, lib. vi. cap. 21.

Since the Christian era, we have the following accounts of the submarine eruptions near Santorini.

In the year 726, Thia was joined to Hiera by a quantity of lava ejected, together with ashes and red-hot rocks.

In 1457, the island was still farther increased by a similar eruption. This event and the date are attested by an inscription on a marble stone erected near the gate of fort Scaumo, in Santorini.

A sixth eruption, in 1576, produced a new island, called the Little Kamenoi.

According to the account of Kircher, a cotemporary author, there was an eruption in 1650, which lasted a twelvemonth, from the 24th of September to the 9th of October in the following year. "The sea rose to the height of forty-five feet, and that at such a distance, that some galleys of the grand seignor's were wrecked in the port of Candia, situated more than eighty miles from Santorini, and Smyrna and Constantinople were incommoded with the ashes, which rushed out of the sea in whirlwinds of flame. Another great eruption took place in 1707 and 1708, whereby the Little Kamenoi was increased, and is now more than three leagues in circumference. On the 23d of May, 1707, after an earthquake that happened the night before, a new island was discovered by some seamen, who taking it for a wreck, rowed immediately toward it, but finding rocks and earth, instead of the remains of a ship, hastened back, and spread the news of what they had seen in Santorini. How great soever the apprehensions of the inhabitants were at the first sight, their surprise soon abated; and in a few days, seeing no appearance of fire or smoke, some of them ventured to land on the new island. Their curiosity led them from rock to rock, where they found a kind of white stone, that cut like bread, which it nearly resembled in its form and consistence. They also found many oysters sticking to the rocks; but while they were employed in gathering them, the island moved and shook under their feet, upon which they ran with precipitation to their boats. With these motions and tremblings the island increased not only in height, but in length and breadth; yet sometimes, while it was raised and extended on one side, it sunk and diminished on the other.

"Our author observed a rock rise out of the sea forty or fifty paces from the island, which having continued four days, sunk, and appeared no more; but several others appeared and disappeared alternately, till at last they remained fixed and unmoved. In the mean time, the colour of the surrounding sea was changed: at first it was of a light green, then reddish, and afterwards of a pale yellow, accompanied with a noisome stench, which spread itself over part of Santorini.

"On the 16th of July the smoke first appeared, not indeed from the island, but from a ridge of black stones which suddenly rose about sixty paces from it, where the depth of the sea was unfathomable. Thus there were two separate

islands, one called the White and the other the Black island, from their different appearances. This thick smoke was of a whitish colour, like that of a lime-kiln, and was carried by the wind to Santorini, where it penetrated the houses of the inhabitants.

"In the night between the 19th and 20th of July, flames began to issue with the smoke, to the great terror of the inhabitants of Santorini, especially those of the castle of Scaro, who were not above a mile and a half distant from the burning island, which now increased very fast, large rocks daily springing up, which sometimes added to its length, and sometimes to its breadth. The smoke also increased, and there being no wind, it ascended so high as to be seen at Candia and other distant islands. During the night it resembled a column of fire, fifteen or twenty feet high; and the sea was then covered with a scurf or froth, in some places reddish, and in others yellowish, from which proceeded such a stench, that the inhabitants throughout the whole island of Santorini burnt perfumes in their houses, and made fires in the streets to prevent infection. This indeed did not last above a day or two, for a strong gale of wind dispersed the froth, but drove the smoke upon the vineyards of Santorini, by which the grapes in one night were parched up and destroyed. This smoke also caused violent head-aches, attended with retchings.

"On the 31st of July, the sea smoked and bubbled in two different places near the island, where the water formed a perfect circle, and looked like oil when ready to boil. This continued above a month, during which many fish were found dead on the shore of Santorini. The following night a dull hollow noise was heard, like the distant report of several cannon, which was instantly followed by flames of fire, shooting up to a great height in the air, where they suddenly disappeared. The next day the same hollow noise was several times heard, and succeeded by a blackish smoke, which, notwithstanding a fresh gale blew at that time, rose up in the form of a column to a prodigious height, and would probably in the night have appeared as if on fire.

"On the 7th of August the noise was different, it resembled that of large stones thrown all together into a deep well. This noise having lasted some days, was succeeded by another much louder, so nearly resembling thunder, as hardly to be distinguished from three or four real claps that happened at the same time.

"On the 21st, the fire and smoke very considerably diminished, but the next morning they broke out with greater fury than before. The smoke was red and very thick; and the heat was so intense, that all around the island the sea smoked and bubbled in a surprising manner. At night, our author viewing with a telescope a large furnace upon the highest part of the island, discovered sixty smaller openings or funnels, all emitting a very bright flame; and he imagined there might be many more on the other side of the great volcano. On the 23d of August, in the morning, the island was much higher than the day before, and its breadth was increased by a chain of rocks, sprung up in the night almost fifty feet above the water. The sea was also again covered with reddish froth, which always appeared when the island received any considerable additions, and occasioned an intolerable stench, till it was dispersed by the wind and the motion of the waves.

"On the 5th of September the fire opened another vent at the extremity of Black island, from which it issued for several days, during which but little was discharged from the large furnace: and from this new passage the astonished spectators beheld the fire dart up three several times, to a vast height, resembling so many prodigious sky-rockets, of a glowing

glowing lively red. The following night the subterranean fire made a terrible noise, and immediately after, a thousand thieves of fire blew up into the air, where breaking and dispersing, they fell like a shower of stars upon the island, which appeared all in a blaze, presenting to the amazed spectators at once a most dreadful and beautiful illumination. To these natural fire-works succeeded a kind of meteor, which for some time hung over the castle of Scarò, which is seated on a high rock in the island of Santorini, a meteor not unlike a fiery sword, and which served to increase the terror of the inhabitants.

"On the 9th of September, the White and Black islands united, after which the western end of the island daily increased. There were now only four openings that emitted flames, which issued forth with great impetuosity, sometimes attended with noise like that of a large organ-pipe, and sometimes like the howling of wild beasts. On the 12th, the subterranean noise became much augmented, having never before so frequent or so dreadful as on that and the following day. The bursts of this subterranean thunder, like a general discharge of the artillery of an army, were repeated ten or twelve times within twenty-four hours; and immediately after each clap, the large furnace threw up huge red-hot stones, which fell into the sea at a great distance. These claps were always followed by a thick smoke, which spread clouds of ashes over the sea and the neighbouring islands.

"On the 18th of September an earthquake was felt at Santorini, but did no great damage, though it considerably enlarged the burning island, and in several places gave vent to the fire and smoke. The claps were also more terrible than ever, and in the midst of a thick smoke, that appeared like a mountain, large pieces of rock were thrown up with as much noise and force as balls from the mouth of a cannon, which afterwards fell upon the island, or into the sea. One of the small neighbouring islands was several times covered with these fiery stones, which being thinly cruised over with sulphur, gave a bright light, and continued burning till that was consumed.

"On the 21st, after a dreadful clap of subterranean thunder, very great lightnings ensued, and at the same instant the new island was so violently shaken, that part of the great furnace came tumbling down, and huge burning rocks were thrown to the distance of two miles and upwards. This seemed to be the last effort of the volcano, and to have exhausted the combustible matter, as all was quiet for several days after. But on the 25th the fire broke out again, with still greater fury, and among the claps was one so terrible, that the churches of Santorini were soon filled with crowds of people, expecting every moment would be their last; and the castle and town of Scarò suffered such a shock, that the doors and windows of the houses flew open. The volcano continued to rage during the remainder of the year; and in the month of January 1708, the large furnace without intermission threw out stones and flames at least once or twice, but generally five or six times a day.

"On the 10th of February, in the morning, a pretty strong earthquake was felt at Santorini, which the inhabitants considered as a prelude to greater commotions in the burning island: nor were they deceived; for soon after, the fire and smoke issued in prodigious quantities; the claps like thunder were redoubled; and nothing appeared but objects of horror and confusion. Rocks of an amazing size were raised up to a great height above the water, and the sea raged and boiled to such a degree, that it occasioned great conflagration. The subterranean howlings were heard without intermission, and sometimes, in less than a quarter of an hour, there were six or seven eruptions from

the large furnace. The noise of the repeated claps, the quantity of huge stones that flew on every side, the houses tottering to their very foundations, and the fire which now appeared in open day, surpassed all that had hitherto happened, and formed a scene astonishing beyond description.

"The 15th of April was rendered remarkable by the number and violence of the howlings and eruptions, by one of which near a hundred large stones were thrown up all together into the air, and fell again into the sea, at about two miles distance. From this time to the 23d of May, which might be called the anniversary of the birth of the new island, things continued much in the same state; but afterwards the fire and smoke by degrees subsided, and the subterranean thunders became less terrible.

"On the 15th of July, 1709, our author, accompanied by the Romish bishop of Santorini and some other ecclesiastics, hired a boat to take a near view of the island. They made directly towards it, on that side where the sea did not bubble, but where it smoked very much. Being got into this vapour, they felt a close suffocating heat, and found the water very hot and sultry. Having encompassed the island, and surveyed it carefully from an adjacent one, they judged it to be two hundred feet above the sea, about a mile broad, and five miles in circumference; but not being thoroughly satisfied, they resolved to attempt to land, and accordingly rowed toward that part of the island where they perceived neither fire nor smoke; but when they got within a hundred yards of it, the great furnace discharged itself with its usual fury, and the wind blew upon them a thick smoke, and a shower of ashes, which obliged them to quit their design. Having retired a little, they let down a plummet, with a line ninety-five fathoms long, but it was too short to reach the bottom. On their return to Santorini, they observed that the heat of the water had melted most of the pitch from their boat, which was before grown very leaky. For several years afterwards the island continued to increase, and the fire and subterranean noises abated."

Another eruption, almost equally violent, took place in 1767, in the month of June, and a new island was formed between the Little Kameni and the island of Hiera. It is named the Black island, and is twice as large as the Little Kameni. There have been nine of these submarine eruptions recorded in the space of twenty-one centuries, and probably many others have occurred at great depths, without raising new islands. Thevenot, a respectable traveller, who visited Santorini in 1655, states that eighteen years before his arrival in the island, a violent noise was heard there, and even at Chios, though distant two hundred miles, and was at first supposed to be occasioned by an action between the Venetian and Turkish fleets. A short time after, a vast quantity of pumice-stone rose from the bottom of the sea, near the harbour, with such violence and noise, as to resemble repeated discharges of artillery, which so infected the air, that several persons died at Santorini, and others lost their sight. The infection extended to Chios and Smyrna. The pumices thrown up covered the sea in such a manner, that when certain winds prevailed, the harbours were so blocked up with them, that not even the smallest vessels could get out, till a way was made for them, by removing the pumices with long poles; and they were still, in 1655, seen scattered over the whole Mediterranean. Voyages de M. Thevenot, prem. part.

Various submarine volcanoes have broken out near the islands called Azores or Terceiras, and have raised several new islands. The phenomena attending their formation were similar to those which took place at Santorini. These eruptions have occurred since the Azores were first visited by Europeans.

Europeans. The Azores, indeed, appear to have been all formed in a similar manner at a remote period. Most of the newly formed islands have sunk down some months after their emergence. So recently as 1811, a small island was raised by a submarine eruption, at a little distance from St. Michael's. It was a mass of black rock, described by the captain of the *Sabrina* frigate, who witnessed its formation, to be equal in height to Matlock High Tor, in Derbyshire. In 1813 it had disappeared, and there is now eighty fathoms water in the place.

In 1783, about the end of January, flames broke out from the sea, at the distance of thirty miles from Cape Reckianes, at the south-west extremity of Iceland, and continued to burst forth during several months. In June earthquakes shook the whole of Iceland, and the flames from the sea disappeared. A dreadful eruption then commenced from the *Shaptaa Jokul*, nearly two hundred miles distant from the place where the submarine volcano broke out. This eruption is one of the greatest recorded in history. The inhabitants of Iceland never saw the sun during the remaining part of the summer, and black volcanic sand fell in the Orkney islands, and was called black snow. The whole of Europe was covered with a haze, which greatly obscured the atmosphere when no clouds were present. It was in the summer of the same year that the dreadful earthquakes in Sicily took place, which nearly destroyed the harbour of Messina, and did incalculable damage in various parts of Calabria. According to the account of Sir George Mackenzie, the volcano of Heckla is nearly in a direct line between the submarine volcano and the *Shaptaa Jokul*, which indicates that a communication subsisted between them: hence, says he, we may conjecture, "that the depth of the source from whence they both proceeded was very great." Were we to admit that the source of the motion which produced the earthquakes in Calabria was the same with that of the volcanic fires in Iceland, we must place it some thousand miles below the surface, if not in the centre of the globe itself.

Mud Volcanoes.—Besides the volcanoes already described, there are others resembling them in many circumstances, but differing in this important one, that instead of fire, they throw out water and mud. They are much less common than fire volcanoes. There is one in the island of Sicily; there are others in the Crimea and its vicinity; and one also in the island of Java.

Maccaluba, in Sicily, is situated between Agrigona and Girgenti, formerly Agrigentum. In its vicinity is a conical hill truncated, and forming a plain at the summit of half a mile in circumference.

The whole surface of this plain is a thick mud, yet not so firm, but that it sometimes occasions a fear of sinking into it. There is not the slightest sign of vegetation upon it. The depth of the mud is unknown, but it is supposed to be immense.

In the course of the year this plain presents two different appearances. In the rainy season the mud is much softened; it has an even surface, on which there is nothing more to be seen than a general ebullition, accompanied with a very sensible rumbling noise. At this time it is dangerous to go upon the spot. In the dry season the scene changes, the mud acquires greater consistency, but without ceasing its motion; the plain assumes a form slightly convex, and a number of little cones are thrown up, which, however, rarely rise to the height of two feet. Each of them has its crater, where a black mud is seen in constant agitation, and incessantly emitting bubbles of air. With these the matter insensibly rises. As soon as the crater is full of it, it dis-

gorges: the residue sinks, and the cone has a free crater until a new emission. In this season also, to the west of this small plain, there appear some cavities full of muddy salt-water, from which likewise bubbles of air are thrown up; but here it is without noise; whereas in the cones, the air makes a crackling, as when it proceeds from water that boils violently.

Such are the regular states of this extraordinary hill in the course of the year. It would probably have obtained but little attention, had these been the only phenomena it presents.

But at times the hill assumes quite another character, being subject to convulsions alarming to all its environs. They are denoted by earthquakes, which are felt at the distance of two or three miles. Internal noises, resembling the rolling of subterranean thunder, are heard; they increase for several days, and then end in an eruption of a prodigious fountain of mud, earth, and stones, which rises two or three hundred feet into the air. This explosion is sometimes repeated twice or thrice in the course of the twenty-four hours. Some years the mount has no eruptions. Of the eruption in 1777, Ferrara gives the following account. "Dreadful noises were heard all around, and from the midst of the plain an immense column of mud arose to the height of about one hundred feet, which, on descending, assumed the appearance of a tree at the top. Stones of all kinds and sizes were darted up violently and vertically within the body of the column. This terrible explosion lasted half an hour, when it became quiet; but after a few minutes resumed its course, and with these intermissions, continued all the day. During the time of this phenomenon, a pungent smell of sulphuretted hydrogen gas was perceived at a great distance. On the following day the new orifices had ejected several streams of calcareous earth (called by Ferrara chalk); this had covered with a crust of many feet all the surrounding space, filling the cavities and chinks. The hard substances ejected were fragments of calcareous tufa, of crystallized gypsum, pieces of quartz and of iron pyrites, which had lost their lustre, and were broken to pieces.

The apparent boiling of the mud proceeds from the escape of bubbles of gas, for the mud does not feel warm, and the thermometer, on being immersed in it, fell three degrees. Of the other mud volcano, we have the following account by Pallas, *Tableau Physique de la Taurida*, 1794.

The island of Taman is situated near the peninsula of Kenha, and is separated from it by one of the mouths of the river Cuban, on the south-east of Little Tartary, now Taurida. The country is flat, and covered with beds of slime, mixed with mud, and with some beds of marl and sea-shells. Copious springs of petroleum are found in several places, also pools of greater or smaller dimensions, from most of which a briny mud is disgorged with bubbles. There are three of these pools in the peninsula, and seven or eight in Taman. One of the latter, several fathoms in diameter, situated on the side of a hill, shews by its incessant bubbling the abundance of gas that keeps it working; the liquid river is constantly falling over the brim of it, and flowing off slowly. On the top of the same hill are seen three small eminences, which are evidently formed by the mud vomited by three similar pools, formerly open. At the foot are two little lakes of salt-water, which smell of petroleum. Persons settled at Yenikoul for fifteen or twenty years past, remember an explosion on this hill, accompanied with circumstances similar to what took place in a different part of the island, six months previous to the author's journey.

This last eruption occurred in February, 1794. It was the

the greatest and most copious ever known. It happened at the top of a hill, situated at the north point of Taman, near the bay of the same name. The appearance of the place seems to indicate that there had been a similar eruption at a remote period, for the ground that was not covered over by the last eruption, is of the same nature as the more recent sediments, being the same soil, with the difference only which vegetation and atmospheric influence must necessarily produce.

The place where the new gulf opened was a pool where the snow and rain-water usually remained for a long time. The explosion took place with a noise like that of thunder, and with the appearance of a mass of fire in the form of a sheaf, which lasted only about half an hour, accompanied by a thick smoke. The ebullition, which threw up a part of the liquid mud, lasted till next day, after which the mud continued running over slowly, and formed six streams, which made their way from the top of the hill to the plain. The body of mud collected by these streams is from six to ten feet deep, and may be reckoned more than a hundred thousand cubic fathoms! In July, the time when M. Pallas visited the place, the surface of those beds of mud was dry, extremely uneven, and cracked like clayey ground. The gulf that had vomited them was stopped up with the mud, which was likewise dry. It was not dangerous to walk over it, but it was frightful, as the horrid bubbling, which was then still heard in the interior of the hill, shewed that it was not so tranquil as at the surface. The mud thus discharged is always a soft clay of a blueish-ash colour, every where of the same nature, mixed with brilliant sparks of mica, and with fragments of marly, calcareous and sandy schist, which seem torn from the beds directly over the reservoir whence the explosion proceeds. Some crystals and sparkling laminae of pyrites found in these fragments, prove that the heat of the reservoir was not sufficiently powerful to affect the beds which contained those pyrites, nor was the mud discharged from the gulf more than luke-warm. The appearance of fire, which M. Pallas heard described as accompanying the eruption, was probably inflamed hydrogen gas. He supposes that a bed of coal has for ages been on fire under Kercha and Taman, and that the sea at times breaking into the cavities, produces a quantity of steam, the expansion of which, and the generation of hydrogen gas, force open a passage for the mud, and drive it upwards in its ascent. This opinion we shall consider when we treat of the probable causes of volcanic eruptions in the present article. In the Penang Gazette of February 10, 1816, there is an account of a mud volcano of great extent in the island of Java, resembling in all the important particulars those described in Sicily and Taman. It is situated in the plains of Grobogo, N.E. of Solo, near the village of Kuhoo. The mud volcano, if it may be so called, forms an elevated plain, about two miles in circumference, which may be regarded as the crater. In the centre of this plain very large bubbles of mud rose, and swelled up to the height of ten or fifteen feet, which on bursting emitted volumes of dense white smoke. These large bubbles, of which there were two, continued to rise and burst seven or eight times in a minute, and often threw up two or three tons of mud. The smoke had the smell of sulphuretted hydrogen, or, as it is described, like the washing of a gun-barrel. As the bubbles burst, they threw out the mud round the centre with a noise occasioned by the falling of the mud on the plain, composed of the same mud. Smaller bubbles rose from some parts of the plain: from other parts round the large bubbles small quantities of sand were occasionally shot up to the height of twenty or thirty feet, unaccompanied with smoke.

VOL. XXXVII.

This was in parts where the mud was of too stiff a consistency to rise in bubbles. The mud in every part felt cold. The water which drains from the mud is collected by the Javanese, and exposed to the sun in the hollows of split bamboos, where it deposits common salt in crystals. This salt is reserved exclusively for the use of the emperor. In wet weather the brine is less strong than when the weather is dry. The phenomena attending all mud eruptions are very similar; in all of them, the muriate of soda (common salt) is either produced, or is itself an agent in producing the fermentation which is the immediate cause of the eruption. Though the great volcanoes in America sometimes throw out water and mud, as before noticed, they are properly fire volcanoes, into which water finds access. The water is generally hot, and its ejection only occasional.

Pseudo-Volcanoes.—The German geologists have given the name of pseudo or false volcanoes to those casual inflammations of beds of coal, that occasionally occur in coal districts, and continue in greater or less activity for many years. These inflammations are too trifling in extent or intensity, to be compared with true volcanic eruptions, nor do they present the same phenomena; for we have never seen a torrent of lava, however small, thrown out by any of these pseudo-volcanoes.

Beds of coal of considerable extent have been burning for many years near Bilston, in Staffordshire.

By the continued action of fire on the strata of clay and shale which accompany coal, some singular effects are produced, the clay becomes indurated, approaching to the state of jasper; and what is called porcellaneous jasper is, in some instances, formed by these fires.

From some beds of coal, great quantities of carburetted hydrogen gas are evolved, which, when lighted, will continue to burn for a long time. In some parts of the world, streams of ignited inflammable air are emitted constantly, or at intervals, which possess the property of taking fire spontaneously on their access to atmospheric air: in all probability, these currents contain phosphuretted hydrogen gas, from which the property is derived. We consider these phenomena as distinct from volcanic fires.

On the south-east of Natolia, the mountain Climax, the Chimera of the ancients, situated near the Mediterranean sea, constantly emits flames from an aperture on the northern side. This appearance is unaccompanied by any detonation. It is very ancient, being mentioned in the *Periplus of Scylax* as continually burning.

The flames that are observed to issue occasionally during earthquakes, can scarcely be classed with volcanic phenomena; they appear to proceed from the sudden disengagement of hydrogen gas, combined with phosphorus, naphtha, and other substances, which may dispose it to ignite spontaneously. During the great earthquakes which desolated Thrace, Asia Minor, and Syria, in the fourth and fifth centuries, flames were seen to burst from the earth over a vast extent of ground. On the 26th of January, A.D. 447, subterranean noises were heard from the Black to the Red sea, and the earth was convulsed without intermission for the space of six months; in many places the air appeared on fire. Towns, large tracts of ground, and mountains, were swallowed up in Phrygia. On the 20th of May, A.D. 520, Antioch was overturned by a dreadful earthquake, and two hundred and fifty thousand of its inhabitants were crushed in the ruins. A raging fire covered the ground on which the town was built, and the district around, spreading over an extent of forty-two miles in diameter, and a surface of fourteen hundred square miles. Numerous instances of a similar kind are recorded by the historians.

historians of that period. Flames were also observed to burst from the neighbouring mountains during the earthquake at Lisbon in 1755. Though these phenomena may proceed from subterranean fire as the primary cause, yet they differ from volcanic fires, as the latter throw out their contents in an ignited state; but the flames which accompany earthquakes, appear to arise from the ignition of vapour at the surface.

Burning and Extinct Volcanoes.—When we take a general view of the terrestrial globe, we observe volcanoes in every parallel of latitude, from Iceland and Kamtschatka, in the north, to Terra del Fuego in the south. They are more abundantly scattered over the ocean than the continent, and are more numerous in America than in the old world. They are found at every degree of elevation, from the depths of the sea to the summits of the Andes. Ancient volcanic craters, which have been for ages extinct or dormant, have left undoubted vestiges of their prior state of activity in various countries where no volcanoes at present exist; and volcanic rocks are found even where all vestiges of volcanic craters have been long obliterated.

Our knowledge of volcanic geography is at present imperfect, as a large portion of the earth's surface has not yet been examined; and our knowledge of volcanic islands in the Indian and Pacific oceans is confined to those which were in a state of active eruption at the time they were passed by navigators. Of the submarine volcanoes scattered over the bed of the ocean we have no account, and it is only when they occur in the vicinity of civilized countries, that we can ascertain their locality. At the beginning of the present century, the active volcanoes then known were stated at about two hundred. Travellers and navigators have since enlarged the number. Perhaps it would not be exceeding the fact, were we to estimate the number of active volcanoes in the world at one thousand, including all those which still preserve a considerable degree of heat, and present other indications that they are not extinguished, but dormant.

The only active volcano on the continent of Europe is Vesuvius. The Solfatara and Monte Nuovo in the vicinity may be regarded as dormant. History mentions a volcano in Albania, which destroyed Durazzo in 1269.

Of the European islands, Iceland is the most extensively volcanic, the whole soil of that country is apparently the product of fire. It contains six large active volcanoes, besides numerous smaller ones, and boiling springs.

Sicily contains Etna and the various volcanic mountains on its sides, with the mud volcano of Maccaluba.

Three of the Lipari islands are at present active: Stromboli, Vulcano, and Vulcanello.

Santorini and the neighbouring isles are evidently placed near or over a great submarine volcano, by which they have at different times been formed.

The island of Milo, about twenty leagues to the east of Santorini, has a volcano in an active state; the whole of the island is also stated to be volcanic.

The extinct or dormant volcanoes in Europe are far more numerous than those which are at present active. In Campania alone, between Naples and Cumæ, in the space of twenty miles in length and ten in breadth, according to Breislak, there are no less than sixty craters, without reckoning those in the neighbouring islands, which are numerous. Some of the craters are larger than that of Vesuvius. The crater of Quarto even greatly exceeds that of Etna; its diameter is nearly two miles. The crater on which the ancient city of Cumæ is situated, has thrown out a torrent of lava nine hundred feet broad, and from twenty-five to thirty feet in depth.

This crater belongs to a volcano extinct from the most remote ages. The foundation of Cumæ was about twelve hundred years prior to the Christian era, hence Breislak adds, the last eruptions must have taken place more than three thousand years since, as the Greeks would not have founded their city on the mouth of an active volcano.

The other parts of Italy, from the Veronese and the Vicentin territory, with that of Padua, to the extremity of Calabria, are covered with the incontestible vestiges of ancient volcanoes.

Sicily presents a great number of extinct volcanoes, without reckoning those on the sides of Etna, of which some are equal to Vesuvius. Many of the Mediterranean islands, at present in a state of repose, have formerly been volcanic, as the islands of Elba, Sardinia, Ithica, Procida, the whole of the Lipari islands, with the greater part of the islands in the Grecian Archipelago. Lemnos was formerly regarded as the arsenal of Vulcan.

In Spain and Portugal there are volcanic craters still to be traced. The Souffriere of Conilla, near Cadiz, is an ancient volcano. The environs of Burgos are entirely composed of lava, pumice, and other volcanic products. The famous salt-mine of Posa, near Burgos, is stated to be situated in the midst of an immense crater.

In France there are numerous extinct volcanoes, as those of the Vivarais and Velay, described by Faujas St. Fond; and those of Auvergne, described by Daubuisson. The extinct volcanoes in Languedoc and Provence are said to be very numerous. The Alps of Dauphiny, according to Lamanon, contain a crater of large extent.

There are entire chains of volcanic mountains on the banks of the Rhine, in the Brigau, and the environs of Andernach.

The northern countries of Europe possess fewer indubitable vestiges of volcanic craters, though volcanic products and rocks, nearly allied to lavas, exist in various parts of Germany and Hungary, and are supposed by many geologists to be formed by subterranean fire, at a very remote period.

According to the Italian geologist Breislak, the famous gold and tellurium mine of Nagyag is situated in the crater of an extinct volcano. See *TELLURIUM MINES*.

In Great Britain, on the western side, particularly in the mountains of North Wales and Cumberland, are various circular cavities, partly filled with water, which bear a near resemblance to extinct craters. The rocks by which they are surrounded are generally a porphyritic trap, a rock which is supposed by many geologists to have had an igneous origin. See *TRAP*, and *ROWLEY-RAG*.

Above the village of Buttermere, in Cumberland, between the summits of the mountains called Redpike and Highstile, there is a large elevated crater of this kind, containing in its centre a small tarn or lake. The rocks which surround it consist of clink-stone-porphry which melts with great facility, and porphyritic red felspar, and are in some parts rudely columnar. The side nearest the lake is broken down. We have no doubt, from an examination of the place, that it would be described by many geologists on the continent, as the well-defined crater of an extinct volcano. Von Buch, whose acquaintance with volcanoes is extensive, after a recent tour through this part of England, informed us that many of the mountains in Cumberland resemble those in Auvergne, and other parts of the world, which are supposed to have been softened and elevated by subterranean heat, without ever having flowed as lavas.

The basaltic hills of many parts of Scotland have been described by Faujas St. Fond as volcanic, and the basaltic mountains

VOLCANO.

mountains and ranges in Ireland are supposed to have had a similar origin. It is however doubted, by geologists of great repute, whether basaltic rocks have all been formed by fire, and some deny altogether the igneous origin of these rocks. See *SYSTEMS of Geology*, *BASALT*, *TRAP*, and *WHINSTONE*.

The islands of Faroe, near Iceland, present more undoubted marks of their former volcanic state.

On the continent of Asia, few active volcanoes are known. According to the traveller Morier, there are several mountains in Persia that constantly emit smoke. Ancient geographers also mention volcanoes in Tibet and Camboja. The mountain of Cophante, at the south-east extremity of the Caspian sea, is stated to be volcanic. There is a volcano at the entrance of the Red sea, and another at the entrance of the Persian gulf. From thence to Kamtschatka we are not acquainted with any active volcano; but in this peninsula, according to count Beniowski, there are not less than twenty, five of which are of immense size, called Awatcha, Joupounouskaia, Chevelitch, Tobatchia, and Kamtschatkaia. The three former are said to be connected, and to have simultaneous eruptions; the latter ejects a great quantity of vitrified substances, which are found in its neighbourhood. It is of an immense height: the philosophers who accompanied Perouffe were three days in reaching the crater, and it is said to be visible at the distance of three hundred miles. In the month of September 1737, torrents of burning matter flowing down on every side, presented to the sight the whole of the mountain as red-hot. Almost all the springs and lakes in this peninsula are more or less warm, hence they are never entirely frozen over, notwithstanding the rigour of the climate. The chain of the Kurile islands, which may be considered as a continuation of Kamtschatka, contains nine active volcanoes.

Kämpfer, in his History of Japan, describes eighteen volcanoes in that and the neighbouring islands, and La Perouffe discovered two others.

In the Marianas, or Ladrones islands, nine volcanoes have been described. The Philippine islands, which are said to exceed twelve hundred, are many of them volcanic. There are three volcanoes in Luzon, the principal island.

The archipelago of the Molucca islands abounds with volcanoes. Machian, one of these valuable spice islands, contains a remarkable volcanic mountain, which in 1646 was completely rent from the summit to the base, by the violence of its eruptions, and at present forms two distinct mountains, standing near each other.

In the island of Ceylon, the peak of Adam is celebrated for its height and its volcanic eruptions.

In Sumatra there are four gigantic volcanoes, the highest of which is thirteen thousand eight hundred and forty-two feet above the level of the sea. The others are nearly of equal height. Several volcanoes occur in the island of Java. The island of Ternate affords also a volcano on the top of a mountain very difficult of access, but opening with a vast mouth, and very terrible when it burns.

The several violent eruptions of this mountain have given it, within the mouth or crater, the appearance of an amphitheatre, constructed for holding people at the time of some public show, several circles appearing in it one above another, formed with a sort of regularity that is surprising. Modern navigators have discovered numerous volcanic islands scattered over the Yellow Sea and in the Pacific Ocean, from Asia to the western coasts of America.

Of the extinct volcanoes of Asia, excepting the northern parts, we have no accounts whatever. Patrin, an eminent French mineralogist, who visited part of northern Asia, says

that hills of lava were seen after he had crossed the lake of Baikal, fifteen leagues to the east of the city of Oudinsk, near the river Kourba. All the country between Chilkah and Argoune, which forms the river Amour, presents traces of volcanoes. The mines of Gazemour are in the vicinity of an immense crater, the bottom of which is at present nearly on a level with the river. It is flat, and covered with blocks of scorified lava, from whence rise several small volcanic cones. On passing over this plain it returned a hollow sound to the horses' feet, as if they were travelling over a vault.

There are other larger craters on the summits of volcanic mountains, near the river Kourba, some of which are converted into lakes. Vast currents of lava descend from these craters; some of them are at present empty, others resemble those of Oberstein and Deux Ponts, and are filled with chalcodenes and amygdaloidal stones.

When Hanno, the Carthaginian, coasted Africa, he saw in the night-time fires ascending from a lofty mountain called the Car of the Gods. Kircher, in his *Mundus Subterraneus*, mentions eight burning volcanoes on that continent, and the remains of many extinct ones. Our knowledge of the interior of this country is very imperfect, and no active volcanoes are at present known there.

From the accounts of some of the mountains near the Cape of Good Hope, we may infer that they have formerly, been volcanic.

All the African islands are volcanic, or contain vestiges of their igneous origin. No less than forty-two active or dormant volcanoes are found in the Azores.

The islands of Lanzerotta, Palma, and Teneriffe, contain burning volcanoes, and the other Canary isles are volcanic.

The Cape Verde islands are also volcanic, but Fuego is the only one in which the fire is at present active.

The island of Ascension, and the isle of Bourbon, contain volcanoes. St. Helena and the Madeira islands present undoubted marks of their igneous formation.

The volcanoes on the continent of America are numerous, and of an immense size and height. They are principally situated near the western coast. Ancient navigators mention volcanoes in Greenland with boiling springs, announcing a volcanic soil, similar to that of Iceland. On the north-west coast of America, Capt. Cook saw a volcano in lat. 61°, and another of amazing height in lat. 55°, at the point of Alaska. Another higher than the Peak of Teneriffe was discovered in lat. 59°. Others have been seen in various parts of the coast between Alaska and California; but of the volcanoes in the interior, in these latitudes, we are unacquainted. Five volcanoes are enumerated in California. Proceeding southwards, along the chain of mountains that forms the Cordilleras, we find the volcanoes ranged in rows nearly north and south along a line of five thousand miles in length, from the tropic of Cancer to Terra del Fuego. In the province of Quito the volcanic mountains diverge from this line east and west, being scattered over a space of five hundred square leagues, which is regarded by Humboldt as one enormous volcanic abyss, covered with a crust of volcanic matter, and sending forth eruptions from the numerous lofty craters, which are only different vents to the same internal fire. In New Spain also, there is a volcanic range, intersecting the Cordilleras in lat. 19°, and extending east and west from the gulf of Mexico to the Pacific ocean. In this range, Colima and other ancient volcanoes, with the new volcano of Jurullo, are placed.

From the province of Quito the volcanoes are continued along the Cordilleras, in a direct line to the southern extremity of America. The number of active volcanoes on this continent can scarcely be less than one hundred.

Eighty-seven have been enumerated by former geographers, before Humboldt had extended our knowledge of the new world. From twenty-five to thirty were described as existing on the western side of Mexico, before the new volcanic range of Jorullo was thrown up. Sixteen of the highest mountains in the world, in the province of Quito, are volcanic, but it is remarkable that they do not eject lava, but torrents of mud, which in drying form earthy strata of many hundred square miles in extent.

Of the extinct volcanoes in America we have little knowledge. La Condamine saw several extinct craters in Peru. It is thought by travellers, that some of the lakes in North America occupy the craters of extinct volcanoes of vast extent; this can only be determined by an examination of the rocks that surround these lakes. Extinct volcanoes are said to occur in some parts of Canada.

The volcanoes in the American islands are very numerous. The long range of islands extending west from point Alaska is altogether volcanic, according to the relation given by Sauer of the voyage of commodore Billings. One of these islands, called by the Russians *Semifopiahnoi*, or the seven mountains, contains seven volcanoes. The group of islands called Revil-lagado are supposed to be volcanic, from the pumice found on the shores. The islands of Gallipagos are chiefly composed of scoriaceous lava, as we are informed by a gentleman who recently visited them, and who favoured us with specimens. On the eastern side, among the Antilles, the islands of St. Christopher, Guadalupe, Nevis, and St. Vincent's, contain volcanoes; and many of the other West Indian isles appear to be volcanic, though they have had no eruptions since they were first visited by Europeans.

The volcanoes scattered in the Southern Pacific ocean can scarcely be classed with those of the American islands. There are three very lofty volcanoes in the Friendly isles, and among a multitude of isles dispersed over that vast expanse of water, doubtless numerous volcanoes exist which are at present unknown. We have no account of volcanoes in New Holland.

This general outline of volcanic geography may suffice to shew how large a portion of the globe is at present, or has been formerly, subjected to the action of subterranean fire. It is the opinion of some geologists, that many of the ancient volcanoes which existed prior to the formation of the upper strata, have been entirely covered by them and hid from human observation. In other instances, the craters of ancient volcanoes have been buried by the lavas of more recent eruptions, and in the great revolutions which have changed the appearance of the globe, volcanic districts of vast extent have been broken down and the surface swept away, leaving only detached isolated caps of volcanic matter on the summits of distant mountains, the solitary monuments of the former dominion of fire. Even volcanic mountains of later date have had their craters entirely obliterated by the united agency of mountain torrents and the eruptions of smaller volcanoes. In the island of Lipari, according to the description of Spallanzani, the volcanic fires have raged so near to each other, that they have produced in every part confusion and disorder, which is seen in the groups of broken and half destroyed mountains. The substances ejected from the numerous eruptions have intermixed each other, and intermingled so much, that no distinct volcanic crater can be traced at present. This confusion has been further increased by torrents of rain, and by gradual disintegration during a long series of years.

From the volcanized soil of Lipari, from the present state of the neighbouring islands, as well as from ancient tradition, we may with certainty infer that this island has been the former seat of volcanoes, though their craters are

nearly obliterated. No geologist, who has visited Lipari, ever entertained the least doubt of its igneous formation. Volcanic glass and pumice, with which it abounds, are found on the Peak of Teneriffe, in Iceland, Kamtschatka, and other volcanic countries; yet the followers of Werner have doubted or denied the igneous origin of these substances, because they exist in basaltic districts, where no trace of a volcanic crater remains. This appears to be taking a limited view of the subject; for when we contemplate the present extensive effects of fire in every quarter of the globe, and the great changes which have taken place on its surface, we may reasonably infer the former existence of volcanoes in all countries where the products of subterranean fire are found as native rocks, though no vestige of a crater may remain, and the date of the eruption may be for ever lost in the darkness of past ages, which preceded the emergence of our present continents from the ocean.

Since the preceding article was written, we have seen the History of Java, by lieutenant-governor Raffles, recently published; from which it appears that the whole of that large island, and most of the neighbouring isles, are volcanic. There are no less than thirty-eight large volcanic mountains in Java, some of which are at present in an active state. These mountains all rise from a plain, little elevated above the sea. They are detached from each other, and though some of them are covered by the vegetation of many ages, the indications of their former eruptions are numerous and unequivocal. From the apertures in their craters, many of them continue to discharge smoke and sulphureous vapours.

The following account is truly remarkable, as it is the only recorded instance of the natural death, if we may be allowed the expression, of a large volcano.

"The Papandayang, situated on the western part of the district of Cheribon, in the province of Suka-pura, was formerly one of the largest volcanoes in the island of Java; but the greatest part of it was swallowed up in the earth, after a short but very severe combustion, in the year 1772. The account which has remained of this event asserts, that near midnight, between the 11th and 12th of August, there was observed about the mountain an uncommon luminous cloud, by which it appeared to be completely enveloped. The inhabitants, as well about the foot as on the declivities of the mountain, alarmed by this appearance, betook themselves to flight; but before they could all save themselves, the mountain began to give way, and the greatest part of it actually *fell in*, and disappeared in the earth. At the same time a tremendous noise was heard, resembling the discharge of the heaviest cannon. Immense quantities of volcanic substances, which were thrown out at the same time, and spread in every direction, propagated the effects of the explosion through the space of many miles.

"It is estimated that an extent of ground, of the mountain itself, and its immediate environs, fifteen miles long, and full six broad, was by this commotion swallowed up in the bowels of the earth. Several persons sent to examine the condition of the neighbourhood, made report that they found it impossible to approach the place where the mountain stood, on account of the heat of the substances which covered its circumference, and which were piled on each other to the height of three feet; although this was the 24th of September, full six weeks after the catastrophe. It is also mentioned, that forty villages, partly swallowed up by the ground, and partly covered by the substances thrown out, were destroyed on this occasion, and that 2957 of the inhabitants perished. A proportionate number of cattle was also destroyed, and most of the plantations

ations of cotton, indigo, and coffee in the adjacent districts were buried under the volcanic matter. The effects of this explosion are still very apparent on the remains of this volcano."

We have before stated that several circular lakes, of considerable extent, are supposed to have been formed in the craters of extinct volcanoes, but it seems more probable that these lakes cover the places where former volcanic cones, or whole mountains, have sunk down. We have several instances of the partial destruction of the cone of a volcano, and some traditions are preserved of the entire disappearance of volcanic mountains, but the above is the only authentic record of such an event in modern times.

The following narrative, extracted from the same work, describes one of the most astonishing volcanic eruptions of which we have any knowledge. It took place in Sumbawa, one of the Molucca islands, in April, 1815.

"This eruption extended perceptible evidences of its existence over the whole of the Molucca islands, over Java, a considerable portion of Celebes, Sumatra, and Borneo, to a circumference of a thousand statute miles from its centre, by tremulous motions, and the report of explosions; while within the range of its more immediate activity, embracing a space of three hundred miles around, it produced the most astonishing effects, and excited the most alarming apprehensions. In Java, at the distance of three hundred miles, it seemed to be awfully present. The sky was overcast at noon-day with clouds of ashes; the sun was enveloped in an atmosphere, whose 'palpable' density the observer was unable to penetrate; showers of ashes covered the houses, the streets, and the fields, to the depth of several inches; and amid this darkness, explosions were heard at intervals like the report of artillery, or the noise of distant thunder. So fully did the resemblance of the noises to the report of cannon impress the minds of some officers, that from an apprehension of pirates on the coast, vessels were dispatched to afford relief. Superstition, on the other hand, was busily at work on the minds of the natives, and attributed the reports to an artillery of a different description to that of pirates. All conceived that the effects experienced might be caused by eruptions of some of the numerous volcanoes on the island; but no one could have conjectured that the showers of ashes which darkened the air and covered the ground of the eastern districts of Java, could have proceeded from a mountain in Sumbawa, at the distance of several hundred miles."

The lieutenant-governor of Java directed a circular to the different residents, requiring them to transmit to the government a statement of the facts and circumstances connected with this eruption, which occurred within their own knowledge. From their replies, the narrative drawn up by Mr. Alley, and printed in the ninth volume of the *Batavian Transactions*, was collected: the following is an extract from that paper.

"The first explosions were heard on this island (Java) in the evening of the 5th of April; they were noticed in every quarter, and continued at intervals until the following day. The noise was, in the first instance, universally attributed to distant cannon; so much so, that a detachment of troops was marched from Djocjocarta, under the apprehension that a neighbouring post had been attacked: and along the coast boats were in two instances dispatched in quest of supposed ships in distress. On the following morning, however, a slight fall of ashes removed all doubt as to the cause of the sound; and it is worthy of remark, that as the eruption continued, the sound appeared to be so close, that in each district it seemed near at hand, and was generally at-

tributed to an eruption, either from the mountains Merapi, Klut, or Bromo. From the 6th the fun became obscured; it had every where the appearance of being enveloped in a fog. The weather was sultry, and the atmosphere close and still; the sun seemed shorn of its rays, and the general stillness and pressure of the atmosphere seemed to forebode an earthquake. This lasted several days. The explosions continued occasionally, but less violently, and less frequently than at first. Volcanic ashes also began to fall, but in small quantities, and so slightly, as to be hardly perceptible in the western districts. This appearance of the atmosphere continued, with little variation, until the 10th of April; and till then it does not appear that the volcano attracted much observation, or was considered of greater importance than those which had occasionally burst forth in Java. But on the evening of the 10th, the eruptions were heard more loud and more frequent; from Cheribon eastward the air became darkened by the quantity of falling ashes; the sun was nearly darkened; and in some situations many said they felt a tremulous motion of the earth. An unusual thick darkness was remarked all the following night, and the greater part of the next day. At Solo, candles were lighted at 4 p.m. of the 12th; at Magellan, objects could not be seen at three hundred yards distance. In other districts more eastward, it was dark as night, and this saturated state of the atmosphere lessened as the cloud of ashes passed along, and discharged itself on its way. Thus the ashes that were eight inches deep at Banyuwangi, were but two inches in depth at Sumenap, and less in Grisk; and the sun does not seem to have been actually obscured in any district west of Semarang.

"All reports concur in stating, that so violent and extensive an eruption has not happened within the memory of the oldest inhabitant, nor within tradition. They speak of singular effects in a lesser degree, when an eruption took place from the volcano of Karang Asam, in Bali, about seven years ago, and it was at first supposed that this mountain was the seat of the eruption. The Balinese of Java attributed the event to a recent dispute between the two rajahs of Bali Baliling, which terminated in the death of the younger rajah by order of his brother.

"From Sumbawa to the part of Sumatra where the sound was noticed, is about nine hundred and seventy geographical miles in a direct line. From Sumbawa to Ternate is a distance of about seven hundred and twenty miles. The distance also to which the cloud of ashes was carried so quickly as to produce utter darkness, was clearly pointed out to have been the island of Celebes, and the districts of Grisk or Java; the former is two hundred and seventeen nautical miles distant from the seat of the volcano; the latter, in a direct line, more than three hundred geographical miles." On this narrative we shall remark, that the greatest known distance at which volcanic eruptions had been heard before this of Sumbawa, was six hundred miles. According to Humboldt, the reports of Cotopaxi during some of its most violent explosions, have been heard at a distance equal to that of Dijon in France, from Vesuvius.

A more accurate and extended knowledge of the effects of subterranean fire throughout the Asiatic isles and those of the Pacific ocean, would probably demonstrate that the intensity of this powerful agent is not diminished, as some philosophers have supposed, though its present effects on the old continents may be less extensive than in former ages.

Volcanic Fire.—The questions which have divided the opinion of geologists respecting volcanic fire are, first, What is the intensity of the heat?—Secondly, Where is the

the source of heat situated?—And, lastly, From what cause does it originate? Some philosophers contend, that volcanic heat greatly exceeds that of our common furnaces; whilst others assert that it scarcely exceeds that of a culinary fire.

The arguments in favour of the low degree of heat of volcanic fire are founded on the experiments made upon lava in a common furnace, which was observed to vitrify them more completely than volcanoes, and to melt many of the imbedded crystals, which were supposed to have been left infusible by volcanic heat. M. Sage and Deluc first supported the hypothesis of the low degree of volcanic heat. M. Dolomieu endeavoured to prove it to be still less. His principal argument is the following. "It cannot be too frequently inculcated that lavas are not vitrifications; their fluidity is similar to that of metals reduced to fusion: when they cease to flow, they resume, like metals, the grain, texture, and all the characters of their primitive base; effects which we cannot produce on stones in our furnaces, since we know not how to soften them by fire, without changing the manner in which they are aggregated. The fire of volcanoes has not that intensity which is supposed: the effect is produced rather by its extension and duration than by its activity." We greatly respect the labours of this intelligent observer; but we must notice, that in the above statement he has not appreciated the important difference between the effects of volcanic fire and that of a furnace, resulting from the more rapid cooling of the materials in the latter case. It has been proved by the important experiments of Sir James Hall, that vitrification depends not on the degree of heat so much as on the rapid cooling of stone or lava in a state of fusion; and that lava, vitrified in the furnace, assumes its stony texture again, if it is remelted, and the heat be very gradually diminished. It was proved also by the interesting experiments of Mr. G. Watt, that if this process of cooling be continued for a still longer time, a crystalline arrangement of the particles takes place.

It was an opinion long entertained, that the crystals existing in lava, whether of *felspar*, *augite*, *olivine*, *leucite*, (see these articles), or other minerals, were original crystals, existing in rocks which had been subjected to volcanic heat; and that this heat, though sufficient to melt the rock itself, was not powerful enough to melt the imbedded crystals. It was supposed also, that some of these crystals, previously existing, were found detached by the lava in its course, and buried in it. These opinions, so unphilosophical and improbable, are giving place to a more correct and enlarged view of these operations of nature.

The crystals in lava did not previously exist, but were formed during the slow consolidation of the materials, which admitted the elementary particles to enter into different combinations, according to the laws of elective affinity and crystalline arrangement, precisely in the same way that different salts in the same solution separate from each other, and crystallize. In the slags from our furnaces we may frequently observe the same process more or less perfectly completed; and we have seen crystals resembling felspar, found in a mass of coal-shale or bituminous slate-clay, which had been fused and run down from the large ignited heaps, in the vicinity of Newcastle-upon-Tyne. The facts adduced to prove the low degree of heat in volcanic fires, prove only its long continued action, and not its original degree of intensity. Dolomieu indeed admits, that a great difference must result from the different periods of the continuance of heat. This was subsequently demonstrated by the experiments of Spallanzani. He took several stones, which had been found refractory, when exposed to a certain

degree of heat for two or three days, and placed them in a glass furnace where the same degree of heat, was continued equally for more than six weeks; during which time they were all more or less softened by fire, and the vitrification, which began on the surface, extended deeper and deeper into the stone, in proportion to the time. Hence, says he, we may learn, that a long continued heat of less strength is as efficacious in the fusion of bodies as a stronger heat of a shorter duration. Dolomieu further conjectured, that the extreme fluidity of some lavas was occasioned by the presence of sulphur, which acted as a flux, in the same manner as a bar of iron, when brought nearly to a white heat, will instantly melt, if it be rubbed with sulphur; but this opinion was not confirmed by experiment. Spallanzani found that sulphur produced no effect, when mixed with stone or lava, and exposed to heat; nor did the lava melt sooner than in other crucibles, in which it was exposed to the same degree of heat.

The result was the same, whether he employed common sulphur or iron pyrites. The facts, therefore, adduced for the low degree of heat in volcanic fire, prove nothing; and it is only from the actual state of the lava itself, that its greater or lesser degree of intensity can be ascertained.

The extreme liquidity of lava flowing from the crater, in some instances, has been shewn in a former part of this article, where it is described as spouting up, and forming curves like a fountain of water. Professor Bottis relates, that on the 10th of September, 1776, he observed a small hill on the side of Vesuvius, formed of scoria, and surrounded by lava recently ejected. In this hill was a small circular gulf, about three palms in diameter, and two in depth. From this gulf proceeded a low noise, similar to that of oil or any other fat substance simmering over the fire; which found was doubtless produced, he says, by bubbles rising within it. The fire was so strong, that some scoria being cast into it, immediately became red-hot, and melted, producing the appearance of boiling pitch. Spallanzani says, that the same kind of stone required to be half an hour in the furnace before it was softened; and in a reverberating furnace, it required a heat equal to the melting of iron, to obtain a speedy fusion of these stones. It is likewise evident, that the heat in this small gulf, communicating with the cold air above, must be less intense than in the internal part, since this was only a spiracle or vent to the great mass of lava which boiled in the deep recesses of the mountain.

Spallanzani also observed, that when the lava, placed in a common furnace, had been fused several hours, and boiled over the edge of the crucible, its tenacity was still so great, that he could scarcely with all his force immerse a pointed iron-wire to the bottom; and when he took away the iron, the impression remained some minutes, though the crucible still continued in the furnace. When the same lavas were exposed to the intense heat of the reverberating furnace, they were more liquid, and might be penetrated with greater ease.

From these experiments and observations we are warranted in concluding, that the heat of volcanic fires sometimes exceeds that of our most violent furnaces, but that the lava of different eruptions may possess different degrees of fluidity and heat. It may also be worthy of notice, that the lavas were considerably reduced in weight by remaining long in the furnace, the particles having been volatilized and sublimed. Another argument for the intensity of volcanic fire is derived from the long continued heat of certain currents of lava. Spallanzani says, when he passed a detached current of lava near the summit of Etna, which had flowed
eleven

VOLCANO.

eleven months before, it still retained a red heat, which was very conspicuous in some of the apertures even in the daytime; and a staff being placed upon it, immediately took fire. Ferrara itates, that when the current, which flowed from Monte Roffo on Etna in 1669, was perforated at Catania in 1709, flames broke out, and it continued to smoke on the surface after rain, at the beginning of the present century. Now whatever may be the cause of a current of lava, the heat could not remain so great after such long intervals of time, were it not prodigiously more powerful when it first flowed. It is obvious that the heat of the internal fire cannot be less than that of the lava which flows from it, which, we have before observed, is sometimes equal at least to the heat of the most powerful reverberatory furnace. Where the lava possesses a much less degree of heat, we are not warranted in asserting that the internal fire was less intense; for various circumstances may modify and diminish the heat of the lava itself, such as the access of water near the surface, which may mix with it in the crater, and produce a torrent of mud, or may cool it so much as to increase its tenacity, until it can scarcely flow when it first issues from the crater. The following circumstance is well deserving attention. On opening some of the houses in Torre del Greco, which were nearly buried in the lava that flowed from the foot of Vesuvius in 1794, various striking effects were observed, which could only have been produced by the long continued agency of intense heat; effects which we have at present no means of imitating. Among others, even iron utensils had been partly volatilized, and crystals of specular iron-ore were formed on the surface. For a knowledge of this important fact, the public is indebted to the honourable H. G. Bennet, who brought away various specimens from the newly opened houses.

The question respecting the situation of volcanic fires may be thus stated:—Does the fire in volcanic mountains originate in the mountain itself, or is it situated at a great depth beneath the surface? It has been an opinion commonly entertained, that volcanoes originally break out in mountains already formed, and cover them with lava and scoriz. Hence it is supposed by some philosophers, that there existed primitive or secondary mountains, where we now observe the Peak of Teneriffe and Etna, or Vesuvius, and that volcanic fire has merely covered the surface with its products, or effected a change in the external form of these mountains. On the other hand, it is contended that volcanic mountains are either entirely the products of subterranean fire, and have been formed by the lava and scoriz thrown up, as was the case with the volcanic range of Jorullo in New Spain, and Monte Nuovo near Naples; or that they have been raised by subterranean heat, which has softened and upheaved the regular beds and strata that form the crust of the globe, as was the case at Malpays, already described; and on this upheaved surface a volcanic cone has been formed, when the eruption of the volcano took place. To determine these questions, where history is silent respecting the formation of volcanoes, we must examine their structure at the base and the summit, and attend to the phenomena which accompany the eruptions. Some volcanic hills are so entirely composed of scoriz and lava, that we can have no hesitation in believing that they have been formed by eruptions. This might be asserted of Jorullo, of Monte Roffo, and Monte Nuovo, if even we had no well authenticated accounts of their formation; and hence we may infer that the source of the fire is situated far below the base of these hills. Other volcanic mountains of larger size are partly composed of beds and strata, to which we cannot

ascribe a volcanic origin. According to the observations of Mr. Leckie, during his residence in Sicily, calcareous strata, with marine organic remains, rest on beds of volcanic tufa, on the eastern side of Etna, and dip towards the sea. (Bakewell's Introduction to Geology, 2d edit. p. 316.) Hence we may infer that the primeval eruptions took place under the sea, and that their products of tufa were covered with marine deposits, before the mountain emerged from the ocean. In other words, the existence of the volcano preceded that of the mountain itself, the first eruptions taking place under the sea, the whole mass of the base having been upheaved at a subsequent period. Calcareous beds occur in some of the Canary islands, which are all volcanic; and though the base of the Peak of Teneriffe, according to Humboldt, rises amidst a series of basalts and old lavas, he does not consider these as a progressive accumulation of lavas, but as having been formed under and elevated from the sea. On attending to the circumstances which accompany the formation of new islands, he says, we find that these extraordinary eruptions are generally preceded by a swelling of the softened crust of the globe. Rocks appear above the water, before the flames find their way or lava issues from the crater. We must, therefore, distinguish between the nucleus raised up, and the mass of scoriz and lava thrown upon it. This, as we have before observed, is the case in some instances: there are others, however, in which pumice and scoriz have been thrown up from under the sea; but both phenomena prove that the source of volcanic fire is seated at great depths below the surface of the ground. Were the source of volcanic fire seated in the mountain from which the eruption takes place, it is impossible to conceive that it could continue burning for some thousand years, without the mountain falling in; and when the fire was once extinct, it does not appear probable that it should ever burst forth again in the same place. Mr. Werner and his followers have placed the seat of volcanic fire in beds of coal; but as these occupy the upper strata of the globe, being situated above the primary and lower secondary beds, they can have no great comparative depth, and the objections just stated apply to this theory in full force. For if beds of coal were once burned out, or extinguished in one place, we can assign no conceivable reason why volcanic fires should break out in the same place again, after a cessation of seven hundred years, and should continue to burn for many hundred years afterwards, as was the case with Vesuvius. Indeed, the opinion of volcanic fire being derived from the ignition of coal-beds, appears to us a supposition altogether inadequate to explain their origin, and the extent of their operations.

Mr. Whitehurst, in his "Inquiry into the original State and Formation of the Earth," 4to. 1778, apprehends, that subterranean fire must at different times have existed universally in the bowels of the earth, and that in union with water, or by the expansive power of steam, it has produced the immense continents, as well as the mountains of our globe, and also the universal deluge. When these fires were first kindled, by what sort of fuel they are still maintained, at what depths below the surface of the earth they are placed, whether they have a mutual communication, of what dimensions they consist, and how long they may continue, are questions which do not admit an easy decision. Some, with M. Buffon, have placed the seat of the fire of volcanoes towards the centre, or near the summit of the mountains, which they suppose to furnish the matter emitted. But if this were the case, that part of the mountain which is situated above the supposed seat of the fire, must be destroyed or dissipated in a short time; whereas an eruption usually

usually adds to the height and bulk of a volcano; and the matter discharged by it for many ages would be sufficient to form three such mountains as the simple cone or mountain of the existing volcano.

We have hitherto confined our account of volcanic phenomena to those circumstances which accompany the eruption in its immediate vicinity; but in order to form any rational or probable conjecture respecting the seat and origin of volcanic fires, we must take a more enlarged view of the subject, and contemplate volcanic fires in connection with each other, or in their effects on remote parts of the globe. Volcanoes and earthquakes are regarded as distinct phenomena, but they are only different effects of the same cause. Volcanoes are the vents through which is discharged the elastic vapour, and other materials, that, in a confined state, are the principal causes of earthquakes. Whenever these vents are by any means choked up for a long time, violent commotions of the earth may be expected, until the former vents are re-opened, or new passages made for the confined materials to escape. This view of the subject may be illustrated by the following facts, which prove the immediate connection of earthquakes with volcanic fires.

The great earthquakes which have shaken Sicily and Calabria, have generally been accompanied with volcanic eruptions from Etna or the Lipari isles. In the year 1169, every house in Catania was thrown down by a violent earthquake, which occurred at the same time with a great eruption of Etna.

The earthquakes of 1634 and 1635, which nearly destroyed Messina, accompanied the memorable eruption from the same mountain, in which part of the volcanic cone fell down. The lava formed a torrent eighteen miles long, two miles broad, and twenty-four feet high. Immediately preceding the earthquake which destroyed Euphemia in 1633, Kircher, who was an eye-witness, says that Stromboli threw out an immense quantity of flames, accompanied with a noise which could be distinctly heard at the distance of sixty miles. The common eruptions from this volcano are comparatively feeble.

Near the time of the great earthquakes which destroyed Lisbon in 1755 and 1761, Europe, Africa, and America were repeatedly agitated by subterranean commotions, accounts of which may be seen by referring to the journals of that period. A few hours after the great shock of the former earthquake, the waters of Switzerland, Northern Europe, Canada, and the West India islands, were violently agitated, and fire was seen to rise from the midst of the Atlantic ocean. These efforts, nearly simultaneous, prove that the source of the commotion was seated deep within the globe.

The earthquakes of Cumana, in New Andalusia, are connected, says Humboldt, with those of the West India islands; and it has even been supposed that they have some connection with the distant volcanic phenomena of the Andes. On the 4th of November, 1797, the province of Quito suffered such a destructive commotion, that even in that thinly inhabited country, forty thousand of the natives perished, buried under the ruins of their houses, swallowed up in the hills, or drowned in lakes that were suddenly formed. At the same period, the inhabitants of the Eastern Antilles were alarmed by shocks which continued eight months, when the volcano of Guadaloupe threw out pumice-stones, ashes, and gulls of sulphureous vapours. This eruption, during which long subterranean noises were heard, took place on the 27th of September, and was followed on the 14th of December by the great earthquake at Cumana.

The city of Caracas was entirely destroyed by an earthquake on the 24th of March, 1812: violent oscillations of

the ground were felt for thirty-five days after, both in the West India islands, and on Terra Firma. At this time the volcano in St. Vincent's, which had been dormant for near a century, broke out with great fury, covering the neighbouring islands with its ashes. On the night in which the cities of Lima and Callao were destroyed by an earthquake, four new volcanoes broke out in the Andes. Humboldt also states, that a column of dense black smoke, that had issued for several months from a volcano on the shore near Paño, in 1797, disappeared at the very hour when the towns of Riobamba, Hambato, and Tacunga, sixty leagues to the south, were overturned by a most violent shock.

Numerous other instances might be cited, were it necessary, to prove the connection existing between the phenomena of earthquakes and distant volcanoes. The inhabitants in the vicinity of volcanoes are so well aware of this connection, that at Messina and Naples, and at the foot of Cotopaxi and Tungurahua, earthquakes are only dreaded when flames and vapours cease to issue from the craters; and what, says Humboldt, is very remarkable, the shocks appear to be stronger, as the country is more distant from burning volcanoes. The globe, it may be said, is agitated with greater force, in proportion as the surface has a smaller number of funnels communicating with the interior.

The catastrophe of Riobamba, in Quito, before stated, has led several well-informed persons to think that this unfortunate country would be less frequently desolated, were the subterranean fire to break the porphyritic dome of Chimborazo, and this colossal mountain were to become an active volcano.

The connection which distant volcanoes have with each other, and the vast extent to which the agitations of the ground are felt during eruptions, offer satisfactory proofs that the source of heat is not situated in the middle of volcanic mountains, but is placed far below them; or to speak familiarly, a volcanic mountain is not the fire-place, but the chimney-top. Our ideas of volcanic operations will be enlarged by contemplating the immense craters of ancient volcanoes which are either become extinct, or nearly so. From experiments made by Spallanzani to draw up the stones from the bottom of the sea between the islands of Lipari, Vulcano, and Salene, he learned that the ground was one continued mass of volcanic substances, precisely of the same kind as those on the shores of these islands. Hence he infers, that all the submarine ground between them has suffered the action of fire, in the same manner as that which is exposed to view, and these three islands are one continued group of volcanic substances, and have originally been formed by one central conflagration. That this eruption has been subsequently confined to three distinct mouths, which gave birth to the three islands. Humboldt has drawn nearly the same inference respecting the whole of the mountainous part of the province of Quito, which, he says, may be considered as one immense volcano, occupying seven hundred square leagues of surface, and throwing out flames by different cones, known under the denomination of distinct volcanoes, as Cotopaxi, Tungurahua, and Pichinca. In like manner, he adds, the whole group of the Canary islands is placed as it were over one immense submarine volcano. The fire makes its way sometimes through one, and sometimes through another of these islands in different parts. Now if we consider this opinion as correct, how vast and deep must be the volcanic abyss to which the mountains of Quito are only the different chimneys, placed over a thick crust of consolidated porphyritic lava. The volcanic crust which supports the Canary isles, must cover an abyss not less in extent and depth than that of Quito.

The range of volcanoes in the Andes, to the south of Quito, extends in a right line nearly two thousand miles; and if these have originally risen from one vast chasm, like the volcanic ranges of whose origin we have authentic records, it would not appear extravagant to suppose that this chasm may descend to the very centre of the globe. Some philosophers, indeed, contend for the existence of central heat in our planet, which gives rise to all the different phenomena of earthquakes and volcanoes. (See *SYSTEMS of Geology*.) We shall advert to this opinion in treating of the various explanations which have been given of the origin and support of volcanic fires.

In contemplating the impressive phenomena of volcanoes, and the great changes they have produced on the surface of the globe, we cannot be surprised that philosophers, ancient and modern, should have been anxious to discover the origin of these fires, and the means by which they are supported, but from the nature of the subject, their theories can be entitled to little more than the appellation of probable conjectures.

In all inquiries of this kind, it is important to bear in mind the essential distinction between the cause of any natural phenomenon, and the mode in which that cause operates. With the latter we may become well acquainted by attentive observation, while we remain profoundly ignorant of the former. Thus, when in volcanic operations we observe the expansive effects of heat, forcing a vent for the discharge of aeriform, fluid, or solid matter, we may infer that these effects do not differ in kind, but in degree only, from the flame effects of heat when subjected to the controul of human agency; but we can draw no certain inference from hence respecting the origin of volcanic fire, or the substances by which they are kept burning for thousands of years with increased or diminished intensity.

The opinion formerly most prevalent respecting the origin of volcanic fire, was that it proceeded from the subterranean fermentation of certain materials which were disposed to inflame and explode spontaneously. When the decomposition of iron pyrites by water, and the spontaneous inflammation attending it was first observed, and particularly when the experiment of Lemery was known, where inflammation is produced by a mixture of iron-filings, sulphur, and water, it was imagined that a satisfactory explanation of the cause of volcanic fire was discovered.

In this experiment he mixed twenty-five pounds of powdered sulphur with an equal weight of iron-filings: and having made with water a paste of the mixture, he put it into an iron pot, covered it with a cloth, and buried it a foot under ground. In about eight or nine hours time the earth swelled, became warm, and cracked: hot sulphureous vapours were perceived; a flame which dilated the cracks was observed; the superincumbent earth was covered with a yellow and black powder; and, in short, a subterranean fire, producing a volcano in miniature, was spontaneously lighted up from the reciprocal actions of sulphur, iron, and water. See *Artificial EARTHQUAKES*.

The above experiment has been often repeated; and it has been observed, that large quantities of the materials are not requisite to make the experiment succeed, provided there be a due proportion of water: half a pound of steel-filings, half a pound of flower of brimstone, and fourteen ounces of water, will, when well mixed, acquire heat enough to make the mass take fire. But it was known long before the time of Lemery, that natural mixtures of sulphur and iron would spontaneously take fire. These substances, it is well known, are supplied by the pyrites; a small quantity of which is sufficient to kindle a fire; a proper portion of water (for too great a

quantity would extinguish the subterranean fire) may be derived either from fissures and channels communicating with the sea, or from sources in the earth, wherein it is known to abound; and air, if it should be thought absolutely necessary to the spontaneous firing of the pyrites, may be conceived either to accompany the water, or to descend into the innermost parts of the earth through the fissures which are found on its surface. Or, if we suppose the heated pyrites to have been in contact with the oxyd of manganese and petrol, the flame may arise, as it is produced by art, from the defecation of that substance, and its mixture with the mineral oil. That ore when heated affords oxygen gas, of which a very small quantity is sufficient to produce flame; and the flame, when once produced, may be supported by pure air from other ores, as Dr. Priestley has shewn (*Obs. on Air*, vol. iv. p. 210, &c.); and the inflammable matter, according to his system, may be supplied by pyrites, bituminous schistus, bitumen, and coal. After the eruption in any place, the volcanoes themselves serve for spiracles or air-holes, by which the subterranean fire may receive necessary supplies; so that these may serve to keep the magazines of internal fire in a due state, as well as to discharge the smoke and other matters with which it would otherwise be choked up and extinguished.

Many of the regular strata are impregnated with iron and sulphur in the form of pyrites, and it was only necessary to provide for the access of water and air, to produce spontaneous inflammation. Thus the cliffs near Charnmouth, in Dorsetshire, abound in pyrites, and after a very hot summer and heavy rains, they took fire, and continued burning slowly for a long time. These cliffs are principally composed of pyritous clay, forming part of the great stratum, called *lias*, in the west of England. See *STRATA*.

The abundant evolution of sulphuretted hydrogen gas from the decomposition of pyrites, tended further to confirm the opinion that ascribed to this cause the origin of volcanic fire. We conceive, however, that this theory is quite inadequate to explain volcanic phenomena on a great scale, such as the connection which distant volcanoes have with each other, the long continuance of the fire, and its breaking forth again in the same place, after it has ceased to burn for ages. Some phenomena, however, which are nearly allied to volcanic, and appear to be local, may be produced by pyritous decomposition. The eruptions of mud in the Crimea, and at Maccaluba in Sicily, may derive their origin from this cause, particularly as the matter thrown out is observed to contain particles of pyrites, whereas they have rarely, if ever, been observed in the matter erupted from fire volcanoes.

The inflammation of sulphur and bitumen has been supposed by some philosophers to occasion the various phenomena of volcanoes, but where do these substances derive the oxygen necessary to support their combustion? Spallanzani has conjectured that this may be obtained from various saline ingredients which yield their oxygen to heat, or it may be derived from the decomposition of water; but here we meet again with the same difficulty as before; how are the combustible materials renewed for ages in the same place? This would seem to require currents of liquid sulphur and bitumen to circulate through the interior of the globe, a circumstance which the theory of Spallanzani has not provided for, but which does not appear to us very improbable. This industrious observer could not detect the slightest smell of bitumen in the volcanic smoke of Stromboli, but according to Dolomieu and Humboldt, it is very perceptible in Vesuvius, and bitumen is even found in the recently erupted lava of that mountain. Sulphur, in its different combinations, is a constant product of all volcanoes.

According to the opinion of Spallanzani and others, the

lava and earthy products of volcanoes are formed of the internal beds of rock, which are melted by the inflammation of sulphur or bitumen, and thrown up by the violent pressure of elastic vapour, either from steam or more permanently elastic fluids. From some ingenious experiments, he ascertained that even the lava itself, at a certain temperature, partly assumes an aeriform state, and may then further contribute to the violence of these explosions, by which it is ejected from the crater.

It was the opinion of bishop Berkeley, that a vacuum was made within the body of the earth by a vast body of inflammable matter taking fire, and that the water, by communication with the sea, rushed in, and was converted into steam. However this be, it is certain, that by the process above explained, a vapour would be produced, whose elastic force is known to be several times greater than that of gunpowder; and, therefore, if the superincumbent weight were not too great, it might cause earthquakes; and it would propel the matter melted by the subterranean fire laterally towards the mouth of the volcano, where meeting with least resistance, it would expel it, together with all the unmelted stony masses which it found in its passage. It is easy to conceive, that before the dense matter is ejected, the dilated air of the volcano will be first forced out, and carry with it the ashes and looser stones adhering to the sides and crater of the volcano, in the manner observed and described by sir William Hamilton.

That steam is one of the most important agents in lifting up torrents of lava to such prodigious heights, has been generally supposed: it is even asserted that the sea has been observed to retire in the bay of Naples previously to eruptions from Vesuvius; but this may, with more probability, be ascribed to the upheaving of the ground, than to the sudden absorption of water. Were the water to be absorbed ever so rapidly, other water would instantly flow on to supply its place, so that the apparent level of the sea from this cause could not perceptibly vary, except for a few minutes. But if the ground were loosened and raised up by subterranean heat, the effect might continue for a longer time; and should even a small quantity of water find access through fissures to the deep recesses of melted lava, this, by its rapid expansion, might force up part of the lava to the summit of the volcano, and produce the most tremendous commotions.

According to the experiments of Spallanzani, water poured on the surface of melted lava, produced little effect, but when introduced under the surface, it occasioned a most violent explosion. Similar effects are often seen in foundries; for if the moulds contain the least moisture when the melted metal is poured in, it is driven back with a loud report, and is violently dispersed in every direction. These experiments, and the reasonings founded upon them, apply rather to the mode in which volcanic fires operate, than to the cause of these fires. It seems exceedingly probable, that the sudden access of water, and the generation of immense volumes of elastic vapour, may be the immediate cause of most volcanic eruptions. An explanation of the eruption of Etna, nearly similar to this, is given by the poet Lucretius.

“Præterea, magnâ ex parte mare montis ad ejus
Radices frangit fluctus, ætümque resolvit.
Ex hoc ulque mare speluncæ montis ad altas
Perveniunt subter fauces: hac ire, fatendum est,
Et penetrare, mari, penitus res cogit, aperto:
Atque esclare foras; ideoque extollere flammam,
Saxaque subjicere, et arenæ tollere nimbos.”

Lib. vi. l. 694, &c.

We have still however to seek for the origin of the fire itself, which this illustration does not explain.

The cause of volcanic fire must probably be fought in the chemical combination of the elementary matter, of which mineral substances are composed, and not in the combustion of any inflammable materials like those which exist on the earth's surface. The solid products ejected from volcanoes are composed of the different earths and alkalis; these are not simple substances, but consist of metalline bases and oxygen. Some of these metalline bases, or metalloids, (as they have been called,) instantly inflame on contact with water, and absorb the oxygen from it, whereby they are converted into earths or alkalis, having all the properties which the same bodies possess in their natural state. (See POTASSIUM.) This important discovery of sir H. Davy has been applied to explain the origin of volcanic fires. It has been supposed that the surface of the globe, formed of the different earths, may be regarded as its oxydized crust, but that the internal parts are principally composed of the metalline bases of these earths; and whenever water finds access to them, they oxydate rapidly, and inflame, and are thrown up in the form of earthy lavas, &c. giving rise to all the various phenomena attending volcanic eruptions. This hypothesis, though simple and ingenious, is not free from various objections. It is exceedingly difficult to conceive how substances so inflammable and oxydable could remain for ages in a metallic state, protected from the access of moisture. Perhaps the difficulty we feel in admitting this may arise from our having observed in the inflammation of potassium by water, that the whole was almost instantly burned and dissolved; but were we to suppose a compact mass of this substance to exist in the earth, of a mile or more in thickness, on the access of a limited quantity of water, the surface would inflame, and be reduced to an alkali, and form a crust, which would protect the internal part from inflammation. Another current of water might dissolve this crust, and again inflame the potassium. By a succession of such currents, the metalline beds in the earth may be supposed to be repeatedly inflamed, until the whole mass was oxydized, when the volcanic fires would there be for ever extinct; unless we can conceive a process of deoxydation to take place, and reduce the earths and alkalis once more to a metallic state. The currents of electric light at the north and south poles may lead us to suspect that electric agency is operative in the interior of the globe, and it would not appear contrary to analogies, were we to suppose that it may perform an important part in the process of deoxydation, and other chemical changes, which produce metalline veins, volcanic eruptions, and other geological phenomena. When the attention of philosophers was strongly drawn to the phenomena of electricity by the discovery of the Leyden phial, in the middle of the last century, it was supposed that this powerful and mysterious agent was the principal cause of the phenomena of earthquakes. Ingenious and plausible theories were framed, to explain its mode of operation, and its agency was extended to account for volcanic fires also. The quantity of electric matter evolved from volcanic smoke in the thunders and lightnings which accompanied eruptions, were supposed to indicate that the disengagement of electric matter gave rise to all the phenomena of volcanoes. It may be observed that the data on which these theories were formed was defective: the electric matter evolved from the smoke and vapour of volcanoes was the necessary effect of the sudden formation and expansion of aeriform fluids: this is rendered sensible when a single drop of water is converted into steam, and must be most powerful when immense volumes of vapour are instantly generated.

In our speculations respecting the origin of volcanic fires, it

it is important to consider whether volcanoes are accidental appendages, or necessary parts of the terrestrial system, for "were we," as Mr. Bakewell observes in his *Introduction to Geology*, "to regard volcanic craters merely as the vents for subterranean fires, a further inquiry would arise respecting the utility of these fires. We cannot suppose that the interior motions of our planet are not directed to some definite purpose, with the same wisdom and design which are displayed in the external universe. The craters of ancient volcanoes greatly exceed any that are now active; and the quantity of matter thrown out must have been commensurate with the mighty openings through which it was ejected. Now these immense volcanoes, whose craters are many square leagues in extent, had doubtless an important office to perform in the economy of nature. It cannot, therefore, be unreasonable to suppose that the earth itself contains the great laboratory and storehouse, where the materials that form its surface are prepared, and from whence they were thrown up at different times, through these vast openings, either in the state of mud, or in chemical solution, or in the form of lava, or in the comminuted state of powders or sand. The only instances we have at present of rock formations are volcanic; the vast volcanoes in America throw out torrents of mud, which form strata of some hundred square miles in extent, and of considerable depth. And according to Humboldt, the further we trace back the ancient currents of lava, the greater similarity we find between them and those rocks, which are considered as primitive. These primeval eruptions took place when our present continents were covered by the sea or by large lakes, at the bottom of which they probably spread, and enveloped the remains of animals or vegetables, which we find buried in the different strata. Long intervals of repose might allow time for the growth of other tribes of animals, which were buried in the matter of succeeding eruptions. The internal fire acting with greater or less force on the strata already formed, might occasion these dislocations and contortions so frequently observed in primary and secondary rocks." This view of the subject is consistent with that system of geology which supposes the existence of a central fire in the globe, and it assigns to that fire its use in the vast chemical laboratory of nature. The existence of numerous active or extinct volcanoes proves the existence of this fire, their connection leads us to infer the great depth at which it is placed, and the production of new land offers no obscure indication of the final cause. The causes by which this fire is called into greater activity at certain periods, will probably for ever remain unknown; but it is important to keep in mind the essential difference between combustion and ignition. A substance may remain red-hot for ages without undergoing any change, if it be deprived of air, or the presence of other substances with which it is disposed to combine; but by combustion a chemical change is produced. A mass of melted iron or lava, inclosed within the globe, might remain unchanged for any conceivable time, if protected from air or water by a solid crust of the same material; and it is only on the contact of other substances, permeating or breaking through the crust, that the common effects of fire would be produced.

Granting a sufficient final cause for the existence of fire in the earth, the fact will not be more surprising than the emission of light and heat from the sun: of the manner in which either are generated, we are profoundly ignorant, as we are also of the nature and essence of heat itself. We are equally ignorant respecting the causes which have increased or diminished the intensity of subterranean fires at certain periods, and directed them to certain parts of the earth's

surface. The variation of magnetic polarity may lead us to infer that there are regular processes taking place in the earth; and that it is not an inert mass, but a well-constructed machine, containing within it the materials and the means of its future renovation, directed by the same wisdom which guides its path in the heavens, and circulates the fluids through all the various forms of organic existence that inhabit its surface. Whether a time may arrive when the central fire, encreasing its activity, shall again reduce the present continents under its dominion, we have no natural means of ascertaining. The ancient Stoics, and many of the oriental philosophers, maintained the doctrine of the destruction and renovation of the world by fire; the sacred writers not unfrequently refer to the same event, announcing a period when "the earth shall be burned up, and the elements shall melt with fervent heat."

Dr. Hooke formerly had maintained, that all land was raised out of the sea by earthquakes; and many modern philosophers seem to admit his hypothesis, though not, perhaps, in its utmost latitude. Von Troil (*Letters on Iceland*, p. 222.) is of opinion that this island has been produced by volcanoes in the course of several centuries. Dr. Forster, in his *Observations made during a Voyage round the World*, p. 151. after giving an ingenious conjecture concerning the origin of all the tropical low lies in the South Sea, assures us, that of the higher isles there is hardly one of them which has not strong vestiges of its having undergone some violent alteration by a volcano. Some of them have volcanoes still subsisting; others, among which are Otaheite and Huahine, seem to have been elevated, in remote ages, from the bottom of the sea by subterranean fires. Sir William Hamilton is confident, that the island of Ichia, the whole basis of which is lava, rose out of the sea in the same manner as some of the Azores.

Dr. Priestley (*Obs. on Air*, vol. i. p. 263.) thinks it not improbable that the volcanoes, with which there are evident traces of almost the whole surface of the earth having been overspread, may have been the origin of our atmosphere, as well as (according to the opinion of some) of all the solid land. The superfluous phlogiston of the air, in the state in which it issues from volcanoes, may have been imbibed by the waters of the sea, which it is probable covered the surface of the earth, though part of it might have united with the acid vapour exhaled from the sea, and by this union have made a considerable and valuable addition to the common mass of air; and the remainder of this overcharge of phlogiston may have been imbibed by plants as soon as the earth was furnished with them.

The beds of lava are deepest and narrowest in the proximity of the crater, and broader and shallower as they are more distant, unless some valley intervenes; scoriae and ashes lie still more distant. From these observations extinguished volcanoes are traced. Many excellent investigations of this sort may be seen in M. Soulaivie's *History of the South of France*. For further information respecting volcanoes we refer to *ÆTNA*, *STROMBOLI*, *SYSTEMS of Geology*, *VESUVIUS*, and *VULCANO*.

Volcanic Products.—The substances thrown out of volcanoes, or found in the crater, are inflammable, saline, metallic, and earthy, without water, and may be classed as aeriform, fluid, or solid.

Aeriform Fluids.—Steam, or vapour, is frequently emitted in a quiescent state of the volcano, and is supposed to perform an important part during the most violent eruptions. Sulphuretted hydrogen gas is thrown out in great abundance from all volcanoes. Carbonic acid gas is emitted from some volcanoes in a quiescent state. Of the other gaseous or volatile

substances emitted during an active state of the volcano, we can only infer the existence from the smell or from their being found in combination with the solid products of volcanoes; the principal of these are ammoniacal gas, muriatic acid gas, and sulphureous acid gas. Probably almost every mineral substance which can be rendered volatile by heat, may be emitted in an aeriform state during violent eruptions; even the earthy matter of lavas is volatilized at a high temperature, as was proved in the experiments of Dr. Priestley and Spallanzani.

Volcanic substances fluid at a heat below 212° Fahrenheit are water, which is sometimes thrown out in torrents; and sulphuric acid, found in some volcanic water and bitumen, which has been observed exuding from lavas at Vefuvius. Sulphuric acid, that abounds in some water near volcanic mountains, is probably formed during a quiescent state of a volcano, from the combustion of sulphur in the crater, or in the upper recesses of the mountain. It is not difficult to conceive how the acid may become diffused in the rain-water, or in that from melted snow, which may permeate the porous rocks, and descend in streams from a lofty volcano.

The solid substances ejected from volcanoes, or formed by chemical combination in the crater, comprise inflammable, saline, metallic, and earthy minerals. The three former are by far the least considerable in bulk.

Sulphur is found in abundance in the craters of dormant volcanoes; its formation is attributed to the gradual decomposition of sulphuretted hydrogen gas, exhaled copiously through fissures from below. See *SOLFATERRA* and *SOLFIERE*.

Phosphorus is too inflammable to be found solid among apatite volcanic products; it is only from the white colour of the smoke, from its peculiar smell, and from its combination with lime in the mineral called apatite, found near some volcanoes, that we can infer its existence as a volcanic substance. See *APATITE*.

Solid carbon has only been found in small quantities, in concrete bitumen in some volcanic products. Carbonized wood and vegetable matter have been found occasionally in lava or tufa; in all probability they were enveloped during an eruption, and cannot therefore be regarded as volcanic substances. Carbon, in the state of mineral coal, has been supposed by M. Werner and his followers to be the principal support and cause of volcanic fires; but this opinion is destitute of all proof, and is at variance with all geological analogies.

The saline substances found in the craters of volcanoes, or formed by volcanic fire, are numerous, though not very abundant. Muriate of ammonia (sal ammoniac) forms an incrustation on many lavas soon after they cool. Muriate of soda (common salt) is found in some volcanoes in considerable quantities, even entire beds of rock-salt are found in volcanic craters, as at Pofa, near Burgos. Mount Cologero, near Sciacca, in Sicily, appears to be a volcanic mountain, impregnated throughout with common salt. Muriate of copper and of iron are found in some volcanoes, as that of Vefuvius. Sulphate of iron and sulphate of copper, or green and blue vitriol, alum, gypsum, and sulphate of magnesia may also be enumerated among the saline substances found in volcanoes. See *SULPHATE of Iron*, &c.

The metallic substances found in volcanoes, or among their products, are antimony, copper, gold, manganese, mercury, iron, tellurium, and titanium.

Antimony is found combined with sulphur.

Copper is found native, and combined with sulphur, with

iron, and with the muriatic and sulphuric acids, as before stated.

Gold is said to be found in some volcanic products, and the gold-mine of Nagyag is stated by Breislak to be placed in the crater of a volcano. There is a gold-mine in the island of Ichia, which is entirely volcanic.

Manganese exists in a small proportion combined with iron in obsidian and lava.

Mercury is found at Guanaca Velua in great quantities, and it is said the mine is situated in the crater of a volcano. M. Patrin supposes that some of the Cinnabar mines in Asia have a similar situation.

Iron is abundantly diffused through all volcanic rocks, which have a dark-brown, a black, or red colour. It forms one-eighth part of the substance of most lavas. Iron exists also in craters in the form of specular iron ore.

Tellurium is found with gold in the mines of Nagyag. See *TELLURIUM Mines*.

Titanium, combined with iron, appears, from the observations of Cordier, to be a constituent part of almost all dark-coloured volcanic rocks.

The earthy products of volcanoes consist principally of lava, obsidian, pumice, volcanic flags or scoria; with volcanic sand, tufa, and we may also enumerate the earthy tufa formed of the indurated mud thrown out of the American volcanoes. Many geologists enumerate basalt and wacke among volcanic products, which they resemble both in appearance and in the nature of their constituent parts. Various crystallized minerals are found imbedded in lava, particularly augite, crysolite, or olivine, feldspar, leucite, Vefuvian, and zeolite. (See *AUGITE*, &c.) Under the articles *Lava*, *Obsidian*, &c. are given some account of these minerals.

The stones first thrown out of volcanoes are frequently pieces of granite or other primitive rocks, either untouched or only partially changed by fire. This circumstance proves that the seat of volcanic fire is far below these rocks. Scoria or volcanic flags are generally thrown out before the eruption of lava. These flags are more or less vitrified; they sometimes take a globe form in the air, and become consolidated before they cool. These have been called volcanic bombs. Immense black clouds, consisting of pieces of scoria and minute fragments and particles, similar to the scoria, are thrown out with it. Some volcanic eruptions consist entirely of these powders or sand, which are driven to vast distances, and have been carried by currents of air more than five hundred miles from the volcano.

Vefuvius threw out scoria and powders without any lava, for many centuries after the eruption in 79 A.D.

Lava.—Currents of melted stone or lava, of twenty or thirty miles in length, from two to four miles in breadth, and from twenty to forty feet in depth, are found in volcanic districts, equalling in size some of the regular strata of the globe. The upper surface of these lavas is generally more or less vesicular and scoriaceous; and it is only where the beds have been broken or cut through, that the compact stony substance of the lava can be seen. From this circumstance alone many philosophers have been led to doubt the volcanic origin of more compact rocks; but, as M. Cordier observes, in a paper recently published, "to judge of the substance of a current of lava, from what appears on the surface, would be like judging of a vat of wine from the froth with which it was covered." The crystals imbedded in lavas were supposed by many geologists to have existed previously in the rocks which formed the lava, but were too infusible to be melted by the volcanic fire. On this erroneous supposition, they concluded that volcanic fire

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must have possessed but a low degree of heat, as the same crystals may be melted in a common furnace. The formation of crystals does not depend upon the degree of heat, but on the circumstances under which the substance cools; a long state of quiescent fluidity being as necessary to the formation of perfect crystals by igneous fusion, as it is known to be in aqueous solutions. Inattention to this circumstance has rendered many of the conclusions from the laborious researches of Spallanzani invalid. M. Cordier, an ingenious geologist in France, has devised a new mode of analysing lavas. He very properly observes, that the attention of geologists has been hitherto directed more to the imbedded crystals in lava, than to the paste or base of the lava itself; and it has been admitted, without sufficient proof, that the base of lava was either hornblende or feldspar, or a mixture of these two minerals.

On attentively examining the substance of lava and volcanic scoriae, with a very high magnifying power of the microscope, he discovered that it was not homogeneous, but consisted of a congeries of minute crystals of different minerals, which were principally similar to the larger imbedded crystals. To ascertain more decidedly the nature of these small crystals, he endeavoured to disunite them by compression, then selecting particles of the same size separated them, according to their relative density, by washing. The isolated particles were afterwards examined with the microscope, and compared with the particles of the crystals most commonly found in volcanic rocks, such as feldspar, crysolite, olivine, iron-sand, and menakanite. He commenced with the examination of compact or stony lavas, beginning with those from burning volcanoes, then proceeding to those from extinct volcanoes, and lastly to those whose volcanic origin has been doubted by geologists, such as basalt and wacke. The result of these examinations have led him to conclude, that all these rocks, from whatever district they come, are composed nearly in the same manner, and are all granular, consisting of very different distinct crystalline grains, interlaced with each other, so that all stony lavas may be regarded as minutely granitic, when viewed with the microscope. There sometimes exist minute pores between the grains, which however do not occupy one-sixtieth part of the bulk: these pores are more common in modern than in ancient lavas.

There are five sorts of these grains distinguishable by their colour; 1. white more or less transparent; 2. bottle-green; 3. black and perfectly opaque; 4. a clear brown; 5. and lastly, very small grains of reddish-brown. These five sorts of grains are susceptible of further subdivision, according to their physical or chemical properties. The white grains belong to three distinct minerals. The most common are those which melt into a white enamel; these are feldspar. The more infusible are crysolite, and those which are perfectly infusible are leucite.

According to the prevalence of feldspar, the lava possesses different characters. Those which contain from forty-five to fifty-five per cent. of feldspar, melt into a black glass, the minute edges of which are bottle-green, black, or greyish-black; basalts are of this kind.

Those lavas which contain from fifty-five to seventy per cent. of feldspar, melt into a bottle-green enamel, such are the greenish, greyish, and dark-coloured basalts.

Stony lavas, which contain ninety per cent. of feldspar, melt into a white glass. Such are the petrosiliceous or compact feldspar lavas and clink-stone.

The yellowish or greenish grains belong to augite or to hornblende, which are sometimes difficult to be distinguished from each other. According to Cordier, the grains of augite

are rounded and irregular, with a vitreous fracture and splendent lustre. The grains of hornblende are long, and assume a prismatic form: they present indications of their laminar structure, and have little lustre except in the direction of the laminae.

The greatest proportion of augite in lava is forty-five per cent. These lavas melt into a black glass. Those lavas which melt into a white glass only contain one per cent. of augite. The black opaque grains consist of titanium combined with iron, as iron-sand, *fer titané*, or as menakanite. The iron-sand contains only 0.5 of titanium, the particles have a perfect metallic lustre, and conchoidal fracture, and are attracted by the magnet. The greatest proportion in which they exist in stony lavas that melt into a black glass, is fifteen per cent. The grains of menakanite exist in a much smaller proportion, they are difficult to melt, and are not attracted by the magnet.

The grains of iron ore, *fer oligiste*, may be known by the red colour of the powder when they are pounded. These are very rare in lavas.

From an examination of a great number of lavas, it appears that there are only two prevailing minerals which compose the greater part of their base. These are augite and feldspar. All the rest are in a very small proportion; and hornblende, which has been admitted without examination into all volcanic rocks, exists but in a very few, and those are such as abound in feldspar. In the latter the crystals of hornblende, which are disseminated, are very distinct. Basaltic rocks, which have hitherto been stated to consist of hornblende and feldspar, according to Cordier, are principally composed of augite and feldspar.

Stony lavas may therefore be classed into two kinds, those which melt into a white glass, and those which melt into a black glass. The former M. Cordier denominates leucostine, the latter basalt. Leucostine comprises those substances called, by Dolomieu, *petrosiliceous lavas*; by Hauy, *compact stony feldspar*; by Karsten, *domite*, and *lava with a horn-stone base*; and by Werner, *clink-stone*. The latter comprises the ferruginous lavas of Dolomieu; the basaltic lava of Hauy, *les lavas basaltiques uniformes*; and the basalt and lava of Werner. The result of these observations confirms the similarity of composition between stony lavas of recent volcanoes and basaltic rocks, whose igneous origin has been contested.

In the same manner M. Cordier has examined the composition of volcanic scoriae and volcanic glass, volcanic cinders and tufa. These are all composed of the same substances as the stony lava.

Obsidians, or volcanic glasses, may be divided into two kinds like lava, according as they yield a black or white glass to the blow-pipe. In the vitreous paste of both may be discovered by the microscope, the same crystals as in lava, grains of feldspar are seen in those glasses which become white before the blow-pipe; grains of augite in those which melt into a black glass. In certain instances, we see the transition of obsidian into a compact black basalt, and also into pumice.

These observations of Cordier tend to establish the identity of basaltic rocks with those of volcanic origin, whilst at the same time they distinguish them from the beds of hornblende and trap, which occur in primary mountains. The latter differ in composition from basalts and lavas, and also in the nature of the imbedded crystals which they contain. All volcanic rocks, even those which appear the most homogeneous, are composed in a great part of microscopic crystals, belonging to a small number of minerals, particularly augite, feldspar, olivine, and iron-sand. Volcanic rocks

rocks of every age and country, that have flowed as lavas, or been ejected during fiery eruptions, are composed of the same mineral substances, and are different in their composition and internal structure from rocks which form the regular strata of the globe.

The external structure of lava is much diversified, owing, in all probability, to the different circumstances under which it has cooled. Some lava is porous, some contains large cavities or is vesicular, whilst other lavas are apparently compact, and assume a prismatic form. According to the observations of sir G. S. Mackenzie in Iceland, there are beds of lava of great extent, which appear never to have flowed in currents, but to have been completely fused in the situations where they occur. This lava was columnar in many places, the columns varying in size from a few inches to several feet in diameter. The surface of the lava was heaved up into large blisters and bubbles, some of which were round, and from a few feet to forty or fifty in diameter, others were long, and some were waved. A great many of the bubbles had burst, and displayed caverns of considerable depth. On this account sir G. Mackenzie denominates it *cavernous lava*. Currents of lava, which had flowed from volcanoes, covered the cavernous lava in many parts, but presented very distinct characters. In the common streams of lava, no defined approach to a columnar form was observed; but nothing was more common than the columnar structure in the cavernous lava. In some parts of Iceland were seen beds of amygdaloid, from ten to forty feet in thickness, alternating with tufa. The upper part of these beds did not indicate the action of fire, but the under part of each was a complete volcanic flag. From the situation of these beds, and other circumstances, it was inferred that they were lavas which had flowed under the sea. Some of the beds were very compact in the upper part. Another series of beds occur near Krifuvick, which was slaggy at the bottom, but so compact above as to resemble porphyry slate. Beds of very compact basalt, with the under surface slaggy, were also observed; and an extensive and beautiful range of lofty columns at Stappen present the same appearance, and have slaggy masses included in them. Sir George Mackenzie explains these appearances, by supposing the lava to have originally flowed over a cold wet surface at the bottom of the sea. An abundance of steam would constantly be produced from the upper surface, which would separate the hot lava from the water, in the same manner as a drop of water is kept detached from a plate of red-hot iron. Thus, no water could enter the substance of the lava from above, but the moisture below would operate very differently. From its conversion into steam, and the tendency to ascend, it would penetrate the fluid lava, and produce the porosity observed in the above rocks, and render the lava more or less vesicular, according to its degree of fluidity. When the lava is very hot and liquid, the steam will have less difficulty in penetrating it. In some instances it may allow the whole of the moisture to escape through it in the form of elastic vapour, so that the lava may become solid. According as the lava is more or less viscid, the steam may be more or less confined, making the stone porous or vesicular; and, lastly, the lava may be so tough, that the exertions of the elastic vapour may be confined to the lower surface of the beds. In the first case, a mass of compact stone would be formed, having no appearance of the action of fire. In the second case, the lava would form an amygdaloidal or vesicular mass. In the last case would result a mass entirely compact, except in the under-surface. (Travels in Iceland, by sir G. S. Mackenzie.) In the formation of volcanic rocks, which have

flowed as lava under the sea, very different results would take place from the formation of similar rocks on land, owing to the great difference which the superincumbent pressure of a deep volume of water would occasion; and as most of the ancient currents of lava have in all probability been originally submarine, we may expect them to vary in structure from the lavas of more recent eruptions. In the Transactions of the Royal Society of Edinburgh are several valuable papers of sir James Hall, detailing a series of the most interesting and instructive experiments on the effects of heat modified by compression. These experiments merit the profound attention of every one who would endeavour to form a just and comprehensive view of the agency of subterranean fire on the different rocks which form the crust of the globe. For the result of some of these experiments, we refer to *SYSTEMS of Geology*; but we particularly recommend our readers to peruse the original papers, which are well illustrated by a series of plates.

The minerals which line or fill the cavities of vesicular lava are principally varieties of zeolites, chalcedonies, and calcareous spar. Quartz crystals abound in some of the vesicular lavas of Lipari. All these minerals are supposed, with much probability, to be of posterior formation to the lava itself, and to derive their origin from the infiltration of water, holding the constituent parts in solution or suspension. Spallanzani conjectures that the particles are separated from the lava itself, by the decomposing effects of sulphureous acid.

Lava is subject to decomposition from atmospheric agency, according as it is more or less vitreous. Some lavas are known to have resisted all tendency to decompose for many centuries; other lavas decompose rapidly, and form a productive soil. Particular vegetables possess the property of reducing lava to vegetable mould with great rapidity. The Indian fig, or, as it is commonly called, the prickly pear, has this property in a remarkable degree. According to the account of it given by General Cockburn, in his "Travels through Sicily," this plant pulverises the hardest rocks, and forms the most luxuriant soil. The inhabitants bring a little earth to any crevice of lava, and plant a prickly pear-tree in it, which spreads and splits the rocks in about seven years. A thick plantation is thus formed, and a very little earth being added, in about ten years more the rock is pulverised for some inches deep. Vol. ii. p. 163.

Obsidian or *black volcanic glass* appears to be a vitreous modification of stony lava, produced by its sudden refrigeration. According to the observations of Cordier before stated, it may consist either of felspar or augite, as forming the principal part of the base. The volcanic origin of this mineral has been denied by some geologists without any apparent reason, except an attachment to theory; for this substance may be traced flowing from the craters of volcanoes, and passing into compact black lava or basalt, and also into white spongy pumice. Sir James Hall and Dr. Home visited a mountain in Lipari, that had escaped the attention of Dolomieu. From several openings in this mountain a stream of obsidian and pumice might be traced: they gradually passed into each other. The pumice had evidently flowed with the obsidian, as it formed the upper surface of the stream. The greatest breadth of the stream was about two miles and a half, and its length three miles. It seemed to have been produced by the last effort of the volcano. Sir G. Mackenzie discovered a stream of obsidian in Iceland, filling up a valley to the depth of thirty feet, and visible for more than two miles in extent. The surface was in many parts covered with pumice. Obsidian is found streaming from the crater of Vulcano: it exists in abundance

dance at Teneriffe, Kamtschatka, and various volcanic countries; but it is by no means so common a product as stony lava.

The objections to the volcanic origin of obsidian, founded on its loss of colour, and its tumefaction at a low degree of heat, are deprived of their force by the discoveries of Sir James Hall before mentioned. These experiments prove, that a stone, which was not fusible under a heat of thirty-eight degrees of Wedgewood's pyrometer, yields a glass that softens at fourteen degrees; and when this glass is remelted, and acquires a stony texture by slow cooling, it cannot be fused again with a less degree of heat than thirty-five degrees.

Pitch-stone (see *Pitch-Stone*), though less vitreous in its appearance than obsidian, yet, viewed by the geologist as it exists in nature, cannot be separated from it, but must be classed as a different mode of the same substance, or as vitreous lava. The base of the Peak of Teneriffe, to the plain of Ketama, is buried under scoriae and heaps of pumice reduced to powder. From thence to the summit of the mountain, or from fifteen hundred to nineteen hundred toises in height, the volcano exhibits only vitreous lavas, composed of obsidian and pitch-stone more or less porphyritic: they are of blackish-brown, often varying to the deepest olive-green; they contain large crystals of felspar. The analogy of these decidedly volcanic substances with the pitch-stone porphyries of the valley of Turbach in Saxony is, says Humboldt, very remarkable; but the latter contain quartz, which is wanting in the modern lava. When the lava changes from pitch-stone to obsidian, the colour is paler; sometimes both varieties occur in the same fragment. Among the pitch-stone and lava, near the summit, were found blocks of real greenish clink-stone porphyry, similar to the porphyry-slate of the mountain of Belin, in Bohemia. These facts further prove the connection between rocks of the trap formation and volcanic products. (See *TRAP*.) Obsidian and pitch-stone are found in Hungary, in Mexico, and in Quito, at a great distance from burning volcanoes. Pitch-stone exists abundantly in some of the Scotch Hebrides, particularly in the isle of Eigg. In South America, obsidian is scattered over the fields in angular pieces, and sometimes forms isolated rocks. The Mexicans dug obsidian in mines, and made knives, sword-blades, and razors of this mineral. The Guanches in Teneriffe made spear-heads of obsidian; it was also employed by them, and by the Mexicans, in the fabrication of mirrors and ornaments for the women. Various volcanic glasses, differing in colour and from obsidian, occur in some volcanoes, particularly that of the isle of Bourbon. These may, however, all be classed with vitreous lavas, as it appears from the experiments of M. Cordier, that the constituent parts of all are the same, being principally composed of varying proportions of augite and felspar.

Pumice (see *PUMICE*) is an abundant product of volcanoes: it may be considered as light spongy lava, under which term is comprised a great variety of volcanic substances, differing in porosity, in texture, and in colour. The term *pumice-stone* indicates a capillary or fibrous texture of lava. It appears to be the product of intense heat, operating either on lava or obsidian; the lighter coloured pumices being formed of those volcanic rocks which abound in felspar, or rather it is the elements of these rocks in a capillary form. As some obsidian swells greatly, and loses its colour by heat, it was inferred that all pumice has been formed from this mineral; but the conclusion is too general. There are numerous instances in which obsidian may be traced passing into pumice; but there are other instances in

which stony lava, abounding in felspar, may also be traced passing into pumice-stone. Some experiments made by Humboldt prove that different obsidians swell very unequally, when exposed to the moderate fire of a forge. Those from the Peak of Teneriffe, and the black varieties from Cotopaxi, increased in bulk more than five times. The red varieties from the Andes, on the contrary, were not much tumefied by heat. We have already stated instances of currents of obsidian covered with pumice, and of masses of obsidian passing into pumice; so as to leave no doubt of the formation of pumice from obsidian. Nor are there wanting instances as decisive of lava passing into pumice. This cannot, on reflection, appear surprising, as obsidian and lavas are essentially the same substances in a vitreous and stony form. Spallanzani describes a lava with a base of felspar, which is spread over a part of Lipari, rising in rocks and crags of enormous size: it is of a grey colour. On attentively examining this lava, the gradual transition into pumice may be distinctly perceived. It is not uncommon to find masses of this lava, which on one side retain the character of felspar, and on the other are changed into white pumice, exactly resembling that of Campo Bianco in colour, lightness, structure, and other characters. Some of the white pumices of Campo Bianco are so compact, that the smallest pore is not visible to the eye; but when viewed through a lens with a strong light, they resemble an irregular accumulation of flakes of ice: their compactness, however, does not prevent their swimming on water. Other pumices were full of pores and vacuities of a larger size, and their texture is formed by filaments arranged parallel to each other, and of a silvery whiteness: both these varieties may sometimes be seen in the same stone; hence we may infer that the difference arises from the action of elastic fluids producing different degrees of dilatation, when the mass was in a fluid state. There is a black pumice in Lipari, composed of parallel filaments, that all lie in one direction, which is that of the bed descending from the mountain to the sea. This, says Spallanzani, may be considered as a true current of pumice. The black colour he supposed to proceed from some bituminous substance, as a strong smell of bitumen is emitted, when two pieces of this pumice are rubbed together. The black colour was entirely lost by exposure to heat for some time in the furnace, which reduced it to a vitreous paste. Humboldt conjectures that the dark colour of some obsidians is caused by a hydruret of carbon.

Nature, says Humboldt, probably employs different means to produce the spongy and vitreous pumices of Teneriffe, the pumices with parallel fibres from the Lipari islands, and the capillary vitrifications of the isles of Bourbon, which sometimes resemble a spider's web. These differences probably consist in the different degrees of heat, in the different pressure under which the fire acts, and in the nature of the rocks altered by it. Above all, says the same traveller, the pressure which obsidians undergo in their fusion, explains why these substances, with some exceptions, are never found whitened. Those pumices, which have the appearance of having been formed at great depths, are fibrous, and of a silky lustre. Blocks of this kind on the Andes, of eight or ten toises in length, have the fibres exactly parallel with each other, and perpendicular to the direction of the beds. Several volcanoes do not throw out any pumice; and those that do, eject them only by their crater after the flowing of the lavas.

Volcanic Sand.—The white powders which have been called ashes are generally thrown out the last, and indicate the end of the eruption; they consist entirely of white pumice ground to powder. The black powders issue the first, and, being

VOLCANO.

being driven with greater force, are carried to a greater distance from the mountain. These powders are called by the Italians black and white rapilli.

Volcanic scoria or *flags* differ from pumice by their greater density; they are properly masses of cellular lava, and are more or less vitreous or stony, according to the degree of heat to which they have been subjected, and the circumstances under which they have cooled. The upper part of modern currents of lava, that have flowed in contact with the atmosphere, are generally composed of scoriae. The composition of scoriae is the same as that of lava, and varies with the different lavas from which it is formed.

Volcanic tufa appears to be formed of the loose sand or powders, together with the smaller fragments thrown out of volcanoes, which are spread over the surface of the ground, and afterwards become partly consolidated by water and pressure. In all submarine volcanoes, these powders must be mixed with water as soon as they are discharged from the mouth of the crater, and must therefore fall as a muddy sediment over the bed of the ocean, and form strata of tufa of greater or less extent according to the quantity of matter ejected. The materials of which the powders are formed, may also have been mixed with water in the deep recesses of the volcano, and have been discharged in torrents of mud like those which issue from the American volcanoes. In this way beds of tufa of great extent have probably been formed, and as they sometimes take the same shape as the original inequalities of the ground, it has been supposed that they have flowed as lavas. Spallanzani describes a bed of tufa in Lipari which covers the surface of the hills and valleys nearly equally; but it would be difficult to conceive how a stream of mud could ascend a hill, were it ever so tenacious. If the matter were deposited from the turbid waves of the ocean, we should have no difficulty in accounting for its present appearance, and also for the stratification of tufa alternating with beds of lava. Volcanic tufa, in its more indurated state, is used as building stone; soft or incoherent tufa has received the names of *puzzolana*, *tarras*, &c. See *PUZZOLANA*.

Volcanic tufa composes the principal soil of many volcanic districts. A great part of mount Etna and the mountains on its sides are composed of this tufa.

Hills of tufa, according to sir G. Mackenzie, invariably accompany lava in Iceland. Whole ranges of mountains are formed of it, and wherever eruptions have occurred, these hills of tufa may be seen. It closely resembles the tufa of Sicily and Italy. The tufa of Iceland often alternates with submarine lava, and then it invariably includes masses of lava and flags, more or less rounded by the action of water. The beds of tufa are sometimes not less than forty feet in thickness. When tufa alternates with beds of amygdaloid trap and greenstone, it includes masses of these substances. The submarine lavas which alternate with tufa, are always above the beds of trap and greenstone alternating with the same substance. Sir G. Mackenzie conjectures that they are all the products of submarine volcanoes, but that the beds of trap and greenstone were first erupted at a greater depth under the sea, and under a greater compressive force; to which cause the difference in their structure from that of the upper beds is to be attributed; hence the lower beds, being more compressed and compact, have lost the appearance of the immediate action of fire which is so visible in the cellular lava and flags nearer the surface. Mountains of tufa, one thousand feet in height, occur in Iceland, and even whole mountain ranges are composed of the same material; in these there is no appearance of regularity, but all the mass is heaped up in confusion. The pre-

vailing colour of the paste of this tufa is yellow; and, in a description given by Mr. Stephenson of an eruption from one of the Icelandic volcanoes, called the Kattlagian Jokul, we have an instance of its actual formation. "The sand which fell afterwards united, and covered the meadows with a yellow-coloured crust, quite compact."

The mud thrown out of the American volcanoes, when indurated, may be classed with tufa; but besides the earthy ingredients, it contains a portion of carbonaceous and saline matter. To some intermixture of this kind, the fertilizing properties, ascribed to the fine sand or powder recently ejected from the volcano at St. Vincent's, may perhaps be attributed.

Puzzolana and *tarras* are those soft tufas which are ferruginous, and possess the property of consolidating under water when mixed with lime as a cement. This property is derived from the iron, and is common to many of the argillaceous limestones of England that abound in iron.

From the experiments and observations of M. Cordier before stated, it appears that the different earthy products of volcanoes, whether as stone in the form of compact, vesicular, or amygdaloid lavas, or in a state of perfect vitrification as obsidian, or less perfectly vitrified, as scoriae, or in the earthy form of wacke or volcanic tufa, or in beds of sand formed of minute detached grains or particles, are all composed principally of augite and felspar in different proportions.

This view of the subject tends greatly to simplify our knowledge of volcanic products, as all the earthy masses and rocks ejected from volcanoes, however differing in structure, density, and colour, are to be regarded only as different aggregations of the same mineral substances, modified by the various effects of heat and compression, and the operation of these causes to which they have been subjected since their first eruption.

Various rocks which have been classed under the unscientific denominations of fletz trap rocks and greenstone are also composed of the same mineral substances aggregated in a similar manner; hence we may infer that they have had a similar origin. These rocks are very extensively spread both in volcanic districts, and in countries remote from any active volcanoes; they serve as monuments to elucidate the natural history of the globe, and to mark the boundaries of the ancient dominion of fire over the present continents.

VOLCANOES in the Moon. Dr. Herschel, now so well known and universally celebrated, on account of his various astronomical observations, discovered, on the fourth of May, 1783, a burning volcano in the moon. This discovery confirms the conjectures formed by M. *Æpinus*, in 1778, and published in a memoir printed at Berlin in 1781, concerning the volcanic origin of the inequalities in the moon's surface. Similar ideas occurred to professor Beccaria, of Turin, nearly at the same time, and also to professor Lichtenberg, of Göttingen. The nephew of professor Beccaria discovered, Oct. 11, 1772, a luminous spot on the moon, during its total eclipse of that night, in or near the place marked Copernicus; and from this time the professor mentioned this observation in his public lectures, as an evidence that the round cavities on the surface of the moon were so many craters of distinct volcanoes; adding, that he considered those bright radiations, or bright paths, which are observed particularly on the place of the moon marked Tycho, as so many torrents of the lava, which spouted off in some former conflagration of a volcano.

The reader may see this account, given by the professor himself, in a letter concerning the luminous appearance observed by don Olloa on the moon, during the total eclipse of the

the sun, June 24, 1778; in which he maintains, that such a luminous spot was an actual burning volcano, and not a real hole through the mafs of the moon, as Don Ulloa asserted it to be. This letter is inferted in the *Journal de Physique* for the month of June, 1781. M. *Æpinus* observes, that the opinion of volcanoes in the moon was first suggested by Dr. Hooke, in his *Micrographia*, printed at London in 1665; in the twentieth chapter of which work he speaks at large concerning this opinion.

Dr. Herschel, on the 4th of May, 1783, discovered two small conical mountains in the very same spot where he had observed the volcano: these are situated in the Mons Porphyrites of Hevelius, just by a third mountain, much larger, which Dr. Herschel had often observed before. (See *Gent. Mag.* for August, 1784, p. 563, &c.) On the 19th of April, 1787, the same ingenious and indefatigable observer discovered three volcanoes in different places of the dark part of the new moon. Two of them were nearly extinct, or in a state ready to break out. The third shewed an actual eruption of fire, or luminous matter. From another observation he infers, that the diameter of this volcano cannot be less than $3''$, and that the diameter of its burning part is equal to at least twice that of the third satellite of Jupiter, with which it was compared. Hence the shining or burning matter is computed to be above three miles in diameter. *Phil. Transf.* vol. lxxvii. part i. p. 230.

VOLCHOVA, in *Geography*, a river of Russia, which rises in the Ilmen lake, and runs into lake Ladoga, at Nov Ladoga.

VOLCHOVSKOI, a town of Russia, in the government of Tobolsk; 32 miles E. of Surgut.

VOLCI, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Italy, in the interior of Etruria. *Ptol.*

VOLCI. See **VOLSCI**.

VOLCIANI, or **VOLSIANI**, a people of Hispania Citerior, celebrated on account of the determined reply which they made to the Roman ambassadors, when they solicited them to renounce their alliance with the Carthaginians.

VOLCKACH, in *Geography*, a town of the duchy of Wurzburg, on the Maine; 11 miles N.E. of Wurzburg. N. lat. $49^{\circ} 54'$. E. long. $10^{\circ} 14'$.

VOLCKERSBERG, a town of Westphalia, in the bishopric of Fulda; 12 miles S. of Fulda.

VOLCKMANNSDORF, a town of Silesia, in the principality of Neisse; 6 miles E. of Neisse.

VOLCONDA, a town of Hindoostan, in the Carnatic; 95 miles S. of Arcot. N. lat. $11^{\circ} 10'$. E. long. $79^{\circ} 10'$.

VOLCZINCY, a town of European Turkey, in Macedonia; 25 miles W. of Orhei.

VOLENGO, a town of Italy; 23 miles W. of Mantua.

VOLERIUS, in *Ancient Geography*, a river of Corsica, whose mouth was on the northern coast. *Ptolemy*.

VOLERY, a great bird-cage, so large that the birds have room to fly up and down in it.

VOLGA, in *Geography*, a river of Russia, sometimes called by ancient writers *Rha*, and sometimes *Araxis*, is denominated by the Tartars *Idel*, *Adal*, or *Edel*, denoting plenty, and by the Moravians is still called *Rha*. It is formed by two streams, one issuing from lake Seliger, in the government of Tver; the other from a smaller lake, eight miles from lake Seliger, which unite together, N. lat. $56^{\circ} 40'$. E. long. $51^{\circ} 20'$. Its waters issue from several lakes in the Valdai frontier mountains. After their union, the river then takes a south-east course to Zobitsov; it then changes to north-east, passes Staritz, Tver, and Mologa; near which last place it changes its course to south-east, passes

Jaroslavl, or Yaroslaf, Kostroma, Penza, and Kazan; after which its course is more south, passing by Spask, Simbirsk, Samara, &c. At Samara it inclines a little to the west, passing by Sizaran, Chvalinsk, Volk, Kurdiom, Saratof, Kamitichin, Tzaritzin, &c.; at Tzaritzin it takes its course south-east, and passing by Tchernoiyar, and a number of other towns, forts, &c. in the governments of Tver, Yaroslaf, Kostroma, Nishney-Novgorod, Kazan, Simbirsk, Saratof, and Caucasus; it enters the Caspian sea at Astrachan, by several large mouths, two only of which are navigable for vessels of 150 tons. It is said to distribute itself into 70 branches, and to form a multitude of islands before its discharge into the Caspian. This is supposed to be the largest river in Europe, and in its course of 4000 versts, is joined by many other rivers; a canal is made from it to the Neva, which opens a navigable communication between the Caspian sea and the Baltic.

The Volga pursues its course through many fertile regions, and in the inferior part of it, passes by beautiful forests of oak. It very much overflows in the spring, and is then navigable in certain parts, which at other times are not navigable. Its chief navigation commences at Tver. It has no cataracts, nor other dangerous places; and it is said to become shallower from time to time, so as to afford reason for apprehending that it will cease to be navigable for vessels of any tolerable size. It abounds with fish, particularly sterlet, sturgeon, &c. The principal rivers which join it in its course are the *Kamma* and the *Okka*; which see respectively.

The Volga teems with a vast variety of fish, which not only supplies the parts adjacent, but the greater part of the empire, with the several sorts of sturgeons, with kaviar, and with an incredible number of different kinds of smaller fish. This store of wealth, which no other river in Europe possesses in an equal degree, induces the countrymen about the Volga to neglect agriculture, and to devote themselves to the fishery. Among the fish peculiar to the Volga, which seldom or never come into the collateral rivers, are the beluga, the sturgeon, the sterlet, the fevruga, the falmon, and white falmon. But of all the fish of the Volga, the several kinds of sturgeons, and the white falmon (*falmo nelma*), are the best. The beluga is from 20 to 25 spans in length, and weighs between 30 and 45 poods. Sturgeons are from 5 to 8 spans long, and from 20 pounds to 2 poods in weight; the fevruga holds the middle station between the beluga and the sturgeon; the red falmon is observed here only in the two last months of the year, and then but seldom; the white falmon swim against the stream in great numbers, from the beginning of January to some time in July; both these are from 3 to 5 spans long, and at most weigh 30 pounds. The barbel is often larger and heavier, and the sturgeons the largest after the beluga. Of all the subordinate rivers that fall into the Volga, the *Kamma* is the wealthiest in fish, and the fish of the *Kamma* are held to be the best favoured of all in Russia; at least its sturgeon, sterlet, and white falmon, are preferable to those of the Volga. Besides these three kinds, a principal fish of the *Kamma* is a small falmon, called in Rus *Krasnaya rebra*, red or beautiful fish (*falmo erio*, or *falmo alpinus*), commonly $1\frac{1}{2}$ or 2 arshins long. There is scarcely any place in the world where such a variety of contrivances and instruments are used for the capture of fish as on the Volga, and particularly in the confines of Astrachan. These inventions may be reduced to three, one comprising the fish-weirs, or *utshiguis*, the second the angle, and the third the net. The *utshiguis* are various; but the sort most in use is that called *Saboika*. In the lower regions of the Volga, a fish-trap called *gorodba* is generally employed;

ployed; consisting of a weir carried across the stream, and provided with several chambers, in which the fish are caught. The utshiugs are generally constructed only in the territory of Astrachan, where the fishery on the Volga is a very important object of industry and traffic. The Tartarian word utshiug properly signifies that kind of dam called Saboika; but at present it implies a whole fishing station, usually much larger than a vataga. (See FISHERY and CASPIAN SEA.) Every utshiug, besides a number of buildings appropriate to it, has also a church and dwelling-house, for the labourers and their families. Since the year 1763, these utshiugs have been granted to the merchants of Astrachan, in consideration of a small tribute; and the revenues are managed by what is called the fish-comptoir, the directors and members of which are elected from the body of Astrachan burghers. The profits, after deducting the very moderate tribute to the crown, must be divided in equal portions among the merchants; but by several reports it appears, that the fish-comptoir are so arrogant and arbitrary in their proceedings, that the generous abandonment of her prerogative by the late emperors, who intended that the benefit should extend over the whole, is only advantageous to certain privileged persons, who enrich themselves at the common expense. Besides the actual inhabitants of Astrachan, who are employed in the fishery, every spring about 10,000 fishing-canoes come thither, having in each at least two people, so that the number of strangers who follow this trade at Astrachan far exceeds 20,000. Tooke's Russia, vol. iii.

VOLGAIC COSSACKS. See COSSACKS.

VOLGANSK, a town of Russia, in the government of Charkov, on the Donetz; 40 miles N.E. of Charkov.

VOLGIVOD, a river of Russia, which rises near Bachmut, in the government of Ekaterinoflav, and runs into the Dnieper, 12 miles above Ekaterinoflav.

VOLHYNIA, a palatinate of Russian Poland, bounded on the north by the palatinate of Brzesc, on the east by Kiev, on the south by the palatinate of Kamienec, and on the west by the palatinates of Chelm and Belz; about 180 miles in length, and from 80 to 120 in breadth. This country is so fertile, as to supply the inhabitants with a large surplus of grain; rosemary, asparagus, &c. grow wild in the woods, and can scarcely be distinguished from those cultivated in the gardens. Volhynia was annexed to Poland in a diet held at Lublin in 1659. The Tartars, besides a great booty, carried off 30,000 persons out of this country, to be sold as slaves, in the year 1618. It is now added to Russia.

VOLI, in *Ancient Geography*, a people of Africa, in Mauritania Tingitana. Ptol.

VOLIBA, a town of Great Britain, assigned by Ptolemy to the Daemonii, or Dunnoii. It is placed by Camden and Baxter at Grampound; but Horley thinks it was situated at Lestwithel.

VOLISSO, in *Geography*, a sea-port town on the west coast of the island of Scio, said to take its name from Belisarius, called there "Velisarius," who built the castle. It is situated at the side of a hill, about two miles from the sea. It has a large bay, but no harbour. N. lat. 38° 27'. E. long. 25° 56'.

VOLUTION, the act of willing. See WILL.

VOLITIVE THINKING. See THINKING.

VOLKAMERIA, in *Botany*, was dedicated by Linnaeus to the memory of Dr. John George Volkamer, a distinguished physician, and professor of medicine, at Nuremberg, who was born May 7th, 1662, and died June 8th, 1744. He published, in 1700, a very rich descriptive cata-

logue, in quarto, with many good plates, of the native as well as cultivated plants known in that neighbourhood, with the title of *Flora Noribergensis*. He was the botanical correspondent of Tournefort, Boerhaave, Sherard, Trimmetti, Commelin, and other eminent men of his time, and has been recently commemorated by his countrymen the Panzers, in an academical dissertation, printed at Nuremberg in 1802.—Linn. Gen. 325. Schreb. 425. Willd. Sp. Pl. v. 3. 383. Mart. Mill. Dict. v. 4. Ait. Hort. Kew. v. 5. 62. Juss. 107. Lamarck Illustr. t. 544. Gært. t. 56. (Duglaffia; Reliq. Hoult. t. 13.)—Class and order, *Didymia Angiospermia*. Nat. Ord. *Perfonate*, Linn. *Viticeae*, Juss. Gen. *Verbenaceae*, Juss. in Ann. du Mus. v. 7. 63. Brown Prodr. 510.

Gen. Ch. Cal. Perianth inferior, of one leaf, turbinate, with five, nearly equal, acute segments. Cor. of one petal, ringent. Tube cylindrical, twice the length of the calyx. Limb flat, in five deep, nearly equal, reflexed segments, all nearly turned one way, and most widely separated at the upper side. Stam. Filaments four, thread-shaped, very long, at the gaping side of the corolla; anthers simple. Pist. Germen superior, quadrangular; style thread-shaped, nearly the length of the filaments; stigma cloven, one segment acute, more conspicuous than the other. Peric. Berry roundish, of two cells. Seeds. Nuts solitary, furrowed, each of two cells, with two kernels.

Eff. Ch. Calyx five-cleft. Corolla with a cylindrical tube, and deeply five-cleft limb, rather turned to one side. Stamens prominent, ascending. Berry with two bilocular seeds.

Obf. This genus ought probably, as Mr. Brown observes, to be sunk in *CLERODENDRUM*, (see that article,) to which he has in Ait. Hort. Kew. removed all our garden species, except one, not without a just expression of doubt respecting that also. The only pretended distinctions are, 1st, the segments of the corolla being turned one way, not equally spreading; and, 2d, the Berry having two seeds, each with two cells, instead of four seeds, each of one cell. The species we are about to describe, however, having this character in the fruit at least, and being the original *Volkameria*, may as well be retained as such. Several of the others, popularly placed along with it, we have long ago found to have the characters of *Clerodendrum* altogether.

1. *V. aculeata*. Prickly Volkameria. Linn. Sp. Pl. 889. Willd. n. 1. Ait. n. 1. Jacq. Amer. 185. t. 117. (*Clerodendrum* n. 1; Browne Jam. 262. t. 30, not t. 20. f. 2. *Ligustrum aculeatum*, fructu testiculato; Plum. Ic. 156. t. 164. f. 2, not f. 1.)—Native of the West Indies. Browne speaks of it as one of the most common plants in the low lands of Jamaica, in a dry gravelly soil. Miller cultivated this shrub before the year 1739. Mr. Aiton says it flowers in the stove from August to October. The bushy stem is five or six feet high, with round rather warty branches; the ultimate ones often whorled; and all beset with short sharp prickles, originating in the permanent bases of last year's footstalks. Leaves opposite, stalked, lanceolate, bluntnish, entire, an inch and a half or two inches long, nearly smooth; paler and minutely dotted beneath. Stalks axillary, three-flowered, a little downy. Corolla cream-coloured, with purple flaments. Willdenow has three errors of the prefs among the synonyms of this species, all copied from Linnaeus, in the references to three common books, which he ought surely to have examined.

Some species referred to *Clerodendrum*, particularly *V. inermis* of Linnaeus; as also *V. ligustrina* of Willdenow; so nearly agree in habit with the above plant, that we cannot but mistrust any generic distinction which separates them.

VOLKA-

VOLKAMERIA, in *Gardening*, furnishes plants of the exotic tree kind, among which the species cultivated are, the prickly volkammeria (*V. aculeata*); and the ovate-leaved smooth volkammeria (*V. inermis*).

The first is a rather tall spiny shrubby plant.

And the second sort has much the same appearance, but more white, and without spines.

Method of Culture.—These plants are increased by cuttings, which should be planted in pots filled with light good mould in the summer season, plunging them in a moderate hot-bed, covering them close with hand-glasses. When they are well rooted, they should be removed into separate small pots, replanting them in the hot-bed till they are fresh rooted; then gradually inure them to the open air in warm weather, continuing them in warm sheltered situations in the open air till the approach of frosts, when they must be taken into the house, where there is a moderate heat. They will not succeed in a common green-house.

They afford ornament among other more hardy stove-plants in pots.

VOLKENMARCK, or *Volkel Markt*, in *Geography*, a town of the duchy of Carinthia, on the north side of the Drave; 12 miles E. of Clagenfurt. N. lat. 46° 41'. E. long. 12° 20'.

VOLKERODE, a town of Germany, in the principality of Gotha; 20 miles N. of Gotha.

VOLKMARSEN, or *VOLMARSHHEIM*, a town of the duchy of Westphalia; 18 miles S.E. of Paderborn. N. lat. 51° 23'. E. long. 9° 8'.

VOLL, a town of Norway, in the province of Aggerhuus, on the Glomme; 50 miles N.E. of Christiania.

VOLLENAY, a town of France, in the department of the Côte d'Or; 3 miles S.W. of Beaune.

VOLLENHOVEN, a town of Holland, and capital of a district, in the department of Overissel, situated near the Zuyder See. It is not large, but carries on a considerable trade. N. lat. 52° 44'. E. long. 5° 41'.

VOLLEY, a military salute, made by discharging a great number of fire-arms at the same time.

VOLLORE, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Puy de Dôme; 5 miles S.S.E. of Thiers.

VOLMAR, a town of Russia, in the government of Riga; 56 miles N.N.E. of Riga. N. lat. 57° 36'. E. long. 25° 14'.

VOLME, a river which rises about eight miles south of Lunfchede, in the county of Mark, and joins the Roer, 4 miles S.W. of Schwiert.

VOLMER, a town of the principality of Culmbach; 3 miles S.E. of Berneck.

VOLMESTEIN, a town of Germany, in the county of Mark; 8 miles S.W. of Schwiert.

VOLMUNSTER, a town of France, in the department of the Moselle; 9 miles E. of Sarguemine.

VOLO, a sea-port town of European Turkey, in Thesfaly, situated in a gulf, to which it gives name; 38 miles N.W. of Larissa. N. lat. 39° 28'. E. long. 23° 12'.

VOLO, in *Antiquity*, a name which the Romans gave the slaves who, in the second Punic war, offered themselves to serve in the army, upon a want of a sufficient number of citizens.

The name *volos*, *volones*, they are said to have had from their offering themselves voluntarily. Festus says, it was after the battle of Cannæ that this happened. Macrobius, Sat. lib. i. cap. 2. places it before that battle.

Capitolinus tells us, that Marcus Aurelius formed troops, or legions, of slaves, which he called *voluntarii*; and that the like forces, in the second Punic war, had been called

volones. But before M. Aurelius, Augustus had given the name *voluntarii* to forces which he had raised out of *liberti*, or freedmen; as we are assured by Macrobius, Sat. lib. i. cap. 2.

The *volones* were afterwards called *evocati*.

VOLOGDA, in *Geography*, a city of Russia, and capital of a government, on the river Suchona, near lake Kubenskoe, the see of an archbishop. This city contains about 1700 houses, and a great many churches. The principal trade is in hemp, matting, Russia leather, and tallow; 320 miles S. of Archangel. N. lat. 59° 10'. E. long. 40° 14'.

VOLOGESIA, a town of the Arabian Irak, and pachalic of Bagdat, built by Vologufa, one of the Parthian kings, contemporary with Nero and Vespasian, and mentioned by the ancient geographers as an inconsiderable place; but since the death of Houssein, the son of Ali, by Fatima, the daughter of the prophet, who was slain near it, and is here interred, it has increased in magnitude, and become more famous from the numerous bodies of pilgrims of the sect of Ali, who continually flock to it from all quarters, but in particular from Persia, to pay their devotions at the shrine. It is now large and populous, and called "Kerbela," or "Mehed-Houssein," situated 7 fursangs N.W. of Hilleh, the scite of ancient Babylon, at the extremity of a very noble canal drawn from the Euphrates. The environs of the town and borders of the canal are shaded by extensive plantations of palm-trees; and the walks, which are upwards of two miles in circumference, have lately been repaired, to secure the riches of the holy city against the predatory incursions of the Wahabees, by whom it was plundered some years ago. Kerbela has five gates, a well-supplied bazaar, and seven khans or caravanseras; but the chief, and, indeed, only ornaments of the city are the tomb of Houssein, which is adorned with a lofty cupola, gilded by Nadir Shah, and a noble mosque, consecrated to the memory of Abbas, the half-brother of the Imam. Although Mehed-Houssein is subject to the Turks, the inhabitants are for the most part Persians. The canal of Kerbela, or Nahr Sares, though it now bears the name of Housseini, is more ancient than the days of Alexander, and is supposed at one time to have been connected with Bahr Wijnji. The modern town of Hilleh stands on the banks of the Euphrates, in N. lat. 32° 25', and about 54 miles from Bagdat; covering a very small portion of the space occupied by the ancient capital of Assyria. See **BYBLON**. Kinneir's Geog. Mem. of the Persian Empire.

VOLOGINA, a town of Russia, in the government of Irkutsk; 40 miles S.W. of Kirensk.

VOLOGODSKOI, a government of Russia, which includes the province of Ulitrug; bounded on the north by the government of Archangel, on the east by the government of Tobolsk, on the south by the governments of Perm, Viatka, Kostroma, and Jaroslavl or Yaroslaf, and on the west by the governments of Olonetz and Novgorod; rather more than 600 miles in length, and about 240 in breadth. N. lat. 58° 30' to 65° 20'. E. long. 39° to 59°.

VOLOGZANOVA, a town of Russia, in the government of Irkutsk; 18 miles N. of Ilmisk.

VOLONE, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Italy, in Samnium.

VOLONE, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Lower Alps; 6 miles S.S.E. of Sisteron.

VOLOUSKA, a town of Ithria; 15 miles N. of Laurana.

VOLPI, **GIANANTONIO**, in *Biography*, an elegant Latin poet, was descended from a noble family, and born at Como in 1514. Having studied jurisprudence in the university of

Pavia, and pursued it with reputation at his native place; with a view to preferment, he visited Rome; but disappointed in his expectations, he returned to Como, and succeeded Bernardine della Croce, bishop of the church in 1559, the offices of which station he assiduously discharged for 30 years, until his death in 1588. His poems were collected, and published at Padua in 1725. They have been much praised for their elegance, and in the satires he is said to have happily imitated the style of Horace. Gen. Biog.

VOLPIANO, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Po; 9 miles N.E. of Turin.

VOLSAS SINUS, in *Ancient Geography*, a bay mentioned by Ptolemy, situated on the northern side of Great Britain: it is Loch-bay, in Rosshire.

VOLSBACH, in *Geography*, a town of the bishopric of Bamberg; 3 miles N.E. of Weisfenfeld.

VOLSCI, or **VOLCI**, in *Ancient Geography*, a people of Italy, in Latium. They were descended from the ancient Ofci: they had among them Coriolanus in the year 264; and in the year 310 they submitted to the Romans. Their territory lay from the sea of Antium as far as the source of the Liris, and beyond it. The extent of their country induced Mela to distinguish it from Latium, from which it was actually separated.

VOLSINENSIS or **VULSINENSIS Lacus**, a lake of Italy, in Etruria, according to Pliny. He speaks vaguely and unphilosophically of two floating islands, the form of which was occasionally changed by the winds into triangular and round. Upon it, however, was one island, called the isle of S. Giacomo, to which the princefs Amalfouth, queen of the Goths, was exiled by Theodotus, who in a few days caused her to be strangled, A.D. 534.

VOLSK, in *Geography*, a town of Russia, in the government of Saratov, on the Volga; 76 miles N.E. of Saratov. N. lat. 52° 15'. E. long. 47° 44'.

VOLTA, a town of Asiatic Turkey, on the fourth coast of Natolia. N. lat. 36° 46'. E. long. 27° 16'.—Also, a town of Italy, in the department of the Mincio; 10 miles N. of Mantua.

VOLTA, or *Rio Volta*, a river of Africa, which separates the Gold Coast from the Slave Coast, and runs into the Atlantic, N. lat. 5° 50'. W. long. 45°.

VOLTA, in the *Italian Music*, shews that the part is to be repeated one, two, or more times, according to the numeral adjective joined with it: thus, *si replica una volta*, intimates to play that part once over again.

VOLTA is also a sort of dance of Italian origin, in which the man turns the woman several times, and then assists her to make a leap or jump. It is a species of galliard.

VOLTAGGIO, or **OTTAGIO**, in *Geography*, a town of the Ligurian republic; 15 miles N. of Genoa.

VOLTAIRE, MARIE FRANÇOIS AROUET DE, in *Biography*, was born at Chatenay, near Paris, in the year 1694, and in his earliest youth indicated a partial fondness for verse, which was cherished by the recital of La Fontaine's fables. He was also constrained to commit to memory a poem, entitled "La Moissade," and thus he is said to have imbibed a prepossession against the Mosaic history. In pursuing his literary education at the Jesuits' college of Louis-le-Grand, he had for his preceptor father Porée; and at the age of 12, distinguished himself by compositions above his years. The celebrated Ninon de l'Enclos, to whom he was presented, left him a legacy of 2000 livres, which he destined for a juvenile library. Dissatisfied with law, for the profession of which his father designed him, he devoted his whole attention to poetry, which was rendered invincible by a society of wits and Epicureans, into which he was admitted. His father made an attempt to divert him from his

favourite pursuit, by sending him as a page in the suite of the marquis de Chateaneuf, ambassador from France to Holland; but falling in love with the daughter of Mad. du Noyer, a refugee, he was sent back to Paris, and excluded from his father's house. In this pitiable situation he was taken under the protection of M. de Caumartin, his father's friend; and at his country-house he had the advantage of conversing with the elder Caumartin, who inspired him with his own enthusiastic admiration of Henry IV. and Sully. He still indulged his disposition for writing lampoons; and for one of these, aimed at the government, he was imprisoned for a year in the Bastille. At this time he had composed his tragedy of "Œdipe," which was brought on the stage in 1718, and much applauded. The regent was also highly pleased with it, and granted him permission to return to Paris, after his release from the Bastille. His father, much interested in his favour by attending at one of the representations of his tragedy, was reconciled to him, and gave up all thoughts of making him a lawyer. At Brussels, which he visited in 1722, he became acquainted with the poet Rousseau; but in consequence of this interview, they became enemies for life. On his return, his "Mariamne" was exhibited, and did not succeed. In 1726 he was again lodged in the Bastille, in consequence of a quarrel with the chevalier de Rohan; and obtained liberation, after a confinement of six months, upon condition of leaving the kingdom. England was the country of his choice, and he brought with him his poem of the "Henriade." It was printed in London by subscription, patronized by king George I. and Caroline princefs of Wales, and yielded a profit which laid the foundation of his fortune. His manners, however, did not suit those of England, and his conversation was unsufferably licentious. Having obtained permission to return to France in 1728, he put his money into a lottery, and engaged in other lucrative speculations, and thus amassed a large capital, which he augmented by his economy. His tragedy of "Brutus," brought on the stage in 1730, was not very popular; and as his dramatic reputation was ambiguous, he was advised by Fontenelle and La Motte to abandon this species of composition, alleging that it was not adapted to his genius. His reply was the production of his "Zaïre," which was regarded as the most affecting piece on the French stage, after the "Phedre" of Racine. On account of his "Lettres Philosophiques," he was considered as an avowed enemy to revelation and ecclesiastical authority; and the parliament of Paris issued a decree, which ordered his work to be committed to the flames, and his person to be arrested. Upon this he quitted the capital, and retired to Cyrci, near Vassé, in Champagne, the seat of the marquis du Chatelet, where they employed themselves in making experiments, and where Voltaire wrote his "Elements of the Newtonian Philosophy." He also continued to write tragedies, so that his "Alzire" appeared in 1736, and his "Mahomet" in 1741; but the latter, charged with being an attack upon religion, was withdrawn from the stage. His "Merope," exhibited in 1743, was received with the greatest applause. Before this time he had made his peace at court by a political service, which it is not necessary for us to relate; and he farther ingratiated himself with the royal family by his piece for the festivities on the marriage of the Dauphin, entitled "La Princesse de Navarre." Received at court, he became gentleman of the chamber in ordinary, and historiographer of France; and, under the latter character, drew up his history of the war of 1741, which then subsided. He also engaged in other courtly offices, and wrote the manifesto of the French court in favour of the Pretender, on his expedition to Scotland. In 1746 he was admitted into the French

French academy. In consequence of urgent invitations on the part of the king of Prussia, and assurance of a pension of 22,000 livres, with other benefits, he arrived at Potsdam in June, 1750; and was received by the king with the most flattering tokens of respect. Here it was his practice to spend two hours in the day with his majesty, during which he employed himself in correcting his works; and the rest of his time was at his own disposal. His tranquillity, however, was soon interrupted, on occasion of a dispute between Maupertuis and Koenig; for though the king desired him not to interfere, he took part against Maupertuis, and Frederick sent him his dismissal. During his absence on a visit to the dukes of Saxe-Gotha, Maupertuis, as he says, used his influence to lower him in the king's estimation; and, therefore, instead of returning to Berlin, he proceeded towards France; but at Frankfort he was arrested by the king's order, and obliged to restore his poems, with which he had been intrusted for correction, together with his key, cross, and the brevet for his pension. It was now his wish to reside at Paris; but he could not obtain permission for this purpose, as he had published a very indecent and licentious poem, "La Pucelle d'Orléans," which had raised a violent outcry against him; and, therefore, after a year's stay at Colmar, he purchased a country-house near Geneva; and having gratified his petulant disposition by interfering in the political disputes of this place, he thought proper to remove, and bought an estate at Ferney, in the Pays de Gex. Here he lived, as one of his biographers has said, "like a petty prince in his own territory;"—"improving his own village by encouraging colonists, and introducing manufactures, which through his influence obtained a sale in many countries of the continent."—"A declared enemy to tyranny and oppression of every kind, he undertook the protection of several sufferers from injustice, among whom were the family of Calas, a noted victim of religious bigotry. He made the enormity of these abuses of power known throughout Europe, and set himself up as a kind of general censor, to whose tribunal the highest ranks were amenable." All his motives his biographer does not attempt to justify. He likewise poured forth from this retreat a variety of works, which were sought after and generally read, directing the sentiments and influencing the conduct of many who perused them, whether always to their own honour and advantage we leave others who are acquainted with them to determine. In general, his extended sway over the opinions of the civilized part of mankind, says the biographer of whose observations we avail ourselves in the compilation of this article, "was directed to the subversion of both civil and ecclesiastical tyranny; but his attacks on the latter included hostilities against religion in general, at least of the revealed class: and, whilst he admitted natural religion, he destroyed its moral efficacy." In his retreat he was visited by the most distinguished persons who came near his abode, and he corresponded with some of the chief sovereigns of Europe. Nevertheless he was not happy. Impatient and restless in his disposition, and irritable in his temper, he was self-tormented. In advanced life he wished again to emerge from obscurity; and in February, 1778, he visited Paris, where he had many admirers, and where he was regarded also with aversion and alarm. Here his vanity and love of admiration and praise must be fully gratified, by the manner in which he was received at the theatre, after the exhibition of his "Irene," which he had brought with him. As soon as he was seated in his box, after having received repeated plaudits in his way to it, an actor placed a crown on his head. When the play was concluded, the drawing up of the curtain displayed all the actors and actresses furlouring a bust of Voltaire, and by turns covering it with garlands

of laurel; and Mad. Vestris, advancing to the front of the stage, pronounced some verses to his praise, composed on the spot by a nobleman, amid the shouts of the audience. This reception produced effects on his feeble frame, which probably hastened its dissolution. Of this Voltaire himself seems to have been apprised, when he said in a tone of deep melancholy, "I am come to Paris to find glory and a tomb." Unable to sleep, it is thought that he accelerated his death by taking too large a dose of opium. When he was thought to be near his last moments, the marquis de Villette, with whom he resided, sent for the rector of St. Sulpice to administer the last offices which are thought essential to the safety of a Catholic Christian. What passed between Voltaire and the rector on this occasion has been differently stated; but it is certain that he died, without the last sacraments, on the 30th of May, 1778, in the 85th year of his age. It is said that the archbishop of Paris absolutely refused to allow him Christian burial, and that his body was secretly conveyed for interment to Sellieres, an abbey of Bernardines, between Nogent and Troyes. It was thence brought, by a decree of the national assembly in 1791, to be repositied in St. Genevieve's at Paris.

"The physiognomy of Voltaire," says his biographer, "was indicative of his disposition. It is said to have partaken of the eagle and the monkey; and to the fire and rapidity of the former animal, he united the mischievous and malicious propensities of the latter. With strong perceptions of moral excellence and elevation, he was little and mean in conduct, a victim to petty passions and caprices; never at rest either in mind or body, never tranquil or sedate. If he was a philosopher, it was in his opinions, not in his actions. He had been accustomed from his youth to pay as much homage to rank and wealth as his vanity would permit; his tastes of life were vitiated, and his manners corrupted: he could not, therefore, be a consistent friend to virtue and liberty, though he might occasionally be captivated with their charms, and even zealous in their support. He was habitually avaricious; though he performed some generous acts, which, however, he took care to make known. He was too selfish to inspire love, and too capricious to merit esteem. He had numerous admirers, but probably not one friend."

As a poetical writer, he was distinguished by his "Henriade," which was considered as the principal epic poem in the French language, and by his tragedies, which are said to have more variety of style and subject than those of Corneille and Racine; but in comedy and lyric composition he was not equally successful. The morality of his moral epistles, which are excellent in their manner, is liable to many objections. As a prose writer, Voltaire has been commended for that kind of middle style, which is pure, unaffected, lively, precise, and always in good taste. In the department of history, his principal works are the "Essai sur l'Histoire generale," and the "Siècles de Louis XIV. et de Louis XV." His "Histoire de Charles XII." is a model of royal biography. Of his witty writings, which are very numerous, we may observe in general, that they are not only depreciated in real value, but rendered pernicious in their tendency and effect, by his frequently recurring attacks and sarcasms, levelled against revealed religion: nor shall we be thought deficient in candour if we add, that, whatever instruction or amusement his productions of the latter class afford, they have done greater injury, in a moral and religious view of them, particularly among persons of little reflection, than those of any other author. All the works of Voltaire amount to 30 vols. 4to. of the Genevan edition, and 71 vols. 8vo. in the more complete edition of Basil. Gen. Biog. by Aikin.

The universality of Voltaire's genius extended to music, though no musician. And in spite of his partiality to his own country, he did the writings of Metastasio, and the Italian opera, more justice than any of his countrymen. And though he gained less applause by his lyric poetry than his other poetical composition, he produced several pieces for music, and frequently made admirable reflections on the lyric theatre.

Voltaire has never planted his farcical artillery against Italian music or singing. And though neither a connoisseur nor passionately fond of music, he seems instinctively to have felt a superiority in the music of Italy to that of France; and has been always just to the writings of Metastasio. For though a defender of Quinault against the injustice of Boileau, he has never set him up as a writer for music superior to the imperial laureat. The truth is, that Voltaire, with all the black spots in his character, had a natural good taste when his judgment was not warped by envy, or his passions inflamed by the attacks of his enemies. He early saw and celebrated the science of Newton and genius of Shakspere. And it was not till the latter had been more noticed, and the translation of his works more patronized than his own, that, in self-defence, he abused them.

VOLTAISM. That branch of electrical science which has its source in the chemical action between metals and different liquids, and in the proofs which establish its identity with common electricity, the world owe principally to discoveries made by signor Volta. Its remarkable influence upon animals, which first brought it into notice, was first observed by Galvani. Hence it was first called Galvanism and afterwards Voltaism. We should have treated this subject wholly under GALVANISM, which was then more than half completed, but the latter was not finished in time to be then published. Hence the present article must rather be considered as a continuation of Galvanism, than a distinct treatise.

Galvanism concludes with a list of the different galvanic combinations, which will be terminated in this article, and the rest will be treated in succession. We have also given some account of all such facts as have transpired since the time of the publication of the first part.

TABLE shewing the relative quantity of bubbles upon the negative wire, by immersing a compound arc, of zinc and platina, into different saline solutions at a boiling heat, and at the common temperature.

Solution.	Effect.		Remarks.
	Hot.	Cold.	
Muriate of ammonia	6	3	
Muriate of soda	2	1	
Super-tartrate of potash	4	0	In this and other cases, where the cypher is placed, it does not mean that no effect was produced, but that no bubbles could be seen.
Nitrate of potash	$\frac{1}{2}$	0	In this experiment two combined arcs were used which just produced a sensible effect.
Phosphate of soda			
Alum	4	2	
Sulphate of potash	0	0	
Sulphate of soda	0	0	
Sulphate of magnesia	0	0	In the three last two combined arcs were tried, but no bubbles appeared.

The two preceding tables will give some idea of the relative power of different combinations of metals, and of the comparative action of different fluids.

The most powerful of the metallic combinations will be seen to be zinc with platina, gold, and silver; but zinc with copper is so little inferior, that in point of economy it was always be preferred.

Zinc with iron is, however, so near to zinc with copper, that iron might be used to great advantage where cheapness is desirable.

Zinc and copper are, in the present state of Galvanism, generally employed for the construction of galvanic batteries. In the trough invented by Cruickshank, the zinc and copper plates were soldered together in pairs, so as to form so many compound plates. These plates are cemented into a wooden box, which is lined with the same cement, at such a distance from each other, as to divide the trough into distinct cells about half wide. The order of the plates should be such that all the zinc plates face one way, and the copper ones the contrary.

A great improvement has been made upon the trough of Cruickshank, by forming the cells in the trough with plates of glass. The plates of metal are soldered together by their edges, and bent at the joining, till the opposite sides become parallel, and separate from each other about half an inch. Each of these compound arcs is so placed in the trough with glass plates, that the zinc plate of each arc may be on one side of the glass, and the copper on the other, and in such order, that the zinc plate of one arc, and the copper of another, may be in each of the cells. A second improvement has been made upon this trough. Instead of a wooden trough, divided into cells with glass plates, the whole trough is made of earthenware, each trough consisting of ten cells. All the plates are fitted to a piece of wood of the length of the trough, so that they can be taken out or put into the trough all together. When they are taken out, the fluid is suffered to remain in the trough, and the plates are suspended over it upon a gibbet attached to the frame in which the earthen trough is placed. An immense battery upon this construction, consisting of 2000 pairs of four-inch plates, has been lately made for the Royal Institution. The experiments made upon it were inconceivably brilliant. The spark was so intense as to strike through a space of some lines of air, and of such dazzling splendour as to resemble the sun. Many substances were fused by the heat it produced, which had not been fused before, among which were the metal called freduxim, and the earths zircon and alumine. Charcoal was made to evaporate, and plumbago to fuse in vacuo. A large electrical battery was charged by instant contact.

Since the trial of this battery, one of immense surface has been constructed by J. G. Children, esq. It consisted of twenty pairs of plates of copper and zinc, each plate being six feet square, the whole exhibiting a zinc and copper surface equal to 720 square feet. Each of the pairs of plates was united at the top by strips of lead bent into an arch, and so as to allow the plates to be exactly parallel to each other. The cells were distinct and made of wood; each pair of plates entered two cells, having the wooden division between them. The plates were all suspended from a beam above, and counterpoised to admit of their being easily let down into the liquid in the cells. The liquid consisted of water with one-sixtieth of a mixture of the sulphuric and nitric acids, which was afterwards gradually increased to one-thirtieth. Lead pipes were conveyed from the ends of the battery to an adjoining shade out of doors, where the experiments were made.

This battery, as a source of heat, surpassed any thing ever

ever before heard of. It melted platinum with the greatest facility. Trifinium, which had not been before melted, was fused into a globule. Charcoal was kept at a white heat in chlorine gas and phosgene gas, without any change being produced in the gas. It ignited six feet of platina wire. It was observed, that when the wire was less than a certain diameter, a less length was ignited. A view of one of the before mentioned troughs is shewn in *fig. 1*.

Since this plan is likely to become general, from its great advantage both in economy and convenience, we shall venture to suggest several improvements.

For making all the variety of galvanic experiments, it has always been a desideratum to have a battery, the surface of which may be increased in any proportion, to a certain limit, without affecting the series or number of combinations. This has not hitherto appeared practicable by any other means than that of using distinct batteries of different sizes.

A battery on the plan above described, having loose plates, will admit of the advantage here alluded to, without any other increase of expence than that of the additional plates which are meant to increase the surface at pleasure.

The cells in the earthen trough should be about an inch and a half from one dividing surface to the other, and capable of receiving plates of four inches square. Each of the cells may occasionally contain four plates, two of zinc and two of copper.

The form of the plates for this battery is represented in *fig. 2*. Plate *I*. having a wire staple, *ab*, of the same metal with the plate. The staples must be made accurately of the same size for all the plates. A piece of wood, *ab*, (*fig. 3*.) is made to pass through all the staples of the plates. This bearer, or suspender, is divided into as many transverse grooves as there are plates, of a depth capable of receiving one-half of the diameter of the wire staple. In the same bearer are also two longitudinal grooves, *A A*, *B B*, about one-tenth of an inch wide and a quarter of an inch deep. A number of sliding pieces of brass, *aa*, are introduced into the latter grooves, equal to the number of combinations, one half of the pieces being in one groove, and the other half in the other. These pieces of metal, after being placed in proper situations, are filed down with the transverse grooves, leaving the metal above the wood, where the staple of a plate is intended to touch the metal, and filing the metal away lower than the wood, where the staple is not meant to be in contact.

After the plates are arranged upon the bearer, alternately copper and zinc, the pieces of sliding metal are made to communicate with them, that the zinc plates of one cell may communicate with the copper of the succeeding cell, the zinc of the last with the copper of the next, and so on throughout the series. The plates being all in their places and properly connected, a second piece of wood, *cd*, (*fig. 4*.) is laid upon the bearer, with correspondent grooves to fit the staples. It is covered on the under side with woollen cloth, so that when it is screwed to the bearer it serves to keep the plates secure, and at the same time preserves the connecting parts from the fumes of the acid employed in the battery. A section of the bearer, staples, &c. are seen in *fig. 4*. The whole of the apparatus complete is represented in *fig. 5*, as drawn out of the cell. *Fig. 6* is an end view of the apparatus.

In this battery, the maximum of surface is when every cell contains two plates each of zinc and copper. When it is required to reduce the surface, nothing more is necessary than to take off the top part of the bearer, while the plates are resting in the trough, and then drawing out the lower part. If the two end plates of each cell, one of

copper and the other of zinc, be taken away throughout the whole, the bearer may be again introduced to its original situation. The battery will now consist of the same series and half the surface. If a mean quantity of surface be required, it is done by taking the end plates away from a part of the cells.

It appears, from an experiment detailed in Nicholson's Journal, vol. xxvi. p. 72, that the copper surface may be increased to advantage above that of the zinc. The experiment is as follows: If an arc of copper and zinc be made to connect two glass cups containing dilute muriatic acid, the zinc part of the arc being in one cup and the copper in the other, and if the connection be made between the two cups, to complete the circuit by an arc of copper wire, a quantity of bubbles will be evolved from the copper wire of the compound arc. If, however, instead of the copper wire the connection be made with a conical slip of copper, a very different effect will be observed, as the broad or pointed end of the slip may be next to the zinc wire. When the broad end is placed in the cup where the zinc wire is placed, a much greater quantity of bubbles appears upon the copper of the compound arc, than when the small end is placed next to the zinc. Hence it would appear, that the copper surface should be greater than that of the zinc. This may be very easily effected, by dividing the copper surface into small grooves, the sides of which make an angle of 60°, the surface will by this means be doubled. This figure might be given to the copper surface by means of a pair of fluted rollers. It will be obvious, that if the grooves are not very small, the different parts of the copper surface will not be uniformly contiguous to the zinc surface, which is a matter of some importance.

Having described the most convenient and economical method of constructing a battery, we shall now consider the means of exerting the galvanic energy so far as relates to the interposing fluid.

In the galvanic battery, there appear to be two sources from which the electricity is obtained. The one is that which arises from the contact of the metals, and the other from the chemical action between the interposing fluid and the zinc surface. The first does not require even the presence of moisture, as is shewn in the electric column of De Luc. The second is rendered greatly conspicuous by introducing between the opposite surfaces any substance capable of oxydating and dissolving the zinc.

Acids, as appears from the preceding table, are the greatest promoters of the energy afforded by chemical action, because they dissolve the zinc after it has been oxydated by the oxygen of the water. This is more especially the case with the sulphuric and muriatic acids, because these acids are not decomposed by the zinc. The nitric acid produces a still greater galvanic effect, because the acid is decomposed, and oxydates the zinc with greater facility than water. The water is also decomposed when this acid is used. Zinc hydrogen is always evolved.

The action is always increased when the conducting power of the fluid is increased. Hence it would be proper to use some cheap saline solution with the acid, which will not be decomposed by the same.

The saline solutions, alone, are very inferior to any of the acids. But from what has been observed, we may easily point out such salts as are best fitted for the purpose. All the super-salts, from their excess of acid, will answer this purpose; or such salts as are decomposed by zinc. All those salts which act upon metals by forming triple salts, such as muriate of ammonia and muriate of soda, are found to act very well in the galvanic battery.

It will be proper to observe here, that the interposed fluid does not afford a quantity of electricity proportionate to the rapidity of the oxydation, or at least the quantity of galvanic energy cannot be appreciated beyond a certain limit. If the quantity of the concentrated acid be much more than from $\frac{1}{10}$ to $\frac{1}{20}$ the weight of the water, the power of the battery will not be found to increase but from another cause, which we shall hereafter explain; the power is much sooner exhausted than when a smaller dose is used. The zinc is oxydated so slowly by saline bodies, that they may be used in saturated solutions. Potash, in a caustic state, even when much diluted with water, might be used to great advantage. At the same time that it scarcely appears to oxydate the zinc, when a single pair of wires of copper and zinc are used, the copper wire affords as much hydrogen during the contact, as could be expected from the agency of an acid. It is, therefore, highly probable, that potash or soda will be substituted for acids in galvanic experiments, as well for the sake of economy as from its being less offensive to the operator. It possesses another advantage still greater, in not destroying the zinc plates like acid solutions.

From what has been said regarding the interposed fluid, it will be easy to infer that the greatest part of the galvanic energy, which is electricity excited by chemical action, depends upon the preference of the water, and some substance which can dissolve the zinc, and at the same time give a greater conducting power to the water. The effect is not, as Sir Humphrey Davy has supposed, produced by the opposite electrical states of the elements of the compounds constituting the fluid medium, since the hypothesis is contradicted by experiment. If there wanted another experiment to decide, that the galvanic effect is as the chemical effect, the following would suffice. Take two wine-glasses, containing dilute muriatic acid, and connect them by an arc made of two wires, one of zinc and the other of platina, folded or tied together, the zinc being in one glass and the copper in the other. If the circuit be complicated between the glasses by an arc of platina wire, no appearance of bubbles will be observed upon the platina wire of the compound arc. If, however, a small quantity of nitric acid be poured into the glass containing this wire, hydrogen gas will be immediately evolved from it, and at the same time the other platina wire in the same glass will become oxydated. This effect is not caused by the electrical agency of the nitric acid, which is decomposed; because when copper is used instead of platina, with the pure muriatic acid, the same effect takes place. It appears, therefore, that the increased effect would be attributed only to the oxydation of the wire of the homogeneous arc, in the glass containing the negative wire of the compound arc.

In every galvanic process, from a single combination to an unlimited series, no effect is observed till the circuit is complete; and during this, a current of electricity is established from the zinc surface of one combination to the copper of the succeeding. While it is passing through a metal, whatever be its length, it obeys the laws of electricity very strictly, but when it passes through a humid conductor, it appears to possess rather anomalous properties. It is proper to observe here, that conductors of Galvanism are of two kinds; the one we shall call dry conductors, and the other humid. The first class comprises all the metals, well burnt charcoal, plumbago, and the sulphurets of metals. Water appears to be essential to the second kind, holding in solution acids, alkalies, or neutral salts. Simple water has its conducting power increased by the smallest quantity of any acid, alkali, or salt. When the conducting wires of a gal-

vanic battery are made to terminate in a vessel of pure water the water will be observed to be decomposed, the oxygen being given out at the positive wire, or that coming from the zinc side of the battery, and the hydrogen from the negative or opposite wire. If the smallest quantity of an acid, a salt, or an alkali, be added to the water, the rapidity of the decomposition will be increased very conspicuously.

As it is of some importance to know the relative conducting power of water, and its different compounds, the following apparatus has been contrived for this purpose, represented in *fig. 7*. Let *eg* be a small cup of wood varnished, or, what is much better, glass; and *zc* two wires of platina distinctly inserted in the bottom of the cup, so as to be water tight. A glass tube, *op*, filled with the fluid, is inverted in the cup to receive the gas which arises from the wires *zc*, while the fluid descends, and is contained in the cup. If the cup *eg* be made larger, and of an oval shape, two glass tubes may be inverted over each wire, and the gases may be obtained separately. *Fig. 8*. *ABCD*, is a frame supporting one of the cups. The parts *G* and *F* are of glass or varnished dry wood, cemented into the parts *ABCD*, which are of brass, so that the two sides *H* and *I* of the frame are detached. The apparatus, *fig. 7*, with four others similar, are to be placed in the frame, the wire *zc* being inserted into one side of the frame, and the other, *c*, resting upon the other side. When the glass tubes of each are filled with different fluids, the side *H* is connected with one end of the battery, and that of *I* with the other. Since the galvanic current must necessarily take the best conductor, the action will commence through that fluid having the greatest conducting power. If a thin bit of baked wood or glass be put under the resting part *c*, in that where the action commenced, the current will be transferred to the next inferior conductor, and so on to all the rest. By this means an accurate table, shewing the relative conducting powers of fluids, may be easily obtained.

Since the quantity of gas is the test of the conducting power, some allowance must be made when the muriates are the subject of experiment. Almost all the oxygen gas disappears in converting the muriatic into oxymuriatic acid. In a similar way the hydrogen does not appear when certain metallic solutions are employed, since it combines with the oxygen of the metallic oxyd, and the metal is reduced. When the battery is in full power, and of great extent, the relative conducting power of the fluids may be expressed by the time required for the ascending gas to displace the liquid in the glass tube. In all those experiments where the elements of bodies are transferred to different sides, the transfer takes place through any of the moist conductors, but not through any of the dry ones. No transfer can therefore be made through solid bodies, except the body be permeable to moisture. Sir Humphrey Davy, in his experiments, made use of the fibrous asbestos moistened with water. Where the fluids are required to be strictly separate, bladder answers very well as a separating medium. Animal and vegetable substances, however, abound with so many elements, that in nice experiments they would be objectionable. A vessel divided into a proper number of cells of earthenware, in the state of biscuit, would be best calculated for these experiments. This vessel should be made of pure flint and pure alumina. Should it ever become an object of manufacture to separate acids and alkalies from neutral salts, a vessel of wood, with a separation in the middle, of unglazed earthenware, would answer very well.

We shall here mention some curious facts connected with the interposition of metals, in different conducting media.

When the wires, coming from the two ends of a galvanic battery,

battery, are brought into separate vessels containing any fluid which is a conductor. If a wire of platina, in the form of an arc, connect the two glasses together, that end of the connecting arc in the positive glass will afford hydrogen gas, while that in the negative glass will furnish oxygen gas; or, if we take all the four ends of the wires in the circuit, the positive wire from the battery will give oxygen, and that opposite to it, in the same glass, hydrogen. In the other glass, the negative wire will afford hydrogen, and the opposite wire oxygen, so that the water appears to be decomposed in each glass, since oxygen and hydrogen are furnished separately by each glass. If a number of glasses be arranged similarly, having connecting arcs of platina, and if the wires of the battery be introduced in the extreme glasses, all the ends of the wires will alternately furnish oxygen and hydrogen. No theory yet brought forward will satisfactorily account for these phenomena. Sir Humphrey Davy would assert, that each of the wires from the battery induced an opposite state of electricity in the wires opposed to them; and that in consequence the one attracted oxygen and the other hydrogen. Another theorist might hold that the electricity, which enters the first glass from the positive side, decomposes the water, and combining with the hydrogen, sets the oxygen free. The electricity and the hydrogen pass through the fluid to the opposite wire, when the electricity defeats the hydrogen, and passing through the platina arc, decomposes the water in the second glass. The oxygen is again evolved, and the hydrogen carried to the next wire, and so on through the remainder of the glasses.

A very curious experiment of the above kind rather tends to confirm the latter, than the former hypothesis. We, however, give these facts to the common stock, for the advantage of other labourers in this field of inquiry; strongly convinced that every hypothesis yet advanced falls very short of explaining all the phenomena of Galvanism.

Let the wires of a galvanic battery be made to terminate in a flat-bottomed vessel, containing pure water, about an inch and a half from each other; and if now another wire, of an inch in length, be laid longitudinally between them, but not to touch them, each end of the intermediate wire, if of gold or platina, will afford gas. That end opposite the negative wire will give oxygen, and the other end of the same will furnish hydrogen; and if any number of bits of wire be placed between the principal wires, at the same time they do not touch each other, oxygen and hydrogen will be alternately furnished by the ends of the wires. When the principal wires are brought nearer together, and a platina wire placed transversely between them, one side of the intermediate wire will furnish oxygen, and the other hydrogen. This fact is put in a more striking point of view, by placing a plate of platina in a vessel of water edgewise, and bringing the wires of the battery opposite to each other, and perpendicular to the sides of the plate. If the battery employed consist of 50 plates three inches square, a circular spot will be observed on each side the plate, opposite the wires. This appearance is caused by the evolution of gas from those parts of the plate only.

It is singular, that in all the experiments where the connecting wire was immersed in the water, if any substance, capable of increasing the conducting power of the water, be very gradually added to it, the gases given out by the intermediate wire will diminish, till they entirely cease to be produced. The wire which was transversely placed sooner ceased to afford gas, than when it was in a longitudinal position; and the effect sooner ceased with the wire than with

the plate; and in different plates, the continuance was as the size of the plate.

If the plate, however, be cut so as to divide the vessel into two portions, and the edges so completely cemented to the sides of the vessel that no liquid communication exists between the two portions, each side of the plate will furnish as much gas as the wires, whatever may be the conducting power of the fluid. If the power, which induces the plate or immersed wires to give out gas, depended upon the induction of the opposite wires, why is it not as great before the fluid is divided as afterwards? and why is it the same when pure water is used, whether the intermediate wire be immersed in the water, or is made to connect two portions of water together? These are facts which, in the present state of knowledge, do not admit of easy solution. They, however, shew us the necessity of having the cells of our galvanic batteries perfectly distinct from each other. It appears pretty clear, that that which conducts the oxygen or the hydrogen, or perhaps both, passes with greater facility through a good moist conductor than through a metal.

Decomposition of Bodies in general.—The decomposition of water and of metallic oxyds was known to Cruickshank, the history of whose experiments we have already given; and in a very early stage of galvanic progress, it was observed that the alkali was separated from muriate of soda in the galvanic battery. In subjecting muriate of soda to the galvanic power in a glass tube, it has also been observed that oxymuriatic acid was produced. The subject of the decomposition of salts, however, has been clearly made out, and established on true principles, by Sir Humphrey Davy, whose experiments have been detailed under GALVANISM. The chemical agency of bodies, arising from their relative electric states, is no doubt the cause of the decompositions of salts, and of all other bodies to a certain extent; although there are many decompositions, particularly the metallic oxyds and water, which are to be attributed to some other cause much more active and expeditious. We shall here venture to draw a line of distinction between the decomposition effected by the electrical intensity arising from the contact of the bodies, and that produced by the electricity, and the hydrogen developed by the chemical agency of the oxydable metal, and the oxydating fluid.

If we take a single combination, for instance, a zinc wire connected with a platina wire, the electrical intensity arising from contact is so exceeding small, that it could hardly be appreciated by the acid of the condenser. If this combination be immersed in water, no galvanic appearance takes place, however near the immersed ends be brought to each other. If, however, we add to the water about one-tenth its weight of muriatic acid, an immense quantity of hydrogen immediately appears upon the platina wire, and continues to be evolved so long as the contact is formed, till the acid is expended. The electrical intensity, however, is the same with the water as with the dilute acid; yet the quantity of hydrogen upon the platina wire, when the acid was used, which can be attributed only to galvanism of chemical action, is much more than could be obtained by the most powerful electric machine. It can readily be admitted, from experiments in which Dr. Wollaston decomposed water by the electric machine, and from the electric effects of Deluc's column, that some water would be decomposed by the single combination, independently of the chemical action; but the difference is so glaring as to produce the strongest conviction, that the decomposition of water and the transmission of hydrogen are not dependent on the mere electric states of the wires. That the hydrogen is

transmitted from the zinc to platina, during the chemical action, many experiments seem to prove; and that the hydrogen to be transmitted, by its chemical agency, and in its nascent state, is capable of effecting many decompositions, which, under other circumstances, would be impossible. In the single combination above alluded to, if the dilute acid be separated from a solution of acetate of lead, or sulphate of copper, by a piece of bladder, the zinc being immersed into the acid part, and the platina into the metallic solution, no hydrogen will be afforded by the platina, but the metal becomes reduced in proportion to the quantity of hydrogen which has disappeared: yet no perceptible quantity of this effect can be attributed to the electricity of contact, but to the mere chemical agency of hydrogen in its nascent state. Hence we are inclined to think, that the decompositions by the galvanic battery arise from two causes. Water principally owes its decomposition to the chemical action, and the agency of the electricity upon the hydrogen. Metallic oxids are principally decomposed by the presence of the nascent hydrogen, so collected and transmitted by the electricity. The decomposition of saline bodies, however, is to be attributed alone to the electrical attraction produced by the contact of the bodies employed, which can be made so great as to overcome the chemical attraction of the bodies decomposed. Of the latter of these powers of decomposition we have given some account, in detailing the ingenious experiments of Sir Humphrey Davy; of the two former means of decomposition we shall say something in a practical point of view.

Many very anomalous facts were known in chemistry long previous to the discovery of Galvanism. All those chemical phenomena, under which the appearance called arborescence was observed, were inexplicable, till it was shewn from some experiments, published in Nicholson's Journal, vol. xv. p. 94, that Galvanism is the cause of these singular phenomena. In the experiment where lead is so beautifully precipitated, by suspending a piece of zinc in a solution of acetate of lead, the zinc first reduces a small portion of lead, which, with the zinc, forms a galvanic combination. The lead, if no solution of lead were present, would now give out hydrogen gas; but the hydrogen, instead of appearing in that form, combines with the oxygen of the oxyd, and the metallic lead is formed at the same point. Hence the lead appears to grow from the last point formed, which gives the appearance of vegetation. That this effect does not depend upon the presence of zinc, may be proved by the following experiment. Tie on one end of a glass tube, about half an inch wide, a piece of bladder, so that it may hold water, and fill it with a solution of acetate of lead. Into the other end insert a cork loosely, and through the cork let a platina wire pass within about half an inch of the bladder. Into a wine-glass put some dilute muriatic acid, in which place a zinc wire. When the tube with the bladder is immersed in the wine-glass, if that part of the zinc wire without the glass be brought into contact with that part of the platina wire without the tube, beautiful crystals of metallic lead will soon appear upon the platina wire. If the acetate of lead be removed, and a dilute acid be put in its place, bubbles of hydrogen will appear upon the platina wire.

Another experiment, similar to that of the lead-tree, and equally anomalous, has been long known in chemistry. If a plate of glass be smeared over with a solution of nitrate of silver, and a brass pin or a piece of zinc wire be laid in the middle of the plate, beautiful ramifications of silver will soon appear as if growing out of the pin, very much resembling

vegetation. By observing the process with a magnifying glass, each branch of this arborescence may be seen to grow from the end or side of another; which proves that the silver forming the vegetative appearance is not reduced by the oxydable metal laid on the plate, but by something at the successive points of the silver branches. With a view to ascertain this fact, one half of the plate should be smeared with nitrate of silver, and the other half with dilute muriatic acid. If a piece of zinc wire be tied to a piece of platina wire, and the compound wire be bent that the zinc may touch the dilute acid, and the platina the nitrate of silver, the ramifications of silver will soon appear upon the platina wire. That the silver is reduced by the hydrogen carried in the galvanic current, is probable from varying the experiment as follows: If, instead of smearing the plate with nitrate of silver, the whole be covered with dilute acid, and the same compound arc be laid upon it, the platina will give out bubbles of hydrogen. In the common way of making this experiment with the pin, as well as the variation above stated, it appears that the process is kept up by the galvanic current, which furnishes the hydrogen. The pin first reduces a small portion of silver, which forms a galvanic combination with the pin. The hydrogen which, but for the presence of the remaining nitrate of silver, would appear in the gaseous form, is employed in depriving the silver of its oxygen. With the compound arc, the zinc does not require to touch the nitrate of silver, because the platina with zinc is already a galvanic combination. The theory of whitening common pins can be explained only on this principle. The tin, in a small proportion, is dissolved in the tartarate of potash; pieces of metallic tin, with the pins, are also present. The two latter form the galvanic combination, and a portion of tin is reduced from the solution upon the pins, to which they owe their whiteness. We may generally conclude, that in all instances where one metal becomes the precipitant of another, the precipitation is much facilitated by the agency of the galvanic combination, formed between the precipitating and the precipitated metals, and the consequent presence of hydrogen. If a piece of zinc be introduced into a solution of sulphate of copper, the zinc in the first instance becomes covered with copper, and the effect appears to stop. If, however, a very small excess of sulphuric acid be added, the process will go on with such rapidity, that the copper becomes precipitated in a very little time. By minutely observing the process, the copper will be seen to be reduced upon that already produced, which is a proof that it is not done by the mere agency of the zinc.

It appears very evident, that when a galvanic combination of zinc with any lesser oxydable metal is placed in a dilute acid, that a much larger quantity of hydrogen will be evolved from the lesser oxydable wire, than could possibly be produced by any electrical intensity generated by the contact of the bodies employed; but that independent of this, there is an immense quantity of electricity generated during the chemical action, by which the hydrogen is transported from the greater oxydable surface to the lesser one. If the quantity of hydrogen produced depended upon the attraction of the wires for the elements of the water, this power would depend upon the electrical intensity alone, and of course upon the series in the galvanic battery, whatever might be its surface; but it is found that the power of Galvanism to decompose water is much increased by an increase of surface only.

Galvanism as a Source of Heat.—When the wires coming from the ends of a galvanic battery of considerable surface
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are brought into contact, a brilliant spark is produced, and the wires stick together with considerable force, as if they were welded, or united by fusion. If the parts in contact be held with the fingers, a considerable heat will be perceived, which will be greater as the battery is more powerful, and inversely as the thickness of the wires.

Small wires seem to affect the electric fluid in a manner similar to that in which light is affected by a convex lens, or a concave mirror, by concentrating and compelling a large quantity of electricity to pass through a small channel. This appears to be the case with common electricity, as well as galvanism, since by discharging the electrical battery through very small wires, the metals become fused and oxydized.

On the galvanic battery this experiment should be made as follows: at each end of the battery should be placed a rod of metal, with a clean ball at the top of each. Between the two balls must be stretched a piece of very small wire, not exceeding $\frac{1}{16}$ th of an inch in diameter, while the circuit is interrupted in some other part of the battery. As soon as the wire is fixed, the circuit must be completed where it was broken, and the current will instantly be determined through the small wire, which will in consequence become ignited.

It was discovered by Dr. Wollaston, that, in the ignition of wire by the voltaic battery, there was one certain diameter of the wire, in which the length ignited was the greatest, above or below which the length was less. This does not arise from more heat being sent through the wire in which the greatest length was ignited, but from the ratio of the surface of the very small wire being so much greater to its solidity than in thicker wire, by which a greater proportion of heat is carried off by radiation; but when the diameter is beyond a certain extent, then a less length is ignited, from the heat being less concentrated.

It has also been found, that very different lengths of wire are heated of different metals when their diameters are equal. This appears to take place from the relative conductive powers of the different metals for electricity, which appears to be as their conducting powers for heat. Platina, being the worst conductor, has a greater length heated; and silver, which is known to be a good conductor, has a less length heated.

If the battery be very powerful, it will be fused and oxydated. When a connection is formed between the two ends of the battery, by means of the very thin foils of metals, such as leaf-gold, the metals undergo brilliant combustion, exhibiting different coloured flames. Charcoal and plumbago, presented by sharp angles, are similarly deflagrated. If the ends of the two wires coming from the battery be made to touch each side of a small globule of mercury, the latter will inflame with a bright flash. This heat, furnished in the galvanic current, is also very apparent while it is passing through moist conductors. Different fluids subjected to decomposition in the circuit, in glass tubes, become considerably heated, and this will be found the case, as the diameter of the tube is less.

Sir H. Davy attributes this heat to the decomposition, which must strike any one as being an error. Heat we always find to be evolved during combination; the very reverse of which ought to take place during decomposition.

Action of Galvanism upon Animals.—All animal substances, either dead or living, if not deprived of their moisture, are tolerably humid conductors of Galvanism. In the living subject, independent of its conducting power, it has the property of being affected in a peculiar manner. All those animals which possess excitability are affected by Gal-

vanism as they would be affected by any other violent stimulus; and if the excitable part be at all muscular, the fibres are vigorously contracted. This causes, in a living and conscious animal, a sensation not unlike an electric shock. The shock is more like that of common electricity, as the plates of the battery are smaller and more numerous. When the plates are of very large surface, a sort of vibratory motion is felt through the part attended with a sensation of heat; and this, in a powerful battery, is felt so long as the connection is kept up. The best mode of taking the shock is first to moisten the hands, or the part where the effect is to be applied; grasp in each hand a piece of metal, such as two spoons, and touch each end of the battery with the other ends of the spoons at the same time. If it is intended to be applied to any other part, let two plates, of about two inches in diameter, be each attached to the wires coming from the battery, and let the plates be applied to some two parts; if the effect be too severe, let some inferior conductor be placed between the plate and the skin.

Sir H. Davy found, that when an animal substance was placed in the circuit of a galvanic battery, the different compounds contained in it were decomposed. This was more especially the case with the saline bodies contained in the animal fluids; the acids of the salts were found on the positive side of the battery, and the bases of the salts on the negative. Should it be ascertained that any redundancy of saline matter is the cause of disease, Galvanism might be employed with great success in separating those bodies from the system.

Dr. Wollaston has given some hints in Nicholson's Journal, from which it appears probable that the power of the glands in secreting different fluids is dependent upon the electrical state of the glands; by which they are induced to attract all bodies in a contrary state to themselves. The opinion of this ingenious gentleman has been strongly corroborated by some experiments made by Messrs. Home and Brandt. Phil. Trans.

These, however, are speculations on which we cannot at present place strict reliance. The same conjecture which is applied to secretion may be applied to the oxygenation, or rather the decarbonization of the blood in the lungs; since the carbon appears to be transferred through the membranes between the pulmonary arteries and the interior of the lungs. The same theory may be also applied to account for the change of the colour of the blood between the fœtus and the mother. Muscular excitability may perhaps arise from a certain electric state of the muscular fibre caused and kept up by the arterial blood; and if we may be allowed to carry the conjecture still further, muscular motion may perhaps be caused by the relative electric states of the muscles, and the brain and nerves.

VOLTANA, in *Geography*, a town of Spain, in Aragon; 5 miles N.W. of Ainsa.

VOLTARE, Ital. in *Musico-books*, to turn over; whence *volti*, turn, *volti subito*, turn quick, and often only the initials of these words V.S. *Si volti*, at the end of a movement, denote, the leaf is to be turned over to another movement. And, in courtesy, it is sometimes said, *volti se piace*, turn over if you please.

VOLTE, in the *Manege*, signifies a round or circular motion, consisting of a gait of two treads, made by a horse going sideways round a centre; the two treads making parallel tracks, one by the fore-feet, larger, and the other by the hind-feet, smaller; the shoulder bearing outwards, and the croup approaching towards the centre.

VOLTE, *Demi*, is a half-round of one tread, or two, made by the horse at one of the angles, or corners, of the volte, or at the end of the line of the paffade; so as when

he is near the end of this line, or near one of the corners of the volte, he changes hands, to return by a femicircle.

VOLTE, *Reverted*, or *Inverted*, is a track of two treads, which the horse makes with his head to the centre, and his croup out; going sideways upon a walk, trot, or gallop; and tracing out a larger circumference with his shoulders, and a smaller with his croup. See on this subject Berenger's *Art of Horsemanship*, vol. ii. p. 83, &c.

VOLTE, in *Fencing*, denotes a sudden movement or leap, which is made to avoid the thrust of an antagonist.

VOLTERRA, DANIELE DI, in *Biography*, the cognomen of an artist of great renown, whose real name was Daniele Ricciarelli. He was a native of Volterra, and born in 1509, and was first a disciple of Giovanni Antonio Razzi, called Il Sodoma, and afterwards of Baldassare Peruzzi. Unemployed in his native city, and without means of improvement, he went to Rome, and wrought some time for cardinal Trivulzi, to whom a picture of the Flagellation he had brought with him served as a recommendation. He afterwards assisted Pierino del Vaga in the capella Maffimi at the Trinita da Monti: and in San Marcello, where he finished, from the designs of del Vaga, the four Evangelists, with various other figures, and ornamental enrichments. From designs of the same master he also painted a frieze in the hall of the palazzo Maffimi, and these works combined gave him so much renown, that signora Elena Orfina was induced to employ him to adorn her family chapel in the church of the Trinita da Monti.

He had in the mean time cultivated the friendship of Michel Angiolo and Sebastian del Piombo, and by their communion, and the study of their works, aggrandized his style and formed his manner; and the work which he produced in the capella Orfini, the Descent from the Cross, testified how worthy he was of such society. The work of this chapel, which was adorned not only with an altar-piece, but also with various other designs historical and ornamental, and all in fresco, occupied him seven years. The merit of the principal picture above-mentioned, has placed it, in public estimation, on a level with the Transfiguration by Raffaele, and the Communion of St. Jerome by Dominichino; and induced the French, in their rage for spoliation, to attempt the removal of it from the wall. And they effected it, though they never transported it to France, but in doing so, they cut away so much of the angles of the chapel that the roof fell in, but not till the picture had been removed out of danger. It was afterwards turned, so that its face was made visible, and an attempt was made by some ignorant pretender to enliven the colours by means of oil or varnish: the consequence has been, that the surface is become black, and the figures scarcely discernible; and thus this grand work, one of the principal features of modern Rome, one of the greatest monuments of human ingenuity, and the support of the well-earned renown of an artist ranked among the best, has been sacrificed to ambition, vanity, and folly. Happily the composition is preserved by Dorigny's print, and there is a great number of copies of it. Lanzi is of opinion, that M. Angelo must have aided Volterra in this great work, particularly in the composition, as the other parts in the chapel are so far inferior to it. He is known to have been partial to him, and on terms of intimacy. One day calling in his absence at his study, he left behind a sketch of a colossal head, which Volterra never would permit to be removed, and which remains to this day. And when Pierino del Vaga died, and Angelo had the works of the Vatican assigned to him, he interested himself for and procured the appointment of Volterra to supply his place. To him also, with the consent of Angelo, pope Paul III. intrusted the

slight clothing which is thrown over the nudities in the Last Judgment in the Sistiini chapel, for which service however he was branded with the ludicrous name of *Il Bracettone*, the breeches-maker.

After his appointment in the Vatican, he was ordered to complete the paintings in the Sala Regia begun by his predecessor, which he did, but not, as Vafari says, with skill equal to that he had exhibited in the chapel Orfini.

When Julius III. mounted the papal throne, he dismissed Volterra from his superintendence, but afterwards assigned to him one half of a hall to paint, of which Salvati had the other part, but Volterra did little or nothing in it, having been disappointed in not finding the whole intrusted to him.

He added, by means of his disciples, several other designs to the works in the Trinita da Monti, but turned his own mind principally to sculpture, and painted but little after this time. He died at Rome in 1566, aged 57.

VOLTERRA, in *Geography*, a town of Etruria. This was one of the ancient twelve cities, now a lonely, mean place, though it reckons 25 churches, chapels, and oratories, and about 20 convents and religious fraternities. It stands on a mountain, but the air is unwholesome: entire villages in the neighbourhood lie in ruins, and uninhabited, and the country all round is overrun with weeds and bushes, which unquestionably contribute to render the abode unhealthful. It has rich copper-mines, but not worked; 29 miles E.S.E. of Leghorn. N. lat. 43° 23'. E. long. 10° 52'.

VOLTOEGA, a town of Spain, in the province of Catalonia; 5 miles W. of Vique.

VOLTORE, a mountain of Naples, in Capitanata, E. of Monteverde.

VOLTTRI, a town of the Ligurian Republic; 6 miles W. of Genoa.

VOLTUMNA, or **VOLTURNA**, in *Mythology*, a rural divinity of the Tuscans. Livy frequently mentions a temple belonging to her near the lake Ciminius, where the people debated concerning their affairs.

VOLTURARA, in *Geography*, a town of Naples, in Principato Ultra; 15 miles W. of Conza.

VOLTURARA, or *Vulturara*, a town of Naples, in Capitanata, the see of a bishop, suffragan of Benevento; 38 miles W.S.W. of Manfredonia. N. lat. 41° 28'. E. long. 15°.

VOLTURENA, a town of the Grisons, on the lake of Como.

VOLTURNALIA, among the Romans, a festival kept in honour of the god Volturnus, on the sixth of the calends of September, or 26th of August.

VOLTURNO, in *Geography*, a town of Naples, in Lavora, on a river of the same name, near its mouth; 12 miles W. of Capua.—Also, a river of Naples, which runs into the gulf of Gaeta, near Castell Mare.

VOLTZHEIM, a town of Saxony, in the principality of Ruesien, near Gera, where Henry IV. gained a victory over Rodolphus, duke of Swabia, in the year 1080.

VOLVA, in *Botany*, the Wrapper, or covering, of the *Fungus* tribe, is used in two senses by Linnaeus. In its original and most legitimate meaning, as explained in the *Philosophia Botanica*, p. 52, this term is appropriated to the membranous web, which conceals the unexpanded gills of an Agaric; and in many species, as the Common Mushroom, *Agaricus campestris*, separates at length from the margin of the head, and forms a permanent ring round the stalk. This sort of *Volva* is enumerated among the kinds of CALYX, and perhaps not improperly; see that article. The more usual idea of a *Volva* is that of an external covering, which enfolds

enfolds the whole fungus, in an early state of growth. In the genus *Phallus* it resembles a hen's egg; and is nearly similar in the *Agaricus volucaeus*, Sowerby's *Fungi*, t. 1. In the starchy and vaulted Puff-balls this part is of a leathery texture when dry, more brittle when fresh. (See GEASTRUM.) In the *Lycoperdon phalloides* of Smith's *Spicilegium*, Sowerb. *Fung.* t. 390, now made a distinct genus, called *Batarrea*, by Persoon, the outer *Volva*, which remains in the ground, is filamentous.

VOLVA is also a word used by Scribonius Largus, and some other authors, to express the central part, or, as we call it, the core of the apple, in which the seeds are placed. He prescribes this in weaknesses of the stomach, and retchings to vomit.

VOLUBILE, or VOLUBILATE Stem or Stalk, in Gardening, a name given to those of many plants, as all those the stems or stalks of which are of a twining or winding climbing nature. They are commonly such as climb or ascend in a spiral manner round the stems, stalks, or branches of other plants, which happen to be situate near to them, round those of one another, or round sticks or stalks set for the purpose, and any thing of a similar kind that they may meet with in the course of their extending growth. The honey-fuckle, the hop, the running kinds of kidney beans, and many other plants, are of this description.

The stems or stalks of this sort, in different kinds of plants, wind round or twist about others, or other substances, in different directions, either to the right or the left, according to the apparent diurnal motion of the earth in respect to the sun. The honey-fuckle and the hop among garden plants turning to the left, while the different kinds of twining kidney beans turn to the right.

In garden culture, all those kinds of plants should be constantly suffered to take their own natural directions, and not be in any way thwarted in their modes of growth, as they never succeed well where that is the case, or afford so good a produce. And their supports, of whatever nature they may be, should always be fully adequate, and be well and firmly set into the ground, that they may not be in danger of giving way while the plants are rising upon them. It will seldom be necessary to stop the plants from running too high, but this may be occasionally of use in preventing their running up too weak.

VOLUBILES, or VOLUBILIS, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Africa, in Mauritania Tingitana, upon the route, according to Anton. Itin. from Tocologida to Tingis, between Tocologida and Aqua Dacica; it was a Roman colony. Pliny calls it Volubile Oppidum, and gives an erroneous account of it. Hardouin differs from other geographers, who consider Fez as the ancient Volubilis, without sufficient reason. See FEZ.

VOLUBILIS CAULIS, in *Botany and Vegetable Physiology*, a Twining Stem, (see CAULIS and STEM,) is one which supports itself on other plants, independent of tendrils, by assuming a spiral direction, and embracing every thing that comes in its way. Each species of twining plant has its appropriate direction, in some to the right, in others to the left, nor can that direction be counteracted, or impeded, by any mechanical force. Many tendrils, on the contrary, make a greater number of convolutions in one direction, than in another, the better to ensure a support for the plant that is furnished with them.

VOLUCE, or VOLUCA, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Hispania Citerior, E. of Clunia and S.W. of Numance.

VOLVENS OCULI, in *Anatomy*, a name given by Spi-

gelius and some others, to one of the muscles of the eye, called by Cowper and Albinus, *obliquus inferior*.

VOLUERA, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Po; 7 miles S.W. of Trino.

VOLVIC, a town of France, in the department of the Puy de Dôme; 3 miles S.W. of Riom.

VOLVICARA, a town of Naples, in Calabria Citra; 9 miles E.S.E. of Scalea.

VOLUME, VOLUMEN, a book, or writing, of a fit bulk to be bound by itself.

The word has its rise à *volvendo*, *rolling*, or *winding*; the ancient way of making up books being in rolls of bark, or parchment.

This manner lasted till Cicero's time, and long after paper was invented, and books written upon it. The several sheets were glued, or pasted, end to end, written only on one side; and at the bottom a stick was fastened, called *umbilicus*; and at the other end a piece of parchment, on which was the title of the book in letters of gold. And yet, we are assured, king Attalus, or rather Eumenes, had, long before, done up some of his books in the square form; as having found the secret of parchment, which would bear writing on both sides.

The library of Ptolemy, king of Egypt, contained, according to Aulus Gellius, 300,000 volumes; and, according to Sabellicus, 700,000.

Raymund Lully wrote about 4000 volumes; of which we have divers catalogues extant. It is held, that Trimegistus wrote 6525 volumes; others say, 36,529; but it is much more rational to suppose, with La Croix, that it was the custom with the Egyptians to put all the books they composed under the name of *Tri/megistus*.

At present, volume is chiefly used in the same sense with tome, for a part, or division, of a work, bound separately. In this sense we say, "The Councils are printed at the Louvre, in thirty-seven volumes." See TOME.

VOLUME of a Body is also used among foreign philosophers, for its bulk, or the space inclosed within its superficies.

VOLUME de Voix, in French *Musick*, is the compass or extent of a voice from its lowest, or most grave sound, to the most acute. According to Rousseau, the common compass of voices is only eight or nine notes. There have been voices that have extended to two octaves of real voice, *voce di petto*; and Agujari, with the addition of two or three notes in falset, had a compass of three octaves.

There is another expressive acceptance of the word *volume* in speaking of a great voice: as it was justly said of Manzoni's vocal organ, that it was a *volume of voice*.

VOLUMUS, in *Law*, the first word of a clause in one species of the king's writs of protection, and letters patent.

VOLUNT, VOLUNTAS, is when a tenant holds lands, &c. at the will of the lessor, or lord of the manor.

VOLUNTARY, in the *Schools*. The generality of philosophers use voluntary in the same sense with spontaneous; and apply it to any thing arising from an internal principle, attended with a due knowledge of it.

Aristotle, and his followers, restrain the term voluntary to those actions that proceed from an inward principle, which knows all the circumstances of the action.

There are two things, therefore, required to the voluntariness of an action: the first, that it proceeds from an inward principle; thus, walking for pleasure-sake, is a voluntary action; as arising from the will commanding, and the moving faculty obeying, which are both internal. On the

the contrary, the motion of a man dragged to prison is not voluntary.

The second, that the action be performed with a perfect intelligence of the end, and circumstances of it; in which sense the actions of brutes, children, sleeping people, &c. are not properly voluntary.

Anatomists distinguish between the voluntary and natural or involuntary motions in the body. Of the latter kind are those of the heart, lungs, pulse, &c.

VOLUNTARY, in *Musick*, a piece played by a musician extempore, according to his fancy. This is often used before he begins to set himself to play any particular composition, to try the instrument, and to lead him into the key of the piece he intends to perform. See **RESEARCH**.

In these performances, we have frequently heard great players produce passages and effects in fits of enthusiasm and inspiration, that have never appeared on paper. In these happy moments

“Such sounds escape the daring artist’s hand
As meditation never could command;
And though the slaves to frigid rules may flatter,
They penetrate and charm the feeling heart.”

In the Philosophical Transactions, N° 483, sect. 2. we have a method of writing down extemporary voluntaries, or other pieces of music, as fast as any master can play them on the organ, or harpsichord; and that in a manner expressive of all the varieties those instruments are capable of. This is performed by a cylinder, turning equally upon its axis, under the keys of an organ, and by having points under the heads of the keys. Hence, when they are pressed down, they will make a scratch or mark on the cylinder, which may shew the duration of the note; and the situation of this mark on the cylinder will shew what note was touched. For farther particulars we refer the curious to the Transaction itself.

VOLUNTARY Agent, *Escape, Homicide, Novation*; see the substantives.

VOLUNTEERS, in the *Military Art*, persons who enter of their own accord to serve in the army. See **LISTING**.

On occasion of danger from invasion, the people have been invited to form themselves into volunteer corps for their own protection. A plan for this purpose was proposed by earl Shelburne, then secretary of state, in 1782, when the French threatened an invasion of this country; but as peace soon took place, the plan was not put in execution. In similar circumstances of preparations on the part of the enemy, and menaces of a descent in 1797, a proposal of the same kind was made by Mr. Dundas, and accepted in every part of the kingdom with the utmost alacrity and zeal; and in a very few months a new army of citizens was enrolled and mustered, in appearance equal to the regular and militia forces; and in the discipline of the parade very little inferior. Previously to this, from the very commencement of the war, volunteer companies had been raised in different parts of England among the resident inhabitants, particularly in the towns contiguous to the sea-coast. At the same time troops of horse were levied among the gentlemen and yeomen of the country, upon the same principle with the volunteer companies. These were called the yeomanry cavalry. Of these volunteer corps, both of horse and foot, some served without any pay from government: others received pay and allowances, under certain regulations. The provisions and regulations, pertaining to volunteers, whilst their corps

existed, were established by the 44 Geo. III. c. 54: But it is now needless to enlarge on this subject.

VOLUNTII, in *Ancient Geography*, a people who inhabited the E. coast of Hibernia, S. of the Daunii. Ptol.

VOLUNTOWN, in *Geography*, a town of Connecticut, was settled in 1696, containing 1016 inhabitants; 20 miles N.E. of Norwich.

VOLVOX, in the Linnaean system of *Natural History*, a genus of the order of Infusoria, in the class of Vermes. Its characters are, that it is inconspicuous with a naked eye, very simple, pellucid, and spherical. The body of this animal is smooth, gelatinous, roundish, without joints, and formed for a whirling or vertiginous motion. Its young are roundish, and lodged in small holes in different parts of the body. Of this genus, Gmelin enumerates ten species: viz. the *bulbo*, *pilvus*, *globator*, *dimidiatus*, *sphaerula*, *uva*, *lunula*, *confictor*, *pilula*, and *globulus*. See **VERMES**. See also **GLOBE Animalcule** and **BEROE**.

VOLUPIA, in *Mythology*, the goddess of pleasure, the feigned daughter of Cupid and Pylche, who had a temple at Rome, in which was her statue; and a festival in honour of her was celebrated annually on the 21st of December.

VOLURA, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Po, during the French revolution; 7 miles W. of Turin.

VOLUSENUS, **FLORENTIUS**, **FLORENCE WILSON**, in *Biography*, a distinguished poet of the 16th century, prosecuted his studies, first at Aberdeen, and afterwards at Paris, where he was intrusted with the tuition of cardinal Wolsey’s nephew. After the uncle’s death, he was patronized by two other cardinals, Jean de Lorraine and Jean de Bellay. As he was proceeding with the latter towards Rome, in 1538, he was seized with an indispotion which detained him at Carpentras. Here he waited on cardinal Sadoleto, then bishop of the see; who was so delighted with his literary accomplishments and elegant manners, that he placed him at the head of a classical seminary in that city. Wilson afterwards intended to revisit his native country, but death overtook him at Vienna, in the year 1546. F. Wilson was a scholar whom Buchanan has celebrated as dear to the Muses. He is known as the author of a classical dialogue on tranquillity of mind, entitled “De Animi Tranquillitate Dialogus.” Lugd. apud Gynphium 1543, 4to.

VOLUSPA, q. d. *the oracle of the prophetess*, in *Mythology*, a poem of about four hundred verses, forming part of the ancient *Edda*; which see.

The *Edda* is a collection of various odes, which, as some have suggested, are the fragments only of a much larger work, long lost to the world. It has been generally ascribed, as we have mentioned under the article **EDDA**, to Sæmund Sigfuson, an eminent Icelandic, born A.D. 1056 or 1057, who, from his knowledge, writings, and various acquisitions, has been called by succeeding authors, *Frøde*, or the learned. His claims, however, have been contested; and strong reasons have been urged for believing that Sæmund did not compose, perhaps not even compile, the *Edda* which is ascribed to him. The principal opponent of Sæmund’s claim to the first *Edda* is Arnas Magnæus; whose recondite inquiries into the early literature of Iceland have given him much celebrity. See his *Life of Sæmund Frøde*, prefixed to the *Edda Sæmundæ*, Hafnia, 1787, cited by sir George Steuart Mackenzie, bart. in his “Travels in the Island of Iceland,” 1810.

VOLUTA, the *Volute*, in *Natural History*, the name of a genus of shells, for an account of which see **CONCHOLGY**. Gmelin enumerates 141 species.

VOLUTE,

VOLUTE, **VOLUTA**, in *Architectura*, a kind of spiral scroll, used in the Ionic and Composite capitals; of which it makes the principal characteristic and ornament.

Some call it the *ram's horn*, from its figure, which bears a near resemblance to it.

Most architects suppose, that the ancients intended the volute to represent the bark or rind of a tree, laid under the abacus, and twisted thus at each extreme, where it is at liberty: others will have it a sort of pillow or bolster, laid between the abacus and echinus, to prevent the latter being broken by the weight of the former, and the entablature over it; and, accordingly, they call it *pulvinus*. Others, after Vitruvius, will have it to represent the curls, or tresses, of a woman's hair.

The number of volutes in the Ionic order is four; in the Composite, eight.

There are also eight angular volutes in the Corinthian capital, accompanied with eight other smaller ones, called *helices*.

There are several diversities practised in the volute. In some, the lift or edge, throughout all the circumvolutions, is in the same line or plane: such are the antique Ionic volutes, and those of Vignola. In others, the spires or circumvolutions fall back; in others, they project, or stand out. Again, in some, the circumvolutions are oval; in others, the canal of one circumvolution is detached from the lift of another, by a vacancy or aperture. In others, the rind is parallel to the abacus, and springs out from behind the flower of it. In others, it seems to spring out of the vase, from behind the ovum, and rises to the abacus, as in most of the fine Composite capitals.

The volute is a part of great importance to the beauty of the column. Hence, architects have invented divers ways of delineating it. The principal are that of Vitruvius, which was long lost, and at last restored by Goldman; and that of Palladio. Daviler prefers the former as the easier. The manner of which is as follows:

Draw the cathetus FC (*Plate XV. Geometry, fig. 19.*) whose length must be half a module, and from the point C describe the eye of the volute AEBD, of which the diameter is to be 34 minutes; divide it into four equal sectors by the diameters A, B, D, E: bisect the radii CA, CB, in 1 and 4; construct a square 1, 2, 3, 4, from the centre C to the angles 2, 3; draw the diagonal C 2, C 3, and divide the side of the square 1, 4, into six equal parts, at 5, 9, C, 12, 8; then through the points 5, 9, 12, 8, draw the lines 5, 6, 9, 10, 12, 11, 8, 7, parallel to the diameter E D, which will cut the diagonals in 6, 7, 10, 11, and the points 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, will be the centres of the volutes. From the first centre 1, with the interval I F, describe the quadrant FG, from the second centre 2, with the interval 2 G, describe the quadrant G H, and continuing the same operation from all the twelve centres, the contour of the volute will be completed.

The centres for describing the fillet are found in this manner: construct a triangle, of which the side AF (*fig. 20.*) is equal to the part of the cathetus contained between A F, and the side FV equal to C 1; on the side A F, place the distance FS from F towards A, equal to FS, the breadth of the fillet, and through the point S draw the line ST, which will be to C 1 in the same proportion as AS is to A F; place this line on each side of the centre C, on the diameter of the eye AB; divide it into three equal parts; and through the points of division, draw lines parallel to the diameter E D, which will cut the diagonals C 2, C 3, and you will have twelve new centres, from whence the interior

contour of the fillet may be described, in the same manner as the exterior one was from the first centres.

Consoles, modillions, and other sorts of ornaments, have likewise their volutes, or scrolls.

VOLUTE, *Canal of the*. See CANAL.

VOLUTE, *Eye of the*. See EYE.

VOLUTELLA, in *Botany*, Forsk. *Ægypt.-Arab.* 84, so called on account of its twining and slender habit, is rightly pointed out by Juslieu, *Gen.* 440, on the authority of Vahl, as a *Cassipha*. Linnaeus has marked it so in his own copy of Forkall's work. We presume it to be the identical *C. filiformis*. Forskall speaks of this plant as not uncommon in Arabia, where it climbs trees, entangling their branches very much. The stem is exceedingly slender, without branches or leaves; the flowers scarcely visible; the berries, which are eaten by children, are insipid, with a flavour of pepper, but no acrimony. Are there any considerable points of agreement between this obscure genus and *Afarum*?

VOLUTINA, in *Mythology*, a rural goddess of the Romans, whom they invoked, for the coat that covers the ear of corn.

VOLVULA, in *Natural History*, the name of an extraneous fossile body, nearly allied to the entrochus, being composed of the same substance, and being like that of a cylindric column, made up of several joints; the commissures of the joints are, however, much less visible in the volvula than in the entrochi, and they are not striated, as in the entrochus, from the centre to the circumference.

The volvulae are of various figures; some resemble in shape a little bottle, and are called *volvula utriculata*, and of these some have, and others have not, a star marked on their bottom; others of them swell out in the middle, and taper a little toward each end; and these, from their resemblance in shape to a little barrel, are called *dolioli*, or *volvula doliate*. There is great reason, from the analogy these bear to the entrochi, and other fossils which owe their form to animal remains, to suppose these of the same origin; but we yet know not to what animal it is that they have belonged. Hill's Hist. Foss.

VOLVULUS, in *Botany*, a name given by Dalechamp, and some others, to the upright narrow-leaved or toad-flax-leaved bind-weed. See CONVOLVULUS.

VOLVULUS, in *Conchology*, a species of *Helix*, which see.

VOLVULUS, in *Entomology*, a species of *Cerambyx*, which see.

VOLVULUS, in *Medicine*, a name which some authors give to the iliac passion, by others called *chordapfus*; and by others, *misereere mei*.

VOLX, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Lower Alps; 6 miles S.E. of Forcalquier.

VOLZANA, a town of the duchy of Carniola, on the Lifonzo; 12 miles S.W. of Feldes.

VOMANO, a river of Naples, which runs into the Adriatic, 5 miles N.N.E. of Atri.

VOMANUS, in *Ancient Geography*, a river of Italy, in Picenum, still called Vomano.

VOMAS, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Allier; 18 miles E.S.E. of Moulins.

VOMER, in *Anatomy*, a bone of the nose. See CRANIUM.

VOMER, in *Ichthyology*, a species of zeus, with a forked tail and spine recumbent before the anal and dorsal fin. This is an American fish.

VOMICA, in *Natural History*, a word used by the ancients to express one of the blemishes to which crystals and the

the precious stones are subject. This is a dusky foulness lying deep in the stone, and giving a dusky colour and tinge to the whole. Both the lustre and transparency of the stone are much hurt by this accident. When the vomica was of a blueish or blackish colour, the Romans expressed it by the word *plumbago*.

VOMICA, in *Medicine*, an abscess, or collection of purulent matter in the substance of the lungs. This, like all other abscesses, is the result of previous inflammation in the part which it occupies, and is, therefore, one of the terminations of peripneumony, of which, in that case, it constitutes the last stage. (See *PERIPNEUMONY*.) If a vomica bursts through the exterior surface of the lungs, and the matter consequently escapes into the cavity of the thorax, the disease is then called *empyema*.

VOMICA, *Nux*, *Vomic Nut*. See *NUX Vomica*.

VOMIER, in *Botany*, Poirlet in Lamarck Dict. v. 8. 692, a French name, whose derivation or meaning we cannot trace, applied by this author to our *ERIOSTEMON*; see that article.

VOMIT, **BLACK**, in *Medicine*, an appellation given by the first writers on the diseases of tropical climates to the *yellow fever*, the most formidable and fatal symptom of which is a vomiting of a black matter, consisting of grumous blood and bile. This symptom, however early it appeared, was generally soon followed by death, and being the most remarkable and distressing character of the disease, its name was given to the whole fever: it is observed, however, in the bilious remittents of more northern latitudes, as of Spain and Egypt, and was noticed by Hippocrates as a fatal symptom of the *causos*, or ardent fever, endemic in his time in the countries bordering on the Mediterranean. See *FEVER, Yellow*.

VOMITING, in *Animals*, is the inverted action of the stomach, or the act of discharging the contents of it by the mouth. Of this the horse is incapable or deprived, on account of a peculiarity of structure in the parts; but dogs, cats, and other animals, vomit very readily, and are often much benefited in this way, by the use of proper medicines, in different diseases with which they are affected.

VOMITING, in *Medicine*, the act of ejecting the contents of the stomach through the gullet and mouth, commonly preceded by a sensation of *nausea*.

It has been a question much discussed by physiologists, how the matters contained in the sac of the stomach are thus forcibly expelled in a retrograde direction? some supposing that this was effected by the retrograde action of the muscular coat of the stomach itself, and others contending that the action of the diaphragm and abdominal muscles was the principal force employed in the act. This question has been amply expounded, and the affirmative of the latter opinion shewn to be correct under the head of *STOMACH*, to which we refer the reader.

Vomiting is not to be considered as itself a distinct species of disease, but merely as a symptom of various morbid affections, either of the stomach itself, or of some other organ of the body with which it is connected by sympathy. As a symptom, however, which is always distressing, and often very urgent, it frequently becomes the object of medical treatment, and it is therefore important to distinguish the causes from which it originates in different instances, in order that the appropriate remedies may be selected.

The first set of causes of vomiting, to which we have alluded, are those which affect the stomach itself. There are various morbid conditions of that organ, or the irritation of substances introduced into it. Thus vomiting is a symp-

tom of inflammation of the coats of the stomach (see *GASTRITIS*), which are rendered so irritable as to reject every thing introduced within its cavity. A scirrhus or cancerous state of the stomach is also attended by vomiting, especially when that disease diminishes the aperture of the pylorus, and prevents the passage of the aliment into the intestines. Vomiting is likewise often a symptom of *dyspepsia*, or indigestion, and is then occasioned either by the irritation of undigested food, or the acrimony of fluids generated during the imperfect process of digestion: whence the matters vomited are often acid or acrimonious, irritating the gullet and fauces as they pass. Sometimes in these cases the vomiting is excited by the regurgitation of the bile, when it is superabundant; but most commonly that fluid is only vomited after repeated and severe retchings, by which the bile is brought into the stomach from the upper intestine. Vomiting is sometimes also a symptom of the stomach colic, or cramp in that organ, in which case, as in the inflammation, it is accompanied by intense pain.

The cure of the vomiting in these cases will depend upon the removal of the respective diseased conditions of the stomach of which it is symptomatic. In *gastritis*, it can only be removed by copious blood-letting, blistering, or cupping the region of the stomach, or applying leeches; for it is in vain to attempt to introduce medicine into an inflamed stomach; and opium would, if it could be retained, aggravate the original disease. In the cramp of the stomach, on the other hand, opium largely given, with hot fomentations, would be the most effectual remedy. In cancer or scirrhus, alleviation of the sickness is all that can be expected; and opium or hyoscyamus affords the best means of soothing that malady. In a state of indigestion, vomiting will be cured by adhering to a light and digestible diet; by the use of absorbents, such as magnesia or chalk, with light aromatics, especially where the vomitings are acid; and by whatever strengthens the tone of the stomach, and improves the digestive function; such as bitters, horse-exercise, cold-bath, &c.

When vomiting is produced by substances taken into the stomach, and immediately irritating its sensible surface, such as the metallic or other poisons; the obvious remedy will be to get rid of the irritating substance, if possible, to dilute and weaken its acrimonious quality, or to change or decompose it by chemical means. In all such cases, the copious introduction of tepid fluids should be immediately resorted to.

The second set of causes of vomiting, which we have mentioned above, are those which influence the stomach only by sympathy, the actual seat of the irritation being in some other, even distant organ; the varieties of the causes producing vomiting in this indirect way are, therefore, as numerous as the sympathies of that important organ with almost every other organ in the body.

Many affections of the head are attended with vomiting. *Vertigo*, or giddiness, from whatever cause it originates, is liable to induce nausea, and even that most violent and distressing species of vomiting, *sea-sickness*. (See *VERTIGO*.) Blows on the head, inflammation of the brain or its membranes, fractures and depressions of the skull, are almost constantly productive of vomiting; which, in such cases, can of course only be relieved by removing the pressure or curing the inflammation of the brain.

With almost every organ of the abdomen the stomach sympathizes so closely, that violent vomiting is the consequence of irritations in most of them. The kidneys are seldom affected with disease, without producing sickness in the

the stomach, and the most violent and unremitting retching is occasioned by the existence of a small calculus in the pelvis of the kidney, or its passage along the ureter into the bladder. With both colic, or spasmodic constriction, and inflammation of the intestinal canal, vomiting is a constant attendant; and it often accompanies diseases of the liver. Affections of the uterus in women very frequently occasion sickness, and among the first symptoms of the distension of that organ in pregnancy, nausea and vomiting frequently occur.

Although these sympathetic vomitings are manifestly dependent on other irritations, the removal or alleviation of which will be the only effectual cure, by means adapted to them respectively; yet some alleviation of these sicknesses is often attainable by diminishing the irritability of the stomach itself. The carbonic acid, or fixed air, appears to have this quality in a certain degree, whence soda-water, or the saline draught, swallowed during the effervescence, will sometimes materially allay these sympathetic vomitings. This is also occasionally effected by an absorbent, with a light aromatic, or a cordial distilled water. Thus a little magnesia in peppermint or pimento water will sometimes allay such a sickness. An opiate, or the extract of hop or hennbane, may be now and then added to these medicines with advantage, as they tend to lessen the irritability, and render the stomach less sensible to the irritation.

VOMITING of Blood. See HEMATEMESIS.

VOMITING excited by Medicine. See EMETICS.

VOMITING Julep. See JULEP.

VOMITIVES, or VOMITIVE Medicines. See EMETICS.

VONA, in Geography, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in the government of Sivas; 70 miles W. of Trebizond. N. lat. 41° 10'. E. long. 38°.

VONC, a town of France, in the department of the Ardennes; 6 miles N. of Vouziers.

VONDEL, JOOST VANDEM, in Biography, a Dutch poet, was the son of parents who belonged to the sect of Mennonites, and born at Cologne in the year 1587. His education was merely adapted to trade, and having married in 1610, he commenced business as a hosier at Amsterdam; but with talents superior to his station, he entrusted his wife with the conduct of his trade, and directed his attention to literary and religious speculations. In the disputes between the Arminians and Gomarists, he took part with the former, and joined their communion. His first poetical productions were the mere fruits of untaught genius; but apprehending that he might derive advantage from those sources of information to which he had no access, on account of his ignorance of the learned languages, he began, at the age of 30 years, to learn the Latin and French, and to study logic. Attached to the Arminian party, he exposed the injustice of the sentence against Barneveldt in an allegorical tragedy, entitled "Palamedes, or Innocence oppressed," for which he was prosecuted and fined. Conceiving prejudices against the reformed religion, probably on account of the attachment of the Dutch ministers to the Orange faction, he became a Roman Catholic; and afterwards published a tragedy, intitled "Gisbert Van Amstel," or the capture of Amsterdam by Florence V. count of Holland; and many other poems, one on the subject of "The Mysteries, or the Secrets of the Altar." He also translated into Dutch verse Virgil, Horace, and Ovid's Metamorphoses, by which he gained considerable reputation. But, like many authors, he neglected his affairs, and suffered pecuniary embarrassments. He lived however to a great age, and closed life in 1679, in his 92d year; having acquired the honour of being

VOL. XXXVII.

regarded as one of the principal ornaments of his country. His works amount to nine vols. 4to. Moreri.

VONJASH, in Geography, a town of Abascia, on the Black sea; 30 miles N.W. of Mamak.

VONITZA, a town of European Turkey, in Albania; 62 miles N.W. of Lepanto. N. lat. 39° 15'. E. long. 21° 2'.

VOOR, in Agriculture, a term applied to fallow land, or such as is frequently ploughed over, in different cafes. See FALLOW.

VOORN, or OOST-VOORN, in Geography, an island of Holland, situated at the mouth of the Meuse; about 20 miles in length, and 5 in breadth. This island, with Goree and Overflakke, form the territory called *Voornland*; which formerly belonged to Zealand: Briel is the capital.

VOORN, a small island at the union of the Wahal and the Meuse, with a fort belonging to the state of Utrecht; 9 miles N.N.E. of Bois le Duc.

VOPISCUS, a Latin term, used in respect to twins in the womb, for that which comes to the perfect birth; the other being before excluded abortive.

VOPISCUS, FLAVIUS, in Biography, a Latin historian, was a native of Syracuse, and flourished about A.D. 304. He began his history with the reign of Aurelian, which he profecuted with those of Tacitus and his brother Flavianus, and Probus. He then published an account of the four tyrants, Firmus, Saturninus, Proculus, and Bonofus, and also of the three emperors Carus, Numerianus, and Carinus. These are extant, and are contained in the "Historie Auguste Scriptores." Among the best of these is Vopiscus, who excelled in learning, and also in chronological arrangement. He is said to have given credit to the wonderful works of Apollonius Tyaneus, whose life he had an intention of writing.

VOPOKAS, in Geography, a town of Russia, in the province of Ustiug, on the Vitchegda. N. lat. 63° 10'. E. long. 54° 14'.

VORALBERG, a tract of country, containing some lordships, S.E. of the lake of Constance; so called from the mountain of Alberg, near which it is situated; ceded to Bavaria by the peace of Preburg.

VORALEN, a town of Hinder Pomerania; 10 miles S.W. of New Stettin.

VORAU, a town of the duchy of Stiria; 7 miles N.W. of Hardberg.

VORBACH ZOMMERN, a town of the county of Hohenloe; 3 miles E.S.E. of Weickertheim.

VORCHEIM. See FORCHEIM.

VORCLUT, a cape of the island of Jersey; 5 miles N.E. of St. Helier.

VORDEN, or VOERDEN, a town of Westphalia, in the bishopric of Paderborn; 17 miles E.N.E. of Paderborn. N. lat. 51° 45'. E. long. 0° 18'.

VORDEN, a town of Westphalia, in the bishopric of Osnabruck. Both the Roman Catholics and Lutherans have a church here in common; 10 miles N.N.E. of Osnabruck. N. lat. 52° 29'. E. long. 8° 4'.

VORDENBURG, a town of the duchy of Stiria; 4 miles N. of Leoben.

VORDENSES, in Ancient Geography, a people of Gallia Narbonnenfis, W. of the Vulgientes. They are placed by some on the seite of the town of Gordes, near that of Apt.

VORE, in Agriculture, a term sometimes used to signify the narrow strip of ground which is left whole, for turning the furrow-slice upon, in some modes of paring and burning.

It is also applied to the head of the teasle plant, which does not become ripe and run until the third year, such heads being called vore.

VOREDA, in *Ancient Geography*, a Roman station, marked in the second Iter of Antonine between Lugvallium (Carlisle) and Brovonacis (Kirbythure), situated at Old Penrith. This, without doubt, was the place where this station was situated, at the N.W. end of Plumpton wall, about 4 miles to the N. of the present town of Penrith, on a noble military way, which is there in the highest preservation.

VOREPPE, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Isère; 8 miles N.N.W. of Grenoble.

VORGANIUM, in *Ancient Geography*, the capital of the Osismii, who occupied the western part of Brittany, through its whole extent.

VORINGEN, or *Stadt Voringen*, in *Geography*, a town of Germany, in the principality of Hohen Zollern, on the Lauchart, formerly the chief place of a county, now extinct; 10 miles S.E. of Hohen Zollern. N. lat. $48^{\circ} 11'$. E. long. $9^{\circ} 15'$.

VORMS, called *Vormsfaari*, and in modern charts *Ormsen*, an island of the Baltic, 14 versts in length, in breadth rather more than 9 versts, and of a nearly quadrangular shape.

VORÖCHITA, in *Ancient Geography*, an island of the Persian gulf, upon the coast of Carmania. Ptolemy.

VORONEZ, in *Geography*, a town of Russia, and capital of a government, called "Voronezskoi," situated at the conflux of a small river, called by the same name, with the Don; and surrounded with wooden walls. The citadel is on the opposite side of the Voronez river, furnished with 150 pieces of cannon, and a large garrison. Here are docks for building vessels, large and small, good warehouses for naval stores, &c. It is the see of a bishop, and a place of considerable trade. The number of inhabitants is about 12,000; 256 miles S. of Moscow. N. lat. $51^{\circ} 36'$. E. long. 39° .

VORONEZ, a river of Russia, which runs into the Don at Voronez.

VORONEZSKOI, a government of Russia, bounded on the north-east by Tambovskoe, on the south and south-east by the country of the Cossacks, on the north-west by Orlovskoe, on the west by Kurskoe and Charkovskoe; about 260 miles in length, and 104 in its mean breadth. N. lat. $48^{\circ} 50'$ to $53^{\circ} 16'$. E. long. 37° to 42° .

VORRACH, a town of Bavaria, in the territory of Nuremberg; 4 miles N. of Nuremberg.

VORRAGE, in *Agriculture*, a term applied to the earth or mould which is collected and provided for "milling" or mixing with lime, in the making of composts.

VORSE, in *Geography*, a river of France, which runs into the Oise, near Noyon.

VORSKLA, a river of Russia, which runs into the Dnieper, 20 miles E. of Kreumengug.

VORST, a town of the duchy of Wurzburg; 6 miles E. of Schweinfurt.

VORSTIUS, CONRAD, (VON DEM VORST,) in *Bio-graphy*, an eminent Arminian divine, was born at Cologne in 1569, and finished his classical instruction at Dusseldorp. Having been entered at the college of St. Lawrence in Cologne in 1587, he left it without taking a degree, because his conscience would not allow his swearing adherence to the decrees of the council of Trent. At this time the circumstances of his family rendered it expedient for him to turn his attention to trade, for which he qualified himself by

learning arithmetic, and the French and Italian languages. However, he afterwards, viz. in 1589, resumed his studies at Herborn; and in 1593 he accompanied some young persons of rank as their tutor to Heidelberg. Here he was created a doctor of divinity, and he then visited the academies of Switzerland and Geneva. At Geneva he read lectures on theology, and was offered a professorship; but declining this, he accepted a similar office at Steinfurt in 1596, where he gained such reputation as to induce other Protestant universities to invite him to the theological chair. His orthodoxy being suspected, he repaired to Heidelberg for a certificate of his soundness in the faith, protesting against the opinions of Socinus, and apologizing for some expressions which he had used in their favour. In 1610 he removed from Steinfurt, to succeed Arminius as theological professor at Leyden. Here the Gomarists, or rigorous Calvinists, appealing to his work, intitled "Tractatus Theologicus de Deo, five de Natura et Attributis Dei," charged him with many heresies; and not only engaged several foreign universities in their party, but induced our royal pedant, James I., to aid them with his concurrence. The king, acute in discovering theological errors, and fond of exercising his authority in suppressing them, sent to his resident at the Hague a list of various heresies, which he had by an hour's reading found in Vorstius's book; and notified to the states how much he detested these errors, and the persons who tolerated them. In order to maintain consistency of conduct, his majesty ordered several copies of Vorstius's book to be committed to the flames at London, Oxford, and Cambridge. He also wrote to the states, vehemently urging them to dismiss the professor, whose blasphemies, if he continued to maintain them, would justify his being burnt; and at the same time menacing, that unless they were ardent in extirpating "these germs of atheism, he would publicly separate from such false and heretical churches; and, as defender of the faith, exhort all other reformed churches to take common council for extinguishing and sending back to hell these abominable heresies; and would forbid all his own subjects to haunt so infected a spot as the university of Leyden." James also wielded his pen against Vorstius, who resisted the attack by a short and respectful reply. The States were not much moved by the threats of the authoritative and incensed monarch; for, though they suspended the professor till he had an opportunity of exculpating himself, they appointed a conference at the Hague, in April, 1611, between six ministers of both of the opposite parties, in presence of the curators of the university of Leyden, before whom Vorstius pleaded his own cause, and they determined in his favour. The triumph of Vorstius would have been complete, if he had not been implicated in a suspicion of heresy, occasioned by the publication, on the part of some of his disciples, of a small tract, intitled "De Officio Christiani Hominis," which contained Anti-Trinitarian doctrines. Vorstius, though he signed a confession of faith conformable to the Trinitarian system, found it expedient to relinquish his professorship, and to remove from Leyden till the storm subsided. Accordingly he withdrew to Tergou in 1612, and resided there for seven years, without a shade on his character. In 1619 a synod was held at Dordrecht, in which the Anti-Arminian party was predominant. This synod condemned Vorstius, unheard, as unworthy of the professorship; and in consequence of this judgment, the States deprived him of it, and for ever banished him from their territories. He lived two years longer in secrecy, but not without apprehension for the safety of his life. At length the duke of Holstein collected the dispersed relics of the Arminians,

Arminians, and gave them a place for building a town, to which Vortius repaired in 1622; but being soon taken ill, he died at Tonningen, in September, at the age of 53 years, with every token of pious resignation. His remains were interred at Fridrichstadt, the new Arminian settlement, with great solemnity. He is known as the author of several theological writings, chiefly relating to the controversy between the Roman Catholics and his Protestant antagonists. His son, *William Henry Vortius*, published some works in rabbinical literature. Bayle.

VORSTIUS, JOHN, a German theologian, was born at Ditmarsh, in Holstein, and joining the Calvinist church, though a native Lutheran, became librarian to the elector of Brandenburg, in which connection he died in 1676. He was skilled in the Latin, Greek, and Hebrew languages, and published several learned works. The earliest of these was printed at Rostock in 1641, and intitled "Quædam de Stylo Novi Testamenti excogitata." The first part of this work, on the Hebraisms of the New Testament, was printed at Leyden, in 1658, 4to. under the title of "Philologia Sacra;" and the second part at Amsterdam, in 1665, 2 vols. 4to., and at Frankfort in 1705. Other tracts on scriptural topics were published in the "Fasciculus Opusculorum Historicorum et Philologicorum," Rotterd. 1693. Moreri.

VORTEX, WHIRLWIND, in *Meteorology*, a sudden, rapid, violent motion of the air, in gyres, or circles. See *WHIRL-Wind*.

VORTEX, Vorage, is also used for an eddy, or whirlpool, or a body of water, in certain seas and rivers, which runs rapidly round, forming a sort of cavity in the middle.

The ordinary course of these vortices is a gulf or outlet, by which the water of the sea, &c. is absorbed, or precipitates itself into some other receptacle: sometimes to some other communicant sea; and sometimes, perhaps, into the vast abyss of central water.

VORTEX, an Artificial, expressive of the phenomena of the natural ones, may be made with a cylindric vessel, placed immovable on an horizontal plane, and filled to a certain height with water. In this water a stick being plunged, and turned round as briskly as may be, the water is necessarily put into a pretty rapid circular motion, and rises to the very edge of the vessel; and, when there arrived, ceases to be farther agitated.

The water thus raised forms a cavity in the middle, whose figure is that of a truncated cone; its base is the same with the upper cavity of the vessel; and its vortex in the axis of the cylinder.

What raises the water at the side of the vessel, which occasions the cavity in the middle, is its centrifugal force. For the motion of the water being circular, it respects a centre taken in the axis of the vessel; or, which is the same, in the axis of the vortex formed by the water; the same velocity, then, being impressed on all the water, the circumference of a smaller circle of water, or a circle less remote from the axis, has a greater centrifugal force than another that is greater or more remote from the axis. The smaller circle, therefore, drives the greater towards the side of the vessel; and from this pressure, or impulsion, which all the circles receive from the smaller ones that precede them, and convey to the greater which follow them, arises that elevation of the water along the edge of the vessel to the very top, where we suppose the motion to cease.

With a vortex thus formed, Mr. Saulmon, of the Royal Academy of Sciences, made divers experiments, by putting several solid bodies therein, to acquire the same circular motion, with intent to discover which of them, in making

their revolution round the axis of the vortex, approach toward, or recede from it, and with what velocity. The result was, that the heavier the body, still the greater was its recess from the axis.

Mr. Saulmon's view, in this attempt, was to shew how the laws of mechanics produce the celestial motions, and that it is probably to those motions that the gravity or weight of bodies is owing. But, unhappily, the experiments shew just the contrary of what they should do, to confirm the Cartesian doctrine of gravity. See *WHIRLING Table*.

VORTEX, in the *Cartesian Philosophy*, is a system or collection of particles of matter moving the same way, and round the same axis.

Such vortices are the grand machines by which these philosophers solve most of the motions, and other phenomena of the heavenly bodies. Accordingly, the doctrine of these vortices makes a great part of the Cartesian philosophy.

The matter of the world they hold to have been divided at the beginning into innumerable little equal particles, each endowed with an equal degree of motion, both about its own centre, and separately, so as to constitute a fluid.

Several systems, or collections of this matter, they farther hold to have been endowed with a common motion about certain points, as common centres, placed at equal distances, and that the matter, moving round these, composed for many vortices.

Then, the primitive particles of the matter they suppose, by these intestine motions, to become, as it were, ground into spherical figures, and so to compose globules of divers magnitudes; which they call the *matter of the second element*: and the particles rubbed, or ground off them, to bring them to that form, they call the *matter of the first element*.

And since there would be more of this first element than would suffice to fill all the vacuities between the globules of the second, they suppose the remaining part to be driven towards the centre of the vortex, by the circular motion of the globules; and that being there amassed into a sphere, it would produce a body like the sun.

This sun being thus formed, and moving about its own axis with the common matter of the vortex, would necessarily throw out some parts of its matter, through the vacuities of the globules of the second element constituting the vortex; and this especially at such places as are farthest from its poles; receiving, at the same time, in, by these poles, as much as it loses in its equatorial parts. And, by this means, it would be able to carry round with it those globules that are nearest with the greater velocity; and the remoter with less. And, by this means, those globules which are nearest the centre of the sun, must be smallest; because, were they greater, or equal, they would, by reason of their velocity, have a greater centrifugal force, and recede from the centre. If it should happen, that any of these sun-like bodies, in the centres of the several vortices, should be so incrustated and weakened, as to be carried about in the vortex of the true sun; if it were of less solidity, or had less motion, than the globules towards the extremity of the solar vortex, it would descend towards the sun, till it met with globules of the same solidity, and susceptible of the same degree of motions with itself; and thus, being fixed there, it would be for ever after carried about by the motion of the vortex, without either approaching any nearer to, or receding from, the sun; and so would become a planet.

Supposing then all this, we are next to imagine, that our system was at first divided into several vortices, in the centre of each of which was a lucid spherical body; and that some

of these, being gradually incrustated, were swallowed up by others which were larger, and more powerful, till at last they were all destroyed, and swallowed up, by the biggest solar vortex; except some few which were thrown off in right lines from one vortex to another, and so become comets. See *CARTESIAN Philosophy*.

But this doctrine of vortices is, at best, merely hypothetical. It does not pretend to shew by what laws and means the celestial motions are really effected, so much as by what means they possibly might, in case it should have so pleased the Creator. But we have another principle which accounts for the same phenomena as well, nay better than that of vortices; and which we plainly find has an actual existence in the nature of things: and this is gravity, or the weight of bodies.

The vortices, then, should be excluded from philosophy, were it only that two different adequate causes of the same phenomena are inconsistent.

But we have other objections against them. For, 1. If the bodies of the planets and comets be carried round the sun in vortices, the bodies of the parts of the vortex immediately investing them, must move with the same velocity, and in the same direction; and besides, they must have the same density, or the same vis inertiz. But it is evident, that the planets and comets move in the very same parts of the heavens with different velocity, and in different directions. It follows, therefore, that those parts of the vortex must revolve at the same time, in different directions, and with different velocities; since one velocity and direction will be required for the passage of the planets, and another for that of the comets.

2. If it were granted, that several vortices are contained in the same space, and do penetrate each other, and revolve with divers motions; since those motions must be conformable to those of the bodies, which are perfectly regular, and performed in conic sections; it may be asked, How they should have been preserved entire for many ages, and not disturbed and confounded by the adverse actions and shocks of so much matter as they must meet with?

3. The number of comets is very great, and their motions are perfectly regular, observing the same laws with the planets, and moving in orbits that are exceedingly eccentric. Accordingly, they move every way, and to all parts of the heavens, freely pervading the planetary regions, and going frequently contrary to the order of the signs; which would be impossible, unless these vortices were removed.

4. If the planets move round the sun in vortices, those parts of the vortices next the planets, we have already observed, would be equally dense with the planets themselves: consequently the vortical matter contiguous to the perimeter to the earth's orbit, would be as dense as the earth itself: and that between the orbits of the earth and Saturn must be as dense, or denser. For a vortex cannot maintain itself, unless the more dense parts be in the centre, and the less dense towards the circumference: and since the periodical times of the planets are in a sesquialterate ratio of their distances from the sun, the parts of the vortex must be in the same ratio. Whence it follows, that the centrifugal forces of the parts will be reciprocally as the squares of the distances. Such, therefore, as are at a greater distance from the centre, will endeavour to recede with the less force. Accordingly, if they be less dense, they must give way to the greater force, by which the parts nearer the centre endeavour to rise. Thus, the more dense will rise, and the less dense descend; and thus there will be a change of places, till the whole fluid matter of the vortex be so adjusted, as that it may rest in equilibrio.

Thus will the greatest part of the vortex without the earth's orbit have a degree of density and inactivity, not less than that of the earth itself. Whence the comets must meet with a very great resistance, which is contrary to all appearances. Cotel. Praef. ad Newt. Princ. The doctrine of vortices, sir Isaac Newton observes, labours under many difficulties: for a planet to describe areas proportional to the times, the periodical times of the vortex should be in a duplicate ratio of their distances from the sun; and for the periodical times of the planets to be in a sesquialterate proportion of their distances from the sun, the periodical times of the parts of the vortex should be in the same proportion of their distances: and, lastly, for the less vortices about Jupiter, Saturn, and the other planets, to be preserved, and swim securely in the sun's vortex, the periodical times of the parts of the sun's vortex should be equal. None of which proportions are found to obtain in the revolutions of the sun and planets around their axes. Phil. Nat. Princ. Math. apud Schol. Gen. in Calce.

Besides, the planets, according to this hypothesis, being carried about the sun in ellipses, and having the sun in the umbilicus of each figure, by lines drawn from themselves to the sun, do always describe areas proportionable to the times of their revolutions, which that author shews the parts of no vortex can do. Schol. prop. ult. lib. ii. Princip.

Again, Dr. Keill proves, in his Examination of Burnet's Theory, that if the earth were carried in a vortex, it would move faster in the proportion of three to two when it is in Virgo than when it is in Pisces; which all experience proves to be false.

We have, in the Philosophical Transactions, a physico-mathematical demonstration of the impossibility and insufficiency of vortices to account for the celestial phenomena by Monf. de Signorne. See No. 457. sect. vi. p. 409. seq.

This author endeavours to shew, that the mechanical generation of a vortex is impossible; that it has only an axifugal, and not a centrifugal and centripetal force; that it is not sufficient for explaining gravity and its properties; that it destroys Kepler's astronomical laws; and therefore concludes with sir Isaac Newton, that the hypothesis of vortices is fitter to disturb than explain the celestial motions. We must refer to the dissertation itself for the proof of these assertions. See *CARTESIAN Philosophy*.

VORTICELLA, in the Linnæan system of Zoology, a genus of Vermes Infusoria, the characters of which are, that the body is naked and contractile, with a rotatory or whirling motion. Gmelin enumerates fifty-one species. See *VERMES*.

VORTITZA, or **VOSTITZA**, in Geography, a town of European Turkey, in the Morea, on the S. coast of the gulf of Lepanto; 40 miles N.W. of Corinth.

VOS, **MARTIN DE**, in Biography, an eminent Flemish painter, son of Peter de Vos, who was himself an artist and member of the academy at Antwerp. He was born at Antwerp in 1520. His father initiated him in the art, but he afterwards studied under F. Floris until he was twenty-three, and then pursued the cultivation of his mind in Italy. The residence he made at Venice introduced him to the acquaintance of Tintoretto, who not only instructed him in the principles of his practice, but employed him to paint landscapes in his pictures. Hence De Vos became an admirable colourist, and gained considerable reputation and employment. He painted portraits of the family of the Medici, and some historical pictures for them; and after an absence of eight years re-

turned

turned to Flanders. His celebrity accompanied him, and procured him several commissions to paint pictures for churches at Antwerp, and at other places in the Netherlands. In portraiture also he was much employed, and he certainly advanced beyond his contemporaries, in the nature and truth which he gave to his productions. His principal works in the cathedral of Antwerp, are the Marriage of Cana; the Incredulity of Thomas; the Miracle of the Loaves; and the Resurrection; and a fine picture of his of the Last Supper is in the church of St. James. He became a member of the academy at Antwerp in 1559, and died, at the age of 84, in 1604. He had a brother, Peter de Vos, who also painted history, but whose works are not much known; a nephew also of his was a painter, William de Vos, who had considerable talents, and gained much employment and reputation.

VOS, PAUL DE, another painter of that name, but of a different family, was born at Alost in 1600. His works of animals and birds are very much in the style of Snyder, and are deservedly esteemed. There are many of them in the royal collection in Spain.

VOS, SIMON DE, born at Antwerp in 1643, was a pupil of Rubens, and became eminent as a painter both of history and portraits. Some of his paintings in the churches of Antwerp have been mistaken for the production of his great master. Sir Joshua Reynolds speaks highly of his picture of St. Norbert receiving the Sacrament, in the church of St. Michel, in which he says, "a great number of portraits are introduced extremely well painted," and afterwards commends him as a portrait-painter; particularly speaking of his own portrait in the poorhouse of Antwerp, painted by himself in black, leaning on the back of a chair, with a scroll of blue paper in his hand, so highly finished in the broad manner of Corregio, that nothing can exceed it. S. de Vos was living in 1662.

VOSAVIA, in *Ancient Geography*, a place of Belgic Gaul, upon the route from Antunnacum to Mayence, between Bontobrice and Bingium, according to the table of Peutinger.

VOSGES, in *Geography*, a large chain of mountains, which formerly occupied the S.E. part of Lorrain, and now gives name to a department of France. It was formerly covered with wood, and harboured abundance of game and wild beasts, and has long been famous for mines of silver, copper, and lead.

VOSGES, one of the ten departments of the N.E. region of France, formerly the S. part of Lorrain, west of Upper Rhine, in N. lat. $48^{\circ} 15'$; bounded on the N. by the departments of the Meuse, the Meurthe, and the Lower Rhine, on the E. by the department of the Upper and Lower Rhine, on the S. by the department of the Upper Saône, and on the W. by the department of the Upper Marne, containing 65,243 kilometres, or 32,066 leagues, and 308,052 inhabitants. It comprehends 5 districts, 30 cantons, and 550 communes. Its circles are Neufchâteau, containing 55,247 inhabitants; Mirecourt, 66,649; Epinal, the capital, 62,592; St. Die, 75,298; and Remiremont, 48,270. According to Hallenfratz, this department is 26 French leagues long, and 16 broad, and is divided into nine circles and communes, and contains 289,054 inhabitants. The contributions in the 11th year of the French era amounted to 1,839,254 fr., and the expenses of administration, of justice, and of public instruction, were 242,372 fr.

VOSKRESENSK, a town of Russia, in the government of Moscow; 32 miles N.W. of Moscow. N. lat. 56° . E. long. $36^{\circ} 44'$.

VOSKRESENSK, a town of Russia, in the govern-

ment of Pskov, on the Lovat; 20 miles N. of Cholm.—Also, a town of Russia, in the government of Peterburg, on the E. coast of lake Ladoga; 80 miles N.E. of Peterburg.—Also, a town of Russia, in the government of Upha; 80 miles S. of Upha.—Also, a town of Russia, in the province of Utiug, on the river Vitchevga; 28 miles S.W. of Yarensk.

VOSPOR, a town of Russia, in the province of Taurus; 112 miles E.S.E. of Perekop. N. lat. $45^{\circ} 20'$. E. long. $36^{\circ} 26'$.

VOSPRESSENSKOI, a town of Russia, in the government of Volodga; 44 miles E. of Totma.

VOSSIUS, GERARD JOHN, in *Biography*, was born near Heidelberg in 1577, and perfected himself in the classics, mathematics, philosophy, and theology, at Leyden. Availing himself of a copious library left him by his father, he became director of the college at Dordrecht, where he married twice, and had a numerous family. In 1614, he was appointed director of the college of Leyden, and afterwards professor of eloquence and chronology in the university. By avowing himself favourable to the sentiments of the Remonstrants, he became obnoxious to the Gomarists, and at the synod in Ter-gou, in 1620, he was deprived of his professorship; but in consequence of the prevalence of Arminianism in England, he obtained the office of prebend in the church of Canterbury. After his return to Holland, he accepted the chair of history in the schola illustris of Amsterdam in 1633, which he occupied till his death in 1649, at the age of 72. The most useful of his writings are two books in Greek and Latin poetry. Among his other works are "De Origine Idolatriæ;" "De Scientiis Mathematicis;" "De quatuor Artibus popularibus;" "Historia Pelagiana;" "Institutiones Rhetoricæ, Grammaticæ, Poeticæ;" "Etymologicon Lingue Latine;" "De Vitiis Sermonis;" "De Philosophorum Sectis." A collection of these were printed at Amsterdam, in 6 vols. fol. 1695.—1701. Moreri.

This learned and laborious author, in his "Theologia Gentili," and other works, frequently speaks of music and has a distinct chapter on the subject in his treatise on the four popular arts, grammar, gymnastics, music, and painting. Yet he tells us little concerning ancient or modern music after the time of Guido; contenting himself with giving definitions of the terms used in the ancient music of the Greeks. He heaps quotation on quotation, telling us how highly the Greeks estimated music; but attempts not to explain any of their doctrines. Like Mr. Bryant, he tries to shake our faith in what antiquity firmly believed. In writing "De Art. Poet. Nat." cap. xiii. he doubts whether Orpheus, Mufæus, or Linus ever existed; and rather thinks that these ideal names are derived from the Phœnician language used by Cadmus and his descendants.

VOSSIUS, ISAAC, younger son of the preceding, was born at Leyden in 1618, and in consequence of his natural talents, and the advantage of education under his father, acquired early reputation among the learned. Queen Christina, prepossessed by report in his favour, invited him to her court, and acquired under his instruction a knowledge of the Greek language. On the death of his father in 1649, he quitted the court of Christina, and employed himself in the composition of various learned works. In 1670 he visited England, and received the degree of LL.D. at Oxford; and in 1673, he was presented by Charles II. with a canonry of Windsor, and in this situation he passed the residue of his days. His credulity led king Charles to say of him, "that he would believe any thing but the Bible." When he was on his death-bed, he was visited by Dr. Hafcard, dean of Windsor, who urged him to receive the sacraments, if not
for

for the love of God, at least for the honour of the chapter : he replied, " I wish you would instruct me how to compel the farmers to pay what they owe me ; that is the service I desire of you at present." Thus disposed, he left the world in February, 1688, at the age of seventy. His very valuable library was purchased by the university of Leyden. Of his numerous publications the most important are the following : " *Periplus Scylacis Caryandenfis, et Anonymi Periplus ponti Euxini*," Gr. et Lat. cum notis, Amst. 1639, 4to. " *Justinii Hiftoria cum Notis*," Leyd. 1640 ; " *Ignatii Epistolæ et Barnabi Epistola*," Amst. 1646, 4to. ; " *Differatio de vera Ætate Mundi*," " *Pomponius Mela de Situ Orbis*," Hagæ, Com. 1658 and 1659 ; " *De Septuaginta Interpretibus eorumque Translacione et Chronologia Dissertationes*," 1661, in which he attempted to establish the preference of the chronology of the Septuagint to that of the Hebrew text ; which he defended in other tracts ; " *De Poematum Cantu et Viribus Rhythmi*," Oxon. 1675 ; " *De Sybillinis aliisque quæ Christi natalem præcædere Oraculis*," ib. 1679 ; " *Variarum Observationum Liber*," Lond. 1685, 4to. ; " *Catulli Opera cum Commentis*," ib. 1684. Moreri.

He was an enthusiastic and redoubted champion for the music of the ancient Greeks, and from his *belle Latinité* and prejudices in its favour, is more frequently quoted by implicit believers in its perfection, than any other modern who has treated the subject.

Vossius, in his celebrated book " *De Poematum Cantu et Viribus Rhythmi*," published 1675, Oxon., seems more ready to grant every possible and impossible excellence to the Greek musicians, than, when alive, they could have been to ask. None of the poetical fables, or mythological allegories, relative to the power and excellence of their music, put the least violence upon his credulity. A religious bigot, who insists upon our swallowing implicitly every thing, however hard of digestion, is less likely to make converts to his opinions, than he who puts our faith to few trials ; and Vossius overcharged his creed so much, that it is of no authority.

He does not attribute the efficacy of the Greek and Roman music to the richness of its harmony, or the elegance, the spirit, or pathos of its melody, but wholly to the force of rhythm. " *As long*," says he, p. 75, " as music flourished in this rhythmical form, so long flourished that power which was so adapted to excite and calm the passions." According to this opinion there was no occasion for mellifluous sounds, or lengthened tones ; a drum, cymbal, or the violent strokes of the Curetes and Salii on their shields, as they would have marked the time more articulately, so they would have produced more miraculous effects than the sweetest voice, or most polished instrument. In another place he tells us, that " to build cities, surround them with walls, to assemble or dismiss the people, to celebrate the praises of gods and men, to govern fleets and armies, to accompany all the functions and ceremonies of peace and war, and to temper the human passions, were the original offices of music : in short, ancient Greece may be said to have been wholly governed by the lyre."

It appears from this passage, and from the tenor of his whole book, that this author will not allow us to doubt of a single circumstance, be it ever so marvellous, relative to the perfection and power of ancient music ; the probable and the improbable are equally articles of his belief ; so that with such a lively faith, it is easy to imagine that he ranks it among mortal sins to doubt of the ancients having invented and practised counterpoint ; and he consequently speaks with the highest indignation against the moderns, for daring to deny that they were in possession of a simultaneous

harmony, though, according to him, they used it with such intelligence and discretion, as never to injure the poetry by lengthening, shortening, or repeating words and syllables at their pleasure, nor by that most absurd of all customs, singing different words to several different airs at the same time.

This author's remarks, however, on the little attention that was paid by the composers of his time to profody, merit some respect. See RHYTHM.

VOSTANI, in *Geography*, the middle division of Egypt.

VOSTERMAN, JOHN, in *Biography*, was born at Bommel in 1643, the son of a portrait-painter, who taught him the first rudiments of design, but afterwards he received the instructions of Zachtleven. He became renowned for his ingenuity and his vanity. At Paris he assumed the style and title of baron, but soon found his honours were too dear to be supported. He returned to his native country, and was employed by the marquis de Betheme to paint views on the Rhine, and also as a collector of works of art. He came to England in the time of Charles II. and was engaged by the king to paint a view of Windsor ; but was not much employed, and being extravagant, soon got into confinement, from which he was released by a contribution from his countrymen.

He accompanied sir W. Soames on his mission to Constantinople, intending to take views of all the principal places by the way ; but sir W. dying on the road, his plan was broken up, and it is not known exactly what became of him afterwards. The scenery of his pictures is generally taken from the borders of the Rhine, and painted with chaste and agreeable colour, and admirable aerial perspective ; and his figures and small boats are touched with spirit and neatness.

VOSTISSA, in *Geography*, a town and port of the Morea, containing 800 houses, churches, and public edifices. This town was almost entirely destroyed by an earthquake, which took place on the 23d of August, 1817, and 65 of the inhabitants perished in the ruins. Four villages in the neighbourhood were also destroyed, and the cape at the mouth of the river Gaidouroupiati fell into the sea, after throwing up a thick smoke. The sea, which at first receded to a considerable distance, leaving the vessels in the harbour aground, returned with great violence, inundating the land to the extent of half a league.

VOTE, or VOICE. See SUFFRAGE, and VOICE.

In the house of peers, they give their votes or suffrages, beginning at the pulse, or lowest baron, and so to the rest, seriatim, every one answering apart, *content*, or *not content*.

In the house of commons, they vote by *yeas* and *noes*, promiscuously. See PARLIAMENT.

Votes of the house of commons first began to be printed by a resolution of the last parliament of Charles II. at Oxford, in 1681.

VOTGINSKOI, in *Geography*, a town of Russia, in the province of Ustiug, on the Sula ; 40 miles S. of Ust Siskol.

VOTIAKS, or VOTES, a tribe or nation of Finns, situated in Russia, upon the river Viætka, in the governments of Viætka and Ufa. They call themselves Ud or Udi (seeming to be the same with the Russian Voté), also Mord, i. e. Man or Udmord. As they live in a great degree secluded from other people, their language continues to be a pure Finnish dialect. They also still retain their old distribution into stems, and give their villages additional names accordingly ; their noble families, however, are partly extinct

extinct and partly mingled with the populace. They were formerly under Tartar protection; but in changing their old matters for the Russian sovereignty, they also quitted their pastoral life for the occupations of settled husbandry, and turned their tents into permanent houses. Their number is not inconsiderable: in the government of Ufa, there are about 15,000, and in that of Viatzka, 30,000 males. *Tooke's Russia*, vol. i.

VOTIVE Medals, are those on which the vows of the people for the emperors, or empresses, are expressed.

The public vows, made every five, ten, or twenty years, are more often found round the edges of medals, than on the faces of it, at least under the western empire; for in the eastern the case is different: witness the medal of M. Aurelius the younger, where the reverse represents the vows made at the time of his marriage, *VOTA PUBLICA*. And on Greek medals, $\Delta\text{HMOT EYXAI}$, which they sometimes express by the two initial letters, ΔE . according to F. Hardouin's conjecture, which may be admitted in certain medals, where the $\Delta\text{HM EE}$, that is, $\Delta\text{HMAPXIKHE EEOY\text{C}I\text{A}\text{S}$, does not well agree. Witness also the medal of Antonine, *VOTA SUSCEPTA DECENNALIA*.

The origin of vows, and votive medals, is given by M. Du Cange thus; Augustus feigning himself willing to quit the empire, and having twice, at the prayers of the senate, condescended to hold it for ten years longer, it grew into a custom to make fresh public prayers, sacrifices, and games, for his continuing it, at the ten years' end; and these they called *decennalia*, or *vota decennalia*.

Under the eastern emperors, these vows were repeated every five years: hence it is, that, after Dioclesian's time, we find on medals *VOTIS V. XV. &c.* which practice continued till the time of Theodosius, when Christianity being well established, a ceremony that had some remains of heathenism in it was set aside. So that the *VOTIS MULTIS*, on a medal of Majorianus, must be a very different thing; and no other, doubtless, than a kind of acclamation, like that *PLURA NATALIA FELICITER*.

VOTIVE Mass. See *MASS*.

VOTOKI, in *Geography*, a town of Japan, in the island of Ximo; 25 miles N.W. of Funai.

VOTOMITA, in *Botany*, from *Votomit*, the Indian name of the tree, *Aubl. Guian.* 90. t. 35. *Juss. Gen.* 382. See *GLOSSOMA*.

VOTUM, Vow. See *Vow*.

VOTUM, in our *Ancient Law Books*, is used for *nuptia*, or marriage: so, *dies votorum* is the wedding-day, *Fleta*, lib. iv. cap. 2. part 16. "Si donatarius ad alia vota convolverit, &c." See *MARRIAGE*.

VOUACAPOUA, in *Botany*, the Caribbean name of a tree in Aublet's supplement, p. 10. t. 373, thought by that author the same as the *Andira*, or *Angelim*, of Piso and Marcgrave, in their histories of Brazil, p. 81. of the former, and 100. of the latter. *Jussieu*, in his *Gen. Pl.* 363, seems to think both very near to *GEOPFEEA*, see that article.

Aublet describes his plant as a very lofty tree, whose trunk is 60 feet, or more, in height, and two feet, at least, in diameter. The wood is yellowish-white, deep red at the heart, which turns black in drying. The head is formed of numerous branches, spreading every way, with alternate, stalked, pinnate leaves, composed of from two to four pair of ovate, pointed, entire leaflets, with an odd one, all finely downy beneath, about four inches long and two broad. *Stipulas* in pairs, deciduous. Aublet could never meet with the *flowers*. The fruit grows in large clusters, being an obovate bivalve *capsule*, or perhaps *legume*, fleshy

when young, dry, but thick and firm, when ripe; externally downy; reddish within. *Seed* solitary, large, oval, with a thin brown skin; its cotyledons firm, whitish, bitter.

The wood is very hard and durable, much used in building and fences. The heart is employed in cabinet-work, and serves even to make pestles and mortars.

VOUAH, in *Commerce*, a long measure at Siam, in the East Indies; which is one inch shorter than the French toise, and therefore measures 6 feet $3\frac{3}{4}$ inches English. Two foks make 1 ken; two kens 1 vouah; 20 vouahs 1 fen; 100 fens, or 2000 vouahs, here make 1 league, called roeneng, which is 4204 English yards, or 2½ miles nearly.

VOUAPA, in *Botany*, a Caribbean name, *Aubl. Guian.* 25. t. 7, 8. See *MACROBOLIUM*.

VOUARANA, a Caribbean name, *Aubl. Guian.* suppl. 12. t. 374, a tree whose flowers have not come under the inspection of botanists, but whose fruit is an inversely heart-shaped, bivalve *capsule*, with two cells, and a *seed* in each, which is round and smooth. It appears to belong to *Jussieu's* order of *Sapindi*; but whether most nearly akin, as he supposes, to *ORNITOPHNE*, (see that article,) or to any other genus, we want materials to decide. The tree is of a moderate size, with large alternately pinnate leaves.

VOUCH. A person is said to *vouch* for another, when he undertakes to maintain, or warrant him in any thing, or passes his word in his behalf.

In law, to *vouch*, is to call such a person, or *vouchee*, into court, to make good his warrant.

VOUCHEE, a person who is to warranty, or vouch for another, who, in respect hereof, is called *voucher*. See *VOUCHER* and *WARRANTY*.

VOUCHER, in *Law*, the tenant in a writ of right, who calls another person into court, bound to warranty him, and either to defend his right against the demandant, or to yield him other lands, &c. to the value.

This seems in some measure to agree to the contract in the civil law, by which the vendee binds the vendor, sometimes in the simple value of the things bought, sometimes in the double, to warrant the secure enjoying of the thing bought. Yet there is this difference between the civil and common law, in this point, that the civil law binds every man to warrant the security of that which he selleth; which the common law doth not, unless it be specially covenanted.

The process, by which the vouchee is called, is a *summons ad warrantandum*; and if the sheriff return upon that writ, that the party hath nothing by which he may be summoned, then goes out another writ, called *seignatur sub suo periculo*.

A recovery with a *single voucher*, is when there is but one voucher; and with a *double voucher*, is when the vouchee voucheth over, and so a *treble voucher*.

There is also a *foreign voucher*, when the tenant impleaded in a particular jurisdiction, voucheth one to warranty in some other county, out of the jurisdiction of that court, and prays he may be summoned, &c. This were more pertinently called a *voucher of a foreigner*.

VOUCHER also signifies a ledger-book, or book of accounts, in which are entered the warrants for the accomptant's discharge.

VOUDSE, in *Geography*, a town of Arabia, in the province of Hedjas; 140 miles W. of Medina.

VOVES, a town of France, in the department of the Eure and Loire; 12 miles W.N.W. of Janville.

VOUET, *SIMON*, in *Biography*, an eminent painter of the French school, born at Paris in 1582, was the son of Lawrence Vouet, a painter of little celebrity. When he was about twenty years old, he accompanied the baron de

Sanfy

Sanzy to Constantinople, where he painted from recollection the picture of the grand feignior. On his return he staid at Rome, and obtained the patronage of pope Urban VIII. and his nephew the cardinal, by whom he was employed in St. Peter's, and the Barberini palace. Here he resided 14 years, and was elected head of the academy of St. Luke in 1624.

Louis XIII. appointed him, on his return to Paris in 1627, his principal painter; and employed him munificently in most of his palaces. He also painted pictures for many churches in Paris. He died there in 1641.

Vouet at first was careful and rich in his designs and his execution; but as his engagements increased in number, he adopted a style flimsy and even careless; fluttered in the parts, and without grandeur in the conception. He is the father of the French school before the revolution, and corrupted the art by its delusive facility. He was the teacher of Le Brun, Mignard, and others, but had more honour in having trained Le Sueur to the practice of art; who, nevertheless, had the sense to aim at the taste of design seen in the works of Raffaele rather than in those of his master.

VOUGA, in *Geography*, a town of Portugal, in the province of Beira, on a river of the same name; 10 miles E.N.E. of Aveiro.—Also, a river of Portugal, which rises about 15 miles N.E. of Viseu, and runs into the Atlantic, 5 miles N. of Aveiro, forming a large bay at its mouth, full of islands.

VOU-HOUCI, a city of China, of the second rank, in Kiang-nan; 532 miles S. of Peking. N. lat. $31^{\circ} 22'$. E. long. $117^{\circ} 29'$.

VOUILLE, a town of France, in the department of the Vienne. In 507, near this town, Clovis, king of France, obtained a victory over the Visigoths, in which their king Alaric was slain; 8 miles N.W. of Poitiers.

VOULTE, LA, a town of France, in the department of the Ardèche; 11 miles S.S.W. of Valence.

VOUNEUIL SUR VIENNE, a town of France, in the department of the Vienne; 12 miles N.N.E. of Poitiers.

VOURA, a river of European Turkey, which separates Thessaly from Albania, and runs into the gulf of Arta.

VOURLA, a sea-port of Asiatic Turkey, in Natio-
lia, on the scite of Clazomene, one of the twelve cities of Ionia. It is built on two eminences, one possessed by the Turks, the other by Christians, who have about 500 houses and two churches. The harbour is about a league from the town. The archbishop of Ephesus resides here about three months of the year; there are but very small appearances of its ancient grandeur; 20 miles W. of Smyrna. N. lat. $38^{\circ} 24'$. E. long. $26^{\circ} 40'$.

VOURLÔTES, a town of the island of Samos; 4 miles N.E. of Carlovassii.

VOUSOIR, VAULT-STONE, or *Key-stone*, in *Architecture*, a stone proper to form the sweep of an arch, being cut somewhat in the manner of a truncated cone, whose sides, were they prolonged, would terminate in a centre, to which all the stones of the vault are directed. See KEY and VAULT.

VOUTE, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Ardèche, on the right side of the Rhône; 18 miles N. of Viviers.

VOUTE, LA, a town of France, in the department of the Upper Loire; 9 miles S. of Brioude.

VOUTEZAT, a town of France, in the department of the Correz; 9 miles N.W. of Brive.

YOUTIN, a river of China, which rises in Chinese Tar-

tary, and runs into the Hoang, 25 miles S.E. of Soui-te, in Chen-fi.

VOU-TING, or OU-KUEN, a city of China, of the second rank, in Yun-nan; 1145 miles S.W. of Peking. N. lat. $25^{\circ} 34'$. E. long. $102^{\circ} 20'$.

VOU-TING, a city of China, of the second rank, in Chan-tong; 162 miles S.S.E. of Peking. N. lat. $37^{\circ} 35'$. E. long. $117^{\circ} 19'$.

VOUVANT, a town of France, in the department of the Vendée; 6 miles N.N.E. of Fontenay le Comte.

VOUVRAY, a town of France, in the department of the Indre and Loire; 4 miles E. of Tours.

VOUX, a town of France, in the department of the Seine and Marne; 11 miles E. of Nemours.

VOUZAILLES, a town of France, in the department of the Vienne; 12 miles N.E. of Poitiers.

VOUZIERES, a town of France, and principal place of a district, in the department of the Ardennes; 5 posts S.W. of Stenay. N. lat. $49^{\circ} 23'$. E. long. $4^{\circ} 42'$.

VOW, VOTUM, a solemn promise, or offering of a man's self, or other thing, to God.

A person is constituted a religious, by taking three vows, that of poverty, that of chastity, and that of obedience.

Authors are divided as to the antiquity of these vows. It is agreed, the ancient anchorites, and hermits of the Thebaid, made none; they did not consecrate themselves to God by any indissoluble obligation, but were at liberty to quit their retirement, and return into the world, whenever the fervour, that drove them out of it, came to abate.

Vows were not introduced till long after; and that to fix the too frequent inconstancy of such as, after retiring from the world, repented themselves too soon, or too slightly; and by that means scandalized the church, and disturbed the quiet of families by their return.

Erafmus will have it, that solemn vows were not introduced till the thirteenth century, under the pontificate of Boniface VIII. Others hold them to be as ancient as the council of Chalcedon; but the truth is, before Boniface VIII. there were none but simple vows, and such as might be dispensed withal. Their vows, till that time, were not deemed eternal chains; they were not indissoluble. It is true, they were obligatory promises, as to conscience; and the inconstancy of such as violated them was held an odious desertion: but, as to the law, the persons were not held to be civilly dead, so as, upon their return, to render them incapable of all acts of civil society.

The most common vow was that of poverty, but this only regarded the convent; on account of which, every person divested himself of all property: but the making of vows did not at all exclude them from the rights of blood, or render them incapable of inheriting.

No religious, it is true, acquired the property of the effects that fell to him; they all belonged to the monastery, in favour of which he had divested himself of every thing; and the monastery only left him the usufruct and direction of them. The popes have frequently confirmed this privilege to divers orders, and permitted the monks to inherit, as much as if they were seculars, and had made no vows.

At present, the civil death of a religious is dated from the day he makes the vows; and from that time he is utterly incapable of inheriting. A religious may reclaim, or protect against his vows within five years; but, after that, it is no longer admitted. The failures in the profession are esteemed to be purged, by his silence and perseverance for five years. Indeed, to be relieved from his vows, it is not enough

enough the party reclaim within the five years; but he must likewise prove that he was forced to take the habit.

Vows, *Vota*, among the *Romans*, signify sacrifices, offerings, presents, and prayers, made for the emperors and Cæsars, particularly for their prosperity, and the duration of their empire.

These were, at first, made every five years, then every fifteen, and then every twenty, called *quingennalia*, *decennalia*, and *vicennalia*.

In divers antique medals and inscriptions, we read, *Vot. X. Fot. XX. Fot. mult.* signifying *votis decennialibus, vicennialibus, multis*, &c. See *DECENNALIA*.

Vows, in a moral and religious sense, are promises to God; and therefore, according to archdeacon Paley, the obligation cannot be made out upon the same principle as that of other promises. The violation of them, nevertheless, implies a want of reverence to the Supreme Being; which is sufficient to make it sinful. There appears no command or encouragement in the Christian scriptures to make vows; much less any authority to break through them when they are made. The few instances of vows which occur in the New Testament were religiously observed. (See *ACTS*, xviii. 18. xxi. 23.) The rules that pertain to promises are applicable to vows. Thus Jephthah's vow, taken in the sense in which that transaction is commonly understood, was not binding; because the performance, in that contingency, became unlawful. From this and other instances, it appears that rash vows are not only imprudent, but culpable. See *PROMISE*.

VOWEL, VOCALIS, in *Grammar*, a letter which affords a complete sound of itself, or a letter so simple, as only to need a bare opening of the mouth to make it heard, and to form a distinct voice.

Such are *a, e, i, o, u*; which are called *vowels*, vowels, in contradistinction to certain other letters, which, depending on a particular application of some part of the mouth, as the teeth, lips, or palate, can make no perfect sound without an opening of the mouth, that is, without the addition of a vowel; and are therefore called *consonants*.

Though we ordinarily only reckon five vowels, yet, besides that each of these may be either long or short, which occasions a considerable variety in the sound; if we consider only their differences resulting from the different apertures of the mouth, we might add four or five more vowels to the number. For the *e* open, and the *e* close, are different enough to make two vowels, as in *sea*, and *depth*; so also the *o* open, and *o* close, in *host*, and *organ*. Add, that the *u* pronounced *ou*, as the Latins did, and as the Italians and Spaniards still do, has a very different sound from the *u*, as pronounced by the Greeks, and, as at this day, by the English and French. Again, *eo*, in *people*, make but one simple sound, though we write it with two vowels.

Lastly, the *e* mute is, originally, no more than a surd joined to a consonant, when that is to be pronounced without a vowel, as when it is immediately followed by other consonants. This is what the Hebrews call *sheva*, especially when it begins the syllable; and this *sheva* is found in all languages, though overlooked in many of them, particularly in the English, Latin, &c. by reason it has no proper character to denote it; though, in some of the vulgar tongues, particularly French and High Dutch, it is expressed by the vowel *e* adding its sound to the rest.

Thus, without regarding the differences of the same sound of vowel, as to length or shortness, one may distinguish ten several vowels, expressed by the following characters, *a, e, æ, i, o, ô, ou, eu, u, e* mute.

To these we may add *y*, which, as the learned Dr. Lowth

observes, is formed by the opening of the mouth, without any motion or contact of the parts, and has every property of a vowel, and not one of a consonant. Lowth's *Gram.* p. 20. n. 1.

Mr. Sheridan, who makes the number of simple sounds in our language to be twenty-eight, reckons nine vowels, *a, æ, e, o, ou, e, i, u*, viz. *hull, hat, hate, beer, note, noose, bet, fit, but*. *Rhet. Gram.* p. 9.

VOWEL-POINTS, in the *Hebrew Language*. See *Vowel-POINTS*.

VOX, in *Law*. *Vocem non habere*, is a phrase used by Braeton and Fleta for an infamous person; one who is not admitted to be a witness.

Vox Humana, Lat., *Voix Humaine*, Fr., a stop in the organ; thus named from its being an imitation of the human voice. It is a reed stop, in unison with the open diapason: it is a short metal pipe, of a wide globular form at the top, resembling a human mouth. This is a celebrated stop in the famous organ at Haerlem; in hearing which we were somewhat disappointed, as it does not at all resemble a human voice, though a very good stop of the kind. But the world is very apt to be imposed upon by names. The instant a common hearer is told that an organist is playing upon a stop that resembles a human voice, he supposes it to be very fine, and never inquires into the propriety of the name, or exactness of the imitation. However, with respect to our own feelings, we must confess, that of all the stops which we have yet heard, that have been honoured with the appellation of *vox humana*, no one, in the treble part, has ever reminded us of any thing human, so much as the cracked voice of an old woman of ninety; or, in the lower notes, of Punch singing through a comb.

VOXTORP, in *Geography*, a town of Sweden, in the province of Smaland; 29 miles N.W. of Wexio.

VOYAGE, denotes a journey by sea.

VOYAL, a large rope formerly used to unmoor or heave up the anchor of a ship, by transmitting the effort of the capstan to the cable; but mostly used when the fore-jeer capstan was employed for this purpose. The voyal reeved through a large block lashed to the main-mast, and then communicated to the fore-jeer capstan: but messengers are now chiefly used instead of it.

VOYAL, *Shifting the*. See *SHIFTING*.

VOZ, in *Geography, a lake of Russia, in the province of Novgorod, about 60 miles in circumference. N. lat. 60° 30'. E. long. 38° 54'.*

VOZGA, a town of Russia, in the government of Novgorod, near lake Voz; 48 miles N.N.E. of Bielozerk.

VOZIA, a town of European Turkey, in Bessarabia, on the Black sea; 26 miles W. of Otchakov.

VOZNESENSKOI, a town of Russia, on the Angara; 20 miles N.N.W. of Irkutsk.

UPA, a river of Russia, which rises near Epiphany, passes by Tula, and runs into the Oka, near Lichvin, in the government of Kaluga.

UPAIX, a town of France, in the department of the Higher Alps; 11 miles S.E. of Serres.

UPANEMA, a river of Brasil, which runs into the Atlantic, S. lat. 4° 30'. W. long. 37° 32'.

UPATCHAWANAN, or **TEMISCAMAIN**, a settlement in Canada. N. lat. 47° 17'.

UPBO, a town of Sweden, in Dalecarlia; 20 miles S.S.E. of Fahlun.

UPELLA, a town of Hindoostan, in Golconda; 18 miles N.N.W. of Warangole.

UPELLA *Chanderagbery*, a town of Hindoostan, in Gollonda; 16 miles N. of Warangole.

UPENDRA, a name of the Hindoo deity Vishnu. (See VISHNU.) It has been supposed to imply inferiority to Endra, or Indra, the regent of the firmament. See INDRA.

UPHA, in *Geography*, a town of Russia, and capital of a government, on the Bielaja; 452 miles W.S.W. of Tobolsk. N. lat. $54^{\circ} 35'$. E. long. $56^{\circ} 2'$.—Also, a river of Russia, which runs into the Bielaja, at Upha.

UPHIMSKOI, a government of Russia, of a triangular form, bounded on the north by the governments of Perm and Viatka; on the west by the governments of Caucasus, Saratov, Simbirsk, and Kazan, the part immediately south by the Caspian sea, and the part immediately east by the government of Tobolsk; to the north it extends from east to west about 440 miles, and to the south from east to west only 64; westward from north to south it measures about 520, eastward only 160. In this government is a famous mine of salt, situated near the river Ilek. The salt of this pit is most beautiful, and of the best quality. It is taken from a kind of rock about four versts from the river. The length of the rock is 800 fathoms, and the breadth about 500. It is so solid, that it has not yet been possible to found it. With a miner's wimble, however, they have penetrated to the depth of 27 fathoms; but time and instruments have not ascertained a complete knowledge of the depth of this mass. From 1784 till 1787, more than 30,000,000 pounds of salt were taken from this rock, and transported into different parts of the empire, by the Volga, the Bielaja, and the Kama. This salt is sold in the country at 25 or 30 copecks the pood, which is about a halfpenny the English pound. It is calculated that this pit may yet furnish salt for near two centuries, supposing the depth to be no greater than it is already known to be. In order to render the working more productive, and less expensive, the government has lately made an agreement with some Cossacks, who are to dig 50,000 poods a year, and transport them to the magazines of Orenburg. There are in the neighbourhood of this pit some very deep lakes of salt water, to which great virtue is assigned by the Kirghis, and in which they bathe of their own accord, when afflicted with the least disease. Their physicians, who have had an opportunity of judging of these baths, all agree, that they are good for all pedicular diseases. There is one astonishing circumstance attending these waters, namely, that their surface is as cold as ice, while the deeper you plunge, the warmer you become; at the bottom it is said no person can stay more than two or three seconds. N. lat. 47° to 56° . E. long. 50° to 64° .

UPHOLDER is used in the same sense with undertaker, as the denomination of a tradesman who provides for funerals.

UPHOLDER, or *Upholsterer*, denotes also a person who furnishes houses, fitting up apartments with beds, and other furniture. See APPRAISER and BED.

UPIERCWIZA, in *Geography*, a town of Lithuania; 33 miles E. of Minsk.

UPINCE, a kind of song consecrated to Diana by the Greeks. Rouslean.

UPINISHAD, or UPANISHAD, in *Hindoo Literature*, is the title of a portion of their scripture comprised in the Veda. Each Veda contains several portions, bearing this common denomination. On these Upanishads the whole of the Indian theology, especially the Vedanta theory, is professedly founded. See VEDA and VEDANTA.

The proper meaning of the word Upanishad, according

to Mr. Colebrooke (*As. Ref.* vol. viii. art. 8.), is "divine science, or the knowledge of God; and it is equally applicable to theology itself, and to a book in which this science is taught. The sense properly deducible from its etymology invariably points to the knowledge of the divine perfections, and to the consequent attainment of beatitude, through exemption from passions."

The word, by some writers, has been thought to mean something hidden or mysterious; but Mr. Colebrooke says, that "neither the etymology nor acceptance of the word has any direct connection with the idea of secrecy, concealment, or mystery." (Ib.) It seems rather indeed to mean *revelation*. In the curious article above referred to, a list of the Upanishads is given; with much important and interesting information respecting them, and the extraordinary volumes through which they are interperfed. An extract from it is given under our article MUNI.

UPLAND, in *Geography*, a province of Sweden, bounded on the north by the gulf of Bothnia, on the east by the Baltic, on the south by the Mælar lake, and on the west by Westmanland; about 75 miles in length from north to south, and where widest, 55 from east to west. It is fertile in corn, and the lakes and rivers abound in fish. Some of the best iron-mines of Sweden are found in this province. Stockholm is situated in Upland.

UPLAND, or *Upland Pastures*, in *Agriculture*, all such land and pastures as are situated in a high elevation, or which are much exposed in consequence of the height to which they are raised above the other surrounding grounds. Such land and pastures are mostly found particularly useful in some sorts of husbandry and farming, as those of the sheep kind, as they are commonly hard, firm, and dry, during the winter and more wet seasons of the year, when this sort of stock is most in danger in many situations.

In the northern parts of the island, the extensive highland tracts of these lands and pastures are for the most part converted to the purpose of sheep-walks; in which management they are supported by many to be by far the most advantageous. But some have lately suggested that black cattle and planting may be combined with these, so as to afford a still greater benefit. The Rev. Mr. Singers, in an able essay in the third volume of the Transactions of the Highland Society of Scotland, has remarked on the upland and pasture sheep-farming of that district, that "it has not yet been clearly ascertained what effects the introduction of sheep husbandry into the Highlands has really produced, or how far that mode of farming ought to be carried," or is proper; neither has it been accurately determined, it is said what sorts of sheep are adapted to the respective sheep-walks in that extensive tract of upland and pasture. It is a point, too, still undecided, how far sheep and black cattle are consistent as joint or separate stocks, on the same upland farm; and which of them is entitled to the preference, to a certain extent; or whether the proper extent can be pointed out. Doubts also are entertained in respect to forest trees, how far it is proper to attend to the rearing of them, on farms producing sheep as the staple article; and that a similar question has been put, whether it is profitable to cultivate any part of the soil, when flocks of sheep are fed in the neighbourhood, and under the disadvantages of a climate very moist and uncertain?

It is supposed that these points lie at the foundation of the prosperity of the upland or Highland tracts of the country; and that, of course, they are closely connected with the general prosperity of the British empire: it will consequently be admitted, that every thing is of importance which may tend to throw a ray of light upon any one of them.

them. In this intention, this view of a comprehensive system of husbandry, which has been had recourse to with great success by intelligent individuals, in a soil and climate greatly resembling those of the uplands and pastures of the Highlands; sheep, it is said, are unquestionably to be considered as the staple stock over the Highlands of Scotland; but to rear sheep as the sole produce of the soil is, it is thought, an error of the worst kind. It was naturally to be expected, that when sheep were introduced upon these uplands, and found to be a safe and profitable sort of stock, they would probably go too far, before the true balance should be found. But it is capable of being established, it is said, on reason and clear testimony, that woods, cattle, and cultivation, judiciously managed, are friendly to sheep, on such uplands, in the highest degree; while the solid interests, comforts, and benefits of society are greatly promoted by a proper intermixture of them all in such cases.

The effects of sheep-farming on these uplands are, it is observed, first, a great rise in the rents, which is not, however, to be wholly imputed to sheep, but many other causes. The true light in which the superiority of sheep, in such cases, is to be considered, is, it is said, that by means of them a farmer can pasture a large extent of inaccessible grass land, not safe for black cattle; that he can maintain a stock, with less danger of heavy losses by famine, in winter and spring; and that sheep, as a stock, are managed at less expence, and are more marketable than any other. It is conceded indeed, that, by means of goats, the most rugged pasturage might be consumed; but these animals, in point of flesh, as well as coat, would be a wretched substitute for sheep in such cases, in any market whatever. It must be allowed by all, that a stock of sheep enables the farmer to occupy a larger portion of the soil than he could do by a stock of black cattle; that sheep, too, are more adapted to the greater part of an extensive and rugged upland farm than any sort of black cattle; that a fuller flock of them may be safely put on the grounds, without incurring so much risk of famine; and that no stock is easier managed, or more marketable. These are important considerations; and they are decisive in favour of sheep, as the principal article, it is supposed, over the uplands of the Highlands, that a farm can produce.

Secondly, a valuable supply of wool has been furnished the country, from the upland pastures of the Highlands; that though most of such wool is coarse, and that wool has not declined in price in consequence of this large accession to the trade, it must be remembered that coarse wool was the article most wanted by manufacturers; and also, that many large upland tracts of the Highlands are well adapted to rear fine wool, when the farmers shall find it their interest to follow that plan. And in regard to the increased price of wool, it may be asked, it is said, what must have been the prices, or where the manufacturers must have looked for it, if there had not been any raised on the uplands of the Highlands of late years? Probably, it is supposed, the distinguished success of that capital branch, the woollen trade, may have depended in no small degree on the vast supplies of wool from that quarter.

Thirdly, the reduction of the numbers of black cattle must inevitably, it is believed, follow the introduction of sheep, and also the reduction of the extent of cultivated grounds. But it does not of necessity, it is said, follow, that black cattle and culture should be altogether abandoned. There is a good medium in these matters, it is supposed, which is safer than either extreme. To people not well acquainted with the economy of a productive system, embracing sheep as the principal article, and a proper number of cattle, and

extent of cultivation, it may appear to be the easiest expedient to lay the whole of their farms into sheep-walks; but more experienced farmers would, it is thought, smile at the pretence which want of skill has so often advanced for going into this most injudicious extreme; well knowing that every intelligent store-matter calculates on rendering his sheep much better, and insuring their safety in a greater degree, by means of judicious cultivation. It is therefore to be observed, that the banishment of black cattle and of culture out of the upland sheep-farms in the Highlands are effects which do not necessarily follow the introduction of sheep, but have arisen from an inconsiderate extreme, the result of error and want of experience in the established modes of sheep management, especially on such uplands.

Fourthly, depopulation is the worst effect, it is said, which has followed the introduction of sheep husbandry on the uplands and pastures in the Highlands. It is, however, undeniably the fact, that such an effect has been produced, and that to a great extent. But it cannot be so readily admitted, it is thought, that this effect was necessarily connected with the sheep husbandry; for it arose more properly from the total neglect of culture, and of black cattle, than from the change of flocks. It is asked, if we find that the sheep flocks of England, or of the south of Scotland, necessarily occasion depopulation? If a due proportion were maintained on such lands of the Highlands, between sheep and other important articles, such as cattle, corn, green crops, and inclosures and plantations of trees, to say nothing of the fisheries, the roads, and other public matters, employment would, it is supposed, be furnished for the inhabitants, at least as ample and productive as they ever possessed, when black cattle were their stock, and a proportion of goats, instead of sheep. But the truth is, it is said, that unfortunate circumstances of a complicated nature combined in depopulating the Highlands, when sheep were introduced, as are fully shewn in the Essay, to which we must refer the reader.

Still, however, the sheep system is thought to be right upon these uplands; and though it may have gone to an extreme, it was what was to be dreaded and expected. To that extreme, and not to the nature of the stock introduced, ought, it is supposed, to be imputed most of the evils complained of; while the beneficial effects of sheep husbandry on such uplands appear to be necessarily connected with it, and therefore to give it a steady and well-founded superiority. The evils of it may, it is thought, be obviated or counteracted by judicious management; and that sheep, as the principal article of produce, are entitled to an evident preference over the whole of the uplands and pastures of the Highlands; but that, at the same time, it is unwise and impolitic in every view to make them the sole produce on the lands.

In these upland tracts nature seems, it is said, to have laid out extensive sheep-walks on almost every farm; and that as it is found that sheep are the safest stock, the most easily and cheaply managed, having access to the largest part of the pastures, and always marketable and productive to the farmer, it is undeniable, the writer supposes, that they should be reared as the main article of farm produce throughout the upland tracts of the Highlands. But it can never be admitted, it is thought, by any man of sense, that this immense district should be turned wholly into a sheep-waste. Other articles of produce succeed as well as sheep, and should be reared to a proper extent: some are essential to the comforts, and even subsistence of the inhabitants; while they return as ample profits as sheep, and are of exceedingly great value to the sheep-flocks; not to mention

their importance in other respects. If the sheep husbandry of these tracts, instead of engrossing all the attention of the farmers, and all the soil, were to be considered as the chief article, but at the same time intermixed with a due proportion of black cattle, of corn, and of green crops; and if proprietors would also introduce into the system judicious plantations of forest trees, incalculable advantages would certainly, it is thought, be obtained. This beautiful system, it is said, is not ideal. It is found by experience to be admissible in every point of view; comfort, beauty, and profit, going hand in hand.

The peculiar advantages of black cattle, the culture of corn and green crops, and the planting of forest trees, in connection with sheep, on these uplands and pastures, are then particularly pointed out and explained, when the writer suggests the proper sort of management for the sheep and the black cattle that should be pursued in such cases, and shews the comparative value of each in a very clear manner; concluding by observing, that all these branches are mutually subservient to each other: all of them are adapted, each on its own scale, to the climate and the soil of the country; and that they all contribute to the solid comforts and prosperity of the people in all stations, the proprietors, the farmers, and the people at large. These upland tracts are laid out, it is said, for pasturage by the hand of nature, and sheep are the true staple: but the country is likewise naturally laid out for every part of the mixed husbandry that has been advised above; all the necessary materials abounding; and every part, like the links of a golden chain, being connected with, and depending on one another. Cattle alone are not, and cannot, it is said, be a safe stock; sheep reared exclusively turn all into a waste. Trees, if suffered to overpread the country, would convert it into a wilderness; and cropping on a large scale is more than hazardous, it is impracticable. The mixed system is, therefore, the most proper and beneficial for such tracts, in many different points of view. See the paper.

In some of the southern parts of the kingdom, too, the uplands and pastures are found very beneficial in the supporting of sheep-stock. In the Romney-Marsh system of sheep management, it is the usual practice to send the lamb-stock in the beginning of the autumn, in vast quantities, to be supported and kept by the hill or upland farmers in the neighbourhood, through the winter, which is found to answer well under proper care and attention.

In the South-Down, and other upland districts, the high grounds and pastures are likewise mostly occupied with sheep as a principal stock, to the greatest advantage. See SHEEP.

The uplands and pastures in many parts of the country are, however, in a very indifferent and unprofitable state, from the want of suitable manuring, feeding, and stocking, whatever may be the purpose to which they are applied. See PASTURE and PASTURE-LAND.

UPLOPER, a name given to one particular species of pigeon, called by Moore, *columba gutturosa faliens*.

It was first brought to England from Holland, and much resembles that kind of pigeon called the English pouter, but that it is smaller. Its crop is very round, and in this it buries its bill. Its legs are very small and slender, and its toes are short, and close together, on which it treads nicely, that when moving, any small thing might be put under the ball of its foot. The pigeons of this species are generally all blue, all black, or all white; seldom or never pied. They are very scarce in England, and in Holland have been valued at five and twenty guineas a pair.

They have their name from the Dutch word *oploper*,

which signifies to leap up, and it was thus named from its manner of approaching the hen, which is always by leaping upon her. Moore's Columbarium, p. 67.

UPNOR CASTLE, in *Geography*, a fortress of England, in the county of Kent, on the left bank of the Medway, near Chatham.

UPPARAH, a town of Hindoostan, in the circle of Rajamundry; 30 miles E. of Rajamundry.

UPPER DECK, in a *Ship*, the highest of those decks which are continued throughout the whole of a ship of war, or merchantman, without any interruption of steps or irregular ascents.

UPPER-Breadth Sweeps, in *Ship-Building*, the centre of which is in the line representing the upper height of breadth of the timber. This sweep, described upwards, forms the lower part of the top-timber. See SHIP-BUILDING.

UPPER Height of Breadth, the upper curved line on the sheer plan, describing the greatest height of the main-breadth or broadest part of the ship at each timber. See SHIP-BUILDING.

UPPER Strake, in *Boats*, a strake thicker than those of the bottom, wrought round the gunwale.

UPPER Works, in *Naval Architecture*, a general name given to all that part of a ship which is above the surface of the water when she is properly balanced for a sea voyage: or it is that part which is separated from the bottom by the main wale.

UPPER Hemisphere, Ocean, Polar Dial, and Region. See the substantives.

UPPER Slope of a Canal, is the face of the bank KP (*Plate I. Canals, fig. 3.*) in side-laying ground; or A B and KP (*fig. 6.*) in deep-cutting.

UPPER Lake, in *Geography*, a lake of Ireland, in the county of Kerry, 4 miles from Lough Lane, with which it communicates by a river, which runs between Torc mountain and Gleenaa mountain.

UPPINGHAM, a market-town in the hundred of Martinsey and county of Rutland, England, is situated 6 miles S. by E. from Oakham, and 80 miles N.N.W. from London. It is considered as the second town in the county, and in some respects superior to Oakham, the county-town: the streets are well paved; the houses, which in general are well built, are disposed in the form of a square, with one long street leading to the west end. The church, which stands on the south side of the square, has a lofty spire, and the church-yard commands an extensive prospect: it also contains some well-executed monuments, particularly one of the date of 1653, in honour of Everard Fawkenner, esq., who had been sheriff of the county, and was a great benefactor to the town, having paved the streets at his own expense. Adjoining to the church-yard is a free-school, founded on a very extensive plan, for general education, and even for the preparing of youth for the universities: It was built about the year 1584, by the Rev. Robert Johnson, archdeacon of Leicester, who was also the founder of a similar institution at Oakham. The expenses of the erection were defrayed partly from his own purse, assisted by the produce of concealed church lands which he begged from queen Elizabeth. It is a plain neat edifice, and has over the door, in Hebrew, Greek, and Latin, "Remember thy Creator in the days of thy youth." Here is also an hospital, built at the same time, and out of the same funds, by the benevolent archdeacon, for the maintenance of thirteen poor men and one woman. A weekly market and an annual fair were granted in 1280 by Edward I., to Peter de Montfort, then lord of this manor, and his heirs for ever, with the express provision that the fair should not operate to the detriment

detriment of any fair of older date in the vicinity: the market-day is Monday, and here are now two fairs yearly, for horses, cattle, sheep, coarse linen, homespun cloth, &c. This town has the privilege, by grant of 11 Henry VII. to keep the standards of weights and measures for the county. In the return of the year 1811, the population of Uppingham was stated to be 1484, inhabiting 292 houses.—Beauties of England and Wales, vol. xii. Rutlandshire.

UPRIGHT, in *Architecture*, a representation or draught of the front of a building; called also an *elevation*, or *orthography*.

UPRIGHT, in *Heraldry*, is used in respect of shell-fishes, as crabs, &c. when standing erect in a coat. Inasmuch as they want fins, they cannot, according to Guillim, be properly said to be *hauriant*; that being a term appropriated to scaly fishes.

UPRIGHT, in *Sea Language*, the position of a ship when she neither inclines to one side nor to the other. Hence any thing is said to be upright when square with, or perpendicular to the keel.

As the ship when building lies with a declivity for the purpose of launching, it is evident that every thing within her intended to be upright when afloat, must be set square from the inclination of the ship.

UPRIGHT, *Cape*, in *Geography*, a cape on the E. end of Gore island, in the North Pacific ocean. N. lat. 60° 30'. W. long. 172° 13'.—Also, a cape in the Straits of Magellan. S. lat. 53° 6'. W. long. 75° 38'.

UPRIGHT *Bay*, a bay near the western extremity of the Straits of Magellan. S. lat. 53° 8'. W. long. 75° 35'.

UPRIGHT *Bent-Grafs*, in *Agriculture*, a sort of this kind of grafs, which is found, by the trials made at Woburn under the direction of the duke of Bedford, to afford at the time the feed is ripe, on a soil of the boggy fort, upwards of 7486 pounds weight of grafs upon the acre, which, when dry, weighed more than 2713 pounds, and which lost in the operation of drying about 4772 pounds. The quantity of nutritive matter that is afforded by it, is about 175 pounds on the same space of land. See *AGROSTIS STRIATA*.

It seems not to be a grafs of any great value to the farmer.

UPRIGHT *Perennial Broom-Grafs*, a sort of this kind of grafs, which has been found, at the time of flowering, on a rich sandy soil, to produce 12,931, and rather more, pounds of grafs on the acre, which weighed when dry about 5819 pounds, and which lost in drying 7112 pounds and rather more. It is a grafs that affords nutritive matter about 555 pounds on the same space of ground. See *BROMUS ERECTUS*.

UPRIGHT *Goof-Grafs*, a noxious weed of the perennial kind, often met with in meadows and wet pastures, in different districts and parts of the country.

UPRIGHT *Mat-Grafs*, a kind of grafs, which, at the time the feed is ripe, is found to produce, on the acre, 6125 ten pounds, which weighs in the dry state 2450 4, and which loses in drying 3675 6 pounds. It affords 215 5 10 pounds of nutritive matter on the same space. See *NARDUS STRIATA*.

UPRIGHT *Sea-Lyme Grafs*, a sort of grafs, that, at the time the feed is ripe, produces from the acre of clayey loam soil 43,560 pounds, which weigh when dry 24,502 8, and which loses by drying 18,957 8 pounds. The quantity of nutritive matter afforded by the same space of land, is 3403 pounds and rather more. See *ELYMUS ARNARIUS*.

UPRIGHT *Screw Cheese-Press*. See *WINDING SCREW CHEESE-PRESS*.

UPSAL, or **UPSALA**, in *Geography*, a city of Sweden, in the province of Uppland, situated on an open plain fertile in grain and pasture, is a small but neat town, containing,

says Coxe, exclusively of the students, 3000 inhabitants. The ground plot is very regular: it is divided into two almost equal parts by the rivulet Sala, and the streets are formed at right angles from a central kind of square. Some of the houses are built with brick, and stuccoed; but they are generally constructed with trunks, smoothed into the shape of planks, and painted red, and the roofs are covered with turf. Each house has a small court-yard or garden. Old Upsala is a place of high antiquity, and is supposed to have stood at a small distance from the site of the present town. In times of Pagan superstition it was much celebrated as the principal place of sacrifice, and as the residence of the high priest of Odin. New Upsala is anterior to the foundation of Stockholm, and is said to have been a suburb of Old Upsala, and to have risen on its ruins. Upsala was formerly the metropolis of Sweden, and the royal residence. Its ancient palace, begun in 1549, by Gustavus Vasa, and completed by his son Eric, was a spacious and magnificent edifice until the year 1702, when great part of it was consumed by fire. What remains of it commands, on account of its elevated situation, a fine prospect of the adjacent country; and its principal front, which has been repaired, is covered with a red stucco. Many traces are still left of its ancient splendour. The few remaining apartments in the ruined wing are used as a common gaol. Under it are three dungeons, formerly appropriated to the confinement of state-prisoners, the most remarkable of whom was count Svante Sture, of an ancient family, which before the election of Gustavus Vasa had the fairest pretensions to the throne. The extinction of this family was owing to the madness of Eric, who, in the year 1567, murdered both count Svante and his son Nicholas. After this frantic and cruel deed, he wandered about the woods in a state of remorse and distraction, until at length, being discovered by his wife, her preference restored him to a temporary possession of his understanding. However he soon relapsed, and his government became so odious, that in the following year he was deposed by his two brothers, and John ascended the throne.

Upsala is an archiepiscopal see, and one of the most ancient Christian establishments in Sweden. The first bishop was Everinus, an Englishman, who in 1026 visited Sweden, at the request of king Olaus Scotkonung, to assist in converting the natives of Old Upsala to Christianity. His successors in the see resided for the most part at Sigtuna, until the year 1120, when Nicholas Ulphson fixed the residence at Old Upsala. The first archbishop was Stephen, a native of East Gothland, and he was elevated to that dignity in 1164, and died in 1185. Falke, who was consecrated in 1267, first transferred the residence to New Upsala, in the year 1273. The first Protestant archbishop was Laurentius Petri of the province of Nerike, who in conjunction with his brother Olaus Petri preached the reformed doctrines to the Swedes, and translated the Bible into his native tongue. He died in 1570. In the sacristy of the cathedral are several ancient relics; one of which is a log of wood, carved into a figure that rudely resembles a human head, called the image of Thor, formerly worshipped in these parts, and to whom human sacrifices were offered at Old Upsala. The kings of Sweden were formerly crowned in this cathedral; but the last sovereign who was inaugurated at Upsala was Ulrica Eleonora. Upsala is celebrated for its university, which is the most ancient in Sweden. In 1246 Birger Jarl established a school at this place, and in 1478 Steno Sture, law administrator of Sweden, laid the first foundation of the university; the plan of which had been formed, but not executed, by Eric of Pomerania; its regulations being modelled after those of Paris. The institution was confirmed

in a diet which met at Strängnäs on the 2d of July; and the university was opened with great ceremony on the 7th of October. It was warmly patronized by Gustavus Vasa, and liberally endowed by him, so that he has been regarded as its second founder. Under John III. it was removed to Stockholm, but restored to Uplåda by Charles IX. After declining for some time, it was revived by Gustavus Adolphus, who constructed a large building at his own expence, and endowed it with his patrimonial estate of Vasa. His example was followed by his successors and by various individuals; so that the number of scholars has considerably increased. At the head of the university is a chancellor, chosen by the professors and confirmed by the king. The presidency devolves by rotation on one of the professors, styled "Rector Magnificus." The university has its own court of justice, called "Consistorium Minus," for the trial of the students and dependants. From this court an appeal lies to a "Consistorium Majus." The number of professors is about twenty-four, of whom the principal are those of divinity, eloquence, botany, anatomy, chemistry, natural philosophy, astronomy, and agriculture. Students are admitted into the university at the age of sixteen, for the completion of their academical studies. They do not inhabit, as in our universities, any distinct colleges, but lodge in the town, and repair to the lectures of the professors, either at their houses or at the public halls. The poorer students are assisted by scholarships, called "stipendia," some founded by the crown, others by private persons; the common degrees granted by this university are "Philosophiæ Candidatus," corresponding to bachelor of arts, and "Philosophiæ Magister," answering to master of arts. In order to obtain the first of these degrees, he candidate undergoes several previous examinations, and composes a Latin thesis. His exercises for the second, are a Latin thesis, holding a public disputation, and reading a lecture in the same language. There is no academical discipline. Although the students have no regular dress, yet on some occasions, as when they take a master's degree, they appear in a black silk cloak, which they ought also by the statutes of the university to wear when they keep their acts. The professors, on days of ceremony, are clad in black cloaks, the doctors of divinity are distinguished by a hat of black silk, the doctors of law by one of white, and those of physic by one of green or sky-blue. The number of students varies, but has been stated at an average of ten years at 500. This university, styled by Stillingfleet, "that great and hitherto unrivalled school of natural history," has produced persons eminent in every branch of science. The library contains many valuable books and MSS. This owes its origin to Gustavus Adolphus. Among the most valuable pieces of literary curiosity is a manuscript of the four gospels, derived from its silver letters *Codex Argenteus*, which see.

The Royal Society at Uplåda, the oldest literary academy of this kind in the North, took its rise in 1720. At first it consisted of a number of learned men, who published reviews of books, under the title of "*Acta Literaria Suecicæ*;" but in 1730 the transactions of the society consisted of original acts and dissertations; and when patronized by the king, it assumed the name of "*Societas Regia*," and the transactions, published annually, were denominated "*Acta Literaria et Scientiarum Suecicæ*." In 1740, it was called "*Societas Regia Literaria et Scientiarum Uplandensis*," thus distinguished from the Academy of Sciences at Stockholm, which was denominated "*Academia Regia Suecicæ*." In 1750 their publications ceased, but they were again renewed in 1772, under the title of "*Nova Acta Regiæ*

Societatis Scientiarum Uplandensis." They are written in the Latin tongue, and printed in 4to. The original numbers issued from 1720 to 1750 are comprised in six volumes.

The place where the ancient kings of Sweden were elected lies about seven miles from the town of Uplåda, and is still marked by mutilated stones, one of which is called "*Morasteen*," or the stone of Mora; on which the sovereigns were enthroned with due solemnity, and received the homage of their subjects. Olaus Magnus relates that the Morasteen was placed in the middle of twelve other stones in a circle. A similar monument near the village of St. Buriens, in Cornwall, is described by Camden. The botanical garden of Uplåda is small, but laid out with judgment, and the collection of exotics is numerous. Uplåda is 45 miles from Stockholm. N. lat. 59° 51'. E. long. 17° 26'.

UPSARA, in *Hindoo Mythology*, is the name of a poetical race of water-nymphs, proverbial for their beauty and fascinations. They are the dancing girls of Indra's court, answering to the fairies of the Persians, and to the damels called in the Koran *Huruluyun*, or with antelopes' eyes. The name has been derived from *up*, water, the seventh case plural of which is *upso*, and *rasa*, taste.

UPSAW, in *Geography*, a town of Hindoostan, in Bahar; 6 miles S. of Patna.

USILOIDES, in *Anatomy*, a name for the os hyoides. See DEGLUTITION.

UPSTART, CAPE, in *Geography*, a cape on the N.E. coast of New Holland. S. lat. 16° 39'. W. long. 212° 32'.

UPTON, a town of Massachusetts, in Worcester county, containing 935 inhabitants; 38 miles S.W. of Boston.

UPTON upon Severn, a market-town in the lower division of the hundred of Perihore, and county of Worcester, England, is situated on the banks of the river Severn, at the distance of 10 miles S. from the city of Worcester, and 109 miles N.W. by W. from London. Though a small town, it has long been in a state of progressive improvement, which may be in some measure attributed to its having a handsome stone bridge of six arches, built in 1605, and a harbour for the reception of the barges employed in the navigation of the Severn, by which a considerable traffic is carried on. Upton suffered much in the civil war of Charles I.; when the bridge was partly broken down for military purposes, and a battery erected in the church-yard to prevent the parliamentary forces from crossing the river. At that time also the church sustained great injury, and though afterwards repaired, it was found necessary, in the year 1756, to take it down; when, it is to be regretted, little attention was paid to the preservation of the painted glass and ancient monuments in the old structure. It was replaced by a very neat modern edifice, the chief ornament of the town. This was opened in 1758; but the tower was not completed till 1774. A charity-school for sixteen girls is established here. No manufactures worthy of notice are carried on: but four fairs are held annually, for the sale of horses, cattle, sheep, and leather: a weekly market is kept on Tuesday. According to the population return in the year 1811, the parish of Upton then contained 394 houses, occupied by 2023 persons. In the year 1787, a circular cavity, about six feet in diameter, was discovered in a corn-field in this vicinity: on examination, this aperture led to a cavern at the depth of about ten feet from the surface, extending in every direction twenty feet in diameter; at about thirty-five or forty feet is a pit or shaft full of water, and nearly 140 feet deep. Various conjectures have been formed respecting this phenomenon; but whether it proceeds from a natural or artificial cause has not been determined.

About four miles from Upton, and near the village of Earl's

Earl's Croome, is Croome Court, the seat and park of the earl of Coventry. The mansion is modern, and the style of its architecture is very plain; but the elegance of the interior makes up for any thing that may appear a deficiency without. The drawing-room is hung with tapestry of the Gobeline manufacture, of crimson ground with coloured figures.—*Beauties of England and Wales*, vol. xv. Worcesterhire.

UPULUS, in *Botany*, the old Latin name for the *lupulus*, or hop. This word *lupulus* is not old Latin, but a more modern name, formed on the word *upulus*.

UPUPA, in *Ornithology*, a genus of birds belonging to the order of Pica, the characters of which are, that the bill is bent, long, slender, convex, subcompressed, and somewhat obtuse: the nostrils are small at the base of the bill; the tongue obtuse, entire, triquetrous, and very short; and the feet formed for walking. In the Linnæan system by Gmelin there are eight species, which are as follow:

EUROS. Crested and variegated, or the ferruginous hoopoe, with the wings barred black and white, the tail black, with a lunated white bar, and the crest tipped with black and white. This is the upupa of Bell. Gess. Aldrov. Ray, &c.; the bubbola of Olin.; the ter-chos or messenger-bird of Pocock; the hoopoe of Willughby, Pennant, Edwards, &c.; the common hoopoe of Latham; and the la huppe of Buffon. It is an elegant bird, generally inhabiting the warmer and temperate parts of the old continent, and migrating occasionally, at different seasons, in different directions. In our island it is much more rarely seen than in other northern climates. It is about the size of a common thrush. The colour of the head, neck, and body, is pale ferruginous or cinnamon-brown; the wings and tail are black, the former crossed by five white bars, the latter by a white crescent; the rump and lower part of the abdomen are white, and the sides generally marked by a few longitudinal dusky streaks; on the head is an elegant crest, which it can either erect or expand, or depress and close at pleasure, composed of feathers which are cinnamon-coloured, with black tips, a white bar separating the tip from the rest of the feathers; the legs are short and blackish. The hoopoe migrates during the spring from Africa into various parts of Europe, and returns in winter. In various parts of Egypt, however, it is nearly domesticated, building even among the houses. The flesh of these domestic hoopoes is rank and unfit for eating, but that of the migrating birds is considered in many parts of Europe as an agreeable food, particularly in Italy, the south of France, and in the Grecian islands. Its nest is to be sometimes found in a wall or tree, and is generally said to have a peculiarly fetid smell, supposed to be chiefly owing to the remains of various kinds of insects. The number of eggs is from five to seven. In Egypt the migrating hoopoe never associates with those of the towns, but frequents remote and solitary places. Such is generally the disposition of those which appear in Europe, but in Africa they associate in great numbers. Their ordinary food consists of various kinds of insects and worms, in order to obtain which they follow in Egypt the retreat of the Nile. These birds are generally seen on the surface of the ground, being very rarely observed to perch on trees. Dr. Shaw mentions as a variety the blue-crested hoopoe, observed at Florence and on the Alps, near the town of Rota, and differing from the common hoopoe in having the crest-feathers tipped with sky-blue instead of black. The *upupa minor*, smaller hoopoe, ferruginous, with the wings varied with white, and the crest tipped with black, the la huppe d'Afrique of Buffon, may probably be another variety of the common hoopoe, which inhabits the southern

parts of Africa, and is found in the kingdom of Congo, and at the Cape of Good Hope, frequenting low grounds in the neighbourhood of thickets, and not migratory.

CAPENSIS. Crested brown, beneath white, with a white spot on the wings. This is the Madagascar hoopoe, white, with cinnamon-brown wings and tail, and loose-webbed crest; la huppe noir et blanche du Cap de Bonne Esperance of Buffon. The tail-feathers of this species are twelve in number; the colour of the crest, throat, and all the under parts of the bird, is white, without any variegation; that of the upper parts, from the back of the head to the end of the tail, dusky or greyish-brown, deeper on the wings and tail; on the edge of the wing is a white spot, the tips of two or three of the larger coverts being of that colour: the legs and feet are yellowish. It is a native of the island of Madagascar, as well as of some of the African isles, and is said to feed on seeds and berries. From the structure of the tongue, which is rather broad, and divided at the extremity into several fibres, Dr. Shaw infers, that it is nearly related to the genus *merops*, or bee-eater.

PROMEROPS. The hoopoe with six tail-feathers, the intermediate being the longest. This is the promerops caler, or brown promerops, whitish beneath, with rufescent breast, and very long tail. *Upupa promerops*, or Cape promerops of Latham, and promerops of Buffon. The size of this bird is that of a lark; its colour is rufous brown, somewhat deeper on the wings and tail; throat white, with a narrow, longitudinal, dusky streak on each side; under part of the abdomen whitish, dashed with dusky streaks, vent yellow, tail very strongly cuneated, bill black, and also the legs. In some, probably the males, the breast as well as the abdomen is spotted, and the wings are crossed by a narrow grey or whitish stripe. A native of Africa, common about the Cape of Good Hope.

MEXICANA. The grey hoopoe, with a mixture of sea-green and purple. Underneath yellow, greater quill-feathers blueish, and the four intermediate tail-feathers longer than the rest. This is the grey promerops with green and purple gloss, blueish wings, yellowish belly, and very long tail; the Mexican promerops of Linnæus, the promerops Mexicanus of Brisson, and promerops à ailes blanches of Buffon. The body of this bird is of the size of a thrush. The bill is near two inches long, and blackish; the whole of the upper parts, except the quills, which are light blue, are grey, with green and purplish glosses. The under parts of the body are light yellow, and a spot of the same colour is situated above each eye. This species is said to be a native of Mexico, frequenting mountainous regions, and feeding on various kinds of insects.

PARADISEA. The crested chestnut-coloured hoopoe, with the two middle tail-feathers much longer than the rest. This is the chestnut promerops, grey beneath, with black-crested head, and very long tail. The avis paradisica cristata orientalis rarissima of Seba, the promerops of Buffon, and crested promerops of Latham. It is about the size of a starling; the bill is curved, and of a lead colour, as are also the legs; the head and neck are a fine-deep black; the crown of the head being ornamented by a very conspicuous lengthened semi-pendant crest; the whole remainder of the bird on the upper parts is bright brown, on the under pale ash-colour. A native, according to Seba, of the East Indies, where, as he says, it is very rare.

FUSCA. The brown hoopoe, underneath grey, striped with white and black, the crown of the colour of polished steel, the throat and neck black, and two intermediate tail-feathers very long. This is the brown promerops, beneath white, with black undulations, and very long tail. The promerops

brun,

brun, à ventre et éyé of Buffon, and New Guinea brown promerops of Latham. According to Sonnerat, who first described and figured it, the neck, back, wings, and tail of this bird are brown; the breast and remaining under parts white, undulated by numerous transverse black stripes, each feather having two white and two black bars; the tail very long, and strongly cuneated, the bill considerably curved, of a blackish colour; and the legs yellowish-brown. A native of New Guinea, inhabiting large woods.

MAGNA. The black hoopoe; the head, hind part of the neck, breast, and exterior part of the falcated scapular feathers golden green, and very long tail. This is the superb promerops, with violet and green glofs, falcated golden-shining scapular feathers, and very long tail; the grand promerops à paremens frifes of Buffon, and grand promerops of Latham. Its shape is slender, the tail almost three times the length of the remainder of the bird, which is not larger than a common pigeon; the bill narrow, black, and pretty much curved; the general colour of the whole bird is black, accompanied, according to the different directions of the light, by varying reflections of blue, green, and violet; the other parts as above described. The scapular feathers, or those situated along the sides of the body, rise up into two rows of reversed falciform plumes, gradually enlarging from the shoulders to the rump, beyond which they become much longer but less curved, and are stretched to some distance on each side of the base of the tail; the colour of their inner or shallower scales is purplish-black, but along the edges and tip of the wider web it is of a brilliant golden-green: on each side of the lower part of the body, beneath the wings, is also situated a thick and moderately long group of loose-webbed, pendent, brownish feathers; the tail consists of twelve feathers; and the legs are strong and black. This bird was first described by Sonnerat, and is a native of Guinea; but its history and habits are unknown.

AURANTIA. The yellow hoopoe, with golden head and neck, and tail even at the end. This is the orange-coloured promerops, with tail of moderate length, and even at the tip; the avis paradisifica Americana elegantissima of Seba, the promerops orange of Buffon, and the orange promerops of Latham. This bird is about the size of a starling; its bill is somewhat curved, sharp-pointed, and yellow, as are the legs; the head and neck are of a deep yellow or gold colour, with a few red feathers round the base of the bill; the remainder of the bird is orange-yellow; the larger quill-feathers of a redder cast than the rest. A native of Guiana, frequenting the small islands in the mouth of the river Berbice. The supposed female of this species is described by Fernandez, in his History of Mexico, under the name of "Cochitlotli;" it is introduced by Gmelin as a variety of the former; Buffon reckons it a female, and Brisson denominates it promerops Mexicanus luteus. The head, throat, neck, and wings are said to be irregularly varied with grey and black; the rest of the bird yellow; the bill black and the legs grey.

Of the "black hoopoe," nothing but its existence and native country seems to be known: it is mentioned by Sonnini, on the authority of Monsi. Viollet, who says that it is found in Africa, towards the kingdom of Congo. For other species, see PROMEROPS, and Shaw's Zoology, vol. viii.

UR, in *Ancient Geography*, a city of Chaldea, where Terah, the father of Abraham, resided; and whence Abraham himself removed to the land of Canaan, which was granted to him and his posterity. (Gen. xi. 28.) The precise situation of this city is not known; some think that it was Camerina, in Babylonia. Ptolemy and Strabo suppose that

it was Orcha or Orchea, in Chaldea; and others are of opinion that it was Ura, or Sura, in Syria, on the Euphrates. Bochart and Grotius maintain, that it was Ura in Mesopotamia, two days' journey from Nisibis. The difficulty that occurs in ascertaining its situation, is partly owing to the confusion that attends the settlement of the precise boundaries of Chaldea and Mesopotamia; the former being situated towards the mouths of the Tigris and Euphrates, and the latter between these rivers somewhat farther north. The word *Ur*, in Hebrew, signifies fire; and hence some have pretended, that when Moses said God brought Abraham out of Ur of the Chaldees, he alluded to a fire into which the Chaldeans cast him. But this seems to be fabulous, as St. Jerome, who once adopted their opinion, afterwards acknowledged: and therefore others have thought, that the name Ur was given to this city, because fire was the object of worship; and Abraham, by his removal to Canaan, was released from all obligation to practise that kind of worship.

URA, in *Geography*, a town of Asia Minor, 10 miles S. of Miles.

URABA, a town and district of South America, in the province of Carthagena.

URAC, the most northerly of the Ladrone islands, in the East Indian sea, about 9 miles in circumference. N. lat. 20° 45'.

URACH, a town of Wurtemberg, with considerable manufactures of damask, and other linens, on the Rems; 21 miles S.E. of Stuttgart. N. lat. 48° 27'. E. long. 9° 27'.

URACHUS, in *Anatomy*, a fibrous cord passing from the fundus of the bladder to the umbilicus; it is hollow in the fetus of animals, and communicates with the allantois. See EMBRYO and KIDNEY.

URACONDA, in *Geography*, a town of Hindoostan, in Mysore; 20 miles W.S.W. of Gooty.

URAGO, a town of Italy, in the department of the Mela, on the Oglio; 15 miles W. of Brescia.

URAGUAY, a river of South America, which rises in Paraguay, about S. lat. 26° 30'; and, after a course of about 600 miles, joins the Para, in S. lat. 34°, and the united streams take the name of La Plata. The country on this side the river is also called Paraguay.

URAIN, Sr., a town of France, in the department of the Nievre; 7 miles N.E. of Cosne.

URAL, formerly the *Taik*, a river of Russia, that has its source in the western sides of the Ural mountains, from which it issues near the fort of Orsk, and for a long interval pursues a western course, then turns directly south, and at about 47° N. lat., and 70° long., falls into the Caspian. The current is rapid, and its water pure; and it was known to the ancients under the name of Rhymus. Its course is estimated at 3000 versts. From time immemorial it has constituted the boundary between the Kirghiz and the Baskhirs; and upon it are still 30 forts and several fore-posts against the former. The most considerable rivers which the Ural takes up are, to the left, the Or and the Ilek; and to the right, the Kifil and the Sakmara. In the upper regions, its banks are ridged with steep and lofty rocks; but lower down it flows through a tolerably dry and very fine steppe. It abounds with fish. The fishery on the Ural forms the principal occupation and support of the Uralian Cossacks; nor is this trade any where so well regulated, by the laws of ancient usage, as here. Ever since the government granted the fishery to the Cossacks, in return for the payment of the moderate stipulation formerly annexed to the catching or fishing stakes at Gurief, they have completely broken up the

the said fish-weir, and instead of it, inclosed the whole river about the town of Uralisk by a permanent utching; so that, though the fish come freely out of the Caspian into the Ural, they cannot proceed higher than Uralisk. The Ural has all the kinds of fish that are found in the Volga, excepting the bream, the red salmon, and a small species of sturgeon. The first and most important capture in the year is in January, with hooks; the second lasts from May till towards the middle of June; and the third, which is the least considerable, is performed with nets, in October. The first great fishery in January is chiefly for sturgeons and belugas. On the day when the fishery begins, all the Cossacks who have tickets of licence assemble before sun-rise, with their sledges and implements, at a stated place before the town, ranging themselves in rows and sections, according to the order in which they arrive. They are then mustered by a proper officer and formed; notice is given by firing of cannon when the operation is to commence, or the breaking up of the ice for fishing. The order and ceremonial are the same for the second great capture of the *sevrugas* in spring as in the winter fishery, and a certain boundary is fixed for marking the extent of the fishery. The Cossacks, while fishing, sit singly in little canoes, commonly made of the trunks of the black or white poplar, paid over with asphaltus instead of pitch. The nets are between 20 and 30 ells in length. The autumnal fishery is also conducted in the same manner with the others. This is performed with large casting nets, and they are allowed to take, besides the smaller species of fish, all sorts of sturgeons. The largest belugas caught in the Ural weigh often 25 pood, and yield about 5 pood of kaviar or caviar, upon account of its stringiness is reckoned the worst. The sturgeons are about a fathom in length, and the largest of them weigh 5 pood, and contain a pood of kaviar, which is most esteemed for its quality. The fish here, as at the Volga, are mostly salted; kaviar is prepared from the roes, and fish-glue made of the mucilaginous substances; but the winter-fish are transported frozen. Tooke's Russia, vol. iii.

URAL Mountains, a famous chain of mountains in Russia, which forms the natural boundary between Europe and northern Asia, called Ural, or the belt, as if it girted the whole world. The ancients gave this chain the appellation of the Hyperborean and the Rhyphæan mountains, and sometimes "Montes Rhymerici." Under the last of these denominations, the Bashkirian Ural was more particularly designated. The northern Ural they termed "Montes Hyperboreos" or "Ripheos;" and the southern "Rhymericos." The former were afterwards called the Yugorian mountains. Ural is a Tartarian word, signifying a belt, or girdle; by which the Russians likewise denote this range; for they call it Kammenoi, and Semnoi Poyas; that is, the rocky, or earth-girdle. These mountains extend from S. to N., almost in a direct line, much above 1500 English miles. They commence with the mountains between the Caspian and the lake Aral, and attain their greatest height and bulk about the sources of the rivers Ural, Tobol, and Emba; and from thence they stretch on towards the origin of the Tihussavaia and the Isets, and further on to the sources of the Pethora and the Solva; and lastly, form two great promontories about the Karian haven of the Frozen ocean: after being divided by the straits of Vaygat, or Waygat, they terminate in the mountains of Nova Zemla. From this chain some considerable collateral branches take a western as well as an eastern course. The most material from the former side are those called Obshchishei-Sirt, the mounts of separation, running out between the river Ural and the Sakmara,

uniting on one side with an arm issuing from the Kirghizti-steppe, on the left shore of the Ural; and on the other side projecting into the old Kalmuck-steppe, between the Volga and the Ural, and northerly joining the sand-stone mountains, which accompany the main course of the Ural on the western side. Near the forts of Orsk and Guberlinsk, a part of the mountains runs out south-eastward into the Kirghizti deserts, and reaches to the mountain Ulutau, which stands about the centre of that region, and is attached to the great Altay. This arm is called the Guberlinskoi mountains. Another course, smaller than the preceding, runs south-eastward between the rivers Ural and Ui, under the name of Okto-Karagai, through the open steppe of the middle horde of the Kirghis-kaisaks, and then pursues its way, under the appellation of Alginiskoi-Sirt, towards the Irtilsh and the Altay mountains. The whole Ural chain may be divided into three parts, *viz.* the Kirghizti Ural, extending from the Caspian and the Aral, and eastward out of the great steppe of the Kirghis-kaisaks, as far as the origin of the Tobol and the Yemba; the Ural rich in ores, or Ural ore mountains, comprehending the whole mountainous track, with its western and eastern appendages, from the rise of the said rivers and the Guberlinskoi mountains, quite up to the sources of the Solva and Kolva; and the desert Ural, extending from these rivers to the Frozen ocean. The Ural abounding in ores may be subdivided into the Orenburg, the Ekaterinenburg, and the Verchoturian Ural.

This main course of the Ural mountains declines much more on its western side than on the eastern, and on the former has a considerable track of collateral ridge, very rich in copper, and mostly composed of schistose sand-stone. The highest mountain of the Ural chain is in the Bashkiria (or in the Orenburg Ural), and in the Verchoturian Ural.

The Ural chain is of itself a main mountain, whose highest ridges, for the most part, consist of granite, and of all the properly primitive rocky materials. In minerals the Ural mountains are very rich; abounding with beautiful sorts of granite, porphyry, excellent Jasper, fine quartz, petrosilex, pebbles, whetstones, flints, agates, chalcodons, large mountain crystals, smoky topazes, or brown rock crystals, fine amethysts, chrysolites, porcelain and pipe-clay, bolus, shelly feldspar, serpentine, pottstone, window-mica, asbestos, and amianthus; beautiful marbles, table-schistus, gypsum, flowers of spar, turf, coals, mineral oils, naphtha, native sulphur, marcasites, fossil salts, sources of common salt, bitter lakes, alum, vitriolic earths, salt-petre, natron, iron, copper, gold, and specimens of silver and lead. For working of the gold, copper, and iron, very expensive and productive fabrics are here erected. The Ural mountains are also amply furnished with woods; such as pines, birch, fir, cedar, larch, aspen, alder, and on the S.W. side a few oaks, elms, lindens, &c. In the valleys adjoining to this range of mountains are rich and verdant glens, and dales and meads in alternate succession; so that the breed of cattle is not inconsiderable. Among the wild beasts and birds, which are very plentiful, may be reckoned fables, beavers, rein-deer, elks, &c. The various elevations are copiously supplied with beautiful pellucid lakes, ponds, and numberless streams, all teeming with fish. The principal rivers that take their rise in this chain of mountains are the Solva, the Tura, the Iset, the Ui, the Tobol, the Yemba, the Ural, the Belaita, the Tihussavaia, the Kamma, the Pethora, &c. Tooke's Russia, vol. i.

URALA, a considerable Turkish village, situated on the side of a mountain, at about the distance of a mile from the shore, commanding a prospect of the whole of the spa-

cious gulf of Smyra, as far as Mitylene. The greater part of the fine Smyrna raisins come from Uralla, where several cargoes are prepared annually. At the season of the racolta, or fruit-harvest, the Smyrna merchants send their clerks to attend its ingathering, and at that time there is much business transacted in this village.

URALSK, a town of Russia, in the government of Caucasus, on the Ural; 328 miles N.N.E. of Astrachan. N. lat. 51° 10'. E. long. 51° 54'.

URAMARCA, a town of Peru, in the diocese of Guamanga; 60 miles E. of Guamanga.

URAMEU, a town of Brazil; 48 miles N.E. of Para.

URAN. See OURAN.

VRANA, a town of Istria; 9 miles E.S.E. of Pedena.—Alfo, a town of European Turkey, in Servia; 25 miles E.S.E. of Pflintina.—Alfo, a river of Bulgaria, which runs into the Black sea at Varna.

VRANA, or *Urana*, a town of Dalmatia, situated on a lake to which it gives name, anciently an important fortress belonging to the Templars, and the residence of the grand prior. This castle, which at the time of its foundation was named *Brana*, or *Vrana*, by way of dignity, is now a frightful heap of ruins, reduced to that state by the Venetians. Some writers have thought that Bandonia was anciently seated there; but no vestige of Roman antiquity is to be seen about these walls, and ruined, uninhabited towers. The khan, or caravanferai, is worthy of observation, although it is now in a ruinous state, being abandoned to the barbarity of the Morlacchi, who inhabit the neighbouring lands, and carry off whatever materials suit them, to be employed in their wretched cottages. The name of Vrana is now transferred to a wretched village, that stands about a mile from the ruins of the fortress, in the very place where an eminent Turk of the last age, called Hali Bey, had his gardens; and the squalid habitation of the curate of the parish lately went by the name of Hali Bey's gardens. The lake of Vrana is more famous and better known at Venice than any other in Dalmatia, not only on account of its considerable extent of 12 miles, but from the project formed by a private person, and partly put in execution, to cut a passage by which the water might be discharged into the sea; 15 miles E.S.E. of Zara.

URANA, a river of South America, which runs into the Caribbean sea; 9 miles W. of Cumana bay.

URANDA, a town of Japan, in the island of Xicoco; 12 miles S.S.E. of Tofa.

URANDUK, a town of Bosnia; 2 miles E. of Seraja.

URANIA, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of the isle of Cyprus, taken by Demetrius, according to Diodorus Siculus.

URANIA, in *Botany*, a name for which the classical Schreber has well exchanged the barbarous RAVENALA of Adanson and his followers; see that article. This latter seems, by Jacquin's account, to be altered from *Ravenala*, signifying, as he had some reason to believe, the leaf of God, among the inhabitants of Madagascar. In the application of *Urana*, Schreber had probably in view, not so much the "heavenly muse," according to the explanation of De Theis, as the Greek adjective *οὐρανός*, great, admirable, or sublime, which so well answers to the majestic stature and large proportions of this very fine plant.—Schreb. Gen. 212. Willd. Sp. Pl. v. 2. 7. Mart. Mill. Dict. v. 4. (Ravenala; Juss. 62. Lamarck Illustr. t. 222.)—Class and order, *Hexandria Monogynia*. Nat. Ord. *Muse*, Juss.

Gen. Ch. Cal. Common Sheaths alternate, each of one

leaf, ovato-lanceolate, concave, many-flowered; partial ones inferior, each of two linear-lanceolate, long, channelled, pointed, erect, coloured, permanent valves: perianth none. Cor. Petals three, superior, oblong, channelled, erect, acute, equal. Nectary of two equal leaves, one of them cloven, (according to Adanson). Stam. Filaments six, thread-shaped; anthers vertical, erect, linear, longer than the filaments, and about equal to the nectary, inclining at the summit. Pist. Germen inferior, oblong; style rather longer than the filaments; stigma in six converging segments. Peric. Capsule oblong, abrupt, triangular, of three cells, and three woody valves, connected at the base; the partitions from the centre of each valve. Seeds numerous, in two rows, roundish-oblong, each with an umbilicated, fleshy, laciniated, coloured, radiating tunic, spreading from the scar.

Eff. Ch. Sheaths general and partial. Perianth none. Petals three. Nectary of two equal leaves, one of them cloven. Capsule inferior, of three cells. Seeds numerous, in two rows, each with a coloured tunic.

1. *U. speciosa*. Superb *Urania*. Willd. n. 1. Ait. Epit. 376. (Ravénala madagascariensis; Sonnerat Voy. aux Ind. Or. v. 2. 223, t. 124—126. Jacq. Hort. Schoenbr. v. 1. 47. t. 93.)—Native of marshy ground in the island of Madagascar. Cultivated in the Mauritius, from whence it was carried to the imperial garden at Schoenbrunn, in 1782, and to the stoves of Kew, in 1810.

This is one of the most stately of plants, with respect to its habit, and the proportion of every part, though perhaps inferior in stature to many trees. The stem is erect, and, according to Sonnerat, very lofty, though he does not mention its precise height, round, marked with numerous scars where the foliage has formerly been, otherwise naked and smooth, quite simple, crowned at the summit with an ample, radiating, vertical tuft, of very numerous, stalked, alternate leaves, spreading in two ranks, like a vast fan, many feet wide. Each leaf is oblong, entire, obtuse at each end, with one rib, and numerous transverse, parallel veins, smooth, resembling the leaves of the *Musa*, or Plantain-tree, but larger and thicker. Footstalks sheathing from the base about half way up. Sonnerat makes their length about two feet, but Jacquin says ten, adding that each leaf is six feet long, and two wide. If this be correct, the whole diameter of the fan-like head may be thirty-two feet! We might have felt a suspicion that Jacquin's plant, which, in the course of fifteen years' cultivation in the stove at Schoenbrunn, never flowered, nor formed any stem, might be the *Strelitzia augusta* of Thunberg, Willdenow, and Aiton; had not the author expressly mentioned its having been raised from seeds taken out of the capsules delineated in his plate, which indubitably belong to our *Urania*, whose flower-stalks are axillary, scattered, shorter than the footstalks, zigzag, very stout, and finally woody, each bearing six or eight alternate, two-ranked, rigid, pointed sheaths, filled with numerous, erect, whitish flowers, whose petals are seven or eight inches long. Capsules brown, rugged, three or four inches in length. Seeds the size of a horse-bean, black, their tunics of a fine blue, and curiously jagged.—The inhabitants of Madagascar use the leaves as a covering to their houses. Flacourt, it seems, has described this plant, in his History of Madagascar, by the name of *Voasoussi*, (Botany is happy to have escaped this name,) and he there relates that the natives make an oil from the tunic of the seeds, and grind the substance of the latter into meal, which they eat with milk.

After all that we can collect, the *Urania* itself, if distinct from *Strelitzia augusta*, is so very nearly allied to *Strelitzia* in genus,

genus, that we should not wonder if they prove the fame. We have been shewn at fir J. Banks's, a native *capsule* and *seeds* of a *Strelitzia* from the Cape, which answer exactly to the characters of *Urania*, though no *tunic* is described in *STRELITZIA*; see that article.

URANIA, or *Cælestis*, in *Mythology*, one of the nine Muses that presided over astronomy: she is represented as clothed with an azure-coloured robe, crowned with stars, holding a globe in her hand, or sometimes with the globe at her feet, and surrounded with several mathematical instruments. On medals the globe stands upon a tripod.

URANIA, a goddess of the Arabians, and of the Moors of Africa, called also *Allat* and *Cælestis*. The *Urania* of the Arabs is supposed to have been the Moon, as Bacchus was the Sun; and these two luminaries were among them objects of worship. The *Cælestis* of the Moors, mentioned by Tertullian, was the Venus *Urania*, so well known in Syria, that is, the planet of that name; for it is certain that almost all nations worshipped the stars, and had gods natural and gods animated.

URANIBURGH, q. d. the *City of the Heavens*, a term often heard among astronomers, being the name of a celebrated observatory, in a castle in the little island Weenen, or Huen, in the Sound; built by that noble Dane, Tycho Brahe; and furnished with instruments for observing the course and motions of the heavenly bodies.

This famed observatory, finished about the year 1580, did not subsist above seventeen years; when Tycho, who little thought to have erected an edifice of so short a duration, and who had even published the figure and position of the heavens, which he had chosen for the moment to lay the first stone in, was obliged to abandon his country.

Soon after this, those to whom the property of the island was given, made it their business to demolish *Uraniburg*: part of the ruins was dispersed into divers places; the rest served to build Tycho a handsome seat upon his ancient estate, which to this day bears the name of *Uraniburg*. For as to the ancient *Uraniburg*, there is now no footprint of it remaining. It was here Tycho composed his catalogue of the stars.

M. Picart, making a voyage to *Uraniburg*, found Tycho's meridian line, drawn thereon, to deviate from the meridian of the world: which confirms the conjecture of some, that the position of the meridian line may vary. See TYCHO BRAHE.

URANIUM, in *Mineralogy* and *Metallurgy*, a metal so called from the planet *Uranus* or *Herschel*, by the celebrated chemist Klaproth, who discovered it in 1789, in an ore which had been formerly supposed to contain zinc or iron. Uranium is of an iron-grey colour; it possesses considerable metallic lustre; it is brittle and hard, but yields to the file. It has hitherto only been obtained in grains, or in small quantities as a porous cohering mass. The specific gravity of uranium, according to Klaproth, is 8.01; but according to Bucholz, 9. Uranium melts with great difficulty; but when heated to redness in an open vessel, it undergoes a species of combustion, glowing like a coal, and is converted into a black powder, gaining in weight about five parts in the hundred. This powder is the black oxyd. The yellow oxyd is obtained by precipitating uranium from its solution in nitric acid by an alkali. The yellow oxyd of uranium is insoluble in pure alkalies, but is soluble by the alkaline carbonates; the former property distinguishes it from the oxyd of tungsten. The yellow oxyd consists of eight parts metal, and twenty of oxygen. The combinations of uranium with the other metals are unknown. With sulphur the yellow oxyd of uranium may be combined, by

mixing two parts of sulphur and one of oxyd, and exposing the mixture to heat in a crucible. Molt of the sulphur is driven off; the residuum is a blackish-brown mass, being a sulphuret of uranium. If the heat be increased, the whole of the sulphur is sublimed, and the uranium remains in a metallic state, in the form of a black coarse powder. Metallic uranium is only perfectly soluble in nitric acid. Bucholz supposes that there are several oxyds of this metal, distinguished by their different colours, as under:

Peroxyd,	-	Greyish-black.
Second oxyd,	-	Dark grey, inclining to violet.
Third oxyd,	-	Greenish-brown.
Fourth oxyd,	-	Greyish-green.
Fifth oxyd,	-	Orange.
Peroxyd,	-	Lemon-yellow.

To obtain uranium from its ores, in which it exists in the state of oxyd, the ore must be dissolved in dilute nitric acid. The solution may contain iron, copper, and lime. By evaporating it to dryness, and exposing the dry mass to a moderately strong heat, the iron is rendered insoluble, but the other ingredients will be taken up by distilled water. Ammonia poured into this solution, and digested in it for some time, retains the copper, but throws down the uranium.

The precipitate is to be washed with ammonia till the liquid comes off colourless; it is then to be dissolved in nitric acid, and to be concentrated by evaporation, and set by to crystallize. The green-coloured crystals that form, may be picked out and dried on blotting-paper, then dissolved in water, and the liquid partly evaporated and left to crystallize. By this means the whole of the lime will remain behind. The crystals will consist of pure oxyd of uranium united to nitric acid; they are to be exposed to a red heat; a yellow powder remains, which is the oxyd of uranium. This powder is to be mixed with a small quantity of charcoal powder, and exposed to a violent heat, by which it is reduced to a metallic state. The experiment succeeds best when the oxyd is mixed with only the one-twentieth part of charcoal, and inclosed in a charcoal crucible to exclude the air. Klaproth employed a heat equal to 170° Wedgwood, to obtain this metal. No flux has hitherto been found of any service in facilitating the reduction of uranium.

Uranium has not hitherto been applied to any useful purpose in the arts, either in its metallic state, or in combination with acids as a metalline salt.

With nitric acid, oxyd of uranium unites in two proportions. The nitrate is an extremely soluble salt, of a lemon-yellow colour. The crystals have generally the form of hexagonal tables, more or less perfect; but by careful management, they may be obtained in large four-sided rectangular flat prisms. At the temperature of 100°, they fall into a white powder. In a damp atmosphere, they soon deliquesce.

They consist, according to Bucholz, of

Oxyd of uranium	-	-	-	61
Acid	-	-	-	25
Water	-	-	-	14
				100

When nitrate of uranium is heated till its colour becomes orange-red, it does not dissolve completely in water, but leaves a yellow powder, which has been shewn by Bucholz to be a subnitrate.

The oxyd of uranium combines with the muriatic and sulphuric

fulphuric acids, also with the acetic, the tartaric, the phosphoric, and fluoric acids, and with those of tungsten and molybdena. Richter formed likewise the borate, oxalate, citrate, malate, benzoate, fuccinate, and sebate of uranium; but the properties of the latter salts have not been described. See SALTS and ACIDS.

Ores of Uranium.—*Pitch-blende* or *Pitch-ore*, *Pecherz*, *Werner*; *Uran Oxidulé*, *Haüy*. This mineral was first observed in a mine at Johan-Georgianstadt, in Saxony. From its black colour, and other properties, it was for some time supposed to be a blende, or ore of zinc. *M. Werner* placed it among iron-ores, and afterwards supposed that it contained wolfram. *Klaproth* analysed this ore in 1789, and found that it consisted principally of sulphur, combined with a metal to which he first gave the name of uranium. This ore occurs in veins in primitive rocks, in several places in Cornwall, in Saxony, and in Norway; it is commonly accompanied with galena, copper pyrites, and iron ochre, and with quartz, calcareous spar, and sulphate of barytes. It is also sometimes associated with ores of silver and cobalt.

The colour of pitch-blende is velvet-black, or greyish-black, sometimes inclining to green and brown. It occurs massive, and disseminated also reniform, botryoidal, and pulverulent. The lustre internally is resinous, more or less shining. The structure is sometimes imperceptible; in other specimens it is lamellar. Pitch-blende is brittle; the fracture is imperfectly conchoidal; the fragments are angular and sharp-edged. It yields readily to the knife, but the colour of the streak is not changed. The specific gravity of this ore is 7.5.

Pitch-blende is infusible without addition by the blow-pipe; with borax it yields a grey slag; with phosphate of soda, a clear green globule. It dissolves imperfectly in the sulphuric and muriatic acids, but is almost entirely dissolved in the nitric and nitro-muriatic acids. The solution has a pale orange-green colour; and from this solution the metal is precipitated by the phosphate of potash and the alkalis: with the former, the colour of the precipitate is a brownish-red; with the latter, yellow.

The constituent parts of this ore, as given by *Klaproth*, are,

Oxyd of uranium	-	-	86.5
Black oxyd of iron	-	-	2.5
Galena	-	-	6
Silex	-	-	5

100

Pitch-blende may be distinguished from brown blende by its colour, specific gravity, fracture, and streaks; from wolfram by its streak and fracture.

Uranite, or *Uran mica*, *Uran oxidé*, *Haüy*. The colour of this ore is lemon-yellow, passing into orange, and into apple-green and emerald-green; it becomes brownish by decomposition. It occurs crystallized in rectangular prisms and tables, and sometimes in imperfect octohedrons. The edges of the crystals are frequently bevelled and truncated. The structure is lamellar, with distinct joints in one direction, parallel to the bases of the crystals; the other joints are indistinct. The lamellæ are inflexible, and transparent or translucent, with a shining pearly lustre. Uranite yields easily to the knife; the specific gravity is 2.19. The crystals are generally small. Sometimes this mineral occurs massive, in granular distinct concretions; and sometimes it is found pulverulent, and in small tubercles, which have a glimmering or dull lustre, and an orange or green or reddish-

brown colour. Uranite decrepitates violently before the blow-pipe; it loses about 33 per cent. by ignition, and acquires the colour of brufs. With borax it yields a yellowish-green glass. This ore dissolves without effervescence in nitric acid, and communicates to it a lemon-yellow colour.

Its constituent parts, as given by *McGregor*, are,

Oxyd of uranium, with a trace of oxyd of lead	74.4
Oxyd of copper	8.2
Water	15.4
Loss	2

100

Uranite occurs in veins in the mines of Cornwall, and in Saxony and France: it is generally accompanied with the ores of iron.

The pulverulent uranite is called by the Germans *uran-ochre*. Indurated uran-ochre also occurs with the other ores of uranite, either massive or disseminated; the colour is the same as the pulverulent. It is soft and brittle; the specific gravity is 3.15. According to *Klaproth*, the yellow varieties are pure oxyd of uranium; but the brownish and reddish contain a little iron.

URANOPOLIS, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Asia, in Pamphylia, and in the country called Carbalia. Ptolemy.—Also, a town of Macedonia, in the Chalcide; situated on mount Athos, near the southern side, and the promontories Nymphæum and Auvathon. *Pliny*. *Athenæus* says, that this town was founded by *Alexarchus*, the brother of *Cassander*, king of Macedonia.—Also, an epithet given by *Athenæus* to the city of Rome.

URANOSCOPUS, in *Ichthyology*, the name of a fish, called in English the *star-gazer*; and by some authors, *callionymus*.

The uranoscopus, in the Linnæan system, is a genus of the order of Jugulares: its characters are, that the head is depressed, rough, and large; the mouth has the upper jaw shorter than the lower; the branchiostegæ membrane has five rays, and is covered with small eminences like teeth; the opercula are membranous and ciliated; the anus is in the middle of the body. *Gmelin* mentions two species: viz. *feaber*, or *star-gazer*, with bearded lips and smooth back. It is usually caught about seven or eight inches in length, but sometimes it grows to a foot; its head is very large, of a sort of square figure, covered by a strong bony case, roughened by an infinite number of small crests or protuberances; each side of this case is terminated above by two spines, the under part has five spines smaller than those above. Its mouth is large, and opens perpendicularly downward, being placed in the same direction with the eyes in the upper part of the head; the tongue is thick, short, and roughened with a number of small teeth; under its chin is a beard or long cirrus extending to some distance beyond the lips; its eyes are small and prominent, and are so placed near each other in the upper part of its head, as naturally to look up to the heavens, whence it has its name; and though many of the flat fish have their eyes placed like those of this fish, yet the pupils in these are directed sideways, whereas in this only they are turned straight upward; the body is of a squarish form as far as the vent, and then it becomes cylindrical: it is covered with small scales, and marked near the back by a lateral line, composed of small pores or points bending from the neck to the pectoral fins on each side, and from thence in a straight line to the tail: on the back are two fins, the first being much shorter than the latter, and furnished with stronger spines; the pectoral fins are large, with soft rays; the ventral fins are small; the tail is of moderate

derate size, and rounded at the end; the colour of the body is brown, with a whitish or silvery cast towards the abdomen; the head, pectoral fins, and tail having a strong ferruginous cast, and the first dorsal fin being marked towards its hind part by a large black spot.

The star-gazer is an inhabitant of the Mediterranean and Northern seas, frequenting chiefly the shallow parts near the shores, and concealing itself in the mud, with the top of its head only exposed: in this situation it waves the beards of the lips, and particularly the long cirrus of the mouth, in various directions, thus alluring the smaller fishes and marine insects that are near, who mistaking these organs for worms, are instantly seized by their concealed enemy. As an article of food it is coarse, and of an ill flavour: the gill was anciently considered as peculiarly efficacious in external disorders of the eyes.

The reason of the situation of the eyes of the uranoscopus, is the providence of nature for a fish, which, always keeping at the bottom, has no where to look for prey but in the water above it. But if other fish had been well examined, this peculiar name would never have been given to this. The eyes of the *rana piscatrix* are placed in the same manner, and those of a great number of other fish, whose custom it is to keep at the bottom, are more or less also thus situated. Gessner. Gmelin. Shaw.

JAPONICUS. With the back roughened by a semi-range of spinous scales. Found in the sea encompassing Japan. This is above yellow, and underneath white.

URANUGRATZ, in *Geography*, a town of Croatia; 18 miles N.N.W. of Novi.

URANUS, in *Mythology*, the great divinity of the Phœnicians. According to Sanchoniathon, he was the son of Elion, called Hyphistis, who lived in the neighbourhood of Byblos, by his wife Beruth. These had a son, first called Epigeus, and afterwards Uranus, and a daughter named Gé. The names of these two children the Greeks have given to heaven and earth. Hyphistis, having died at a hunting-match, was advanced to divine honours, and had sacrifices and libations offered to him. Uranus took possession of his father's throne, and having married his sister Gé, had several children by her. Uranus, as the fabulous history relates, was expelled from the throne by his son Chronus, on account of the offence given to his mother Gé by his infidelity, who succeeded to his power. According to the theogony of the Atlantide, who lived in the western parts of Africa, preserved by Diodorus Siculus, Uranus, or Coelus, was their first king, and brought his subjects, who had before his time wandered about without any fixed residence, to live in society, and to cultivate the ground. He also studied astronomy, and regulated the year by the course of the sun, and the months by that of the moon; and by calculating the motions of the heavenly bodies, he delivered predictions, the accomplishment of which astonished the Atlantide to such a degree, that they thought him divine, and after his death enrolled him among the gods. Uranus had by his several wives forty-five children, and by Titæ alone eighteen, whence sprang the appellation of Titans. See TITANS.

VRASA, in *Geography*, a town of Sweden, in the province of Smaland; 16 miles S. of Wexio.

URATOOR, a town of Hindoostan, in the circar of Cuddapa; 14 miles W. of Cuddapa.

VRAZZA, a town of Bulgaria, on the Elker; 24 miles N.E. of Sophia.

URBAIN, Sr., a town of France, in the department of the Upper Marne; 3 miles S.E. of Joinville.

URBAN I., *Pope*, in *Biography*, succeeded Calixtus I. A.D. 223, and occupied the pontifical chair till the year

230, when, as it is said, he was beheaded under the emperor Alexander Severus; so that the Roman senate has ranked him in the number of its martyrs. Bower.

URBAN II., *Pope*, named *Otho*, or *Eudes*, was born, as it has been generally thought, at Chatillon-sur-Marne, and educated under Bruno, founder of the Carthusian order; and devoting himself to a monastic life in the monastery of Cluny, became abbot of that institution. Being called to Rome, in 1078, by pope Gregory VII., he was made cardinal and bishop of Ostia; and in 1088, after the death of pope Victor III. in 1087, the Romans unanimously elected him as his successor, when he assumed the name of Urban II. He was no less proud and arrogant than his patron Gregory, with less fortitude, but greater temerity. In the second year of his pontificate he assembled a council at Rome, which excommunicated the anti-pope Guibert, together with Henry IV., of Germany, by whom he was supported, and all his adherents. He also held another council at Melis, in Apulia, which confirmed the decrees of Gregory against lay investitures and the marriage of the clergy. The pope, in order to counteract the power of the emperor, promoted a marriage between Guelph, duke of Bavaria, and the countess Matilda; upon which Henry marched into Italy, and having reduced Mantua, and other places, recalled Guibert to Rome, and put him in possession of the Lateran palace, when the emperor's progress was checked by the revolt of his son Conrad: under the instigation or approbation of Urban, Guibert was expelled, and Urban returned to Rome in 1093. In the year 1095, a council was held at Placentia, to which a solemn embassy was sent by Alexius Comnenus, emperor of Constantinople, the object of which was to state the oppressions of the infidels, and to request assistance on behalf of the Christians of the East. The pope and several great lords interested themselves in their cause, and proposed personally and otherwise to afford them succour. At this council, the doctrine of transubstantiation was asserted; the marriage of the clergy was rigorously prohibited; and Guibert and his partisans were again anathematized. After an interview between Conrad and the pope, he was recognized as king of Italy, on the condition of an oath of allegiance to the apostolic see. In 1095 Urban visited France, and held a council at Claremont, the first business of which was the excommunication of king Philip, for refusing to part with Bertrade, who had been his mistress, and whom he had married, after having repudiated his queen Bertha. Among other canons passed by this council, one forbade a bishop or priest to promise fidelity to a king or any layman. The "Treuga Dei" (see TRUCE of God) was strongly enforced, and all former decrees relating to it were confirmed. But this council rendered itself peculiarly famous, by first introducing the project of crusades. (See CROISADE.) During Urban's abode in France, he held other councils; and in one of them absolved Philip, who had dismissed Bertrade; and he returned to Italy in 1096. At Salerno he had an interview, in 1098, with Roger, duke of Sicily, when he is supposed to have granted the bull of the "Monarchy of Sicily," in consequence of which, the sovereign of Sicily is supreme head of the church in his dominions. Although the authenticity of this bull has been disputed, the powers confirmed by it have been occasionally exercised ever since that period. This pope took part with Anselm, archbishop of Canterbury, and the other English clergy, against William Rufus, who had made free with their temporalities, and threatened the king with excommunication. In the year 1099, the second crusade took place, in which Jerusalem was captured; but Urban did not live to receive this agreeable intelligence; for he terminated a busy pontifi-

cate of eleven years and above four months, at Rome, in July of this year. Over his tomb in the Vatican was placed this inscription: "Urbanus II. Auctor Expeditionis in Infideles." Miracles have been ascribed to Urban by the monkish orders; but they have not been sanctioned by the Roman church. Several of his letters, and of the decrees of councils convened by him, are extant. Bower. Mosheim.

URBAN III., *Pope*, was elected to the pontificate on the decease of Lucius III., in December 1184. Several disputes were excited between him and the emperor Frederic Barbarossa, which occasioned his menace to excommunicate the emperor; but Barbarossa appealed to an assembly of prelates and princes in Germany in vindication of his rights, and they wrote a letter to the pope on the subject of complaint. Such was his indignation, that he threatened to fulminate his sentence at Verona, but the inhabitants of that city would not permit it. Soon after he is said to have died of grief, upon hearing of the capture of Jerusalem by Saladin, in 1187. Bower.

URBAN IV., *Pope*, named *Pantalon*, was born of mean parentage at Troyes, in Champagne, studied at Paris, and rose through several gradations of preferment to the papal chair, on the death of Alexander IV., in 1261. At two promotions of cardinals, he is said to have created fourteen, who did honour to his choice. Manfred, who usurped the crown of Sicily, was excommunicated for refusing to obey his summons to Rome, and a crusade was also preached against him. Afterwards disturbances occurred in the city, which caused the pope to retire to Orvieto, where he resided with his cardinals during the greatest part of his pontificate. He made an unsuccessful attempt, by the interference of his authoritative counsel, to terminate the war which raged in Germany on account of a competition for the empire: and having failed in his negotiation with Manfred, he offered the kingdom to Charles of Anjou, brother of king Louis IX., by whom it was accepted; but before he was informed of the refusal, he died at Perugia, in October 1264. This pope instituted the festival of "Corpus Christi," in honour of the holy sacrament, by a bull dated in 1264. The sanctity of his manners, and his liberality to the poor, have been recorded to his honour; and Tiraboschi produces evidence of his having been an encourager of philosophical studies; and the mathematician Campano compliments him with being the patron and associate of men of learning. He is said to have laid his injunctions on the famous Thomas Aquinas, to write commentaries on Aristotle. His own epistles that are extant are of little or no importance. Dupin. Bower.

URBAN V., *Pope*, was at an early age a Benedictine, and studied civil and canon law at Montpellier, of which he became a professor in that university, and at Avignon, Toulouse, and Paris. After some subordinate promotions, he succeeded Innocent VI. in the papal chair, A.D. 1362. At the commencement of his pontificate he was visited by three sovereigns; one of whom, *viz.* Lusignan, king of Cyprus, solicited his assistance against the Turks, who threatened to invade his dominions. In compliance with this request, the pope engaged the other two kings, *viz.* John of France, and Waldemar of Denmark, to engage in a crusade for that purpose; but the design was rendered abortive by the death of the French king. In 1365, the emperor Charles IV. visited the pope at Avignon, which was then the seat of the papal fee; but soon afterwards the pontiff was invited to Rome, and to make that city, which was his proper capital, the place of his abode. Accordingly, on the last day of April, 1367, he set out on his journey, and in October made his solemn entry into Rome. In the following year he was visited by Charles, who accompanied him from Viterbo,

on his second entrance into Rome, walking by his side, and holding his stirrup from the Colline gate to St. Peter's. He was also honoured by the visit of another emperor, John Palæologus, of Constantinople, who professed every article of faith held by the Roman church, acknowledging its primacy, and swearing perpetual obedience. This victory over the Greek church was highly gratifying to the pope. At this time Urban announced, to the surprise and disappointment of the Italians, his intention of returning to Avignon. Various attempts were made to dissuade him from accomplishing his purpose; and St. Bridget, then famous for her revelations, predicted that if he undertook such a journey he would not be able to complete it. Notwithstanding every kind of opposition, he retained his purpose, and arrived at Avignon in September, 1370. But the termination of his life was approaching, and having made that kind of preparation for it which his religion enjoined, he resigned himself with composure and acquiescence, expiring December 19, 1370. This pope has been highly commended for his public and private virtues. He extirpated abuses, checked the ambition and restrained the avarice of aspiring ecclesiastics, and deviated from the example of other pontiffs, by raising only one relation, *viz.* his own brother, to the purple, and not permitting even his father, who lived to 100 years, to accept a pension from France. To the poor he was liberal, and in erecting public works munificent. He encouraged learning by founding universities, and he is said to have maintained 1000 students at his own charge. He reformed to its ancient splendour the university of Bologna, which service was highly extolled by Petrarch. Several of his letters have been published, and a volume of them exists in the Vatican library. Dupin. Moreri. Gen. Biog.

URBAN VI., *Pope*, was elected, if the expression may be used, by a conclave of cardinals, compelled by the populace of Rome to name and enthrone Bartolomeo Prignano, archbishop of Bari, who assumed the name of Urban VI., and who was then 60 years of age. He was born at Naples, and deemed to be an excellent civilian and canonist, and a person of great probity. He was exemplary in his attention to the forms of devotion, and singularly humble and modest in his demeanour. The cardinals apprehended that he would renounce an election that had been the result of force; but this was far from being his intention. He began with reproving the cardinals for their culpable qualities, and with urging them to reform their conduct; and at the same time he ingratiated himself with the Roman people. The cardinals were incensed by the haughty spirit which he manifested, and determined upon making void his election. For this purpose they withdrew to Anagni, and from thence sent an admonition to Urban to resign a dignity to which he must be conscious he had no title. When they found that their admonition was unavailing, they proceeded to a new election, under the protection of a guard from Viterbo. At length, the ultramontane cardinals, being sixteen, whilst the Italian were no more than four, pronounced, in August 1378, a sentence of nullity against the election of Urban, and of excommunication against his person. The Italian cardinals afterwards joined them; and they concurred in choosing for a new pope cardinal Robert, brother of the count of Geneva, and allied to most of the royal houses of Europe. He assumed the name of Clement VII.

The countries of Europe were divided between these two popes: Urban being acknowledged in Italy and the greatest part of Germany, England, Portugal, Hungary, Poland, Denmark, Sweden, Prussia, and Norway; and Clement possessing France, Spain, Scotland, Sicily, Rhodes, and Cyprus.

Cyprus. Each of these claimants was adhered to and supported by men of learning and reputation. The former resided at Rome, and the latter at Avignon. We shall not detail the contents, no less disgraceful to the one than to the other, by which these competitors for ecclesiastical power and their respective adherents maintained their authority and influence. One of Urban's last acts was that of reducing the period of the Jubilee from every 50th to every 33d year. He closed a very unquiet pontificate of 11½ years, and a life of atrocious misconduct, in October 1389. Notwithstanding the apparent irregularity of his election, the church has sanctioned it as canonical, enrolled him among the true popes, and referred his rival to the class of anti-popes.

Dupin. Bower.

URBAN VII., *Pope*, succeeded Sixtus V. in September, 1590, and died on the twelfth day of his pontificate. Bower.

URBAN VIII., *Pope*, named *Maffeo Barberini*, was born of a noble Florentine family in 1567, educated in Florence and the Jesuits' college in Rome, and graduated in law at Pisa. He was well acquainted with the Latin, Greek, and Hebrew languages, and became a prelate by powerful interest at the age of 19 years. Under the patronage of Clement VIII. he sustained many offices of distinction; was made cardinal by Paul V. in 1606, and elevated to the pontificate on the death of Gregory XV. in 1623. Immediately upon his elevation, he created two of his nephews cardinals, and conferred the title of eminence upon all of that order. On the death of the duke of Urbino, in 1632, he took possession of that duchy, as a fief of the holy see. Of the part which this pontiff took in the controversy that prevailed with respect to the doctrines of Janfenius, we have already given a brief account under the article JANSENISM. Among his other pontifical acts we may mention his approbation of the order of the Visitation, and his suppression of that of the Jesuitesses. He also issued a bull for renewing the decrees of the council of Trent, and of other popes, which enjoined the residence of prelates on their sees. Having, at the instigation of his nephews, entered into a war with the duke of Parma, from whom he had ravished, in 1641, the duchy of Castro, as a forfeiture to the holy see, which he was afterwards obliged to restore, on condition of obtaining peace, he died in 1644, in the 77th year of his age, and the 21st of his pontificate. His character, excepting only the charge of nepotism, which he incurred in common with many other pontiffs, was upon the whole respectable. He was a scholar, and an encourager of literature. Of his poems a magnificent impression was published, during his life, at Paris, in 1642, under the title "Maphæi S.R.E. Carl. Barberini nunc Urbani VIII. Poemata." He also corrected and rendered more pure and elegant the Latin hymns used in divine service. Among other splendid buildings, which he caused to be erected in the capital, one was the palace of Paestrina, for the residence of a nephew, whom he made prince with that title. By stripping the brafs from the roof of the Pantheon, in order to decorate the altar of St. Peter's, he furnished occasion for the following piquinade: "Quod non fecere Barbari, fecere Barberini." His family he had so enriched, that he subjected them to a severe persecution in the subsequent pontificate. Dupin. Bower.

URBANIA, or *Castel Durante*, in *Geography*, a town of the Popedom, in the duchy of Urbino. This town owes its name to pope Urban VIII., who rebuilt it, and surrounded it with bastions. It is the see of a bishop, suffragan of Urbino; 7 miles S.S.W. of Urbino.

URBANNA, a town of Virginia, on the Rappahannock;

50 miles E.N.E. of Richmond. N. lat. 37° 40'. W. long. 76° 40'.

URBARA, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Africa, in the interior of Mauritania Cæsariensis. Ptolemy.

URBATA, a town of Pannonia, upon the route from Sirmium to Salone, between Cirtifa and Servium. Anton. Itin.

URBE, in *Geography*, a river which rises in the county of Waldeck, and runs into the Dimel, 5 miles W. of Warburg.

URBIACA, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Hispania Citerior, at a small distance from mount Ubeda, towards the east, on a small river which ran towards Bilbilis; marked in Anton. Itin. between Valeponga and Albonica.

URBICARY PROVINCES. See SUBURBICARY.

URBICUS, in *Ancient Geography*, a river of Spain.

URBINATES, a people of Italy, in Umbria; of whom there were two classes, viz. the Metaurense, who inhabited the banks of the Metaurus; and the Hortenses, who inhabited the city of Urbinum, near the Flaminian way. The Urbinum Hortense, or town of gardens, was situated on a lofty hill, and had only a fountain to supply the whole town with water. The Urbinum of Metaurus lay south-east of the former, on a river from which it took its name. It was municipal.

URBINO, TIMOTEO DI, in *Biography*. See VITE.

URBINO, *Duchy of*, in *Geography*, a province of the Popedom, bounded on the north by Romagna, on the north-east by the Adriatic, on the south-east by the marquise of Ancona, on the south by the Perugian, and on the west by Tuscany and Romagna. The air is reckoned unwholesome; one of the chief productions is silk; game and fish are plentiful. Urbino was formerly governed by its own dukes, of whom the last, Francis Maria, of Rovera, dying in the year 1631, without male issue, the pope took possession of his territory. The said duke had by will, in 1626, confirmed the pope's claims, and already, in effect, made over the country. Victoria, daughter of his son Ubaldi, and spouse to Ferdinand II. great duke of Tuscany, inherited the allodial estates; and hence it is that Poggio Imperiale, and other places in this country, belonged to the duke of Tuscany. In the year 1764, the pope purchased the rights claimed by the duke of Tuscany. During the French revolution it was transferred to the kingdom of Italy.

URBINO, a city of the Popedom, and capital of a duchy of the same name, near the head of the Foglio, the see of an archbishop, and residence of a legate. It is situated on a hill, at the union of two rivers. The university or academy is one of the most ancient in Italy. It contains a noble college, and 16 convents. The ducal palace, which at present belongs to the pope, was built by duke Frederic, who furnished it with many ancient statues of marble and bronze, excellent paintings, and a library of curious and rare books. The library was conveyed to Rome by pope Alexander VII. In the churches are seen some works of the celebrated painters Raphael and Frederic Barocci; as likewise of Genga, Vincent St. Geminiano, and Timotheus d'Urbino, pupils of Raphael. Raphael was a native of Urbino; 54 miles E. of Florence. N. lat. 43° 48'. E. long. 12° 32'.

URBI-SAGLIA, a town of the marquise of Ancona; 5 miles S. of Macerata.

URBS. See KEFF.

URBS, in *Ancient Geography*, a river of Italy, in Liguria. —Also, a forest of Italy, in Liguria, near the forementioned river.

URBS *Selvia*, a town of Italy, in the interior of Picenum, on this side of the Apennines. Ptolemy.

URBS *Vetus*, *Oroietta*, a town of Italy, in Etruria, on the river Clanis.

URCAS, in *Geography*, rocks near the coast of Brazil. S. lat. 4° 50'. W. long. 35° 44'.

URCEO, ANTONIO, (CODRUS URCEUS, Lat.), in *Bio-graphy*, an eminent scholar, was born in 1446, at Rubiera, in the territory of Reggio, in Lombardy; and having been educated at Bologna, and under the famous Guarini at Ferrara, he became, in his 23d year, a teacher of the classics at Forlì. At Forlì he had for one of his pupils the son of Pino, lord of that place, who having once politely recommended himself to Urceo, the latter jocosely replied, "Good God! how well things go with us! Jupiter recommends himself to Codrus;" referring to the name of a poet in Juvenal, whose poverty was proverbial. From this circumstance he obtained the appellation of Codrus. The loss of some written paper, and of an opera entitled "Paltor," by fire, roused his passion to such a degree, that he vented his rage by uttering the most horrid blasphemies, and hurrying into a wood near the city, where he remained a whole day without food. Upon his return the gates were shut, and he was obliged to pass the night upon a dunghill. In the morning he repaired to the house of a carpenter, and remained there in a state of melancholy for six months; but he afterwards resumed his occupations till the death of Pino. Upon this event disturbances occurred in the city, which occasioned him, after a residence of 13 years, to remove to Bologna, where he taught grammar and eloquence with great applause. His disregard of religion, however, and the freedom with which he expressed his doubts concerning a future state, rendered it necessary for him to engage the protection of the most reputable citizens. Notwithstanding the scepticism and irreligion of his life, he had recourse, at his death, to the sacraments of the church, which he received with tokens of deep contrition. He died in the year 1500, much regretted by his disciples, who carried his remains to the place of interment. His distinguished reputation, as one of the most learned Greek and Latin scholars in his time, has been testified by his contemporaries, and particularly by Angelo Poliziano and Aldo Manuzio. His works, consisting of Latin letters, orations, and poems, and of a supplement to the "Aulularia" of Plautus, were published at Bologna in 1502, and have been often reprinted; but they are thought inadequate to the reputation which he had acquired during his life. Moreri. Bayle. Gen. Biog.

URCEOLARIA, in *Botany*, a genus of the tribe of LICHENES, (see that article,) established and named by Acharius, from *urceolus*, a little pitcher, in allusion to the form of the shields, funk, like little depressed cups, deep into the substance of the crust.—Achar. Prodr. 30. Meth. 141. "Lichenogr. 74. t. 6. f. 8, 9. 11." Syn. 137. Sm. Prodr. Fl. Græc. Sibth. v. 2. 305.—Clas and order, *Cryptogamia Alga*. Nat. Ord. *Lichenes*.

Ess. Ch. Receptacles shield-like, concave, coloured, smooth, funk in the crust; their surrounding margin elevated, sessile, of the colour and substance of the crust.

Acharius remarks, in his *Methodus* above cited, that the present genus is, as it were, intermediate between his *Lecidea* and *Parmelia*, being distinguished from both by the uniformly concave, as well as funk, shields, which moreover are most frequently furnished with a proper, as well as accessory, margin. The former indeed, never present in *Parmelia*, is not very evident in *Urceolaria*, being small, and of the same colour as the disk: the latter, never observable in

Lecidea, is in *Urceolaria* an annular elevation of the substance of the crust, overtopping the margin of the shield.

Twenty species are defined in the *Synopsis* of Acharius, whose fynonyms appear, in some instances, not correctly applied; but we are well aware of the great ambiguity attending the plants in question, and shall propose our doubts with caution. Few of these species are known in England, most of them being either of Swifts or Lapland origin. They frequently grow on hard stones, that are occasionally inundated, or on naked exposed rocks; sometimes on the bark of trees. They are, for the most part, of small dimensions, and of rather inconspicuous appearance. We select the most remarkable.

U. *Acharii*. Acharian *Urceolaria*. Ach. Syn. n. r. Meth. 150. (Lichen *Acharii*; Ach. Prodr. 33, with a figure in the title-page. Engl. Bot. t. 1087. L. *lacustris*; With. v. 4. 21. t. 31. f. 4.)—Crust limited, smooth, a little cracked, pale brick-coloured. Shields red; accessory border tumid.—Found on large stones, of the hardest kinds, that border alpine lakes or rivulets, in Sweden, Wales, &c. and are inundated in winter. Mr. Griffith first noticed this species in Britain, and the name *lacustris*, under which it appeared in Dr. Withering's work, is so very excellent, that nothing but the claims of our illustrious friend Acharius could induce us to resign it. The crust looks like an ochraceous sediment from the water, but is hard and firm, inseparable from the rock, smooth and even, as if partly polished, or rubbed down, becoming cracked with age. Its colour is a pale yellowish-brown, rarely a dirty white. Shields small, variously scattered, of the diameter of a small pin's head, concave, funk, of a deeper redder hue than the crust, surrounded at first by a pale elevated border from the crust, which subsequently disappears, probably from the smoothing action of the water. Dr. Acharius gives, as a variety of this, the *Lecanora cyrtaspis* of his *Lichenographia*, p. 397, for which he quotes *Lichen punctatus*, Engl. Bot. t. 450. We cannot conceive the latter to be an *Urceolaria*, or to be even allied to the species before us. It seems a *Parmelia*, whose crust is white or greenish, not reddish, nor is the disk of the shields concave, nor bordered. Though greenish, or brown when young, that part is finally black. We do not mean to insist on the synonym of *Fl. Dan.* t. 468. f. 2.

U. *diamarta*. Red and black *Urceolaria*. Ach. Syn. n. 2: Meth. 151. ("Lichen *diamartus*; Wahlenb. Lapp. 414.")—"Crust somewhat limited, cracked, rather warty, of an ochrey-red. Disk of the shields rather convex, black; accessory margin elevated, finally zigzag."—On rocks near the shore of the gulf of Bothnia. Dr. Acharius declares this to be a widely different species from *Endocarpon sinopicum*, with which, he says, "it seems to be confounded in Engl. Bot." At p. 1776 of that work we have, indeed, mentioned a suggestion of Mr. Turner's, that these two plants may probably prove one and the same. But we presume there is no error or confusion in the figure and description annexed of our *Lichen sinopius*, which we found to agree with Mr. Wahlenberg's original specimen of his *Endocarpon* so called. Of the *Urceolaria* in question, we have never seen a specimen, unless it be *Lichen Oederi* of Dickson, as hinted by Acharius in his *Methodus*, 152; but this is not given as a synonym in the *Synopsis*.

U. *gibbosa*. Tumid *Urceolaria*. Ach. Syn. n. 7. Meth. 144, excluding the syn. of Bellardi and Villars. (U. *fimbriata*; Ach. Meth. 145. Lichen *fibrosus*; Engl. Bot. t. 1732.)—Crust covered with papillary warts, smoothish, of a light smoky brown; the edge more or less fimbriate. Shields in the summit of each wart, concave, blackish; accessory

efflory margin elevated, contracted, pale, minutely crenate.—Found on exposed rocks and stones, in various parts of Europe. On the smooth flints scattered over the downs of Suffex this species appears in its greatest perfection; sometimes having a fine radiating marginal fringe, by which the crust extends itself; the central part being occupied, frequently to the breadth of two or three inches, with crowded, angular, elevated, convex warts, of a grey or brownish hue. These are less distinct, and more polished, towards the circumference, where they vanish into a thin, dilated, inseparable border, often more granulated than fibrous, except where the flint is broken and polished. Each of the perfect warts bears one, rarely more than one, small, irregular, concave *shield*, whose disk is blackish, somewhat glaucous, internally reddish-brown, encompassed by a pale, roughish, raised margin, which looks as if it had become visible by rubbing. When the plant has its fringed edge, it is the *U. fimbriata* of Acharius, now justly reduced by that intelligent author to his own *gibbosa*.

U. cinerea. Ash-coloured Urceolaria. Ach. Syn. n. 11. Meth. 143. (Lichen cinereus; Linn. Mant. 132. Westring Lich. v. 1. 247. t. 18. Ach. Prodr. 32. Verrucaria ocellata; Hoffm. Pl. Lich. v. 1. 92. t. 20. f. 2.)—Crust grey, rugged and cracked, with a black border. Shields black, sunk, slightly concave; at length elevated along with their prominent, thickish, entire, accessory margins.—Common on large stones, rocks, and scattered flints. Few Lichens have been less understood, nor would Linneus's specific name have been changed, probably, if botanists had been able to ascertain, with any certainty, what he intended by it. His herbarium gives no information on this subject; but we rely with confidence on the tradition of his Swedish pupils. The general appearance of this species is like a bad imperfect state of Hudson's *Lichen ater*, but the latter is not an *Urceolaria*. The *crust* is thin and inseparable; its edge, when crowded and condensed, narrow and black; but when allowed to spread on smooth flints, it is more dilated, zoned, and greenish, not fibrous. The central part swells into small, irregular, grey knobs, and at length cracks. The copious *shields* are either solitary or clustered, small, black, with the decided accessory border of this genus, growing more and more above the common level. According to the experiments of Mr. Westring, this species affords very fine rich shades of orange, or red-brown, for dyeing silk. Acharius indicates four varieties, chiefly described by himself, which we have had no opportunity of comparing.

U. scruposa. Powdery Spherical Urceolaria. Ach. Syn. n. 13. Meth. 147. (Lichen scruposus; Schreb. Lich. 133. Hoffm. Enum. 41. t. 6. f. 1. Dickl. Crypt. fasc. 1. 11. Engl. Bot. t. 266. Lichenoides crustaceum et leprosum, scutellis nigricantibus majoribus et minoribus, varietas β ; Dill. Musc. 133. t. 18. f. 15. β . Patellaria scruposa; Hoffm. Pl. Lich. v. 1. 54. t. 11. f. 2.)—Crust corrugated, greyish-white, granulated, mealy. Shields nearly spherical, black, with a tumid, inflexed, narrow-mouthed, finely crenate accessory border.—Frequent on dry chalky heaths, and on brick walls, sometimes on rocks, or spreading over decayed mosses. The *crust* is thick and chalky, mostly cream-coloured, or greyish; very white when dry, almost covered with the crowded globular warts, each of which lodges a blackish, or slightly glaucous, hollow *shield*, of the same shape. *Lichen impressus*, Ach. Prodr. 104. (Patellaria muscorum; Hoffm. Pl. Lich. v. 1. 93. t. 21. f. 1.) is acknowledged to be a variety of this, whose crust assumes a leafy appearance from other plants which it overruns.

U. diacapsis, Ach. Syn. n. 15. (Lichen diacapsis; Engl. Bot. t. 1954.) is surely a *Lecidea* of Acharius, having nothing of an accessory border to the shields.

U. calcarea. Chalky Urceolaria. Ach. Syn. n. 16. Meth. 142. t. 4. f. 1. (Lichen calcareus; Linn. Fl. Suec. ed. 2. 407. L. cinereus; Engl. Bot. t. 820. Verrucaria contorta; Hoffm. Pl. Lich. v. 1. 97. t. 22. f. 1—4.)—Crust limited, finely cracked, somewhat powdery, very white; at length greyish. Shields minute, irregular, concave, greyish-black, with a thin edge, and a slightly prominent accessory border.—Found on calcareous rocks and wrought stones. The plant of English Botany forms broad conspicuous inseparable patches, on grey-marble tomb-stones, in the country church-yards of Norfolk and Suffolk. Dr. Acharius determines it to be the *Lichen calcareus* of Linneus, to whose description and remarks it well answers, especially where he says that it is a sure indication of calcareous stones, and proves very troublesome to the decipherers of runic inscriptions. The *crust* is extremely hard and solid. The form of the *shields* is scarcely ever exactly circular. Whether *U. Hoffmanni*, Ach. Meth. 145, *Lichen rupicola*, Hoffm. Enum. 23. t. 6. f. 3, be the same species, or whether the eight other varieties, adopted by Acharius chiefly from Florke in the Berlin Magazine for 1811, belong to it, we are equally, at least, in doubt with himself. *Patellaria multipunctata*, Hoffm. Pl. Lich. t. 63. f. 1—3, we now agree with Acharius in separating from the present species. He makes it a variety of *Lecidea albo-carulefens*, Ach. Syn. 29, which is Dickson's *Lichen pruinatus*; but we presume here to express our doubts.

U. compuncta. Many-dotted Urceolaria. Sm. in Ach. Meth. 143. Syn. n. 19.—Crust continued, very thin, smooth, greyish-white. Shields numerous, crowded, minute, concave, black, white-edged, with a tumid accessory border.—Found by the late Mr. Christ. Smith, on the bark of trees in Amboyna. The *crust* appears to be divided into tessellated portions, but these are rather cracks in the bark, to which its thin uninterrupted substance exactly conforms. Each portion contains innumerable cavities, as if made with the point of a needle, every one of which lodges a minute blackish hollow disk, whose proper margin, unconnected with the accessory one, is contracted, and very pale, almost white. We can assure our worthy friend Acharius, who has relied on the writer of this for the present curious species, that, notwithstanding his doubts, nothing can be more unlike *U. calcarea*.

U. esculenta. Eatable Urceolaria. Ach. Syn. n. 20.—“Crust tartareous, thick, rugged and warty, greyish. Receptacles wart-like, with a hollow disk.”—Native of the chalky hills, of the deserts of Tartary. The *crust* is eatable! Acharius appears never to have seen a specimen, and he is not certain of the genus. He quotes no authority.

URCEOLUS, in *Ecclesiastical Writers*. See AQUÆ-MANILIS.

URCEOLUS, in *Mythology*, a small vase of brass, silver, earth, or some other material, which had a straight neck, and wide mouth, much after the fashion of the burettes, or crystal bottles in which they put the wine and water used in the sacrifice of the mafs, which the inferior ministers carried for washing the priest's hands. They are often to be found upon antique monuments, in the hands of their ministers.

URCESA, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Hispania Citerior, belonging to the Celtiberi.

URCEUS, in *Antiquity*, the name of a measure of liquids, which in different places was of different capacity; its most

usual standard seems to have been between twelve and sixteen ounces.

URCHIN, a common name given to the hedge-hog. *URCHIN, Sea*, in *Ichthyology*. The *echinus marinus* of authors is, in some parts of England, called the *sea-egg*, and in others the *sea-urchin*, or *hedge-hog*. It is a genus of fish, of which there are a great number of species. See *ECHINO-DERMA*, and *CENTRONIA*.

The manner of these creatures moving at the bottom of the sea has been disputed among naturalists; the general opinion of the world has been, that they did it by means of their spines or prickles, which served them by way of legs; but some of late, particularly Mr. Gandolph, pretend that the spines of the urchins are of no use to them on this occasion, but that they move by means of certain legs, like the legs of the star-fish, which they occasionally put out when they walk, and at other times retract them into their body. The world was readily falling into this system, particularly as Mr. Gandolph affirmed, that he had been often an eye-witness to it; but the indefatigable M. Reaumur tried the experiment himself, and often made himself an eye-witness of the contrary fact, having frequently seen them walk at the bottom of a shallow basin of sea-water, with no other assistance than that of their spines, and even having made them perform the same motion, by the same means, upon his hand.

This curious inquirer into nature did not, however, stop here; but took occasion from hence to inquire accurately into every circumstance of their progression, which is performed by so uncommon means.

It is certain that the sea-urchin does throw out at the lower aperture of the shell, when it pleases, certain bodies which resemble not a little the legs of star-fish; but these serve not at all to its motion; but, on the contrary, their real use is to keep the creature still, and fixed in the same position; and, to describe them more exactly, they very aptly resemble the horns of snails; whence M. Reaumur has chosen rather to call them horns than legs. The use the urchin makes of these horns, while it is in motion, is to feel about, and try the ground on which it marches; and they serve the creature as a staff does a blind man in his walking, to touch and try every thing that lies in the way; and to make them serve to this purpose, it is continually extending or retracting them during the time it is moving. These horns are not only placed about the orifice of the shell, but they are every where dispersed among the spines, all over the surface of the shell.

In order to understand the position of these horns, we must consider, that the sea-urchin shell is a hard body, approaching in form to that of a segment of a sphere, with two apertures, one commonly at the summit of the shell, and another opposite to it at the base: the former hole serves, as it is supposed, for discharging the excrement, and the latter for the mouth of the animal. The whole external surface is divided by protuberances, of different sizes, into ten spherical isosceles triangles, which have their vertex at the upper aperture, and their base at the lower: five of these are large and five small; the larger are separated from the smaller by triangular bands pierced with small holes, arranged in a beautiful and regular order. The triangular spaces are divided by several lines, commencing at the upper aperture of the shell, and terminating at the lower; these lines are marked by sundry eminences of different sizes, each of which resembles a sort of nipple: on these parts the base of every spine is fixed, and as the base is hollow, it is able to turn round each eminence. Of these species M. Reau-

mur found more than two thousand on every fish; and the number of perforations on each shell is not less than thirteen hundred. From each of these perforations, there proceeds a horn, which horns are only visible when the fish is in the water, and even then it puts forth only some of them at once: these serve as anchors to the fish, because it glues them fast to the stones, &c.

The spines are all capable of assisting the creature in its motions, but those it principally employs are such as are placed near its mouth; as these can turn upon their balls every way with equal facility, the creature finds it equally easy to move on any side; and when it has determined which way it will move, those spines which stand directly toward that point, and those which are directly opposite, are of equal service to it; it draws itself forward by means of the first, and pushes itself on with the others; to do this, it first thrusts out the foremost ones as far as possible, and pressing them against the bottom, it draws on its body by them; and this is succeeded, by drawing up the hinder ones close to its shell, and then fixing them against the bottom, it pushes itself forward by them. This is the manner of this little creature's marching in the common way, with its mouth downward; but it has this strange singularity, that it is not confined to this posture alone in marching, but can, with equal ease, walk with its mouth upwards, or run along sideways in the manner of a wheel; or in any direction between these. The legs and the horns cover all parts of it, and are in every part of it equally able to move separately thirteen hundred horns, and more than two thousand spines, which serve for legs. Mem. Acad. Par. 1712.

URCI, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Hispania, in Bætica, at the mouth of a river, on the frontiers of the Tarragonensis of Bætica.

URCINIUM, a town situated on the coast of the island of Corfica, between Rhium Promontorium and Arenofum Littus. Ptolemy.

URCIZE, St., in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Cantal; 21 miles S. of St. Flour.

URCOS, a town of Peru, in the diocese of Cusco; 20 miles S. of Cusco.

URCUNAZO, a river of Spain, which runs into the Orio, in the province of Guipuzcoa.

URDACHE, a town of Spain, in Navarre; 22 miles N. of Pamplona.

URDASIM, a river of Russia, which runs into the Ural, at Fort Tanalitzkaia.

URDASIMSKAIA, a fort of Russia, in the government of Upha; 128 miles E. of Orenburg.

URDE', or **URDÉE**, in *Heraldry*. A *crofs urde* seems to be the same with what we otherwise call *chebée*.

URDIALA, in *Geography*, a town of Spain, in the province of Tavastland; 28 miles W. of Tavasthus.

URE, or **YOURE**, a river of England, in the county of York, which rises at and passes by Masham, Rippon, Boroughbridge, &c. and about two miles below the last town joins the Swale, and takes the name of Ouse.

URE, in *Rural Economy*, a provincial term sometimes applied to the udders of particular sorts of domestic animals, as those of cows, sheep, and some others. See **UDDER**.

UREA, or **URÉE**. Fourcroy and Vauquelin gave this name to a principle contained in human urine, which, in combination with many others, Rouelle junior first pointed out so early as 1773; and the description of these celebrated chemists, and that of Mr. Cruickshanks, who examined it about the same time, have been generally adopted by succeeding writers, with one or two exceptions only, even to the

the present time. Berzelius appears to have been the first who obtained it in a separate state, but the account he has given of it does not seem to have much attracted the attention of chemists, for the more recent description of it by Thénard is much less correct. M. Vauquelin is said to have procured it very lately in the pure state in which we are about to describe it, which description we adopt from Dr. Prout, who has just published an account of this singular principle in the Transactions of the Medico-chirurgical Society of London.

To obtain urea in any quantity is no easy task. This arises from the care with which it is decomposed, and the obstinacy with which the colouring matter, and other urinary principles, adhere to it. Dr. Prout recommends that urine should be carefully evaporated to the consistence of a syrup; that nitric acid should be slowly added to it in this state, which combines with the urea, and thus separates it from many other principles. The nitrate of urea is then to be decomposed by carbonate of potash, and after the nitre formed has been separated by crystallization, animal charcoal is recommended to be added to the coloured solution of urea, which separates most of the colouring matters: lastly, the solution of urea is again ordered to be evaporated to dryness, and heated with strong alcohol and heat; the alcoholic solution thus formed is then to be concentrated by evaporation, and on cooling the urea separates from it in a pure crystalline state. Thus obtained, urea has the following properties:

“Urea most frequently assumes the form of a four-sided prism. Its crystals are transparent and colourless, and have a slight pearly lustre. It leaves a sensation of coolness on the tongue like nitre. Its smell is faint and peculiar, but not urinous. It does not affect litmus or turmeric papers. It undergoes no apparent change on exposure to the air, except in very damp weather, when it slightly deliquesces, but does not seem to suffer decomposition. Exposed to a strong heat it melts, and is partly decomposed and partly sublimed apparently unaltered. The specific gravity of its crystals is about 1.350.

“Water at 60° dissolves more than its own weight of urea, and the solution exposed to the air for several months underwent no change. Boiling water dissolves any quantity of it whatever, and the urea does not appear to undergo any change at this degree of temperature.

“Alcohol (sp. gr. .816) at a mean temperature dissolves about 20 per cent., and at a boiling temperature more than its own weight, and the urea separates on cooling in the form of crystals. It is very sparingly if at all soluble in sulphuric ether, or the essential oil of turpentine, though these fluids are rendered opaque by it.

“The pure alkalies and alkaline earths decompose it, especially when assisted by heat, and the result is chiefly carbonate of ammonia. It unites with most of the metallic oxids. The combination with silver is greyish, and detonates on being heated, and the silver is reduced. It does not seem however to be alone capable of decomposing any metallic salt, but in order to effect the union in question the aid of double decomposition is necessary.

“It combines with nitric acid, and forms a crystalline compound but sparingly soluble in water. It forms also a similar compound with oxalic acid. In neither of these compounds are the properties of the acids neutralized.”

Urea has the remarkable property of changing the crystalline forms of those salts with which it is in solution. Thus the cubical form of the muriate of soda is changed into an octohedron, while the octohedral form of the muriate of ammonia is converted into a cube. The prismatic form of

nitre also is liable to be variously modified. These changes do not appear to take place unless the urea be in excess in a solution, and the proportional quantities of the different salts be such as to crystallize slowly.

Urea submitted to analysis, by combustion with the oxyd of copper, was found to consist of

2 atoms or 2 volumes of hydrogen	2.5	of parts of	hydrogen	6.66
1 atom or 1 volume of carbon	7.5		carbon	19.99
1 atom or ½ volume of oxygen	10.0		oxygen	26.66
1 atom or 1 volume of azote	17.5		azote	46.66
	37.5			100.00

The nitrate of urea, the crystalline compound before-mentioned, consists, according to Dr. Prout's analysis, of

Nitric acid	47.37	or one atom.
Urea	52.63	or two atoms.
	100.00	

Hence we are enabled, by means of this analysis, to estimate the quantity of urea in a given specimen of urine.

Urea sometimes exists so abundantly in urine, as to crystallize spontaneously on the addition of nitric acid. In such instances it is usually accompanied by an excess of the phosphates. A remarkable relation was found by Dr. Prout to subsist between urea and the saccharine principle, which, in his opinion, satisfactorily explains the phenomena of diabetes, a disease in which sugar is known to be present in the urine, in the proportion in which urea is absent. Another remarkable circumstance is, its composition being in conformity to the atomic theory, or theory of definite proportions. This however is not peculiar to urea, but was found by Dr. P. to hold good in other urinary principles. See URIC Acid.

URECOURT, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Volges; 6 miles N.N.W. of La Marche.

UREDEN, a town of Germany, in the bishopric of Munster, on the Berckel; 26 miles W.N.W. of Munster.

UREDIO, a word used by some of the chemical writers to express the virtues of metals communicated to them from the sun. Pliny uses the same word to express the fruit affecting fruits; and some medical writers have expressed by it a very violent and excruciating pain in the head: and others an extreme itching or burning in the skin. See SMUT, BLAST, and BLIGHT.

UREDIO, in *Botany*, an old Latin name, from *uro*, to burn, or parch, applied to those occasional discolorations on the surfaces of plants, which were attributed to blasts, or injuries of the atmosphere or heavenly bodies, but which are now generally found to be parasitical fungi; at least such is the state of these appearances, when they come under our observation, whatever injury or disease, in the plant which bears them, may have favoured their production. The above name is now applied to one particular genus of this kind of vegetable.—Pers. Obs. Mycol. fasc. 2. 23. Syn. Fung. 214.—Clafs and order, *Cryptogamia Fungi*. Nat. Ord. *Fungi*.

Ess. Ch. Coat none. Powder naked, deciduous. Seeds uniform, generally globose.

Such is Persoon's generic character, by which the difference between this genus and another of the same author's, named *Puccinia*, seems to be, that in the latter what he terms, with a mark of doubt, *Sporula*, seeds, are said to be clustered

clustered into little tufts, roundish, and somewhat turbinate, with a tail, or elongation at the base, and interrupted by internal partitions. What are analogous to these in *Uredo* are said to be "uniform, generally globose." This distinction is clear enough, but the denomination of the parts in question proves erroneous. This is evident from the elaborate investigation of the blight in wheat, by the right hon. sir Joseph Banks, illustrated by the microscopic drawings of Mr. Francis Bauer, republished in Sims and König's Ann. of Bot. v. 2. 51. t. 3, 4. By this treatise, and indeed by Perfoon's own definition, it is manifest, that his *Sporulae* are not seeds, but real seed-vessels, or capsules. Therefore the *Uredo frumentii*, Sowerby's Fung. t. 140. Lambert in Tr. of Linn. Soc. v. 4. 193. Kirby ibid. v. 5. 122, which was the subject of sir Joseph Banks's examination, and is the *Puccinia graminis* of Perfoon, Syn. Fung. 228, rather answers to the character of the genus *Liccia* in the same work, p. 195, given as follows: "Head distinct, roundish or somewhat indeterminate, brittle, without any sub-jacent membrane. Seminal powder destitute of threads." We know not what is meant, in Perfoon's generic character of *Uredo*, by the distinction between *puleis*, powder, and *sporulae*, seeds, nor whether the latter, if examined with equal care, might prove, as in the *Uredo frumentii*, to be capsules. The subject indeed is in its infancy. Mr. Bauer has long been collecting facts and appearances to illustrate it, which are registered in his inimitable drawings, but materials are not yet sufficiently plentiful to form therewith any systematic arrangement of these minute productions, in which the greatness of the Creator, and our own ignorance, have long been acknowledged. Nevertheless, we are obliged to those who have made any scientific attempt at defining this cryptogamic tribe, for present convenience, however imperfect such must necessarily be. In this light Perfoon shines conspicuously, and we shall extract what will best illustrate his genus *Uredo*. The subject is important in an agricultural view, some of these parasitical fungi being supposed, at least, to be very detrimental to the corn, or other plants, on which they grow. We are rather disposed to believe that the effect has generally been mistaken for the cause, and that an injury to the corn, from cold or wet, has merely disposed it to afford nourishment for the fungi. This, however, is a theoretical question, not necessarily connected with the botanical part of the subject.

Perfoon defines 30 species of *Uredo*, disposed in four sections, according to the colour of the apparent powder; whether that powder be naked seeds, or, as there is reason to suppose, from the above observations, a congeries of excessively minute capsules.

SECT. 1. *Powder yellowish*. RUBIGO; 16 species.

U. mycophila. Mushroom Blight. Perf. n. 1. (Mucor chytriformis; Bulliard Fung. v. 1. 99. t. 504. f. 1, and t. 476. f. 4. With. v. 4. 402.)—Widely spreading, extremely fine, yellow; feeds solitary or aggregate, on capillary stalks, simple or branched.—Found covering the whole surface of several kinds of *Boletus*, which grow in shady places, and even penetrating their substance, in the form of an apparently impalpable yellow powder, staining the fingers when touched; in August and September, Dr. Withering says, it powerfully repels wet, like the seeds of a *Lycopodium*, a specimen in his possession not being moistened, though immersed in a fluid for a year. Perfoon remarks, that this species rarely occurs on any Agaric, and that the *Boleti* attacked with it are not fully expanded before they languish and rot, being at first involved in a white evanescent downiness, and then copiously impregnated with the above bright yellow powder, which Bulliard compares to the pollen of a lily.

U. Alchemilla. Ladies'-mantle Blight. Perf. n. 3. Obs. Mycol. fasc. 1. 98.—Crowded, yellow, breaking out into nearly parallel lines.—On the leaves of *Alchemilla vulgaris*, especially in mountainous situations; common in the Hartz forest. The leaves which bear this parasite are much smaller than usual. The powder is nearly orange-coloured, in ovate, elliptical, or more frequently linear spots, like the fructification of an *Asplenium*. Perfoon.

U. Euphorbia helioscopiae. Spurge Blight. Perf. n. 4.—Scattered, nearly globular, prominent, yellow.—Frequent in summer on the plant mentioned, which when so occupied has always a pale sickly aspect; but whether in consequence of the presence of the fungus, or whether the latter attaches itself to weak plants only, we know not. The spots are various in size, deep yellow, prominent like warts. A smaller variety, more regular in shape, is found on *E. esigua*.

U. linearis. Long linear Blight. Perf. n. 7. (U. longissima; Sowerb. Fung. t. 139.)—Linear, parallel, very long, yellow, staining; at length of a darker hue.—Observed by Mr. Sowerby, on the leaves of *Poa aquatica*. Perfoon says, it is abundant in summer on the straw and leaves of barley, oats, and rye, but he suspects it may be the early stage of his *Puccinia graminis* above mentioned. If so, the epithet "staining" is not applicable. The same author indicates a smaller and paler variety, found rarely on the stalks of *Polypodium fragile* of Linnæus.

U. Rubi fruticosi. Bramble Blight. Perf. n. 11.—Minute, nearly globular, powdery, bright yellow, deciduous.—On the leaves of brambles, not uncommon. Perfoon justly observes, that the powdery balls of this species are so slightly attached to the leaf, that, when a branch is gathered, they fly off, as it were elastically, if perfectly ripe.

U. Rubi Idæi. Raspberry Blight. Perf. n. 12. Obs. Mycol. fasc. 2. 24.—Scattered, yellow, somewhat conical, breaking out in curved lines.—On the upper surface of raspberry leaves, towards the margin, where it forms curved crowded lines, resembling the receptacles of an umbilicated Lichen, *Gyrophora*, of a pale whitish hue. In an advanced state the powder is brownish.

U. Tufflaginis. Colt's-foot Blight. Perf. n. 13.—Scattered in somewhat concentric, reddish-orange, dots; at length confluent.—Common in autumn on the leaves of colt's-foot, which it finally covers with orange powder entangled among the pubescence. This often disappoints those who are searching for the equally common *Acididium Tufflaginis*, (*Lycoperdon epiphyllum* of Linnæus,) found on the under side of colt's-foot leaves, in the form of orange dots, crowded together, each with its own white notched volva. But these two fungi are very distinct, though young botanists sometimes suppose one changes to the other.

SECT. 2. *Powder brown, bay, chestnut, or somewhat blackish*. NIGR0; 8 species.

U. Suaveolens. Sweet-scented Blight. Perf. n. 19. Obs. Mycol. fasc. 2. 24.—Confluent, fragrant, unequal. Powder pale brownish-purple.—Frequent in summer on the leaves of *Gnicus arvensis*, (*Serratula arvensis* Linn.) which, according to Perfoon, is thus rendered barren. The leaves attacked, at first assume a thickened or succulent appearance, marked with little blackish dots, or round tubercles, and exhale a pleasant scent. When the fungus arrives at maturity, a bright brown powder takes place of these tubercles, and spreads over the surface of the leaf.

U. Vicia Fabe. Bean Blight. Perf. n. 20. Disp. Meth. Fung. 13.—Crowded, orbicular, or partly irregular, depressed. Powder brownish-chestnut.—Plentiful on the stem, and especially on the leaves, of the common bean.

U. bullata.

U. bullata. Tumid Blight. Perf. n. 22. Obs. Mycol. fasc. 1. 98. t. 2. f. 5. and t. 5. f. 9, b.—Prominent, bladdery. Powder chestnut-coloured. Seeds constricted in the middle.—Rarely met with, on the stems of umbelliferous plants. The cuticle on the stem is raised in the form of an ovate bladder, enclosing a tumid mass of orange-brown powder, each particle of which appears, under a very high magnifier, like the figure of 8, as if formed of two rounded lobes.

U. Anemones. Anemony Blight. Perf. n. 24. Disp. Meth. Fung. 56.—Rather large, depressed, bursting from a longitudinal fissure in the cuticle of the leaf. Powder copious, black.—Found in the spring, on curled leaves of *Anemone nemorosa*, in whose substance it is lodged.

SECT. 3. Powder white. ALBUGO; 2 species.

U. candida. Cream Blight.—Shapeless, tumid, white. Frequent throughout the summer, on the branches and stalks of Shepherd's Purse, which appear greatly swollen, twisted, abounding with whitish fœtid powder, which bursts irregularly through the shining cuticle. Perfoon thinks it grows along with his *Botrytis parasitica*, Obs. Mycol. fasc. 1. 97. t. 5. f. 6, a, b.—He notices two varieties, one found on different species of *Tragopogon* in summer, which is smaller and more depressed than the above, with less prominent powder; the other on *Alyssum calycinum*, smaller and roundish, though variable in shape.

U. Cheiranthi. Stock Blight. Perf. n. 26.—Scattered, nearly globular, prominent, white.—Found rarely on the foliage of *Cheiranthus incanus*. This, which we have never chanced to meet with, is described by Perfoon as consisting of small globular masses, half a line in breadth, each encompassed with the torn cuticle of the leaf. On account of this difference of form, he thought proper to distinguish the present species from all the varieties of the last.

SECT. 4. Powder blackish or brown, parasitical on the parts of fructification of different plants. USTILAGO; 4 species.

U. Segetum. Corn Blight, or Smut. Pursh. n. 27. Bulliard Fung. v. 1. 90. t. 472. f. 2.—Powder copious, black, produced within the glumes of grasses. This generally appears like a transformation of the substance of the seed, in whole ears of barley, wheat, or oats, or even *Agrostis*, into a fœtid foamy powder, and constitutes the disease termed smut by farmers, concerning whose cause, and the means of prevention by steeping the seed-grain in lime-water, &c., so many various opinions have been held. See SMUT.

U. Caricis. Carex Blight. Perf. n. 28.—Powder black, naked, encompassing the seeds.—Found on the fruit of different species of *Carex*, as the *montana*, and more especially the *pilulifera*, on which last it is very frequent and conspicuous.

U. Tragopogi pratensis. Goat's-beard Blight. Perf. n. 29. Disp. Meth. Fung. 57.—Powder copious, brownish-purple, on the receptacles of *Tragopogon*. This is not uncommon in summer, on the receptacle of the above plant, within its permanent calyx, and is the largest of the genus. Perfoon.

U. Violacea. Violet-coloured Blight. Perf. n. 30. (Farinaria *Stellariæ*; Sowerb. Fung. t. 396. f. 1.)—Powder of a violet purple, in the anthers of flowers.—Very frequent in *Saponaria officinalis*, *Silene nutans*, *Stellaria graminæ*, the white-flowered *Lycnis dioica*, and especially *Silene inflata* and *maritima* of Fl. Brit. The anthers of these flowers often swell prodigiously, and their natural contents are replaced by a great quantity of soft dull-purple powder, which stains the petals, and gives the flower the appearance of being sprinkled with something like foot. The impreg-

nation of such flowers fails, of course; but we do not observe them to be otherwise, as Perfoon declares, languid or sickly. Mr. Sowerby says, this fungus often bursts from the ripening germs of *Stellaria graminæ* and *S. borealis*; and that it occurs also in *Bromus mollis*, which we likewise have remarked, and some other grasses. Every anther of the same flower is thus affected. We are much prepossessed with the idea of this supposed fungus being a disease, originating in the constitution of the plant, and ending in a morbid secretion; but we must allow the opinion of Perfoon to be supported by analogy.

UREGUR, in *Geography*, a town of the island of Ceylon; 60 miles N.W. of Trincomalee.

URELLYCONDA, a town of Hindoostan, in Mysore; 20 miles N. of Bangalore.

UREMA, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Asia, in Syria, upon the banks of the Euphrates, near Aradus. Ptolemy.

URENA, in *Botany*, from the Malabar name *Uren*. This name, introduced by Dillenius, is allowed by Linnaeus, Phil. Bot. 164, among some others, which, though of barbarous origin, might, as he thought, be new-modelled, so as to prove not altogether intolerable. We must allow that the present is as little exceptionable in found as any barbarous name can well be.—Linn. Gen. 355. Schreb. 467. Willd. Sp. Pl. v. 3. 800. Mart. Mill. Dict. v. 4. Ait. Hort. Kew. v. 4. 222. Dill. Elth. 430. Juss. 272. Cavan. Diss. 334. Lamarck Illustr. t. 583. Gært. t. 135.—Class and order, *Monadelphæa Polyandria*. Nat. Ord. *Columnifera*, Linn. *Malvaceæ*, Juss.

Gen. Ch. Cal. Perianth double, inferior. The outer of one leaf, in five broadish segments. Inner of five narrow, angular, permanent leaves. Cor. Petals five, oblong, broadest at the extremity, blunt with a point, narrowest at the base, which is attached to the tube of the stamens. Stam. Filaments numerous, united in their lower part into a cylindrical tube; separate above, below the top of the tube; anthers roundish. Pist. Germen superior, roundish, with five angles; style simple, the length of the stamens, divided into ten branches at the top, each tipped with a capitate, hairy, reflexed stigma. Peric. Capsule roundish, with five angles, prickly, of five cells, which finally separate from each other without bursting. Seeds solitary, roundish externally, compressed and angular at the opposite part.

Eff. Ch. Calyx double; the outermost five-cleft. Capsule of five cells, separating entire. Seeds solitary. We find much to correct, and something to add, in the determination of the species.

1. *U. lobata*. Angular-leaved Urena. Linn. Sp. Pl. 974. Willd. n. 1. Ait. n. 1. Cavan. Diss. 336. t. 185. f. 1. (*U. finica*, xanthii facie; Dill. Elth. 430. t. 319. Trifolium affinis, Indice orientalis, xanthii facie; Breyne. Cent. t. 35.)—Leaves roundish-heart-shaped, angular, with three glands at the base underneath.—Native of China. A greenhouse shrub in our gardens, cultivated in the Chelsea and Eltham collections, about the year 1730, but not generally to be met with, being inferior in splendour to our Wild Mallow, common on every bank. The flowers of this *Urena* are nevertheless of a delicate peach-blossom hue, and though short-lived, lasting but a few hours, are produced in plentiful succession through the summer. The stem is two or three feet high, erect, not much branched. Leaves broader than long, toothed, slightly lobed, finely downy; paler, and rather hoary, beneath. Footstalks slender, round, downy, generally longer than the leaves. Flowers axillary, solitary, on short stalks, about the size of *Malva rotundifolia*. Capsules near half an inch in diameter, armed with prominent

prominent barbed prickles. We remark with regret, that the erroneous citation of Dillenius, 340 for 430, is copied without correction from Linnaeus, by Cavanilles, Willdenow, and even in Hort. Kew., which proves that those authors did not consult the book cited, and therefore greatly weakens our confidence in their authority or judgment, as to critical synonymy, throughout.

2. *U. reticulata*. Reticulated Urena. Cavan. Diff. 335. t. 183. f. 2. Willd. n. 2.—Leaves with a solitary gland at the base beneath, reticulated; the lower ones three-lobed; upper oblong, somewhat fiddle-shaped.—Native of South America. Described by Cavanilles from Lamarck's herbarium. The stem is shrubby, a yard high, branched; the branches and footstalks somewhat downy. The leaves are green above; hoary with short down, and reticulated with veins, beneath: the lower ones on longish stalks, like the foregoing, large, deeply three-lobed, their middle lobe longest: the rest narrow and undivided, variously contracted, on short stalks. The midrib of all the leaves bears a solitary gland. Flowers rather smaller than in the former.

3. *U. triculpi*. Three-pointed Urena. Cavan. Diff. 334. t. 183. f. 1. Willd. n. 3.—Leaves with three pointed, angular lobes, and a solitary gland at the base beneath. Stem hairy.—Native of the isles of Mauritius and Bourbon. The stem is three feet, or more, in height, slender, clothed with copious upright hairs. Leaves large, ferrated, soft and downy, on hairy stalks. Flowers aggregate, at least in the lower part of the plant, yellow.

4. *U. americana*. Fig-leaved Urena. Linn. Suppl. 308. Willd. n. 4. excluding Sloane's synonym. (*U. sinuata*; Swartz. Obf. 263, but not of Linnaeus.)—Leaves three-lobed, rounded and bluntish, much longer than their footstalks; entire and abrupt at the base, with a solitary gland beneath. Stem nearly smooth. Native of Surinam. We have no scruple in removing Sloane's synonym to our following species. His plate by no means expresses the form of the leaves of *U. americana*, which, in the original Linnaean specimen, have wide rounded sinuses between the lobes. Their under surface is very soft, and finely downy; the upper more harsh. Flowers small, mostly aggregate. Fruit muricated, with short rigid prickles, rather large and broad. Very distinct from *U. sinuata*, hereafter described.

5. *U. ribesia*. Currant-leaved Urena. (Malva vel Alcea fruticosa, ribesii foliis, feminibus asperis; Sloane Jam. v. 1. 37. t. 11. f. 2.)—Leaves acutely three-lobed; rounded or heart-shaped at the base, with a solitary gland beneath. Segments of the outer calyx spatulate, bluntish.—Native of Surinam; *Herb. Linn.* of Barbadoes; *Sloane*. The stem is much more hairy or downy than in the last. Footstalks longer. Leaves roughish above, finely downy beneath, as in that species; but their lobes are acute, not dilated nor rounded, nor are the sinuses wide. The outer calyx has greener, more leafy and dilated, very deep segments. Prickles of the fruit much shorter than even the foregoing. Sloane's figure cannot be mistaken.

6. *U. repanda*. Wavy-leaved Urena.—Leaves wavy, ferrated, scarcely lobed; reticulated beneath, with a solitary gland. Segments of the outer calyx awl-shaped. Fruit smooth.—Native of the East Indies; communicated by the late Dr. Roxburgh. The stem is downy, with many slender axillary branches, hardly so long as the leaves, on which the flowers are chiefly situated. Leaves broadly ovate, longer than their footstalks, ferrated or sharply toothed, wavy, or slightly lobed; their upper side even, rough with starry hairs; under strongly reticulated with copious veins, paler, but scarcely more soft or downy. Flowers crimson, axillary, on short stalks, generally solitary. Outer calyx cloven

but half way down, into five narrow acute segments; the tube becoming strongly ribbed after flowering, and containing the very small and unarmed fruit.

7. *U. sinuata*. Cut-leaved Urena. Linn. Sp. Pl. 974. Willd. n. 5. Ait. n. 2. Cavan. Diff. 336. t. 185. f. 2. ("Uren"; Rheede Hort. Malab. v. 10. 3. t. 2.") *Alcea indica frutescens, foliis ad marginem exasperatis, bryoniae albæ divifuris*; Pluk. Phyt. t. 5. f. 3.)—Leaves five-lobed, with broad, deep, rounded sinuses; lobes three-cleft: pale and hairy beneath, with three glands at the base.—Native of the East and West Indies. This is known at first sight by the peculiarly wide rounded sinuses of the leaves, which are generally clofed, by the sides of the lobes touching or overlapping each other; the middle lobe, and sometimes the two adjoining ones, have three broad, shallow, dilated and angular lobes: both sides are clothed with simple or divided, not much flattened, hairs, and the under one, though pale, is not hoary: its three principal ribs each bear a tumid open gland at the base beneath. Flowers small, axillary, stalked, solitary or in pairs. Segments of the outer calyx, according to Cavanilles, narrow and awl-shaped.

8. *U. heterophylla*. Various-leaved Urena. (*U. sinuata*; Swartz Obf. 263? *Malvinda foliis inferioribus multifidis, superioribus incis, flore solitario*; Burm. Zeyl. 150. t. 69. f. 2. *Alcea indica frutescens, foliis in lacinias variè difsectis*; Pluk. Phyt. t. 74. f. 1.)—Leaves deeply five-lobed, with wide sinuses; middle segment deeply three-lobed: upper leaves elongated and contracted at the base: all hoary and downy beneath, with a solitary gland.—Native of the East, and perhaps West, Indies. To this species, which appears to us very distinct from the last, belongs the remark under *U. sinuata*, in Linn. Syst. Veg. of there being "one glandular pore on the mid-rib beneath;" which remark is copied by Willdenow, though it directly contradicts his own observation in the next paragraph. If the number of glands be invariably three in *U. sinuata*, this is certainly distinguished by its solitary gland on the mid-rib; but besides that character, the leaves are very differently shaped; their sinuses less rounded, and their under side more white and downy; to say nothing of the singularly contracted upper leaves. The segments of the outer calyx are lanceolate. Corolla purple. Prickles of the fruit elongated, doubly or triply barbed.

9. *U. multifida*. Jagged-leaved Urena. Cavan. Diff. 336. t. 184. f. 2. (Lappago laciniata; Rumph. Amboin. v. 6. 50. t. 25. f. 2? Cavanilles.)—Leaves hairy, deeply and acutely five-lobed, jagged, with a solitary gland beneath. Stem much branched. Flowers somewhat racemose.—Native of the island of Mauritius. The whole plant is clothed with shaggy down, apparently simple. Leaves heart-shaped, longer than their stalks, their five-lobes deeply cut or pinnatifid, acutely and unequally ferrated. Flowers yellow, on the smaller or ultimate branches, on short stalks; the lower ones axillary, the upper almost leafless. The leaves are represented by Rumphius with far slighter lobes than in the figure of Cavanilles, and yet his synonym, cited by Reichard and Willdenow for *lobata*, and marked *sinuata* by Linnaeus, agrees better with the present species. It may, however, belong to some species not yet known to systematic botanists. See our n. 11.

10. *U. procumbens*. Procumbent Urena. Linn. Sp. Pl. 975. Willd. n. 7. Cavan. Diff. 337.—"Leaves heart-shaped, somewhat heart-shaped, undivided, ferrated. Stem procumbent."—Gathered by Obbeck, on little hills in China. The stem is shrubby, creeping, much branched. Leaves the size of *Origanum*, not lobed, smooth, sharply ferrated. The flowers are larger than the leaves. Linnaeus.

His herbarium contains no specimen answering to this description, nor have we ever seen any.

11. *U. Lappago*. Bur Urena. (*U. procumbens*; Linn. Syst. Nat. ed. 12. v. 2. 462. *Lappago laciniata*; Rumph. Ambon. v. 6. 59. t. 25. f. 2?)—Leaves sinuated, serrated, somewhat heart-shaped; hoary and downy, with a solitary gland beneath. Outer calyx in five deep lanceolate segments. Prickles of the fruit elongated, cylindrical, many-barbed.—Native of the East Indies. The *branches* are round, subdivided, slightly downy. *Leaves* on shortish stalks, acutely lobed, clothed with starry down on both sides, but most hoary beneath; their length about an inch and a half. *Fruit* large and tumid, mucicated with prickles half a quarter of an inch long, each tipped with several pale hooks. We should have little doubt of Rumphius's synonym, had there not been so many different opinions concerning it. Our description is taken from specimens to which Linnaeus, long after he published his *Sp. Plantarum*, attached the name of *procumbens*, fabricating from them a new specific character, which stands in the second volume of his Syst. Nat., and is adopted by Willdenow; but which is altogether irreconcilable to the description of the original *procumbens*.

12. *U. viminea*. Rhomb-leaved Urena. Cavan. Diff. 335. t. 84. f. 1. Willd. n. 8.—Leaves acute, serrated, slightly lobed; rounded at the base, with a solitary gland beneath; upper ones rhomboid or oblong. Outer calyx in five deep lanceolate segments.—Gathered by Commerlon in Brasil. This seems next akin to the last, but the *leaves* are not sinuated, nor of so uniform an oblong figure; they are hoary beneath. Of the *fruit* we have no account.

U. Typhalea, Linn. Mant. 258, and *U. leptocarpa*, Suppl. 308, are referred by Cavanilles and Willdenow to PAVONIA; see that article.

URENA, in *Gardening*, comprises plants of the woody perennial exotic kind, among which the species cultivated are, the angular-leaved urena (*U. lobata*); and the cut-leaved urena (*U. sinuata*).

Method of Culture.—These plants may be increased by seeds, which should be sown on a hot-bed, or in pots plunged into it, in the early spring season. When the plants have some growth, they should be removed into separate pots, being replunged in a fresh hot-bed, requiring afterwards the same management as tender exotic plants. When placed in the stove in the spring, they ripen seeds the first year, but otherwise in the second, and seldom continue longer.

They afford variety among other stove plants, by their flowers, and the manner of their growth, some rising high, the others more procumbent.

URENTIA, are sometimes used for medicines of a hot or burning quality. See CAUSTIC.

URESEN, in *Geography*, a small Danish island in the Great Belt; 4 miles N. of Langeland.

URETER, in *Anatomy*, the tube which conveys the urine from the kidney to the urinary bladder. See KIDNEY.

URETHRA, the canal by which the urine passes out of the urinary bladder; and through which the seminal fluid of the male is conveyed into the vagina of the female. See GENERATION.

URETHRA, *Strictures of*. A stricture of the urethra may be defined to be a preternatural diminution of the diameter of a part of that canal. By the late Mr. Hunter, strictures of the urethra were divided into three kinds: first, the true permanent stricture, arising from an alteration in the structure of the passage; secondly, a mixed case, composed of a permanent stricture and spasm; and thirdly, the true spasmodic stricture. (See Treatise on the Ven. Disease,

p. 111.) This mode of dividing these cases supposes the urethra to possess a natural power of contraction and relaxation; a circumstance which, though most probably true, and most commonly believed, is not universally admitted. The doctrine of Mr. Hunter, however, has been ably supported by the observations of his brother-in-law, sir Everard Home; and it has always appeared to us, that the facts in favour of the contractile power of the membrane of the urethra are equally obvious and convincing. It may be difficult, and perhaps impossible, says the latter author, to prove this membrane to be muscular, either from its appearance, or from examination of its texture; since the peculiar structure, upon which the contraction of a muscle depends, has not as yet been ascertained. Other structures apparently membranous, and equally unlike the fasciculated fibrous texture commonly met with in muscles, are endowed with a power of contracting and relaxing, in a much greater degree, than is ever found to take place in the membrane of the urethra. The *tania hydatigenia ovalis*, an animal consisting of a semitransparent membranous bag, met with in the brain, liver, and omentum of sheep, when taken from its natural situation, and kept in tepid water, contracts and relaxes the different parts of its bag to a considerable extent. (See Pract. Obs. on the Treatment of Strictures, &c. p. 15.) The muscular structure of the ureters cannot be demonstrated, yet no one doubts that they possess a contractile power. As is observed in the article KIDNEY, of this Cyclopædia, their function of conveying the secreted urine from the kidney to the bladder requires the exercise of tonic powers; and the idea of this fluid finding its way by the force of gravity, is not only repugnant to the laws of the animal economy, but is irreconcilable with obvious phenomena. The adhesion of the sides of the tube, where it penetrates the coats of the bladder, presents an obstacle, which can be overcome only by the exertion of some force; and this obstacle is vastly increased in the distended state of the bladder, during which the fluid is constantly finding its way into this receptacle.

In the same manner, although the muscular structure of the urethra cannot be demonstrated, yet many phenomena are in favour of the affirmative, and, at all events, leave no doubt of the canal possessing a power of altering its diameter. Here the functions of the part, and certain facts remarked in practice, afford a better criterion than anatomy, which, it is allowed, does not in this instance give us any kind of evidence. When the urine passes out, the canal is large; when the semen is thrown out, it is small. When a portion of its membrane is in an inflamed state from gonorrhœa, its surface is more readily stimulated, and the irritation of the urine makes it contract so much, that frequently the fluid is voided only by drops. In this state, if the penis be immersed in warm water, the urethra often becomes suddenly relaxed again, and the urine is more easily discharged. In many cases, the surgeon finds, when he attempts to introduce stimulating injections into the urethra, that they will not pass on towards the bladder, but bring on so strong a contraction of the passage, that they are rejected again with considerable velocity.

The celebrated Soemmerring has explained the formation of strictures by a thickening of the diseased part, and he does not appear to entertain any belief in the spasmodic nature of these cases. (See Abhandlung über die Schnell und Langsam tödtlichen Krankheiten der Harnblase, und Harnröhre bey Männern im hohen Alter. Frankf. 1809.) Mr. Charles Bell also contends, that the white condensed substance, which constitutes the most common kind of stricture, must be equally incapable of yielding to pressure and spasmodic action.

action. He observes, that this fact of the firm nature of a stricture, pointed out by Mr. Hunter, is a sufficient proof to himself, that a stricture cannot be spasmodic; and that even if the diseased part of the urethra were originally muscular and contractile, the condensation and callosity of the part must be attended with loss of the contractile power.

Mr. C. Bell argues, that it is from confounding the effect of the proper muscles of the urethra, the canal has been imagined to possess a muscular property. "I made," says he, "the following simple experiment, in order to put this to the test. I got a small ivory ball, to which I attached a thread. I introduced the ball into the urethra. I made the man endeavour all he could to push it out, but he could not; neither was it retained in the slightest degree, when pulled by the thread. I thought it might be more satisfactory, if I imbued the ball with something stimulating. I tried coarse soap and spirits; but still there was no power in the urethra to retain the ball, or to push it forth. This could be done only by the urine behind it, and the operation of the bladder, or the ejaculator feminis. I need not add, that this experiment was made upon a part of the urethra anterior to the seat of the ejaculator feminis. In the course of practice I find, that, when the silver ball is introduced down to the ejaculator feminis, it is resisted by that muscle, especially when the parts are irritable. I find it sometimes thrown out of the grasp of the muscle; but when pushed fairly into the sinus of the urethra, which is into the middle of the muscle, the ball is allowed to remain." (Letters concerning Diseases of the Urethra, p. 95, Lond. 1810.) The same gentleman also endeavoured to ascertain whether the urethra had any action on fluids. He employed a glass tube to throw an injection into the urethra, the end of the tube being constructed for passing into the orifice of the passage. Pressure was made on the urethra five inches down. By elevating the tube or column, the fluid distended the urethra; but no irregularity in the height of the fluid in the tube indicated any muscular power of the urethra to discharge its contents. When the urethra was distended, the slightest touch upon it with the finger elevated the fluid in the tube; but no effort of the patient produced the effect. When he made the effort, it was with the ejaculator feminis behind the part of the urethra compressed by the fingers. (P. 96.) The conclusion drawn by Mr. Bell from these facts is, that the part of the canal, anterior to the muscles which surround it, has no muscular power.

Mr. Bell thinks, that we can be at no loss to account for spasm in the posterior part of the urethra, since five inches of the canal in that situation are surrounded by muscles; the accelerator urinæ or ejaculator feminis, the sphincter vesicæ, the compressor prostaticæ, and the levator ani. And he adds, that it must never be forgotten, that it is the sensibility of the urethra which governs their contraction.

Although we conceive, that the muscles in the perineum have in some degree the effect which the foregoing writer imputes to them, he is far from having convinced us that the membrane of the urethra is not ended with muscular power. In the first place, the two experiments, above related, are by no means so decisive as the author fancies them. The first with the ivory ball proves nothing; except that this body was not expelled at once by the muscular power of the canal. But it is conceivable, that such power might exist, and yet operate rather so as to grasp and retain the foreign body, than force it out. Nor is it explained how much time was allotted to the experiment; a point essential to be known: because it is not to be supposed that the ivory ball would be instantly forced out again. The experiment of the injection is also nugatory; because as a stimulating

fluid was not used, (perhaps only water,) it is not likely that any particular contractile action of the urethra would be thus excited. In opposition to Mr. Bell's opinions, therefore, we continue to believe that the membrane of the urethra possesses a contractile power. We think in this manner also, because there are certain phenomena, which cannot be explained by the contraction of any of the muscles with which the urethra is embraced. Thus, for instance, a bougie may frequently be easily introduced as far as a stricture; the patient suffers little uneasiness, and no resistance is experienced; but no sooner is the passage irritated by the pressure of the bougie against the obstruction, than it contracts and grasps the instrument with manifest force. Much resistance is now felt on withdrawing the bougie; and it is in a great measure continued, till the instrument is quite out of the urethra. There are few surgeons of any experience who have not observed this fact. Did the resistance depend upon a spasm of the muscles in the perineum, it could only last while the bougie was in the contiguous part of the urethra. We find, however, that even the last inch of the bougie is evidently grasped. The experiments of Haller are also at variance with the conclusions above related; for he distinctly mentions, that chemical stimulants will make the urethra contract. Indeed, as a late writer observes, the muscular power of this canal may be proved almost in any instance, by introducing a bougie of moderate size into the healthy urethra, and lightly supporting the end that projects from the penis in a horizontal position. If the action of the urethra is then watched with attention, it will be found, that the power which expels the instrument, in other words, the contraction of the urethra, is uniform through its whole extent. The point of the bougie is not pushed forward more quickly while it moves through the bulb of the urethra, where the canal is surrounded with strong muscles, than it is afterwards; but, on the contrary, its motion is exceedingly slow, and perfectly equal throughout, until the whole of the instrument is expelled, and the point fairly drops from the orifice of the urethra. (Howship's Pract. Obs. on Diseases of the Urinary Organs, p. 180.) These considerations are also favoured by analogy, since comparative anatomy demonstrably proves, that in the larger animals, particularly the horse, whose structure is more easy of investigation, and the functions of the urethra precisely the same as in man, the strong muscular fibres, encircling the urethra, cannot be overlooked. Op. Cit. p. 182.

On the whole, however, it does not appear to us, that the question is of great importance in a practical point of view; since the treatment of strictures should in all probability be conducted on precisely the same principles, whether the spasm, that sometimes has a share in increasing the impediment to the exit of the urine, depend upon the muscularity of the membrane of the urethra itself, or upon the muscles situated near the canal, especially as their action is said by Mr. Bell himself to be entirely governed by the sensibility of the passage. We think also, that the term spasmodic stricture might as well be dropped, and that no case ought to be called a stricture, until there is some permanent contraction, arising from a change of structure, in the diseased part of the urethra. Nor does it appear to us, that any material light is thrown upon the mode in which the disease is formed, by imputing so much to spasm as several writers have done.

According to Mr. Hunter, the disease generally occupies no great length of the passage; and in most of the cases which he had seen, it extended no further in breadth, than if the part had been surrounded with a piece of packthread.

Indeed,

URETHRA.

Indeed, in many of the examples, the stricture is said to have presented a great deal of that appearance. Mr. Hunter adds, however, that he had seen the urethra contracted for more than an inch in length, owing to its coats, or internal membrane, being irregularly thickened, and forming a winding canal. (P. 113.) Sometimes, also, as Sir E. Home observes, two strictures form within an inch of each other, and the space between them becomes narrower than the rest of the canal.

A stricture, says Mr. Hunter, does not arise, in all cases, from an equal contraction of the urethra all round; but, in some, from a contraction of one side. And Sir E. Home informs us, that he has met with cases where there were three strictures, and all on the same side of the urethra; the other being perfectly smooth. This form of the disease throws the passage to the opposite side, and often renders the introduction of the bougie difficult. Mr. Hunter also acquaints us, that the contracted part is whiter and harder than any other part of the urethra. Sometimes there are more strictures than one; and this eminent surgeon had seen half a dozen in one urethra, some of which were more contracted than others. Indeed, says he, many urethras, that have a stricture, have small tightnesses in other parts of them.

The urethra naturally is not of the same diameter throughout its whole extent; and some parts of it are found to be much more liable to stricture than others. In order to determine with precision the length, as well as width of the urethra, Sir E. Home took exact casts of it in wax. The subjects from which they were taken were of different ages: one was between 70 and 80; the other, 30. The length of the canal corresponded exactly in both casts. From the external orifice to the neck of the bladder was 9 inches; but, in a note, this gentleman observes, that, in a relaxed state, the canal is commonly about $8\frac{1}{2}$ inches in length. From the external orifice to the bulb of the urethra was 7 inches. The membranous part, extending from the bulb to the prostate gland, $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch; and the canal passing over the prostate gland was half an inch in length.

The following were the diameters of the casts of the urethra in different parts.

	Years old.	
	80	30
At three-quarters of an inch from the external orifice	$\frac{7}{16}$	$\frac{7}{16}$ $\frac{1}{4}$
At $4\frac{1}{2}$ inches from the external orifice	$\frac{7}{16}$	$\frac{7}{16}$
At the bulb, 7 inches from the orifice	$\frac{7}{16}$	$\frac{7}{16}$
In the membranous part directly beyond the bulb, $7\frac{1}{2}$ inches from the orifice	$\frac{7}{16}$	$\frac{7}{16}$
In the membranous portion near to the prostate gland, $8\frac{1}{2}$ inches from the orifice	$\frac{7}{16}$	$\frac{7}{16}$
Where the membranous part terminates, and the prostate gland begins, $8\frac{1}{2}$ inches from the orifice	$\frac{11}{16}$	$\frac{1}{16}$
At the neck of the bladder, 9 inches from the orifice	$\frac{9}{16}$	$\frac{9}{16}$

These dimensions, it is to be understood, are much beyond those of the easy state of the urethra.

The two parts of the urethra, which are naturally the most narrow, are found also to be those most liable to stricture. In fact, strictures occur most commonly just behind the bulb of the urethra, the distance from the external orifice being $6\frac{1}{2}$ or 7 inches. The situation, next in order of frequency, is about $4\frac{1}{2}$ inches from the orifice of the glands. Strictures do also form at $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches from this orifice, and sometimes almost close to it. Mr. Hunter never met with

a stricture in that part of the urethra which passes through the prostate gland. P. 114.

In some cases, as Sir E. Home further remarks, the external orifice itself is contracted. When this happens, it is sometimes the source of considerable errors, the surgeon supposing the whole canal to be naturally formed of the same size.

The prepuce also is very often contracted, which is called a natural phymosis. Sir E. Home believes, that this more frequently happens in those who are disposed to strictures than other men.

In almost all the cases which have come under this gentleman's care, there has been one stricture about seven inches from the external orifice, whether there have been others or not. Such part of the canal seems much more disposed to contract than the rest of it.

It is noticed by Mr. Hunter, that most of the obstructions to the passage of the urine, if not all, are attended with nearly the same symptoms, so that there are hardly sufficient marks for distinguishing the different causes. Few patients take notice of the first symptoms of a stricture, till they have either become violent, or have been the cause of other inconveniences. For instance, a patient shall have a considerable stricture, without observing that he does not make water freely; he shall even have a tendency to inflammation and suppuration in the perineum, and not feel any obstruction to the passage of his urine, nor suspect that he has any other complaint than the inflammation in the perineum. In all these obstructions, the stream of water becomes small, and that in proportion to the obstruction; but this symptom, though probably it is the first, is not always observed by the patient. In some the urine is voided only in drops, and then the disorder cannot escape notice; in others the stream is forked or scattered. (Hunter, p. 112.) Although, as Sir E. Home observes, the first progress of the contraction is generally very slow, yet, when once it has so far increased, that the urethra is not wholly relaxed by the force of the urine, its subsequent advances are more rapid, and new symptoms are perceived. The urine is voided more frequently; does not pass without a considerable effort, attended with pain, and a straining continues after the bladder is emptied. If the patient accidentally catches cold, drinks a glass of spirituous liquor, acid beverage, or punch, commits an excess in drinking wine, or removes quickly from a warm to a cold climate, the urine will pass only in drops, or be entirely obstructed; these causes, inducing in the contracted part a spasmodic action, by which it is closed. Cold, externally applied to the body (continues Sir E. Home), has so great an effect upon a spasmodic stricture, that a patient who can make water without the smallest difficulty in a warm room, upon attempting it in the open air shall be entirely unable to void a drop; but, even in this difficulty, if he returns to a warm room, and sits down some little time, the urine will come away. The experience of the same gentleman tends to prove, that the symptoms of stricture come on more frequently while the patient is leading a sedentary than an active life.

Permanent strictures are generally attended with a discharge of matter, or a gleet. This is often considered by the patient as the whole disease; and sometimes it is not till after the surgeon has long in vain tried every means that he can imagine to effect a cure, that other symptoms are noticed, and a stricture at last suspected. In diseases of the urethra, and also in those of the prostate gland and bladder, there is usually an uneasiness about the perineum, anus, and lower part of the abdomen; and, as Mr. Hunter remarks, the patient can hardly cross his legs without pain.

Frequent intercourse with women generally renders strictures worse. Under these circumstances, says sir E. Home, the membrane of the urethra is kept longer in a state of contraction; and the part disposed to stricture loses the power of relaxing itself again. Although the passage is not completely closed, it is rendered much narrower, and remains in an extremely tender state. Hence, the passage of the urine irritates it, and in a few hours a discharge of matter comes on similar to that from gonorrhœa. In certain instances, the contraction is so great, that it stops the emission of the semen altogether, and forces it back into the bladder; while in some other cases this fluid passes through the stricture after the organ has taken place, but with little or no force.

There is one circumstance which has a great tendency to make a stricture be mistaken for a gonorrhœa; viz. the pain in making water is confined to the same spot in both diseases. A stricture in the membranous part of the urethra does not render the part itself particularly sensible; but all the painful sensations are felt about an inch and a half from the orifice of the glans penis. This is a general fact, and unaccountable as it may seem, it is not more extraordinary than the burning pain felt in the glans, in cases of stone, even when the whole of the urethra is perfectly found.

When a stricture is in an advanced stage, the diseased part is at all times much narrower than the rest of the canal. The stricture, however, according to sir E. Home, still retains a power of contracting and relaxing itself; in the contracted state, closing up the passage; in the relaxed state, allowing the urine to pass through it in a small stream. In this state the stream is so small, and the exertion necessary to empty the bladder so great, that the patient can seldom be wholly ignorant of his complaint.

The spasmodic contraction, upon any irritation being applied to the part, is, as sir E. Home describes, very great. This is known by the urine being unable to pass in a stream; and by the extreme difficulty of now passing a small bougie, which, in the relaxed state of the canal, met with no resistance. The bougie also, if allowed to remain a few minutes, is not unfrequently grasped so tight by the spasmodic contraction, that it cannot be withdrawn without considerable force. The bougie, when examined (continues sir E. Home), puts on an appearance exactly resembling what would have been produced, if a piece of packthread had been tied round it. In this stage, the spasmodic contractions, although more violent, occur less frequently than while the stricture was in a more recent state. When the stricture has been of some years standing, the coats of the bladder become thickened, in order to increase the power of this organ to expel the urine, the evacuation of which is rendered difficult by the obstruction. The bladder, in this thickened state, does not admit of the usual dilatation, so that the patient is obliged to make water every three or four hours, or oftener. See Home's Pract. Obs. on Strictures.

In addition to the foregoing symptoms, we have further to enumerate, amongst the numerous effects of strictures in the urethra, nocturnal emissions; and, in irritable patients, a variety of unusual sensations about the membranous part of the urethra, conveying to the mind the idea of something crawling or fluttering. In many cases also, there is a periodical discharge, brought on by cold, or other occasional causes. When this happens, the inflammation extends to the bladder; the frequency of making water is very much increased; and the urine very turbid. Sometimes the bladder inflames more violently, and secretes purulent matter, which passes out after the urine. In still worse attacks, the discharge from this yicus is glairy, like the white of an egg,

and of a strongly tenacious consistence. The discharge of pus and gelatinous mucus with the urine, has been regarded as particularly evincing an ulcer, or calculus in the bladder; but it is a symptom which arises from any irritation of that organ, and is frequent in cases of old strictures.

Attacks of the preceding kind may bring on peritonitis, and the patient is carried off. Sometimes also the incessant irritation of the strictured part, by the efforts to make water, brings on a gradual diminution of the canal, and, in a few instances, a total obliteration of a portion of it. This last event cannot happen without destroying the patient, unless another outlet be formed for the urine. Complete strictures, therefore, as sir E. Home remarks, are only met with where fistulæ in perinæo have been produced.

Some patients with strictures seem extremely liable to complete paroxysms of fever; that is to say, they often have a cold, hot, and sweating stage of febrile disorder in regular succession. The sweating is also remarked to be much more profuse than in a common ague.

Strictures in the urethra likewise occasion a swelling of the testicle. When permanent and considerable, they are also apt, under particular circumstances, to cause strangury and retention of urine. If a patient goes suddenly from a warm into a cold situation; if he drinks too freely of wine; eats high-seasoned dishes; catches cold; commits any species of intemperance; or delays making water too long, after feeling the inclination, he exposes himself to the danger of these latter grievances.

The causes of strictures in the urethra are not known with any degree of certainty. The origin of the disease is often imputed to the effects of gonorrhœa, or to the method of curing it. Mr. Hunter, however, conceives that there are many reasons why this doctrine is not likely to be correct. Strictures, he observes, are common to most passages in the human body; they often occur in the œsophagus; in the intestines, especially the rectum; in the anus; in the prepuce producing phymosis; and in the lachrymal duct, without any previous disease. They sometimes happen in the urethra itself, without ever having been preceded by any venereal complaint. Mr. Hunter saw an instance of this kind in a young man of nineteen, who had had a stricture for eight years, and which therefore must have begun when he was only eleven years of age. The case was treated at first as the stone or gravel. The patient was of a weak scrophulous habit, and the stricture in the most usual place, about the membranous part of the urethra. Mr. Hunter had also seen a stricture in a boy only four years of age, and a fistula in the perineum in consequence of it. He reminds us also, that strictures are as common in persons who have had gonorrhœa slightly, as in those who have had it violently. They are also never found to come on during the inflammation which attends a clap, nor for some time after the infection is gone. Thirty and forty years sometimes elapse between the cure of a gonorrhœa and the beginning of a stricture, the health being all that time perfectly good. If strictures arose in consequence of the inflammation accompanying this disorder, we should expect to find them of some extent, because the inflammation is itself of some extent; and we should also expect to find them most frequent in that part of the urethra which is usually the seat of gonorrhœa. But the fact is, they are not so frequent there as they are in other parts of the urethra. Sir E. Home, however, differs from Mr. Hunter on this point, in thinking, with most other surgeons, that gonorrhœa is a very general cause of strictures.

It is supposed by many, says Mr. Hunter, that strictures arise from the use of injections in the cure of gonorrhœa; but

but he thought the opinion founded on prejudice; for he had seen as many strictures after gonorrhœa, which had been cured without injections, as after other causes, which had been cured with them. Such modes of accounting for strictures, he observes, give no explanation of causes which have not been preceded by gonorrhœa, or the use of injections. Sir E. Home also thinks differently from Mr. Hunter respecting injections, the injudicious use of which he conceives may often cause strictures. Strictures have sometimes been supposed to arise from the healing of ulcers in the urethra; but Mr. Hunter says, he never saw a cure in this passage, except in consequence of a stricture, and he therefore does not subscribe to the opinion.

The stone is sometimes a cause of stricture, and this occasionally happens in infancy. Sir E. Home has met with cases of this kind in children only six years of age; and, from other examples which he has recorded, it would appear, that the disease is frequent in calculous patients of more advanced years.

In the East Indies, and other warm climates, strictures are much more readily brought on than in Europe; and it is thought, that the excesses, in which the inhabitants of hot countries indulge, have great effect in promoting the formation of the disorder.

Strictures have been known to arise from the application of external violence to the perineum; from the irritation of blisters affecting the membrane of the urethra; and from the irritation of a diseased prostatic gland. Causes, in proof of these observations, may be perused in Sir E. Home's publication.

In the treatment of this disease, the first thing is to ascertain the precise situation of the stricture nearest the orifice of the urethra. For this purpose, a common bougie, proportioned to the size of the orifice of this canal, is to be gently introduced. If the bougie easily enters the passage, the surgeon may be well assured, that, if there be no obstruction, the size of the instrument cannot be too large for the rest of the canal, the orifice of which is naturally less capacious than most other parts of it. Small bougies, and such as are too much pointed, however, are frequently stopped by the lacunæ, or orifices of the mucous glands, and lead inexperienced surgeons into error.

In introducing any instrument properly into the urethra, some degree of skill is displayed. When a bougie or catheter is to be passed, the surgeon should take hold of the penis, by placing the fore-finger and thumb of his left hand on each side of the prepuce, opposite the corona glandis: thus he avoids making any pressure on the passage into which he is about to pass the bougie. This being oiled is to be introduced at first a little way; then the surgeon is to draw the penis forward, as it were over it, with the fore-finger and thumb of his left hand, while, at the same time, he gently and steadily persists in pushing the instrument further into the passage with his right hand. The bougie itself is to be held like a writing pen, and, as it enters the urethra, it ought to be artfully rotated, first in one direction, then in the other, in order that its extremity may more certainly escape being entangled in any natural fold of the membrane lining the passage.

Having ascertained, by the introduction of a bougie, the existence and situation of the stricture nearest the mouth of the urethra, the next desideratum is to learn, whether the contraction is such as would be produced by tying a piece of packthread round the canal; whether, on the other hand, it occupies a considerable extent of the passage; and, lastly, what is the size of the bougie which can be introduced through it. A knowledge of the extent of the stricture is

a circumstance that would always be of essential use to the practitioner, if it could be obtained; because, we presume, no surgeon, knowing that the obstruction and disease extend far along the urethra, would ever in such a case give a preference to the employment of armed bougies. Those armed with the nitrate of silver could never be expected to burn their way through a stricture an inch in length; and if other bougies, armed with the caustic potassa, are conceived to admit of being applied to such a stricture with any degree of precision, or any other real efficacy than what actually arises from the mechanical action of these instruments themselves, when passed through the stricture, we confess that it is more than our observations authorize us to believe. We have no hesitation in giving it as our opinion, that, in all cases of this description, as well as in others, in which two strictures are near together, and the intervening part of the canal much contracted, caustic bougies ought not to be used.

Having ascertained that a common-sized bougie will not pass beyond a particular point of the urethra, we ought to make an impression on the instrument with the finger-nail, close to the mouth of the urethra. Then the bougie should be withdrawn, and the surgeon should take one of a smaller size, which he is to mark with his nail, exactly at the place corresponding to that of the impression on the first bougie. This smaller one is to be introduced sufficiently far to bring its marked part exactly to the orifice of the urethra, at which period the surgeon knows that the extremity of the bougie has just arrived at the contraction, which would not allow the first common-sized bougie to pass. If the second bougie cannot be introduced farther than the first, a still smaller one is to be tried; but the surgeon should not have recourse to the smallest bougies at once, as the largest bougie which can be got through the stricture ought to be the model of the soft white one, which should now be introduced for the purpose of shewing the shape and extent of the stricture by the impressions made upon it. If, after the soft bougie has remained a minute or two in the stricture, it should be marked with a distinct circular or semi-circular narrow furrow, on being withdrawn, we have reason to believe, that the stricture does not occupy much of the extent of the urethra. On the contrary, when the impressions and irregularities on the soft bougie are extensive, it is to be suspected that the stricture is not confined to a limited point of the canal. At the same time it must be acknowledged, that it is somewhat difficult to form a certain judgment from the appearances of the bougie, because these will depend very much upon the force or gentleness with which the instrument is used. In particular, it is extremely difficult to learn positively whether the urethra is diminished in diameter immediately behind the most contracted part of the stricture. Mr. C. Bell proposed the employment of a particular sort of probe for determining the extent of strictures. "I procured (says this gentleman) a series of silver and gold probes, with circular knobs; the knobs varying from the full size of the urethra to what will just pass the narrowest stricture. By successively introducing smaller balls, I ascertain the degree of stricture by the ball which passes easily; and I am secure of being in the passage by passing the probe onward, when it has got beyond the stricture. Then by the slight feeling of resistance in passing the ball, and in withdrawing it again through the obstruction, I ascertain the extent of the contraction. If the ball of this probe be liable, like the point of the bougie, to enter one of the lacunæ, or, on passing it, to rub upon its edge, yet, by feeling whether the same roughness or difficulty attends the withdrawing of the bulb of the probe as when it passed downward, we may be assured whether there be a stricture of the canal, or whether

the obstruction be not caused merely by the lacunæ." Oper. Surgery, vol. i. p. 104.

This author further observes, that as the lacuna opens in a direction towards the orifice of the urethra, its edge cannot catch the probe when this is withdrawn, at which period a uniform smoothness must be felt, unless there be disease. When there is an irregular hardening of the urethra for a considerable extent, the probe is said to move along it with difficulty; but no sooner has it passed the obstruction, than it moves on with freedom. Likely as these ball-probes for the urethra at first seem to be to afford desirable information respecting the species of stricture, they are at present not much used by surgical practitioners. In fact, in practice they do not answer; and it is the contractile power of the urethra, or (if others will not allow it) it is the action of the muscles contiguous to this passage, which sometimes stops the easy introduction of the probe even when there is no permanent stricture whatever, and which makes it more difficult to ascertain the nature and extent of the obstruction than would otherwise be the case.

That great utility in practice would be derived from being able to learn the nature of the stricture, must be as obvious as the fact, that a caustic bougie is not at all calculated to remove the obstruction when it is of any extent. Such an instrument (we mean particularly a lunar caustic one) could only act on the anterior part of the contraction, without presenting any prospect of being sufficiently efficacious to burn its way, by repeated applications, through the whole extent of the stricture. Even could we imagine that it had this power, our judgment and common sense would revolt at the doctrine of this being the proper plan to be pursued. The common bougie, on the other hand, is introduced through the whole extent of the stricture, and acting like a wedge on every part of it, produces a general dilatation of the obstruction. When the stricture is attended with a conical lessening of the canal in front of it, a common bougie must also merit a preference.

Treatment with the common Bougie.—This instrument acts by producing a mechanical dilatation of the stricture. As it operates, however, on living matter, it either makes the dilated part adapt itself to its new position, or recede by ulceration. If the case is one that will allow even the smallest bougie to be introduced through the stricture, the cure may be considered to be within our power. In many cases in which the stricture is considerable, a great deal of trouble is given by occasional spasms, which either prevent the introduction of the bougies altogether, or only allow a very small one to pass. In such cases, Mr. Hunter was sometimes able to make the bougie pass, by rubbing the perineum with one hand, while he pushed forward the bougie with the other. He also frequently succeeded by letting the bougie remain close to the stricture a little while, and then pushing it forward. The spasm has sometimes been removed by dipping the penis in cold water.

It is sometimes difficult to know, whether a small bougie has passed through a stricture, or only bent. In this case, a common-sized bougie should be previously introduced to learn the situation of the stricture; and, afterwards, when the end of the small bougie is known to have reached the obstruction, the surgeon should push the instrument forward very gently, and for a short time. If the bougie enters the penis further, he may know whether it has entered the stricture by removing the pressure from the bougie; for, if this recoil, it has not passed, but only bent. After all, however, every practical surgeon knows, that it is sometimes incorrect to take even such a criterion, and a very

small bougie frequently bends, and yet does not afterwards recoil in the least.

When the bougie has passed a little way through the stricture, and remained there a short time, we should withdraw it, and examine its extremity. If this should be flattened, grooved, or have its waxen coat pushed up for some extent; or, if there should be a circular impression on the bougie, or only a dent on one side made by the stricture, we may be sure that the instrument has passed as far as those appearances and impressions extend.

Now it becomes necessary to introduce another bougie of exactly the same size, and let it remain as long as the patient experiences no particular inconvenience.

When the end of the first bougie is blunted, we may be sure that it has not passed the stricture at all.

The best time for wearing bougies is when the patient is in bed in the morning, or when he has an opportunity of keeping himself perfectly quiet. The bougie should be gradually increased in size, as the stricture dilates, till the largest one can easily pass, and its use should be continued for three or four weeks afterwards, in order to habituate the parts to their new state.

It is well known that strictures are very liable to return, and hence the treatment with common bougies has been accused of inefficacy. We have known, however, some cases in which the cure lasted many years; and others in which the stricture returned, although caustic bougies had been employed. One reason why the disease often relapsed in former times was, because surgeons had no correct notions respecting the naturally capacious diameter of the urethra, and consequently they never increased the size of the bougie, as far as it ought to have been, in proportion as the disease gave way. In the employment of caustic bougies, on the other hand, surgeons have always preferred large ones; and, if these instruments ever render the cure more durable, we conceive that the success is in a great measure ascribable to this circumstance.

Common bougies have one advantage over those armed with lunar caustic; viz. that of being sometimes capable of acting upon several strictures at once, when they are introduced into the urethra; a thing which is impossible in the other method.

Treatment with Elastic Gum Catheters and Bougies.—Perhaps there is no plan of treating strictures in the urethra which is so mild and unirritating as that with instruments coated with elastic gum. It is the common method of treatment followed in France, where caustic bougies appear to be entirely abandoned. The celebrated Desault, who had considerable success in the treatment of strictures, rarely employed any means of cure except an elastic gum catheter. That this instrument can frequently be introduced through a stricture, even when nothing else will pass, seems well known to every practitioner in surgery; for, whether he is an advocate for one method of cure or another, he no sooner fails in his attempts to get through a stricture, than he tries what can be done with a gum catheter. It is quite unnecessary to dwell long on the mode of curing strictures with this instrument, or the elastic gum bougie. The cure is effected on the principle of dilatation; the very same principle on which the common bougie operates. The catheter will sometimes pass without the stile, when it will not do so with it. This instrument, being much less irritating than a common bougie, can be longer worn without inconvenience, especially as the patient can also void his urine without taking it out. Indeed, it may be worn several days together, if judged advisable; but we believe it is generally better to withdraw it sooner, and endeavour to get in as quickly

quickly as possible other elastic gum catheters of larger size. The elastic gum bougie sometimes will not pass a stricture in the membranous part of the urethra, owing to the elasticity of the instrument tending to keep its point from ascending over the ridge in the canal. In some cases we have found them on this account not to answer, and have been obliged to use either a common bougie, or an elastic catheter containing a wire.

Treatment with Bougies armed with Nitrate of Silver.—The practice of applying caustic to strictures was known to Wiseman, who is justly esteemed the father of English surgery. The caustic which he used was the common red precipitate, and he introduced it into the urethra by means of a cannula. It appears that Mr. Hunter was not aware that any proposal of the kind had ever been made by others, when he first conceived the project of curing strictures in the urethra with caustic. It was only afterwards that he learned what Wiseman had done; and there can be no doubt, that if the idea had not existed previously, we should still have derived it from the fertile genius of Mr. Hunter. The instruments with which he employed caustic consisted of a fine cannula and a fillet. One end of the fillet had a small bulb, which filled up the end of the cannula, and made it pass more easily down to the stricture. The other end was a port crayon, containing the piece of caustic which was introduced through the cannula, and applied to the stricture. The application having been made, the port crayon was drawn back into the cannula, and the whole taken out of the urethra.

It is observed by sir Everard Home, that the foregoing method of using caustic was found in practice to be liable to a variety of objections. No silver cannula could be well adapted to the flexible canal of the urethra. Hence, when the caustic was applied, and any degree of pressure exerted, the effect of the caustic was necessarily produced upon the angle, between the stricture and side of the urethra, and not upon the middle of the stricture, the part intended to be destroyed. Mr. Hunter not only saw the inconveniences of the cannula, but he actually endeavoured to obviate them by devising a more simple and commodious method of applying caustic accurately to the centre of the stricture. The following is the improved mode, as explained by sir E. Home: Take a bougie of a size that can be readily passed down to the stricture, and insert a small piece of lunar caustic into the end of it, exposing the surface of the caustic, but surrounding it every where laterally with the substance of the bougie. This should be done some little time before it is used; for the materials of which the bougie is composed become warm and soft by being handled in the insertion of the caustic; and therefore, the hold which the bougie has of the caustic is rendered more secure by the instrument being allowed to cool and become hardened.

This bougie is to be oiled, but before passing it, a common bougie of the same size is to be introduced down to the stricture, in order to clear the canal, and to measure exactly the distance of the stricture from the external orifice. This distance being marked upon the armed bougie, the latter is to be passed down to the stricture as soon as the common one is withdrawn. In its passage the caustic can scarcely come into contact with any part of the lining of the urethra, as the point of the bougie, of which the caustic forms the central part, always moves in the middle line of the canal; and indeed the quickness with which it is conveyed to the stricture must also prevent any injury of the membrane.

When the armed bougie is in contact with the stricture, it is to be steadily retained there, with a moderate degree of

pressure at first, which is to be afterwards diminished, or else it would bend the bougie when this becomes softened by the warmth of the urethra. The time which it is to remain depends a good deal upon the sensations of the patient, and the length of time the parts have been diseased; but on the first trial it should be less than a minute, as it then commonly gives greater pain than at any subsequent application. Every other day is generally as often as the caustic bougie can be used with prudence. However, in obstinate cases, sir E. Home has sometimes employed it every day.

The bougie, which is introduced into the urethra previously to the armed one, should be made of soft materials, in order that it may mould itself to the form of the passage, and communicate some information relative to the extent, degree, and position of the stricture.

The pain arising from the application of the nitrate of silver, or lunar caustic, to strictures, is represented by sir E. Home as much more moderate than might *à priori* be apprehended. This gentleman has even related instances, in which the piece of caustic slipped out of the bougie, and remained in the urethra; yet without occasioning any very severe symptoms.

In the course of the use of caustic bougies, especially when the patient is guilty of any imprudence, it is possible for some uncommon symptoms to arise.

The first is a swelling in the perineum. It is very apt to be brought on when the surgeon is endeavouring to remove that part of the stricture which is nearest to the sides of the urethra. The swelling, which is of considerable size, is totally different from that which is produced by the irritation of the long continuance of bougies in the passage, and which ends in an abscess. It is entirely caused by blood extravasated in the cellular membrane, and which is readily absorbed. The inflammation is also slight, and soon subsides.

A second effect of caustic, in some particular cases, is a very profuse hemorrhage. According to sir E. Home, the bleeding never occurs with violence, except when the stricture has been completely destroyed. This gentleman has related several examples of such hemorrhage, and others are on record. See Edinb. Med. and Surg. Journ. vol. v. p. 333.

A third ill consequence, sometimes induced by the use of armed bougies, is strangury. According to sir E. Home, it is not common for caustic to produce this effect. On the contrary, he states, that in many instances it removes it, by taking off spasmodic action from the stricture. Patients, however, who are subject to occasional retentions of urine from the use of common bougies, are also not less liable to the complaint when they are using armed ones; and sometimes they suffer in a still worse degree.

In certain constitutions, it appears also, that the application of caustic to a stricture brings on an attack of ague. This effect is said to be most common in patients who have past a good deal of their life in hot climates. It sometimes happens, however, in persons who have never been out of England. We saw in St. Bartholomew's hospital, a few years ago, an elderly man who had very bad strictures, for which the caustic was used. After the plan had been followed about a fortnight, a serious shivering fit came on directly after the application of the bougie. The method was discontinued for a time, and the man's health got rather better. The caustic was now again resorted to, and again a most violent rigour immediately followed, and the febrile disposition which took place proved fatal in a couple of days.

Caustic bougies are at present much less employed than they were ten or fifteen years ago. In France, however, and upon

upon the continent in general, the practice never gained any partisans. The great thing which rendered the plan a favourite one with many surgeons some time ago, depended upon its alleged superiority in radically curing strictures, and leaving no chance of a relapse. We believe, however, that this was only a supposition; for we have seen several returns of stricture after the use of caustic; and, if the disease should recur rather less frequently on the whole, the success may be very well ascribed to the larger size of the armed bougies ordinarily employed. In short, we have no doubt, that common bougies would permanently cure strictures quite as well as any armed ones, if care were taken to increase the size of them in a proper degree, in proportion as the obstruction gives way.

For those strictures, however, which are like what would be produced by tying a piece of packthread round the urethra, we think armed bougies generally answer very well. They have also been particularly recommended for irritable strictures, the irritability of which is said to be destroyed with the diseased part of the canal. There are some cases in which no bougie nor catheter, of the smallest size whatever, can be got through the obstruction. Here the surgeon has the choice of using the armed bougie; of exciting ulceration of the stricture with the pressure of a common one; or of imitating the French, and some of our own surgeons, in boldly forcing a way through the obstruction with a conical catheter, of which we shall presently speak.

Treatment of Strictures with other Bougies, armed with the Caustic Potassa.—Mr. Whately considers strictures of the urethra, not merely as contracted fibres, but as really diseased portions of the membrane lining that canal. Hence he has proposed a remedy, calculated, as he thinks, both to remove the diseased affection, and to dilate the contracted part, without putting the patient to the inconvenience of wearing a bougie. Such a remedy he thinks caustic, when it is judiciously used. But his great object is to recommend the employment of the caustic potassa, or kali purum, in a particular manner, as being, according to his own account, more efficacious, and less painful and hazardous, than bougies armed with lunar caustic.

Before the caustic potassa is employed, the urethra ought to be rendered sufficiently capacious to admit a bougie above the smallest size into the bladder; and the strictures, if very irritable, are to have this irritability previously lessened by the use of common bougies.

The following is the manner of arming a bougie with this caustic, according to Mr. Whately's description. Put a small quantity of the caustic upon a piece of strong paper, and break it with a hammer into little bits, about the size of large and small pin's heads. When thus broken, it should be kept for use in a phial, closed with a ground stopper. The bougie must have a proper degree of curvature given to it, by drawing it several times between the finger and thumb of the left hand, and it should be just large enough to enter the stricture with some degree of tightness. Then let it be passed gently into the urethra, and when its point stops at the stricture, which it almost always does before it will enter it, make a notch with the finger-nail on the upper portion of the bougie, exactly half an inch from the extremity of the penis. When the bougie is withdrawn, a small hole, about the sixteenth part of an inch deep, should be made at the extremity of its rounded end. Some of the broken caustic should then be put upon a piece of paper; and a bit, smaller than the smallest pin's head, is to be selected for the first application. Let this be inserted into the hole of the bougie with a pocket-knife, and pushed into it with the blunt end of a pin, so as to place the caustic rather

below the margin of the hole. In order to prevent the potassa from coming out, the hole is then to be contracted a little with the finger, and the remaining vacancy is to be filled with hog's-lard. The bougie, being then oiled, is to be passed, with the curvature upward, to the anterior part of the stricture, the situation of which has been ascertained beforehand, and the bougie marked as already explained. The instrument should rest there for a few seconds, for the purpose of letting the caustic begin to dissolve. It should then be very gently pushed forward, about one-eighth of an inch, when there must be another stop for a second or two. The bougie should next be carried forward in the same gentle manner, till it has got through the stricture. After this, it should be immediately withdrawn, by a very gentle motion, to the part at which it was first made to rest awhile. It is next to be very slowly passed through the stricture a second time; but without letting the bougie stop in its passage. If pain or faintness arise, the operation is now to end, and the bougie is to be immediately withdrawn; but if no such effects be produced, the instrument may be passed and withdrawn once or twice more.

Mr. Whately directs the application to be repeated once every seven days; and if the stricture be found dilated, the bougie must be proportionally increased in size every time. The piece of caustic, in no cases whatever, ought to be larger than a common pin's head.

By proceeding in the way above related, Mr. Whately conceives that the caustic will be equally diffused over every part of the strictured surface, and that the application will only abrade the membrane of the stricture, without producing a scough.

It deserves notice, that this method of treatment seems little adapted to strictures, which are confined, as it were, to a point of the urethra; the cases which are also the most frequent, if we are to credit the authority of Mr. Hunter. The possibility of applying the caustic accurately to the place intended has always appeared to us doubtful; and, indeed, notwithstanding there are some good surgeons, who occasionally try the plan and think it answers, we are inclined to ascribe more to the passage of the bougie itself than to any effect of the little bit of caustic on the stricture.

Treatment of Strictures with metallic Bougies.—For some years past, a new plan has prevailed of treating strictures in the urethra with bougies, composed of a soft, flexible metal. The instruments also have a highly polished surface, of a silvery hue; and as the diameter of some of them is considerable, they possess a sufficient degree of firmness, both for introduction, and for retaining the curve of the patient's urethra. This last circumstance, indeed, is considered by some practitioners a great advantage, exclusively belonging to metallic bougies. Hence, as soon as they have received the curvature which is judged to suit the patient best, they are carefully preserved in this form throughout the cure, and are kept in a case which also has a bent shape. Formerly, we have heard of objections to these instruments, on the ground of their being liable to break in the urethra; but, although they are now often used, we have not been acquainted latterly with such an accident. Perhaps this is to be imputed to their present composition, which is firmer and less flexible than it used to be some years ago. Many patients bear the employment of metallic bougies better than any others. It seems only necessary to add, that they effect a cure on the principle of dilatation, like common bougies.

Treatment of Strictures with a conical Silver Catheter.—It is remarkable that the French surgeons, who have always objected to the use of armed bougies, which appear to them too violent a means of cure, have set the example of treating

strictures

strictures in the urethra on the principle of actual force. We cannot explain this matter to the reader better than by quoting what Mr. Crofs, an intelligent furgeon at Norwich, who lately visited the hospitals of Paris, has said upon the subject. "When I first went to La Charité, (says this gentleman,) out of fifty-three male patients in the surgical ward, there were five cases of stricture of the urethra, and three or four of diseases of the testicles. In the treatment of the former complaint, the caustic bougie is not used in any of the hospitals, and it was censured by all the surgeons I met with, as 'a very dangerous and harsh remedy,' which I believe most of them have never given a trial to. It appears to me, however, that the Parisian method of treating many cases of stricture in the urethra is not more mild than the use of the caustic." Mr. Crofs then recites a case which he saw in La Charité. A man who had had for a long while a permanent stricture, had been repeatedly treated for it. There was difficulty of making water, but not complete retention. Unsuccessful attempts were made, for several days, to pass an instrument into the bladder by gentle means. The patient was still able to void his urine, although with great pain and difficulty. M. Roux took a conical silver catheter, with a very slight curvature, and an extremity almost pointed, and by force regularly applied, he made his way into the bladder in spite of all opposition. He took care to keep the instrument central, and to judge of the direction of the point by the lateral rings. The rule mentioned by M. Roux, for commencing the great depression of the outer extremity of the instrument, was when, by the finger in the rectum, he could feel the point to have reached the apex of the prostate. He gave great pain to the patient, but succeeded in getting the instrument into the bladder. The urine in the bladder was not suffered to flow out immediately, the catheter being left in the urethra, and its end plugged up with a piece of wood. Mr. Crofs well observes, that M. Roux acted very judiciously in directing the catheter to be kept depressed between the thighs, because from its shortness, and the smallness of its curvature, the bringing of the outer extremity of the instrument up to the abdomen would have drawn the other extremity out of the bladder.

Three or four days are the time M. Roux commonly keeps the conical catheter in the passage; but this patient suffered so intolerably, that it was taken out at the end of four and twenty hours. An elastic gum catheter, of rather a small size, was immediately introduced without difficulty; its extremity fastened to the abdomen; and its orifice plugged up, in order that the urine might be allowed to flow only at certain periods. The next day the patient was comparatively easy. On the fourth day there was a swelling of the testicle, scrotum, and perineum. A poultice was applied, and the elastic catheter continued. In four days more the swelling of the parts had subsided, and the poultice was no longer necessary. A fresh gum catheter of a larger size was introduced. Suffice it here to add, that in about six weeks a catheter of the largest size could be introduced.

Another case, says Mr. Crofs, went on less favourably. The *fonde conique* had been employed, and a gum catheter introduced; but in less than a week the patient, believing he could make water without the instrument, took it out himself. The next day, an effusion of urine in the scrotum had taken place, and the fluid was freely let out by two long incisions. The elastic catheter, however, could not be introduced again. The urine now came away in drops from the urethra. The free incisions in the scrotum prevented sloughing; but the patient, who was very weak, and in bad health, died in a few days. It was, observes Mr.

Crofs, an inveterate case of stricture, and the patient would probably have died under any treatment. Diffusion shewed a diseased bladder, whose coats were above half an inch in thickness; a cartilaginous stricture and extensive sinuses communicating with the once-membranous part of the urethra.

"The effecting of a speedy cure, in bad cases of stricture," is the argument advanced by the French surgeons for the use of the conical catheter, where that of elastic gum cannot be introduced without its assistance. They tell us, says Mr. Crofs, even of bad cases being cured, or greatly relieved, in a month or six weeks; and certainly in one case, under M. Roux, a catheter of the largest size could be received by the urethra, a month from the introduction of the conical catheter.

M. Roux assured Mr. Crofs, that he had never seen any inflammation or irritation from this treatment, which was not readily managed and subdued. In his clinical lecture, however, he mentioned two fatal cases, which he had witnessed, and examined after death. In one of these, on taking out the *fonde conique d'argent* the third or fourth day after its introduction, the surgeon could not introduce the gum catheter: in attempting to do which, said M. Roux, another passage seemed to have been made. Extravasation of the urine, sloughing, and death ensued. The second case was somewhat similar; peritoneal inflammation was the immediate cause of its fatal termination, the instrument having passed between the pubes and anterior part of the bladder.

Whoever desires more information respecting this violent mode of treating strictures, must consult Mr. Crofs's publication. Enough, we conceive, has been said to prove that it is a dangerous plan, which can only be justifiable in the most inveterate and obstinate cases. It seems that, in such examples, the late John Hunter also used the silver catheter with considerable force; and the practice of Mr. Pearson and of Cooper is likewise cited, as a sanction of this bold mode of proceeding. The French even sometimes prefer this way of puncturing the bladder, the catheter being forced through the prostate gland; and we have heard of one or two distinguished surgeons in this country, who never perform any of the ordinary methods of puncturing the bladder, but invariably succeed in getting a catheter into that organ, by forcing the instrument forward through the prostate gland. See Hunter's Treatise on the Venereal Disease. Whately's improved Plan of treating Strictures. First Lines of Surgery, edit. 3. Sir E. Home's Practical Obs. on Strictures. C. Bell's Letters on Dis. of the Urethra. Crofs's Sketches of the Medical Schools of Paris, &c.

URETHRA, Imperforate. Children, when first born, are sometimes incapable of making water, in consequence of the prepuce or urethra being imperforate. In the first case, the nurse takes notice that the child's linen is not wet, and the extremity of the penis presents a soft, oblong, shining, transparent tumour, occasioned by the collection of the urine between the prepuce and the glans. Relief is to be given by making an incision into the anterior and inferior part of the swelling, and thus opening the prepuce. The fresh-cut surfaces are then to be kept apart with a dossil of lint, until healed. When the prepuce is very long, it is even recommended to cut off a piece of it, in order to remove all risk of a phymosis.

When the inability to evacuate the urine depends upon an imperforate state of the canal of the urethra, the membrane which closes its orifice is to be opened with a lancet, and a
piece

piece of lint introduced between the sides of the puncture, until they are cicatrized.

In the female subject, the meatus urinarius is sometimes found imperforate, though less frequently so than the vagina. As soon as a surgeon is apprised of the cause of a young female child not being able to void its urine, he is to divide the membrane which closes the orifice of the meatus urinarius. The frequent evacuation of the urine, and the introduction of a small doffel of lint, will prevent the sides of the incision from growing together again. An imperforate urethra in the female subject has been known to give rise to an urinary fistula at the navel. In this case, the retained fluid makes its way by the urachus to the umbilicus. The urachus, which in the adult is solid and ligamentous, contains in some subjects an inconsiderable cavity, which ascends more or less towards the navel. It is conceivable, that in such individuals, who are analogous to quadrupeds, in which the urachus is a true canal, the urine may ascend along this process to the navel, elevate the skin there, and at length makes its way out, and cause a fistula in the same situation. Even when the urachus is solid, it is possible that the lining of the bladder may be propelled in this direction, and protrude also at the umbilicus, where it may afterwards burst. However it may be, nothing is more certain than the possibility of the urine ascending along the urachus, and the formation of an urinary fistula at the navel, in young female children, in whom the urethra is imperforate. Cabrol's twentieth observation affords a complete proof of the fact. In a case of the same kind, we could not also do better than imitate the practice, which this practitioner adopted. It consisted in first establishing the natural passage for the urine by a suitable incision, and the use of an elastic gum catheter. A ligature was then applied round the fungous protuberance at the navel, where the urine had been previously discharged. Perhaps, however, the latter proceeding would generally be unnecessary, because, unless the fistula had existed very long, it would spontaneously heal, on the urine finding its natural outlet.

URETHRA, Orifice of; Misplaced. In speaking of malformations of this passage, it deserves notice that the orifice of the urethra is not always found situated at the anterior part of the glans. This particular case, which is not very uncommon, is termed by surgeons *hypospadias*. It presents the following varieties:—Sometimes the orifice of the urethra is below the glans; sometimes it is very far back, near the crura of the penis, but still at the under surface of this organ. There are also cases, in which the urethra is found situated above the corpora cavernosa; and the malformation ought then to be called *epispadias*. Richerand mentions having seen a remarkable instance of this description in a young conscript. The penis was extremely short; so much so, that, at first view, there seemed to be only the glans, which, in the flaccid state of the parts, was the only thing visible in front of the pubes. Along the upper part of the base of the glans there was a fissure, which extended through the skin of the dorsum of the penis, resembling a vulva of about an inch in length. The malformation, termed *hypospadias*, causes no impediment to the evacuation of the urine; and it is even asserted, that it does not certainly deprive the individual of the generative power. The truth of this observation must depend very much upon the exact situation of the orifice of the urethra; for if it were towards the perineum, impotence must be the consequence. In this latter kind of case also, no attempt at a cure would be practicable; though, perhaps, when the orifice is near the glans, something might be done, with a view of forming a continuation

of the passage to its proper extent. Such, however, would be the tendency of any new opening to close again, that the result would be very uncertain; and we believe that the records of surgery evince no facts in favour of the trial.

There is another serious malformation of the urethra, which consists in a preternatural shortness of it. The canal does indeed extend to the glans penis, where it terminates in the usual way; but its actual length does not correspond with that of the corpora cavernosa. Hence, a permanent curvature of the penis is produced, and the perfect erection of this organ is hindered. The case is said to be entirely incurable.

URETHRA, Calculi lodged in. Stones of moderate size may escape from the bladder, and, lodging in different parts of the urethra, may occasion great pain, and a difficulty of making water. An instance has been recently published, in which a stone in the urethra was mistaken for a stricture, and the caustic actually applied. (See Marcet on Calculous Disorders, p. 9.) Whatever may be their situation in this canal, their evacuation ought to be promoted by all such means as tend to relax the passage; as bleeding, the warm bath, fomentations to the perineum, diuretic drinks, and the injection of oil into the passage. These means are to be assisted by the gentle and skilfully directed pressure of the fingers, applied just behind the foreign body. When a very small calculus is suspected to be in the bladder, and it will not pass through the urethra, M. Delpach has lately proposed dilating the passage as much as possible with elastic gum catheters; and when the largest instrument can be introduced, he thinks a good chance of the calculus being voided might be obtained, by suddenly withdrawing the large catheter, and desiring the patient to void his urine as forcibly as possible. Particular forceps have likewise been constructed for the extraction of calculi from the urethra; but they seldom answer, except when the foreign body is near the orifice, and would soon escape of itself. A tobacco clyster has been known to effect the discharge of a calculus from the urethra. See Edinb. Med. Surg. Journ. vol. xii. p. 373.

When all the foregoing proceedings are ineffectual, and the patient suffers a good deal of pain and inconvenience, it becomes the duty of the surgeon to cut down to the calculus, and extract it. The patient should then wear an elastic gum catheter for a few days, until the opening is healed. The writer of this article was once consulted by a gentleman's coachman, who had contrived to let a large head-dress pin slip a considerable way into the urethra, so that he could not get it out again. The point of the instrument, in fact, was more than three inches from the orifice of the urethra. Its extraction was easily accomplished, by pushing its point through the urethra, when it was taken hold of, and withdrawn as far as it could be in this manner. The head of the pin was then pushed towards the mouth of the canal, and the whole instrument extracted.

URETHRA, False Passage in. One of the greatest evils, arising from the unskilful and too violent use of catheters, bougies, and other instruments, is the formation of a new or false passage, by the rupture of the urethra. Whenever an instrument is afterwards introduced, it does not follow the course of the urethra, but enters the ruptured opening. Thus, the difficulty of curing the stricture, if there be one, is seriously increased, because the surgeon can hardly ever get the bougie to reach it again; and if his object is to pass an instrument into the bladder, he is equally frustrated. Nothing seems more likely to cause a false passage, than the violent use of the conical silver catheter, in cases of bad strictures;

strictures; a plan which is now in vogue at Paris, and of which we have already delivered an account in a foregoing column. The formation of a false passage is also a dangerous accident, inasmuch as it may give rise to an extravasation of the urine, sloughing of the perineum and scrotum, and even death itself.

When a surgeon has reason to suspect that there is a recent false passage, perhaps his wisest plan is to desist from the introduction of instruments into the urethra, and keep the patient very quiet for a few days, in order to take the chance of the breach of continuity being repaired. If, however, the urine should be effused, he would be warranted in attempting to pass an elastic gum catheter, without any delay, in the hope of stopping the increase of the extravasation. Were the effused fluid considerable, he would also be called upon to make immediately one or two free incisions, for the same purpose. Should he be so fortunate as to succeed in getting a catheter introduced, the patient must be directed to wear it for several days, without interruption. In this manner, the urine would be conveniently discharged, and the false passage perchance heal up.

Mr. Hunter has advised the performance of the following operation for the cure of a false passage:—Pass a staff into the urethra, as far as it will go, which will probably be to the bottom of the new passage; and this, we may be sure, is beyond the stricture. Feel for the end of the instrument externally, and cut upon it, making the wound about an inch long, if the disease be before the scrotum; and an inch and a half, or more, if in the perineum. If the new passage be between the urethra and body of the penis, you will most probably get into the sound urethra, before you come to the instrument, or new passage. If so, introduce a probe into the urethra, through the wound, and pass it towards the glans penis, or, in other words, towards the stricture. When it meets with an obstruction, this must be the stricture, which is now to be got through, and afterwards dilated. To complete the operation, withdraw the probe, and, instead of it, introduce a cannula forward to the stricture. Then pass another cannula from the glans downward, till the two tubes are opposite each other, having the stricture between them. While an assistant holds the cannula in this position, the stricture is to be perforated with a sharp instrument, introduced through the upper cannula. A bougie is then to be introduced into the cannula, through the perforated stricture, and the tubes are to be withdrawn. The bougie is now to be passed into the bladder, and worn. Instead of bougies, modern surgeons would now invariably prefer, in such cases, elastic gum catheters, which allow the patient to make water with convenience, create less irritation than common bougies, and can be worn for a longer time, which are great considerations, in addition to the important advantage of keeping the urine from passing either through the wound, or the false passage. Besides the foregoing steps, it would be necessary, in some old cases, to lay open the false passage before it would heal.

URGAS, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Hispania, in Bætica, at some distance to the left of Bætis, and west of Corduba, belonging to the Turduli, surnamed *Alba* by Pliny.

URGEL, in *Geography*, a town of Spain, in Catalonia, the see of a bishop, suffragan of Tarragona; 65 miles N.N.W. of Barcelona. N. lat. 42° 24'. E. long. 1° 22'.

URGENUMÆ, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Gallia Narbonnensis, according to Strabo: the *Ernagium* of Ptolemy.

URGHENTZ, or URGENTZ, in *Geography*. See URKONJE.

URGI, in *Ancient Geography*, a people of European Sarmatia, between the Danube and the Borysthenes.

URGANO, in *Geography*, a town of Italy, in the department of the Serio; 5 miles S. of Bergamo.

URGO, in *Ancient Geography*, an island situated on the coast of Etruria. Pliny says that it was larger than the island Plantaria, and that it took the name of Gorgon.

URI, a people of India, on the bank and towards the source of the river Indus. Pliny.

URI, in *Geography*, a canton of Switzerland, bounded on the north by Schweiz, on the east by Glaris, on the south by the Italian bailiwicks, and on the west by Underwalden, about 60 miles in length, and 28 in breadth. It consists almost every where of high mountains and deep valleys; the summits of the former of which are perpetually covered with ice and snow. The loftiest among them, and indeed the highest in Europe, is that of St. Gothard. On the Alps in this canton, during the summer, are fattened many thousand heads of cattle; and the cheese is famed for its goodness. The vales between the high mountains here in summer are very hot and fertile, when not exposed to the northern winds; among the mountains too are found numbers of beautiful crystals; the greatest part of which are bought up, and sent off to Italy to be wrought. In this canton are only market-towns, villages, and scattered houses; and the inhabitants, being inured to a rough and hard way of living, are hardy, vigorous, and brave, and strenuous assertors of that liberty which was so dearly purchased by their patriotic ancestors. They are all Roman Catholics. They were once as a free people, immediately under the jurisdiction of the empire. An union between Uri, Schweiz, and Underwalden, for throwing off the Austrian yoke, was effected in the beginning of the year 1308; and in 1315, these three cantons entered into a perpetual alliance. At that time Uri held the first place among the confederates, but at present only the fourth, though among the six lesser cantons it is styled the first. Its government is democratical, like that of *Schweitz*; which see.

These two cantons, including their subjects, contain about 50,000 souls; and, in case of necessity, could furnish above 12,000 militia. The same kind of soil, and the same productions, are common to the two cantons: the whole country, being rugged and mountainous, consists chiefly of pasture, produces little corn, and has no vines. The natives, however, have improved a barren soil into a wonderful state of fertility. The purity, or, as some would call it, the austerity of morals, which still prevails among these people, cannot easily be conceived by the inhabitants of opulent cities. The beautiful description given in Goldsmith's "Traveller" is peculiarly appropriate to these people.

"Dear is that shed to which his soul conforms,
And dear that hill which lifts him to the storms:
And, as a child, when scaring sounds molest,
Clings close and closer to the mother's breast:
So the loud torrent, and the whirlwind's roar,
But bind him to his native mountains more."

The capital of this canton is Altorf.

URIA, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Italy, in Apulia.—Also, a town of Italy, in Messapia, upon the Apian way. (Strabo.) Herodotus calls it Hyria, and says that it was founded by the Cretans, about a century before the siege of Troy.—Also, the name of a lake of Acarnania.

URIAS, a small gulf of Italy, difficult of entrance.

URIBACO, in *Ichthyology*, the name of a Brazilian sea-fish, esteemed a very well-tasted and wholesome one. It is somewhat of the figure of the perch; its back is rigid, and its belly is somewhat protuberant. It grows to ten or twelve inches long. Its teeth are small and sharp, and the ends of its gills and gill-fins terminate in a triangular point: its belly-fins are sustained by a very rigid and strong spine: its long fin, behind the anus, is supported by flexible and short spines; it has only one fin on the back, equally broad, and, reaching nearly to the tail, supported by prickly rays; its tail is deeply forked; its scales are of a fine silvery white, with a faint cast of pale but bright red; its belly-fins are white, and its back-fin and tail reddish: its side-lines are broad, and of a fine red; over these and under them, near the tail, there is on each side a large black spot. *Margraave. Ray's Ichthyol. p. 338.*

URIC ACID, in *Chemistry*. This substance was discovered by Scheele in 1776. The French chemists named it *lithic acid*, from its being a common ingredient in urinary calculi, but Dr. Pearson subsequently changed its name to that by which it is at present generally known. The original name, however, is likely to be again adopted, as Dr. Marcet has adhered to it in his recent work upon urinary calculi.

Uric acid separates spontaneously from some urine in the form of red granular crystals; or it may be procured more readily in this impure state by the addition of either of the mineral acids to the urine. The best way of obtaining it in quantity, however, is to dissolve urinary calculi composed chiefly of it in an alkaline lixivium, and to precipitate it from this by a mineral acid. Uric acid, thus obtained, and afterwards repeatedly well washed, has the following properties.

It appears in the form of a beautiful white powder, which feels rather harsh, but not gritty, and is destitute both of taste and smell. According to Dr. Henry, it dissolves in about 1150 times its weight of water at 21°, or in about 1720 times at 60°. In boiling water it is more soluble, and its solution faintly reddens litmus. It readily dissolves in solutions of the fixed alkalies, but not so readily in ammonia. It is incapable of decomposing the alkaline carbonates, or any earthy or metallic salt. The nitric acid dissolves it, and when this solution is evaporated to dryness, it assumes a beautiful pink colour, which becomes of a fine carmine hue on the addition of water. This colour is not permanent if exposed to the action of the air; but paper stained with it, and dried and kept in close vessels, retains the colour for a long time. Chlorine produces a similar effect upon this acid; an effect which is quite peculiar, and therefore characteristic of it. On being subjected to heat, uric acid emits a strong odour, and yields a large proportion of prussic acid. Submitted to distillation in close vessels, it yields a principle of a peculiar nature, which Dr. Henry has ascertained to be a distinct acid. According to Dr. Prout's analysis, uric acid consists of

1 atom or 1 volume of hydrogen	1.25	to be multiplied by 100,000	hydr. 2.857
1 atom or 2 volumes of carbon	15.00		carb. 34.286
1 atom or $\frac{1}{2}$ volume of oxygen	10.00		oxyg. 22.857
1 atom or 1 volume of azote	17.50		azote 40.000
	43.75		100.000

Dr. P., therefore, seems disposed to consider it as composed of one atom or volume of cyanogen, and one atom or volume of water.

Uric acid combines with the alkalies and alkaline earths, and forms a set of salts, none of which are very interesting,

except the *superurate of soda*, which constitutes the *gouty calculus*, or *chalkstone*. The urates may be formed by boiling the bafe with an excess of acid in a proper quantity of water, filtering the solution, and evaporating it to dryness. The urates of potash, soda, ammonia, barytes, ironites, lime, magnesia, and alumina, obtained by the preceding process, are neutral, have neither taste nor smell, and can scarcely be distinguished from uric acid itself. They dissolve with great difficulty in water, urate of ammonia being most soluble, and urate of barytes the least. They all appear, however, to form subalts much more soluble than the neutral salts. See *URINARY Calculi*.

URICACHI, in *Geography*, a town of New Navarre; 160 miles S.E. of Cafa Grande.

URICONIUM, **VIROCONIUM**, or *Vrioconium*, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Great Britain, in the second Itin. of Antonine, between Rutanium (near Wem) and Uxacona (near Sheriff Hales). It belonged to the Cornavii, and was situated at Wroxeter, in Shropshire, on the N.E. side of the Severn, about three miles from Shrewsbury; which is supposed to have risen out of the ruins of that ancient city. At Wroxeter many Roman coins have been found, and the vestiges of the walls and ramparts of Uriconium are still visible. It is highly probable, that the neighbouring mountain, the Wrekin, derives its name from Uriconium; for it preserves the ancient British name Urecon.

URIE WATER, in *Geography*, a river of Scotland, which runs into the Don, near Inverarie.

URIES, CAPE, a cape on the N. coast of Staten island. See *STATEN Island*.

URIGNY, a town of France, in the department of the Loiret; 6 miles S. of Pithiviers.

URIGO, a burning with a caustic, or cautery.

VRIHASPATI, in *Astronomy*, is the Hindoo name of the planet Jupiter. In an invocation to the different planets, given in the seventh volume of the Asiatic Researches, he is thus addressed: "O Vrihaspati! sprung from eternal truth, confer on us abundantly that various wealth, which the most venerable of beings may revere; which shines glorious among all people." Intellectual wealth is probably here meant; Vrihaspati being preceptor to the gods, the most venerable of beings. He is also their messenger in intercourse between the three principal deities, being proverbial for eloquence. A cycle is called after Vrihaspati; and it is the name of a celebrated legislator; so that this name, originally probably of some highly gifted person, occurs very frequently in astronomical and legal points; though in others, whatever historical facts may be connected with it, he is hidden in the veil of mythological fable. (See *SANI*, the Saturn of the Hindoo zodiac.) As with the western astrologers, Friday is with the Hindoos the day of Vrihaspati, or Jupiter. (See *ZODIAC*.) He is represented of golden aspect, clothed in red, bearing a lotos, and a staff in his hands; and sometimes mounted on a boar. Many of the Hindoo deities have vehicles assigned them, which are called *vahan*. See under that word for an enumeration of many of them.

Under our article *SULTEE*, the authority of Vrihaspati as a legislator is quoted; as it is very frequently in Colebrooke's valuable digest of Hindoo law. In the article *SIVA*, that important person of the Hindoo triad is said to guide the motions of the planet Jupiter, as Vishnu does those of the sun, and Brahma of Sani, or Saturn. And under *TARA* we have given a legend, sufficiently ridiculous, if taken literally, of Vrihaspati having begotten a monkey fo

named;

named; but we refer to the article descriptive of the cause of so strange a fiction.

The name of Vrihspati occurs often in the Vedas; a proof of the early age of the person, whoever he was, that first bore the name. He had a daughter named Romafa, married to the king Bhavayavya; but we have no particulars of their history. Angiras, one of the holy persons to whom the Veda was revealed, is sometimes called father of Vrihspati; other authorities say Devala was his father.

In the Ramayana, Vrihspati is called Vachaspati, and noticed as proverbial for eloquence. The name may be translated lord of speech. See VACH.

URIM and Thummim, אֲרוֹמִים וְתֻמִּיִּם, q. d. *light and perfection*, the name of a kind of ornament belonging to the habit of the Jewish high-priest; in virtue of which he gave oracular answers to the people.

The high priests of the Jews, we are told, consulted God in the most important affairs of their commonwealth, and received answers by the urim and thummim. What these were is disputed among the critics: some take them to be the twelve precious stones in the priest-plat of the high-priest, on which were engraven the names of the twelve tribes of Israel; and they maintain that the oracle gave its answer to any question proposed, by causing such letters in them to shine with superior lustre, or to appear prominent above the rest, as formed the words of the answer; or by an audible divine voice pronouncing the words, the high-priest was prevented from mistaking the answer. Josephus, and some others, imagine, the answer was returned by the stones of the breast-plate appearing with an unusual lustre, when it was favourable, or in the contrary case, dim. Others suppose, that the urim and thummim were something enclosed between the folding of the breast-plate; this some will have to be the tetragrammaton, or the word יְהוָה, *Jehovah*. Christophorus de Caltro, and after him Dr. Spencer, maintain them to be two little images shut up in the doubling of the breast-plate, which gave the oracular answer from thence by an articulate voice. Accordingly, they derive them from the Egyptians, who consulted their lares, and had an oracle, or teraphim, which they called truth. This opinion, however, has been sufficiently confuted by the learned Dr. Pococke, Comment. on Hosea, chap. iii. 4. and by Witfius in his *Ægyptiaca*, lib. ii. cap. 3. 10, 11, 12. The more common opinion among Christians concerning the oracle by urim and thummim, and which Dr. Prideaux espouses, is, that when the high-priest appeared before the veil, clothed with his ephod and breast-plate, to ask counsel of God, the answer was given with an audible voice from the mercy-seat, within the veil: but, it has been observed, that this account will by no means agree with the history of David's consulting the oracle by Abiathar; 1 Sam. xxiii. 9. 11. chap. xxx. 7, 8. because the ark, on which was the mercy-seat, was then at Kirjathjearim; whereas David was in the one case at Ziklag, and in the other in the forest of Hareth. Braunius and Hottinger have adopted another opinion: they suppose, that when Moses is commanded to put in the breast-plate the urim and thummim, signifying *lights and perfections* in the plural number, it was meant that he should make choice of the most perfect set of stones, and have them so polished as to give the brightest lustre: and on this hypothesis, the use of the urim and thummim, or of these exquisitely polished jewels, was only to be a symbol of the divine presence, and of the light and perfection of the prophetic inspiration: and as such, constantly to be worn by the high-priest in the exercise of his sacred function, especially in consulting the oracle. See

Prideaux's Connection, vol. i. p. 123, &c. Jennings's Jewish Ant. vol. i. p. 233, &c.

Diodorus Siculus relates, that there was also a ceremony in use among the Egyptians, whose principal minister of justice wore a collar of precious stones about his neck, which was called *αλυσια*, or trith.

URIMA, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Asia, situated on the western bank of the Euphrates, S.E. of Samofata.

URIMAO, in *Geography*, a town of Mexico, in the province of Mechoacan; 35 miles N. of Zacatula.

URNAL, in *Domestic Economy*, a vessel fit to receive and hold urine; and used accordingly for the convenience of sick persons. It is usually of glass, and crooked; and sometimes it is filled with milk, to alluage the pain of the gravel.

URNAL, in *Chemistry*, is an oblong glass vessel, used for making isolations, and so called from its resemblance to the glasses in which urine is set to settle, for the inspection of the physician.

URNARIUM, in *Agriculture*, a name sometimes applied to a sort of reservoir, or place constructed in the ground for the reception of urine, and the liquid matters discharged from the stables, cattle-sheds, pig-sties, and other places situated about the farm-yard.

It may be noticed, that a basin or receptacle of this nature is essential to every well-contrived farm-yard; as by blending vegetable, earthy, and other similar materials with these liquids, a vast increase of valuable manure may be readily and conveniently provided. These basins should always be formed in the moist shady parts of such yards or places, and be well connected with the buildings destined for the horses, cattle, pigs, and other sorts of live-stock. In particular situations, too, they may be so contrived as to be capable of being discharged and thrown over the grass-lands that may lie below them. An useful and well-contrived cavity or reservoir of this sort is described by Mr. Pew in the seventh volume of the Bath Letters and Papers, in which the cow and other cattle-stalls are said to be placed on the side of a nap, or small elevation; and that, by means of gutters formed behind, the liquor is conveyed into a sink or drain, which runs under the stable, where, by the help of another drain or sink, it meets with the stable liquor; and these, with that from the pig-sties, run through an under-ground drain into the receptacle or reservoir. It is the practice of the proprietor, it is said, to put all sorts of refuse vegetable and animal matters into this receptacle, where it quickly rots; and when the weather turns moist, he has it stirred well up with poles, when it is discharged over a meadow that lies below, or any particular part of it, by means of trenches cut for the purpose, which is in this way rendered, it is asserted, astonishingly fertile and productive, as well as much more early than even watered lands. It is suggested, further, that this plan might be extended, by having the stables, in such cases, placed on the centres of the knolls, as in this case three or four reservoirs might be formed; and that by stopping some drains, and opening others, the fluid contents might be directed one year to one side and another year to another side, as circumstances might render necessary.

These kinds of reservoirs are sometimes so situated in respect to the dung-loads, as to have pumps fixed in them for throwing the urine and liquid matters over the manure heaps, as by that means much waste of such matters is prevented, and the dung greatly improved. Besides, in this way, such fluid materials can be the most readily dispersed over different sorts of rich earthy substances, and the increase of manure

be thereby the most fully and conveniently promoted. See MANURE and YARD-DUNG.

URINARIUS MEATUS, in *Anatomy*, the urethra of the female. See URETHRA.

URINARY ABSCESSES, in *Surgery*, are so called when an extravasation of urine in the cellular membrane of the scrotum, penis, perineum, &c. excites suppuration in the parts, so that purulent matter and urine are found mixed together in the tumour. Such an effusion of urine always arises from a breach of continuity in the bladder or urethra, most frequently in consequence of the distention of that viscus in obfinate, protracted, and improperly treated retentions of urine; or in consequence of abscesses, which form in the course of the urethra, and burst into that canal. The making of a false passage in the urethra, by the unskilful use of bougies and catheters, and the laceration of this tube by forcible contusions, are also common causes of an extravasation of urine. There is not in the whole body any fluid, whose extravasation produces more serious mischief than the urine. If it be not promptly discharged, it soon excites a putrid suppuration in the cellular membrane containing it; makes this part slough; causes mortification of the skin; and a gangrenous inflammation of every structure with which it comes into contact.

When the opening, by which the urine has escaped from the bladder, is situated either in this viscus or the urethra, there are invariably two principal indications to be fulfilled. The first is to prevent the further increase of the extravasation, by introducing a catheter, drawing off the urine, and desiring the patient to wear the instrument. The second indication is to give an outlet to the effused urine; so that the mischief, likely to result from its presence in the cellular membrane, may be lessened as much as possible. This is effected by suitable incisions, which also have the good effect of tending to hinder the urine from spreading more extensively amongst parts, in which it would be sure to produce inflammation, abscesses, and gangrene.

The manner of opening such collections varies according as the urine may be in one cavity, or widely effused in the cellular membrane. In the first case, a simple incision, the whole length of the cavity, will suffice for emptying and healing it. In the second, if the extravasation is extensive, the incisions must be multiplied. It would be absurd to spare the parts; for all those with which the urine has come into contact seldom escape mortification. The incisions which are made hardly ever have the effect of saving them; but, by accelerating the discharge of putrid sanies and stagnant urine, they prevent the mischief which would originate from their further lodgment. If these incisions, however, were practised a few hours after the extravasation, and before suppuration, the parts might be completely freed from urine and preserved. When the operation is at all delayed, their destruction is inevitable. The approach of mortification is indicated by the crepitation under the bistoury, resembling the kind of noise produced by tearing parchment. The extent and depth of the incisions must be proportioned to those of the abscess. When the extravasation occupies the scrotum, long deep scarifications should be made in that part, as well as in the skin of the penis, and in every place where the urine is effused.

Practitioners, unaccustomed to see such diseases, would be alarmed at the extent of the sore produced by the separation of the eschars. Sometimes the whole scrotum, skin of the penis, and that of the groins, perineum, and upper part of the thigh, mortify, and the naked testicles hang by the spermatic cords in the midst of this enormous ulcer. It is

hardly conceivable how cicatrization could take place over the exposed testicles; but the resources of nature are unlimited. She unites the testicles and the cords to the subjacent parts; and, drawing the skin from the circumference to the centre of the ulcer, she covers these organs again, and furnishes them with a sort of new scrotum. This statement is founded upon numerous cases, in which nature always followed this course. The cicatrization of the ulcer is even more expeditious than might be expected, considering its extent. In all this business, what does art do? If the introduction of the catheter be excepted, which, indeed, is absolutely necessary for the radical cure, her assistance is very limited, and almost nothing, in the generality of instances; for when the patients are not exhausted by the tediousness of the disorder, when they are of a good constitution, and in the prime of life, they get well as quickly and certainly, with the aid of a good diet and simple dressings, as when they take internal medicines, and use a multiplicity of compound topical applications. The practice of Default at the Hôpital-Dieu consisted in applying emollient poultices, until the sloughs were detached. The ulcer was then sometimes dressed with pledgets charged with styax; but frequently mere dry lint was used, and continued till the cure was completed. If any complication occurred in the course of the treatment, suitable remedies were prescribed for it. Thus when prostration of strength, and tendency to sloughing existed, bark, cordials, and antiseptics were ordered. But in every case, the catheter is the essential means of cure; without it, the treatment is almost always imperfect, and the ulcer will not heal without leaving several urinary fistulæ. See *Œuvres Chirurgicales de Default*, par Bichat, tom. iii. p. 277—287.

URINARY CALCULI. The formation of concretions in the urinary passages being occasioned by the precipitation and consolidation of particular ingredients in the urine, calculi must of course be liable to occur in any of the cavities to which the urine has access. In fact, experience proves that they are frequently met with in the kidneys, ureters, bladder, and urethra. It is commonly believed, that most of them are originally formed in the kidneys, from which organs they afterwards descend with the urine into the other mentioned parts. We must however regard, as exceptions to this observation, the cases in which calculi are formed round foreign bodies, introduced into the bladder through the urethra, the digestive organs, or some accidental wound. In the centre of urinary calculi, fugeons have often met with bullets, splinters of bone, bits of wood, pins, &c. Nor is it necessary for such foreign bodies to be large, in order to produce this effect: a clot of blood, or a little bit of chaff, if not very soon voided, appears to be capable of causing a precipitation of the urinary salts.

That urinary calculi are in many instances originally produced in the kidney, we have the most unequivocal proofs; first, from the severe pain which the passage of such foreign bodies down the ureter always excites; and, secondly, from their being often discovered in the infundibula and pelvis of that viscus after death. This last fact is well illustrated in the first plate of Dr. Marcet's interesting Essay on the Chemical History and Medical Treatment of Calculous Disorders. The engraving is taken from a preparation in the museum of Guy's hospital. In this instance, there were several calculi closely pressed against each other; but, in another example, drawn from a specimen in Mr. Abernethy's museum, the renal concretion was composed of a single mass, which represented a complete cast of the pelvis and part of the infundibula of the kidney. In this form of the disease, the

URINARY CALCULI.

the kidney loses at last all vestiges of its natural structure, and is converted into a kind of cyst, filled with the extraneous substance. As Dr. Marcet observes, when such a complete alteration of structure takes place, the secretion of urine must of course be entirely carried on by the other kidney. This, however, in some instances, is attended with so little inconvenience as almost to escape notice; and it sometimes even happens, that both kidneys are diseased in a very great degree, and yet life is preferred for a considerable time. *Op. cit.* p. 3, 4.

Calculi are sometimes found in the ureters, especially at their upper part; but it is not supposed that they are in general originally formed in that situation; an event not likely to happen, unless there be some cause obstructing or retarding the descent of the urine through those tubes. The common belief is, that all calculi found in the ureters are first produced in the kidneys, from which they afterwards descend in the course of the urine.

The generality of calculi, however, which leave the kidney, are of small size, and consequently, after a time, and exciting some pain and inconvenience, they usually get into the cavity of the bladder. Indeed, as Dr. Marcet remarks, the bladder is the most frequent seat of calculi, not only because all urinary concretions, or their nuclei, formed in the kidneys tend to fall into that organ, but also because a stone may be, and probably often is, originally formed in the bladder itself.

It is, however, in the infundibula and pelvis of the kidney, that the first nuclei of urinary calculi are commonly produced. Renal concretions vary considerably in their number, size, and shape. In some cases, a single small calculus has been found occupying one of the foregoing situations; while, in other instances, an innumerable collection of calculeous substances are observed filling the whole of the cavity of the pelvis and infundibula of the kidney, distending its parietes, and even obstructing the passage of the urine out of this viscus, which is converted into a sort of membranous cyst. Lastly, a single stone in the kidney may acquire a very large size there; or a great number of small calculi, in the same situation, may become cemented together by the deposition of fresh concreting matter between them, so as to form one mass of enormous dimensions, and the shape of which invariably corresponds to the space in which it is, as it were, moulded. Hence it is, that renal calculi often present a variety of odd irregular figures, resembling those commonly observed in specimens of coral.

We have already remarked, that urinary concretions of large size very often exist in the kidney, without their presence being indicated by any external circumstances, or attended with any symptoms, sufficiently unequivocal to constitute a ground for suspecting the importance of their cause. On the other hand, it is very usual for renal calculi, of middling dimensions, to excite serious and alarming complaints. The reason of this difference becomes obvious, when it is recollected that smallish concretions are readily carried with the urine into the ureter, and become fixed in the narrow portion of the tube. But very large calculi can be contained only in the upper part of this canal, where its parietes are more yielding, and the space in them more capacious.

Calculi of middling size, in their passage through the ureter, cause, at first, a feeling of heaviness, or an indeterminate sense of uneasiness, and an obtuse pain in the region of the corresponding kidney. These complaints occur at intervals of greater or less duration. At length, the pain grows more urgent and annoying, attended with flatulence, heartburn, frequent vomiting, painful retraction of the testicle, and sometimes acute fever. The patient makes water

frequently, and in small quantities at a time; and the urine is high-coloured and bloody. The patient cannot sit upright, his body being bent forwards towards the affected side. These symptoms may have more or less duration, and then suddenly cease. They may also subside and recur several times successively, with intervals of some days. In the latter case, the pain is felt at each attack to be situated lower in the track of the ureter. Lastly, when the symptoms have entirely disappeared, the urine is more abundant, not so high-coloured, and easily discharged, the stream sometimes bringing out with it the urinary concretion, which has now entered the bladder.

Suppuration of the kidney, and an abscess in the lumbar region, in consequence of renal calculi, are not very common events. This, however, is the only case of the kind, in which the interposition of surgery can be useful. By advertent to previous circumstances, and the irregularity of the pain about the kidney, the practitioner may suspect the nature of a phlegmonous tumour in the situation of this viscus. Whatever may be his conjectures, however, he must carefully abstain from the use of his lancet, until purulent matter is obviously under the integuments. He may then safely make an opening, from which urine and pus will be discharged, and through which the calculi themselves may sometimes be felt and extracted. If they should not be readily touched with a probe, let not the surgeon rashly conceive, that he is justified in endeavouring to discover them with his knife. Their situation may be such as to baffle all his endeavours, and the operation itself might cause a most dangerous hemorrhage, and other fatal mischief. The opening of an abscess of the kidney may remain a long while fistulous, and the circumstance may indeed warrant the conclusion, that the healing is prevented by the presence of some extraneous substances; but a prudent practitioner will never think of performing any operation for their extraction, before nature has brought them tolerably near to the surface.

Urinary calculi, which form upon foreign bodies accidentally introduced into the bladder, and acting as nuclei, are always single, unless the number of foreign bodies themselves happen to be greater. It is curious also to find, from the observations of Dr. Marcet, that, in such instances, the deposition most frequently, if not always, consists of the earthy phosphates, and especially of the fusible calculus. But when calculi originate from a particular diathesis, there may be many of them lodged in the bladder at the same time. Several distinct nuclei may descend successively from the kidneys, and each may increase in a separate manner. Sometimes, however, calculi in the bladder, which were at first distinct and unconnected, become afterwards cemented together, so as to make only one mass.

The magnitude of calculi in the bladder is generally in an inverse ratio to their number. Some hundreds have been found in one bladder, but they were not larger than a pea. Others of so large a size have been met with, that they were more than six inches in diameter. In Fourcroy's museum, and in that of the Ecole de Médecine at Paris, may be seen some calculi which filled the whole cavity of the bladder; and in the Phil. Trans. for 1809, the late Sir James Earle has described an enormous stone, which he extracted after death from the bladder of a gentleman who had been unsuccessfully cut for it. This calculus weighed three pounds four ounces, and was of an oval shape, its long axis measuring sixteen inches. It was of the fusible kind. Their average size may be compared with that of a chestnut, a walnut, or a small hen's egg. Their weight differs from a few grains to upwards of fifty ounces. Common stones of the bladder, however, weigh from two to six ounces. Their weight is

URINARY CALCULI.

not always proportioned to their size. Substances of different qualities enter into their composition, and diversify their heaviness. Thus, the salts which have filica for their base, and which are very uncommon, render such calculi as contain them the heaviest of all in proportion to their size. On the other hand, some urinary salts crystallize when precipitated: of this kind is the ammoniaco-magnesian phosphate, the crystals of which frequently leave considerable interfaces, which are not filled up by the subsequent precipitations.

The urinary salts, in calculous patients, are not continually precipitated in the same quantities: in some cases, indeed, the process appears to be even suspended for a considerable time. Hence, a stone of middling size, already formed, may increase but very slowly; and it has actually happened, that a calculus, which could be plainly felt with a sound, has remained more than ten years in the bladder, and yet, after all this time, been only of a moderate size.

According to Dr. Marcet, the form of urinary calculi is mostly spheroidal, sometimes egg-shaped, but often flattened on two sides like an almond. P. 50.

Sometimes the calculous matter, which descends from the kidneys, is in the form of minute spherical grains, which have a singular tendency to unite either to each other, or to calculi already lodged in the bladder.

When there are several loose calculi in the bladder together, they seldom lie long in contact with each other, while their size is diminutive, but are incessantly changing their situation as the patient moves about or alters the position of his body. Hence, their increase is at first regular and uniform; but when they have attained a more considerable size, or by their numbers compose a large mass, their relative situation is more permanent, and many of their surfaces, being in this manner usually covered, no longer receive any additional depositions. Every other part of these calculi, however, goes on increasing. It is thus that stones with surfaces corresponding to those of other stones are produced, and which are aptly denominated by the French writers "*pierres à facettes*." This shape necessarily indicates the presence of several calculi. A different form, however, is by no means a certain criterion of the stone being single.

Calculi also occasionally occur which are angular, and sometimes almost cubic; but, as Dr. Marcet observes, this is a rare occurrence. The same physician has likewise given the engraving of a species of calculus which somewhat resembles a pear, with a circular protuberance at its broader end, apparently moulded in the neck of the bladder.

This writer also particularly calls our attention to the variety in the colours and surfaces of calculi, which often afford indications of their chemical nature. "When they have a brownish or fawn colour, somewhat like mahogany wood, with a smooth though sometimes tuberculated surface, they almost always consist of lithic acid. When cut open, they appear to be formed of concentric layers, sometimes homogeneous, sometimes alternating with other substances. The colour, however, cannot be considered as a certain criterion, since other kinds of calculi may often be coloured in the bladder in a similar manner, by bloody mucous or other vitiated secretions.

"When calculi are white, or greyish-white, they always consist of earthy phosphates. This is particularly the case with the species called fusible. And when they are dark-brown or almost black, hard in their texture, and covered with tubercles or protuberances, they are generally of the species which has been distinguished by the name of *mulberry*, and consists of oxalate of lime.

"Calculi have sometimes an uneven crystalline surface,

flushed with shining transparent particles. This appearance always denotes the presence of the ammoniaco-magnesian phosphate." Marcet, p. 52.

A large calculus, especially when it has a rough irregular surface, produces a great deal of irritation of the bladder, which contracts more closely round it. The contact, however, is remarked to be particularly exact at the transverse line, which extends between the terminations of the two ureters in the bladder, a part of this organ which generally becomes more thickened than the rest. Sometimes, indeed, the cavity of the bladder is almost entirely effaced, and the urine can be retained only a very short time, or, if it be not evacuated, it spreads uniformly round the calculus, especially above and below the above-described transverse projection, which is less yielding than other parts of this organ. Hence, the surface of the stone, towards the orifices of the ureters, does not enlarge so fast as the other sides of it, and a circular groove is produced, giving the foreign body the shape of a calabash. Such calculi are generally very large, and sometimes even of enormous size. In the latter circumstance, the foreign body fills the cavity of the bladder so completely, that there is no space left for the lodgment of the urine there, which fluid then generally passes along a sort of groove, situated in a line reaching from the lower termination of the ureter to the neck of the bladder. This state is of course accompanied with a complete incontinence.

Urinary calculi are not always loose and moveable in the cavity of the bladder, being sometimes fixed in various ways to certain points of the circumference of this organ.

1. When a calculus has reached that part of the lower termination of the ureter, which passes obliquely between the coats of the bladder, it may obstruct the inferior orifice of the canal, and produce an accumulation of urine above it. The distention thus arising may lead to the formation of a cavity betwixt the coats of the bladder, where the calculus is lodged. In fact, calculi have sometimes been found fixed in a cavity of this description, the inside of which communicates both with the lower end of the ureter and with the bladder. In such a situation, calculi have also been known to attain a considerable size.

2. It sometimes happens, that an urinary calculus descends to the very bottom of the ureter, and one end of it projects some way into the cavity of the bladder; but the other end cannot disengage itself from the tube. If things remain in this state long, the consequence is, that the stone grows larger at its two extremities, while the part which is closely embraced by the lower termination of the ureter remains much narrower than the rest of the foreign body.

3. Sometimes, in consequence of the distention of the ureter or other causes, the inner membrane of the bladder protrudes between the fasciculi of its muscular coat, in the form of pouches or cysts, which are of different sizes, and occasionally numerous. Small calculi, after getting into these cysts, frequently attain a very large size; and as the inner coat of the bladder more readily yields than the muscular fibres admit of separation, the fundus of such pouches becomes capacious, while their orifice remains of a diminutive size. Hence, a very small part of a stone thus encysted is naked in the cavity of the bladder, and sometimes the whole of the extraneous body is concealed under a sort of moveable fold of the mucous membrane.

4. There are on record very authentic cases, proving that calculi, some of which were of considerable magnitude, have been fixed and lodged in a cavity that consisted of the upper portion of the bladder, separated from the rest of this viscus by a circular contraction. Difficult as it may be to account for such facts, the truth of them is unquestionable.

URINARY CALCULI.

5. The transverse projection of the bladder, between the lower terminations of the ureters, is sometimes so considerable, as to constitute a kind of partition, and divide the inferior part of the bladder into two cavities. From this partition, large fungi have sometimes been found projecting, which materially increased the depth of the two cavities betwixt which it was placed. In these cavities, stones have been observed, which were of course completely separated.

6. Sometimes calculi in the bladder are found to be adherent to the inner surface of this organ. The irritation of the foreign body having excited ulceration, fungi arise, which grow into the cavities and irregularities observable in some urinary calculi, and thus produce a mechanical fort of adhesion.

When the bladder protrudes from the abdomen, so as to form hernia, a stone is occasionally situated in the displaced portion of that viscus. It is a circumstance that has the same effect as the encysted state of a calculus; for the foreign body is thereby fixed, and it cannot be propelled towards the neck of the bladder at the period when the urine is discharged. It should also be known, that in cases of prolapsus of the uterus, when the bladder is drawn downwards, it has sometimes been found to contain a stone at the lowest part of it. The possibility of the complication of a calculus, with such displacements of the bladder, ought to be well remembered, since, if the nature of the case be detected, its treatment becomes materially simplified.

The symptoms of a stone in the bladder have been detailed in the article LITHOTOMY, and we shall therefore not repeat them in the present place. They are all so equivocal, and bear so great a resemblance to the effects of several other disorders, that they cannot be depended upon, and consequently no surgeon will venture to pronounce positively, that there is a calculus in the bladder, unless he can feel it with a sound. (See SEARCHING.) As for the operation, it is always totally unjustifiable, if the surgeon cannot plainly feel the calculus immediately before he begins his incisions.

The causes of the formation of urinary calculi is a subject which is still quite obscure. The conjectures which have been started respecting the effect of particular kinds of food, drink, air, &c. do not appear to rest upon a good foundation. We may lay down the following observations, however, as tolerably correct.

1. If a foreign body be introduced into a cavity, which is naturally a receptacle for the urine, whatever may be the nature of the immersed substance, it is sure to become incruited with the urinary salts, without any change however in its composition. In this case, the observations of Dr. Marcet tend to prove that the concretion mostly, if not always, consists of the earthy phosphates, and particularly of the ammoniaco-magnesian phosphate. In this instance, there is not the least reason for suspecting the operation of any peculiar diathesis in producing the calculus, since the presence of the foreign body, which forms the nucleus for it, would occasion the same consequence in all descriptions of patients.

2. There are some countries where calculi are exceedingly common; others where they are very rare, and yet one cannot explain the difference by any geographical circumstance which is constant, or by any particularity in the constitutions of the inhabitants. Calculi are found to be uncommon both in very cold and very hot countries.

3. When the urinary organs are not much injured, patients with stone may be healthy in every other respect.

4. Subjects, indeed, gifted with the strongest constitutions, are liable to urinary calculi, quite independently of the accidental introduction of any foreign body into the urinary organs. In these cases, the origin of the complaint is to be ascribed to a peculiar diathesis, the nature of which is at present entirely unknown.

5. Women have been thought to be less liable than men to urinary calculi; but yet it is a point which is by no means certain. The question, indeed, still continues thus: Are women in reality less liable than men to urinary calculi? Or do they only suffer less frequently from the disorder in consequence of the facility with which the calculi are generally discharged through the short and capacious canal of the meatus urinarius?

6. Childhood and infancy present numerous instances of urinary calculi; but, according to Delpech, relapses are seldom observed at these periods of life: that is to say, an entirely fresh stone is hardly ever formed again. If a return of the complaint happens, the quickness of the recurrence, and an attentive examination of the calculus, will in general sufficiently prove, either that the stone has formed round a fragment which had not been extracted in the previous operation, or that it was already completely formed at the same period, but inadvertently left behind.

On the subject of the frequency of the stone in children, Dr. Marcet thinks that this is the case only among the poor classes. He remarks, that in the higher ranks, or even in the lowest classes, provided they are well fed, the same frequency is not observed. "In the Foundling Hospital, for instance, within the last twenty-seven years, during which 1151 children have been admitted, only three cases of stone have occurred, all of which were among children while at nurse in the country. And in the Military Asylum at Chelsea, which contains about 1250 children, and into which upwards of 6000 of them have been already admitted, no more than one single case of stone has occurred." See Marcet's Essay on Calculous Disorders, p. 36.

7. Youths and adults are not very commonly troubled with calculi, even though they may have been thus afflicted in their infancy or childhood.

8. Old men are much more liable to the disorder, and in them the disposition to it continues through life. Hence, in such patients, relapses are very frequent. Delpech, Précis Elém. des Mal. Chir. t. ii. p. 193, &c.

Of all the writers who have investigated the causes of urinary calculi, none have interested us so much as Dr. Marcet. This able physician has endeavoured to estimate the comparative frequency of the disease in various countries, and in the different stations of life, and to determine whether its frequency be influenced by varieties of climate or situation, or by peculiarities in our habits and occupations. He instituted inquiries at all the great hospitals of the metropolis, in the hope of getting at some useful records concerning the vast number of patients on whom lithotomy had been performed in those establishments. In London, he found it impossible to obtain all the particulars of such cases, as no entry of them was preserved. The Norwich hospital, however, afforded him some details, which are interesting. All the calculi, which have been extracted in that hospital for the last forty-four years, and which amount to 506, have been carefully preserved, with the circumstances annexed to each stone, and the event of the operation distinctly recorded. Dr. Marcet has given the results of these records in the following table:

Returns

URINARY CALCULI.

Returns of the cafes of lithotomy in the Norfolk and Norwich hospital, from 1772 to 1816, making a period of forty-four years :

	Number of Operations.			Deaths.		
	Children under 14.	Adults.	Total.	Children.	Adults.	Total.
Males	227	251	478	12	56	68
Females	8	20	28	1	1	2
	235	271	506	13	57	70

It appears, says Dr. Marcet, from the above table, that the mean annual number of cafes of lithotomy in the Norwich hospital, during the last forty-four years, has been $11\frac{1}{2}$ or 23 in every two years; and that the total number of fatal cafes in the 506 operations, is 70, or 1 in 7 $\frac{1}{4}$, or 4 in 29. It appears also, that the proportion of females who have undergone the operation is to that of males, as 8 to 1000, or about 1 to 125; that the mortality from the operation in children was only about 1 in 18; while, in adults, it was 4 in 19, or nearly quadruple.

From the year 1772 to 1816, the Norwich hospital has received 18,859 patients of all kinds, making an average of 428 annual admissions; and Dr. Marcet observes, that the proportion of 506 operations of lithotomy, out of 18,859 patients, which corresponds to about 1 in 38, exceeds, in an astonishing degree, that obtained from any of the other public institutions, whose records he examined.

Next to the records of the Norwich hospital, Dr. Marcet derived the most distinct information of this kind from Cheel, who mentions in his work on anatomy, that, during the course of his public practice in St. Thomas's hospital, a period of about twenty years, he had performed the operation of the stone 213 times, and lost only 20 patients. This was about 2 cafes in 21, which is much less than the common average.

In St. Thomas's hospital, during the last ten years, the operation of lithotomy seems to have been done, on an average, 11 times in each two years; and 1 cafe of stone has occurred in each 528 patients admitted.

In St. Bartholomew's, lithotomy was performed 56 times in the years 1812, 1813, 1814, 1815, and 1816. The annual average about 11, or 1 in each 340 patients of all descriptions.

In Guy's hospital, Dr. Marcet has reason to believe that lithotomy has been performed, on an average, about 9 or 10 times annually, during the last 20 or 30 years. The proportion of calculous patients there is also estimated at 1 in about 300 cafes of all kinds.

Dr. Marcet's inquiries incline him to think, that, on the whole, the occurrence of lithotomy in the London hospitals has for some years been gradually diminishing; and this he conceives may be owing partly to a real reduction in the frequency of the stone, from some alteration in the diet or habits of the people; partly to the use of appropriate medicines; and partly to the circumstance of calculous patients not resorting so exclusively, as was formerly the case, to the great London hospitals for the operation.

In the Royal Infirmary at Edinburgh, the average number of stone cafes annually, during the last six years, is said not to have exceeded 20, although about 2000 patients are admitted there every year.

Dr. Marcet has been informed by M. Roux, that in La Charité, at Paris, ten or twelve cafes of stone occur every year out of about 2600 patients; and that the proportion of deaths from the operation there is 1 in 5 or 6.

In the Hôpital des Enfants Malades, in the same city, Dr. Marcet states, on the authority of Dr. Bielt, that about six cafes of stone are received every year into that establishment, where about 3000 children of both sexes are annually admitted. There have been only three cafes in females, and, what is remarkable, only two deaths from the operation, in the course of the last seven years.

Dr. Marcet has been acquainted, that at Vienna lithotomy is comparatively rare, not on account of the want of good surgeons, or the unfrequent occurrence of stone cafes in that part of the continent, but in consequence of the little attention paid to this disease by the most eminent surgeons of the Austrian capital. It is certainly no credit to these practitioners, to find them encouraging Pajola's plan of operating, which is a revival of one form of that barbarous method, the apparatus major. The success which this lithotomist is said to have had is almost incredible, when his way of operating is considered; for he is stated to have performed the operation 550 times with success.

At Geneva, says Dr. Marcet, in a population of 30,000 souls, lithotomy, including both public and private practice, has been performed only thirteen times in the last twenty years, though good surgeons are never wanting in that town to perform the operation, when an opportunity occurs. Out of these thirteen patients, seven were not strictly Genevese, though belonging to the neighbouring districts, and one was an Englishman; so that the disease would, at first sight, appear to be a rare occurrence at Geneva. But, continues Dr. Marcet, if the smallness of the Genevese population be taken into account, this proportion of calculous cafes may not fall very short of that observed in other places. At Lyons, a populous town, which is not more than 80 miles distant from Geneva, the disease is stated to be rather frequent.

In tropical climates, urinary calculi are almost unknown; and, as Dr. Marcet observes, we have, in confirmation of this singular and important fact, the recent statement of Dr. Scott, who, from his long residence in India, and his well-known habits of observation, may be considered as one of the best authorities. Dr. Scott indeed affirms, that, between the tropics, he never met with a single instance of the formation of a stone in the urinary bladder, although he knew of some cafes which had been imported, and which were not cured by climate. See Marcet's Essay on the Chemical History and Medical Treatment of Calculous Disorders, chap. 2. London, 1817.

Urinary calculi are said also to be very uncommon in Spain and Africa. If, however, it be an undoubted fact, that the disorder is rare in hot climates, still it is impossible to offer any rational theory of the circumstance, because the disease is likewise unusual in very cold countries, such as Sweden. See Richerand's Nefographie Chir. tom. iii. p. 528. edit. 4.

With regard to the chemical nature of urinary calculi, there was nothing known until as late a period as 1776, when the celebrated Swedish chemist, Scheele, published a paper on the subject, in the Stockholm Transactions. In this essay, he stated, that all the urinary calculi which he had examined, consisted of a peculiar concrete substance, now well known by the name of the *lithic* or *uric* acid, which he also shewed was soluble in alkaline lixivia. Scheele further discovered, that the lithic matter was in some degree capable

URINARY CALCULI.

capable of being dissolved in cold water; that this solution possessed acid properties, and, in particular, that of reddening litmus; that it was acted upon in a peculiar manner, when boiled in nitric acid; and, lastly, that human urine always contained this substance in greater or less quantity, and often let it separate in the form of a brick-coloured sediment, by the mere effect of cooling.

The discovery made by Scheele was confirmed by Bergmann and Morveau, and the investigation of the subject was afterwards prosecuted by others with redoubled ardour. As professor Murray observes, experiments continued to be repeated and diversified on these concretions, and on their solvents. At length, it was fully ascertained, that there existed others, besides those composed of uric acid; and, lastly, our knowledge of them has been much extended by the researches of Pearson, Wollaston, Fourcroy, and Vauquelin. Several important facts have also been established by the talents and industry of some other distinguished men; viz. Dr. Henry of Manchester, professor Brande of the Royal Institution of London, and Dr. Marcet of Guy's Hospital.

The credit which is due to Dr. Wollaston, for his valuable and original discoveries respecting urinary calculi, is very considerable; a truth which we have particular pleasure in recording here, since his merits have not been fairly appreciated by the French chemists. Indeed, as Dr. Marcet observes, it is the more desirable that his claims should be placed in the clearest point of view, as the late celebrated M. Fourcroy, both in his "*Système des Connoissances Chimiques*," and in his various papers on this particular subject, has, in a most unaccountable manner, overlooked Dr. Wollaston's labours; and in describing results, exactly similar to those previously obtained and published by the English chemist, has claimed them as his own discoveries. Yet Dr. Wollaston's paper was printed in our *Philosophical Transactions* two years before Fourcroy published his memoir in the "*Annales de Chimie*," and three years before he gave to the world his "*Système des Connoissances Chimiques*;" and he discussed in these works a paper of Dr. Pearson on the lithic acid, published in a volume of the *Philosophical Transactions* for 1798, subsequent to that which contained the account of Dr. Wollaston's discoveries. Essay on Calculous Disorders, p. 60; also Murray's *Syst. of Chem.* vol. iv. p. 636. edit. of 1809.

From what has been stated, it appears, then, that Scheele first discovered the nature of those urinary calculi which consist of lithic acid; but that Dr. Wollaston first ascertained the nature of several other kinds, some of which have also been described at a later period by Fourcroy and Vauquelin. On the whole, there are five species of concretions, whose chemical properties were first pointed out by Dr. Wollaston, and no less than four belong to the urinary organs. These are, 1st, Gouty concretions; 2dly, The fusible calculus; 3dly, The mulberry calculus; 4thly, The calculus of the prostate gland; 5thly, The cytic oxyd, which last was discovered in 1810.

Dr. Marcet, in his late ingenious essay, arranges urinary calculi under the following heads:

1. The lithic calculus.
2. The bone-earth calculus, principally consisting of phosphate of lime.
3. The ammoniaco-magnesian phosphate, or calculus in which this triple salt obviously prevails.
4. The fusible calculus, consisting of a mixture of the two former.
5. The mulberry calculus, or that composed of oxalate of lime.

VOL. XXXVII.

6. The cytic calculus, consisting of the substance called by Dr. Wollaston cytic oxyd.

7. The alternating calculus, or concretion composed of two or more different species, arranged in alternate layers.

8. The compound calculus, the ingredients of which are so intimately mixed, as not to be separable without chemical analysis.

9. Calculus of the prostate gland.

Dr. Marcet likewise describes two other specimens, which are not referable to any of the foregoing species.

1. *Lithic or Uric Acid Calculus.*—The lithic acid forms a hard, inodorous concretion, of a yellowish or brown colour, similar to that of wood, of various shades. According to professor Murray, calculi of this kind are in fine, close layers, fibrous, or radiated, and generally smooth on their surface, though sometimes a little rough. They are rather brittle, and have a specific gravity, varying from 1.276 to 1.786, but usually above 1.500. One part of lithic acid is said to dissolve in 1720 parts of cold water, and 1150 parts of boiling water (Marcet, p. 65.); and this solution turns vegetable blues to a red colour. When it has been dissolved in boiling water, small yellowish crystals are deposited as the fluid becomes cold. Lithic acid calculi blacken, but are not melted by the blow-pipe, emitting a peculiar animal smell, and gradually evaporating, until a small quantity of white ash remains, which is alkaline. By distillation, they yield ammonia and prussic acid. They are soluble, in the cold, in a solution of pure potash, or soda; and from the solution, a precipitate of a fine white powder is thrown down by the acids. Lime-water likewise dissolves them, but more sparingly. In solutions of the alkaline carbonates, they remain, according to Scheele, unchanged: according to the experiments of Dr. Egan, however, they are dissolved even by a weak solution, and also when the acid is supersaturated by carbonic acid. (*Trans. of Irish Acad.* 1805.) They are not much acted upon by ammonia. They are not soluble either in the muriatic or sulphuric acid; though they are so in the nitric, when assisted by heat; and the residue of this solution, when evaporated to dryness, assumes a remarkably bright pink colour, which disappears on adding either an acid or an alkali. In many of these calculi, the lithic acid is nearly pure; in others, there is an intermixture of other ingredients, particularly of phosphate of lime, and phosphate of ammonia and magnesia; and, in almost all of them, there is a portion of animal matter, which occasions the smell, when they are burnt, and the loss in their analysis. See Murray's *Chemistry*, vol. iv. p. 640; and Marcet's Essay on the Chem. and Med. Hist. of Calculous Disorders.

2. *Bone-earth, or Phosphate of Lime Calculus.*—The existence of phosphate of lime in urinary calculi had been mentioned by Bergmann and others, when Dr. Wollaston first ascertained that some calculi are entirely composed of it, forming a distinct species of these concretions. From the observations of the last mentioned eminent chemist, it appears that this substance sometimes composes the entire calculus; though, in more common instances, it is mixed with other ingredients, particularly with uric acid, and with phosphate of magnesia and ammonia. In the first case, the calculus is described as being of a pale brown colour, and so smooth as to appear polished. When seen through, it is found very regularly laminated, and the laminae, in general, adhere so slightly to each other, as to separate with ease into concentric crusts. It dissolves entirely, though slowly, in muriatic or nitric acid. Exposed to the flame of the blow-pipe, it is at first slightly charred, but soon becomes perfectly white, retaining its form, until urged with the ut-

URINARY CALCULI.

most heat from a common blow-pipe, when it may be completely fused. It appears to be more fusible than the phosphate of lime, which forms the basis of bone; a circumstance which Dr. Wollaston ascribes to the latter containing a larger quantity of lime. (Phil. Transf. 1797.) Calculi, altogether composed of phosphate of lime, are rather uncommon: with this substance there are usually other ingredients, especially the phosphates of magnesia and ammonia, and lithic acid.

3. *Triple Calculus, or Ammoniac-magnesian Phosphate.*—The existence of this calculus in the intestines of animals was first pointed out by Fourcroy; but its being a constituent part of some urinary calculi of the human subject was originally ascertained by Dr. Wollaston. (Phil. Transf. 1797.) Calculous masses, consisting solely of this substance, are perhaps never met with; but concretions often occur, in which it obviously prevails; and, as Dr. Marcet observes, "this triple salt frequently appears also in the form of minute sparkling crystals, diffused over the surface, or between the intestines of other calculous laminæ. Calculi, in which this triple salt prevails, are generally whiter and less compact than those of the former class. When the blow-pipe is applied, an ammoniacal smell is perceived, the fragment diminishes in size; and if the heat be strongly urged, it ultimately undergoes an imperfect fusion, being reduced to the state of phosphate of magnesia." (P. 69.) Dr. Wollaston describes the form of the crystals of this salt, as being a short triliteral prism, having one angle a right angle, and the other two equal, terminated by a pyramid of three or six sides. These crystals, as Dr. Marcet has explained, are but very sparingly soluble in water, but very readily in most, if not all, the acids; and on precipitation, they reassume the crystalline form. From the solutions of these crystals in muriatic acid, sal ammoniac may be obtained by sublimation. Solutions of caustic alkalies disengage ammonia from the triple salt, the alkali combining with a portion of the phosphoric acid.

4. *The fusible Calculus.*—Mr. Tennant first discovered that this substance was different from the lithic acid, and that, when urged by the blow-pipe, instead of being nearly consumed, a large part of it melted into a white vitreous globule. The nature of the fusible calculus was afterwards more fully investigated and explained by Dr. Wollaston. (Phil. Transf. 1797.) According to the excellent description lately given of this calculus by Dr. Marcet, it is commonly whiter and more friable than any other species. It sometimes resembles a mass of chalk, leaving a white dust on the fingers, and separates easily into layers or laminæ, the interfaces of which are often studded with sparkling crystals of the triple phosphate. At other times, it appears in the form of a spongy and very friable whitish mass, in which the laminated structure is not obvious. Calculi of this kind often acquire a very large size, and they are apt to mould themselves in the contracted cavity of the bladder, assuming a peculiarity of form, which Dr. Marcet has never observed in any of the other species of calculi, and which consists in the stone terminating, at its broader end, in a kind of peduncle, corresponding to the neck of the bladder. The chemical composition of the fusible calculus is a mixture of the triple phosphate and phosphate of lime. These two salts, which, when separate, are infusible, or nearly so, when mixed together and urged by the blow-pipe, easily run into a vitreous globule. The composition of this substance, says Dr. Marcet, may be shewn in various ways. Thus, if it be pulverized, and acetic acid poured upon it, the triple crystals will be readily dissolved, while the phosphate of lime will scarcely be acted upon; after which the muriatic

acid will readily dissolve the latter phosphate, leaving a small residue, consisting of lithic acid, a portion of which is always found mixed with the fusible calculus.

It is an observation made by the same interesting writer, that many of the calculi which form round extraneous bodies in the bladder, are of the fusible kind. The same thing is remarked with respect to the calculous matter sometimes deposited between the prepuce and glans. For many other particulars, respecting the fusible calculus, we refer to Dr. Marcet's Essay and Dr. Wollaston's paper in the Phil. Transf.

5. *Mulberry Calculus, or Oxalate of Lime.*—This is mostly of a dark brown colour, and frequently its interior is grey. Its surface is usually uneven, presenting tubercles more or less prominent, frequently rounded, sometimes pointed, and either rough or polished. It is very hard, difficult to saw, and appears to consist of successive unequal layers. Excepting the few stones which contain a proportion of silica, it is the heaviest of the urinary concretions. Though this calculus has been named *mulberry*, from its resemblance to that fruit, yet, as Dr. Marcet has observed, there are many concretions of this class which, far from having the mulberry appearance, are remarkably smooth and pale-coloured, as may be seen in plate 8, fig. 6. of that gentleman's essay.

According to Mr. Brande, persons who have voided this species of calculus, are much less liable to a return of the complaint, than other patients who discharge lithic calculi. Phil. Transf. 1808.

With regard to chemical characters (says professor Murray), it is less affected by the application of the usual reagents than any other calculus. The pure alkaline solutions have no effect upon it, and the acids dissolve it with great difficulty. When it is reduced, however, to fine powder, both muriatic and nitric acid dissolve it slowly. The solutions of the alkaline carbonates decompose it, as Fourcroy and Vauquelin have observed; and this affords us the easiest method of analysing it. The calculus in powder being digested in the solution, carbonate of lime is soon formed, which remains insoluble, and is easily distinguished by the effervescence produced by the addition of weak acetic acid, while there is obtained in solution the compound of oxalic acid with the alkali of the alkaline carbonate. From this, the oxalic acid may be precipitated by the acetate of lead, or of barytes; and this oxalate, thus formed, may be afterwards decomposed by sulphuric acid. Another method of analysing this calculus is by exposure to heat: its acid is decomposed, and by raising the heat sufficiently, pure lime is obtained, amounting to about a third of the weight of the calculus. According to Fourcroy and Vauquelin, the oxalate of lime calculus contains more animal matter than any other. This animal matter appeared to them to be a mixture of albumen and urée. The composition of a calculus of this species, analysed by Mr. Brande, was oxalate of lime 65 grains, uric acid 16 grains, phosphate of lime 15 grains, animal matter 4 grains.

6. *The Cystic Oxid* was first described by Dr. Wollaston in the Phil. Transf. for 1810. In external appearance, it bears a greater resemblance to the triple phosphate of magnesia, than any other sort of calculus. It is however more compact, and does not consist of distinct laminæ, but appears as one mass confusedly crystallized throughout its substance. It has a yellowish semi-transparency, and a peculiar glittering lustre. Under the blow-pipe, it gives a singularly fetid smell, quite distinct from that of lithic acid, or the smell of prussic acid. Distilled in close vessels, it yields fetid carbonate of ammonia, partly fluid and partly solid, and a heavy fetid oil; and there remains a black spongy coal, which

URINARY CALCULI.

which is much smaller than that left by lithic acid. Water, alcohol, acetic, tartaric, and citric acids, and saturated carbonate of ammonia, can only dissolve a very slight proportion of it. The solvents of it, on the other hand, are numerous; as, for instance, the muriatic, nitric, sulphuric, phosphoric, and oxalic acids; potash, soda, ammonia, and lime-water, and even the neutral carbonates of potash and soda. When, therefore, it is intended to separate it from acids, the neutral carbonate of ammonia is best adapted to the purpose, as it is not capable of redissolving the precipitate even when added in excess; and, for the same reason, the acetic and citric acids are best suited to precipitate it from alkalies.

4. In consequence of the disposition of this species of calculus to unite both with acids and alkalies, in common with other oxyds, and the fact of its also containing oxygen, (as is proved by the formation of carbonic acid in distillation,) Dr. Wollaston named it an oxyd, and the term *cytic* was added from its having been originally found only in the bladder in two examples. Dr. Marcet, however, has subsequently met with no less than three instances of calculi formed of cytic oxyd, all of which were unquestionably of renal origin.

7. *Compound Calculi in distinct Layers.*—Lithic strata frequently alternate with layers of oxalate of lime, or with the phosphates. Sometimes also the mulberry alternates with the phosphates, and, in a few instances, three or even four species of calculi occur in the same stone disposed in distinct concentric laminae. For specimens of these facts, we refer to Dr. Marcet's interesting essay, in which varieties of such calculi are correctly delineated and coloured.

8. *Compound Calculi with their Ingredients intimately mixed.*—Under this title, Dr. Marcet comprehends certain calculi, which have no characteristic feature, by which they can be considered as distinctly belonging to any of the other classes. He observes, that they may sometimes be recognized by their more or less irregular figure, and their less determined colour, by their being less distinctly if at all stratified, and by their often possessing a considerable hardness. By chemical analysis confused results are obtained. See Marcet's Essay on the Chem. and Med. Hist. of Calc. Disorders, p. 90.

9. *Calculi of the Prostate Gland.*—The composition of these calculi is said to have been first explained by Dr. Wollaston. (See Phil. Transf. for 1797.) They all consist of phosphate of lime, the earth not being redundant as in bones. Their size varies from that of a pin's head to that of a hazel-nut. Their form is more or less spheroidal, and they are of a yellowish-brown colour.

Fourcroy has described a species of urinary calculus, which is characterized by its being composed of the urate of ammonia. Dr. Wollaston, Mr. Brande, and Dr. Marcet have not, however, satisfactorily ascertained the presence of this substance in any of the concretions which they have examined. It is also to be recollected, that urea and the triple phosphate, both of which afford ammonia, are frequently present in lithic calculi, and they may have given rise to the analytical results from which the existence of urate of ammonia has been inferred. Brande in Phil. Transf. 1808. Marcet's Essay, p. 93.

Dr. Marcet has met with two specimens of urinary calculi entirely different from any which have hitherto been noticed. One of these he proposes to name *xanthic oxyd*, from *ξανθος*, yellow, because one of its most characteristic properties is that of forming a lemon-coloured compound, when acted upon by nitric acid. The chemical properties of the other new calculus, mentioned by Dr. Marcet, cor-

respond to those of fibrine, and he therefore suggests the propriety of distinguishing it by the term *fibrinous*. For a particular description of these new substances, we refer to this gentleman's essay.

In addition to the remarks which have been offered in the article LITHOTOMY, on the subject of lithotropic medicines, we mean to say very little in the present place. Whoever studies the chemical properties of the urine will learn, that "if any alkali (a few drops of ammonia for instance) be added to recent urine, a white cloud appears, and a sediment, consisting of phosphate of lime, with some ammoniac-magnesian phosphate, subides, in the proportion of about two grains of the precipitate from four ounces of urine. Lime-water produces a precipitate of a similar kind, which is still more copious; for the lime, in combining with the excess of phosphoric, and perhaps also of lactic acid, not only precipitates the phosphate of lime which these acids held in solution, but it decomposes the other phosphates, thus generating an additional quantity of the phosphate of lime, which is also deposited.

"If, on the contrary (says Dr. Marcet), a small quantity of any acid, either the phosphoric, the muriatic, or, indeed, even common vinegar, be added to recent healthy urine, and the mixture be allowed to stand for one or two days, small reddish-crystalline particles of lithic acid will be gradually deposited on the inner surface of the vessel.

"It is on these two general facts, that our principles of chemical treatment ultimately rest. Whenever the lithic secretion predominates, the alkalies are the appropriate remedies, and the acids, particularly the muriatic, are the agents to be resorted to, when the calcareous or magnesian salts prevail in the deposit." P. 147, 148.

It is a fact perfectly well ascertained, that the alkalies taken into the stomach reach the urinary passages through the medium of the circulation; and it is also strongly suspected, that the acids likewise do so, though this circumstance may not be so well proved. Unfortunately, the quantity of either alkalies or acids, which thus mixes with the urine, is so small, that no impression is made upon calculi of magnitude. The experience of Dr. Marcet and others, however, has clearly ascertained that such medicines are often capable of checking a tendency to the formation of stone, and sometimes of bringing on a calculous deposit depending upon the altered state of the system. This writer, indeed, expresses his decided opinion, that even supposing not an atom of alkali or acid ever reached the bladder, still it would not be unreasonable to expect that these remedies may respectively produce the desired changes during the first stages of assimilation, in one case by neutralizing any morbid excess of acid in the primæ viæ, and in the other by checking a tendency to alkalescence, or otherwise disturbing those affinities which, in the subsequent processes of assimilation and secretion, give rise to calculous affections. P. 153.

When muriatic acid is prescribed, from five to twenty-five drops may be given two or three times a day, diluted with a sufficient quantity of water.

The best way of taking the alkalies is by drinking soda-water as a common beverage. It is asserted, however, on the authority of sir G. Blane, that when the alkalies are combined with citric acid, as in the ordinary saline draught, they also have the effect of depriving the urine of its acid properties.

Dr. Marcet, with every appearance of probability, refers to carbonic acid itself no solvent power, and he does not even adopt Mr. Brande's opinion, that this acid passes into the urine, when patients drink fluids which are impregnated with it.

Sir E. Home and Mr. Hatchett first suggested the utility of giving magnesia in cases of stone, and the proposal was communicated to the public by Mr. Brande. (Phil. Transf. 1810.) It is, as Dr. Marcet observes, often found advantageous in long protracted cases, in which the constant use of the subcarbonated or caustic alkalies would injure the stomach. But, he properly remarks, that if magnesia is sometimes beneficial, it has of late years often done harm. For, as this earth is the base of one of the most common species of calculi, the ammoniaco-magnesian phosphate, there is nearly an even chance, when magnesia is prescribed, without any previous knowledge of the nature of the calculus, that it will prove injurious. Magnesia also, when obstinately administered, sometimes forms large masses in the intestinal canal, causing serious distress, and even fatal consequences.

According to Dr. Prout, purgatives will sometimes stop calculous depositions, especially in children; and Dr. Henry, of Manchester, has observed, that a quack medicine, composed of turpentine and opium, will occasionally produce a plentiful discharge of lithic acid from the bladder.

For many of the foregoing observations, we are indebted to Dr. Marcet's interesting Essay on the Chemical and Medical Treatment of Calculous Disorders, London, 1817. Some other remarks on injections, as a means of dissolving calculi in the bladder, and on lithontriptics in general, will be found in the article LITHOTOMY.

URINARY Fistule. See FISTULE in Perineo, and URINARY Abscesses.

URINARY Passage. See URETHRA.

URINE, in *Physiology*, the fluid secreted by the kidney. See KIDNEY.

URINE, *Bloody*. See HÆMATURIA.

URINE, *Incontinence of*. An incontinence of urine is when this fluid comes away from the patient involuntarily, without his having any power of retaining it. The disorder is one to which children are particularly liable; adults are less frequently afflicted with it; and it is a case which seldom occurs in persons of very advanced years. The latter assertion, as Default remarks, must appear erroneous to those who frequently meet with old persons unable to retain their urine, were it not well ascertained, that patients often mistake for an incontinence of urine the overflowing of this fluid out of the urethra, in cases of retention, of which that occurrence is only a symptom. There are even some surgeons, says Default, who imbibe this popular error, and seem unaware that an involuntary discharge of urine may exist together with a retention, and be the effect of it, as is generally the case in such retentions as depend upon weakness and paralysis of the bladder. In these instances, the distended fibres of this viscus react upon the urine which then issues from the urethra, until the resistance of the sphincter and of the canal is in equilibrium with the expelling power. Sometimes the urine even dribbles away incessantly, which happens whenever the action of the bladder has been completely destroyed; for, in this state, this viscus being constantly full, cannot receive any more of the urine that is brought to it by the ureters, unless an equal quantity at the same time escape through the urethra. This is a case which will more properly fall under consideration in the article URINE, *Retention of*, and we need not therefore dwell upon it at present.

The causes of an incontinence of urine, properly so called, are diametrically different from those of a retention. The latter case happens whenever the bladder becomes weak, and the resistance in the urethra increased. An incontinence, on the other hand, arises either from the expelling power of the bladder being augmented, while the resistance in the urethra

is not proportionably increased; or from the resistance being lessened, while the expelling force remains unchanged. According to these principles, it is easy to explain why the disorder should be most common in children. At this age, it is well known that there is more irritability than at any other period of life. It is also well known that the expulsion of the urine is entirely effected by muscular action, while the resistance is merely owing to the sphincter vesicæ, the levatores ani, and perhaps to a few other inconsiderable fasciculi of muscular fibres; for the different curvatures of the urethra, and the contractile power of this tube itself, can make but a passive and feeble resistance to the issue of the urine. An incontinence happens in children, because the bladder contracts so suddenly and forcibly, that its contents are voided almost before these young subjects are aware of any desire to make water, and without their being able to restrain the evacuation. There are also many children who, from indolence or carelessness, do not make water immediately the first calls of nature incite them, and who afterwards, being urgently pressed, wet their clothes. In other young subjects, the sensation which makes the bladder contract, and accompanies the expulsion of the urine, is so slight, that the function is performed without any formal act of the will, without even exciting an impression sufficiently strong to disturb sleep. This is the case with such children as are troubled only with an incontinence of urine in the night-time. Increasing years, by diminishing the irritability of the bladder, and making man more attentive to his necessities, usually bring about a cure of the infirmity, which seldom continues till the patient has attained the adult state.

It must not be supposed, however, that no period of life excepting childhood can be afflicted with the complaint. Other ages are also liable; but then the disorder almost always depends upon a defect of resistance to the issue of the urine, and it may be occasioned by weakness, or paralysis of the sphincter vesicæ, or levatores ani; sometimes, also, by a forcible dilatation of the urethra, and loss of its elasticity. Frequently all these causes are at the same time concerned.

A calculus, a fungus, or any other extraneous body of an irregular shape, may be fixed in the neck of the bladder, and not accurately filling it, may allow the urine to escape at the sides; or the foreign body may even form sorts of channels, through which the fluid passes.

Frequently, also, a violent contusion or forcible distention of the sphincter is followed by an incontinence of urine. The complaint used to be very common formerly after the mode of lithotomy called the apparatus major; and it is even at present not an unusual consequence of the extraction of calculi from females by the dilatation of the meatus urinarius. (See LITHOTOMY.) The neck of the bladder and the urethra are forcibly distended in these operations, and, consequently, they lose their contractile power, continue dilated, and no longer duly oppose the escape of the urine.

Women who have had difficult labours, and in whom the child's head, by compressing the neck of the bladder, has seriously contused and weakened this part, are also subject to a species of incontinence of urine; which, however, is in general only experienced when they laugh, or make any considerable exertion.

Most authors, who have treated of incontinence of urine, have related, that persons afflicted with palsy and apoplexy are very liable to the complaint. But, as we have already explained, they have here mistaken what the French surgeons aptly call the "retention d'urine avec regorgement," for an incontinence. In this sort of case, the same writers have attributed the involuntary discharge of the urine to paralysis

of the sphincter of the bladder; but they have not remembered that the bladder itself also participates in the paralytic affection; for the sphincter not being a particular muscle, but only a fasciculus of fleshy fibres, formed, as Default observes, by the junction of those which compose the inner layer of the muscular coat of the bladder, it can only be weakened in the same degree, and at the same time, as the rest of this organ. Besides, says Default, we have proved, and all physiologists admit the fact, that the action of the bladder is absolutely necessary for the expulsion of the urine, and that an inert condition of this viscus is always followed by a retention.

An incontinence of urine is not attended with so much danger as a retention. It is, however, a most afflictive infirmity to a person obliged to mix with society: his clothes being continually wet with urine, the stench which he carries about with him is equally an annoyance to himself, and every body else who approaches him.

An incontinence of urine in children usually gets well of itself as they grow up. When they wet their beds really from idleness and carelessness, moderate chastisement may be proper, inasmuch as the fear of correction will make them pay more attention to the earliest sensations of the desire to make water. We fear, however, that this doctrine is carried to rather an unjustifiable extent, particularly in schools; and, at all events, punishment in such cases should never be severe, as, in ninety cases out of a hundred, the disorder is a true infirmity, arising from the causes already indicated, and not from indolence; the supposed crime taking place, in fact, when the child is asleep, and unconscious of what is happening.

When an incontinence of urine depends upon an excessive irritability, in which state the bladder is forced to contract by a very small quantity of urine in it, and involuntarily overcome the resistance of the urethra, an endeavour should be made to lessen such irritability by the use of the warm or cold bath, sea-bathing, mucilaginous drinks, &c. If the accident should happen only in the night-time, the child should not take any drink for some time before being put to bed; should empty the bladder before going to sleep; and, if necessary, be taken up in the night to do the same thing again.

When the incontinence depends on a want of action in the parts producing the resistance in the urethra, tonics may be externally and internally employed. They seldom succeed, however, when the disorder is of long standing. In this circumstance, palliative means must be resorted to; viz. instruments calculated to compress the urethra, and intercept the passage of the urine. This object is more difficult to accomplish in women than men; but it may be done by means of an instrument which consists of an elastic hoop, which goes round the pelvis, and from the middle of which, in front, a curved elastic piece of steel descends, and terminates in a small compress, which is contrived to cover accurately the orifice of the meatus urinarius. See *Œuvres Chir. de Default, par Bichat, t. iii. p. 95, &c.*

The application of blisters to the sacrum has often proved very effectual in curing incontinence of urine, both when the complaint seemingly arose from excessive irritability of the bladder, or from paralysis and loss of tone in this organ, and the parts which naturally resist the expulsion of the urine from it. The reader will find some very interesting cases of this kind in the Medical Observations and Inquiries.

URINE, Retention of. When, from any particular cause, the urine cannot be discharged from the bladder through the urethra, it accumulates in that receptacle, which it gradually distends sometimes even to an incredible magnitude.

The disease has been described by the ancients under the generic name of *ischuria*. Certain writers make a distinction between this disorder and other cases, to which they apply the terms *dysury* and *strangury*; while others have considered these last only as different kinds of retention of urine. Some surgeons always mean by *dysury* the case in which the urine is discharged with great pain and difficulty; and by the word *strangury*, the example in which the evacuation can be made only by drops; while they restrict *ischuria* to the form of the disease in which no urine at all can be voided. Default very justly imputed this variety in the symptoms to different degrees of the same disease, and he therefore, with much propriety, preferred the division into the *complete* and *incomplete retentions of urine*.

As Mr. Hey has observed, the distinction which has sometimes been made between a *suppression* and *retention* of urine, is practical and judicious. The former most properly points out a defect in the secretion of the kidneys; the latter an inability of expelling the urine when secreted. We also like the following simple and plain definition: "The disease (says he), of which I am speaking, under the term *retention of urine*, is an inability, whether total or partial, of expelling by natural efforts the urine contained in the bladder." *Pract. Obs. in Surgery, p. 389. edit. 2.*

When the urine is retained in the bladder, the parietes of this organ suffer from distention, and after the tone of its muscular fibres has been strained, it can make only a feeble resistance to its further dilatation, and sometimes it becomes of considerable size. In an infant a year and a half old, it has been known to contain a pint of urine; and in adults, six or seven pints. The bladder, thus distended, has been found to fill not only the cavity of the pelvis, but to rise up into the abdomen higher than the navel. It has sometimes been observed to extend itself even through the abdominal rings, so as to constitute a scrotal rupture; or under the crural arch into the groin. Such elongations of the bladder, it is true, are not very common; yet many instances of them are recorded in the Memoirs of the French Academy of Surgery. In ordinary cases of retention of urine, the natural shape of the bladder does not undergo any material change; but still all its dimensions do not increase in the same proportion. It spreads more from below upward than in any other direction. Its inferior portion becomes broader, and more deeply situated, pressing downwards and forwards the perineum; and propelling, in women, the vagina backwards; or, in the male subject, the rectum. In these latter tubes, it forms a swelling, which either completely or partially obstructs them, and interrupts the passage of the feces through the rectum. The posterior part of the bladder, which is covered by the peritoneum, lifts upward and backward the mass of small intestines, and rises into the cavity of the belly. The extreme part of its fundus mounts above the os pubis, and, as it were, insinuates itself between the peritoneum, which it raises, and the abdominal muscles. Indeed, the anterior and superior portion of the bladder forms a swelling in the hypogastric region, and is in actual contact with the recti and transversales muscles, with which it is connected by means of a loose cellular substance. The knowledge of this last disposition of the parts is of great importance to the surgeon, since it leads him to understand, that the bladder admits of being punctured, without any danger of wounding the peritoneum, and causing an extravasation of urine. It is not uncommon (says Default) to find in bladders, which have suffered such distention, cells or pouches often containing calculi, and situated between the fasciculi of fleshy fibres. See *URINARY Calculi*.

When the urine has distended the bladder to the utmost, and the obstruction in the urethra continues unremoved, that fluid next collects in the ureters, which in their turn become dilated. The sort of valve which covers their termination in the bladder disappears, and the opening, by which each of these tubes communicates with this receptacle, sometimes becomes nearly an inch in diameter. As the disorder advances, no more urine can at length descend from the kidneys, and the secretion is totally suppressed.

To the well-informed surgeon, the diagnosis of a retention of urine is generally attended with no difficulty; but the case is far otherwise to the man whose experience and attention to the subject have been very circumscribed. What Default has called the *rational* symptoms are numerous; but yet most of them are of an equivocal nature: as, for instance, the stoppage of the discharge of urine for one or several days; its evacuation by drops, or in very small quantities at a time; continual inclination to make water; the efforts which precede the performance of this function; the desire which the patient still feels to empty the bladder, after he has voided nearly as much urine as in the natural state; a diminution either of the force, or stream of the urine; a sensation of weight about the perineum, tenesmus, constipation, hemorrhoids. To these symptoms are to be added, acute pain in the hypogastric region, extending along the urethra to the extremity of the glans penis, and afterwards towards the kidneys, sometimes attended with stupor and numbness of the thighs. The pain is rendered much worse when the patient walks about, coughs, or keeps himself in an erect position; and it is lessened when he bends his body forward, and relaxes the muscles of the abdomen. Lastly, we have to join to the foregoing symptoms, fever, nausea, laborious respiration, and perspiration, that is said to possess a decided urinary odour.

All these *rational* symptoms, as they were denominated by Default, are vague and uncertain. The whole of them together can only afford more or less probable conjectures respecting the existence of a retention of urine. The certainty of the thing can never be made out, unless there be combined with the preceding description of complaints an obvious and manifest tumour, formed by the bladder, not only above the pubes, but likewise in the rectum of the male, and in the vagina of the female subject. The swelling above the os pubis varies considerably in its size. Sometimes it reaches above the navel. It is circumscribed, and unattended with any alteration in the colour of the skin, or any hardness at its circumference. It is more expanded below than above, elastic, and free from tenderness; except it be pressed upon with force, and then the propensity to make water is increased, and sometimes a few drops are even urged out of the urethra.

The swelling in the rectum or vagina is readily discovered by manual examination. It is situated only at the anterior side of these cavities; and, like the hypogastric tumour, it is every where elastic, equal, and free from any particular indurations.

Another pathognomonic symptom, deserving the utmost attention of the practitioner, is the fluctuation, or rather the sort of undulation, which is perceptible on alternately pressing upon both the swellings. These, however, do not constantly exist; for, as Default remarks, retentions of urine, even of the most complete kind, have been known to occur, where the bladder, not being very extensible, hardly contained a few spoonfuls of urine.

Mr. Hey has not adverted to the swelling in the rectum, or vagina; nor to the cases of contracted bladder, where, of course, the information derived in ordinary instances from

the tumour above the pubes, could not be acquired; but, in other respects, his observations on the diagnosis are practical and correct. According to this experienced writer, the characteristic symptom of a retention of urine, previous to the introduction of the catheter, is a distention of the bladder (to be perceived by an examination of the hypogastrum), after the patient has discharged all the urine which he is capable of expelling.

"As this complaint may subsist when the flow of urine from the bladder is by no means totally suppressed, great caution is required to avoid mistakes on this subject.

"Violent efforts to make water are often excited at intervals; and during these straining, small quantities of urine are expelled. Under these circumstances, the disorder may be mistaken for the strangury.

"At other times, a morbid retention of urine subsists, when the patient can make water with a stream, and discharge a quantity equal to that which is commonly discharged by a person in health. Under this circumstance, I have known the pain in the hypogastrum, and distention of the bladder, continue till the patient was relieved by the catheter.

"And, lastly, it sometimes happens that, when the bladder has suffered its utmost distention, the urine runs off by the urethra as fast as it is brought into the bladder by the ureters. I have (says Mr. Hey) repeatedly known this circumstance cause a serious misapprehension of the true nature of the disease.

"In every case of retention of urine which I have seen, the disease might be ascertained by an examination of the hypogastrum, taken in connection with the other symptoms. The distended bladder forms there a hard and circumscribed tumour, giving pain to the patient when pressed with the hand. Some obscurity may arise upon the examination of a very corpulent person; but in all doubtful cases, the catheter should be introduced." *Pract. Obs.* p. 389.

A retention of urine is always a serious disease, and when it is complete, it demands the most prompt succour. When relief is too long deferred, the consequences are truly afflictive; for, when the bladder continues for a time preternaturally distended, it loses its contractile power, which it recovers with difficulty. Irritated also by the quantity, and perhaps by the quality of the confined fluid, it soon becomes affected with inflammation and gangrenous mischief.

Sometimes the bladder bursts, and the urine is extravasated in the cellular membrane of the pelvis; spreading behind the peritoneum as far up as the loins; producing swellings in the perineum; and becoming effused also in the scrotum, common integuments of the penis, and upper part of the thighs. Indeed, as Default remarks, the urine has sometimes been known to be effused in the parietes of the abdomen, as far up as the sides of the chest, producing gangrenous abscesses and fistulae of the parts. To these evils are to be added others, arising from the total interruption of the secretion of urine, and from the absorption of a part of that which is confined in the bladder.

In the treatment of every retention of urine, there are two principal indications. The first is to give speedy issue to this fluid, in order to prevent the foregoing disastrous consequences; the second is to obviate the causes which prevent its expulsion from the bladder. At present we shall consider only the first of these indications, as the second can be more appropriately treated of when we come to notice the various causes of the complaint.

The urine is commonly let out of the bladder by the introduction of an instrument termed a catheter. Default considers this operation in two points of view; first, when the urethra

urethra is unobstructed, and the instrument can be introduced without resistance; and, secondly, when there exists an impediment to its introduction. As the history of these obstacles cannot be separated from that of the causes of the disorder, we shall follow Default, and now only take into consideration the operation of introducing the catheter when the urethra is pervious. What ought to be the conduct of the surgeon under other circumstances will be noticed hereafter.

With respect to catheters, three things are to be considered: 1, the instrument itself; 2, the manner of introducing it; and, 3, the line of conduct to be pursued after its introduction.

Catheters were anciently composed of copper: Celsus knew of no other kind. As these, however, had the inconvenience of becoming incruusted with verdigrease, they at length fell into disuse, and others, made of silver, were substituted for them. This change had been made as early as the time of the Arabian practitioners, and it still receives the approbation of the best modern surgeons.

Catheters vary considerably in their length. For an adult female subject, they should be about six inches long; and for young girls, four or five. For grown-up men, the length ought to be about ten inches and a half; and for male children and boys, six or eight inches. These are the ordinary lengths. There is also much diversity in the size or thickness of the instrument. For a woman, the diameter ought to be about two lines; and for young girls, a line and a half. For male adult subjects, Default recommends the thickness of two lines and one-third; and for boys, that of a line and a half. In general, whenever the urethra is pervious, it is better to follow the advice of Default, and employ a largish catheter, which will enter the passage more easily, not get entangled in the folds of the membranous lining of the canal, and afford a more ready outlet for the urine. On the other hand, small catheters should be preferred, when there are obstructions and indurations in the passage.

Catheters also differ in shape. Those which Default used had only a slight curvature of one-third of their length; a curvature which began insensibly from their straight part, and continued to their beaks inclusively. The curvature was also regular, so as to form the segment of a circle six inches in diameter. The female catheter, however, had only a slight curvature towards its beak; a shape which is adapted to the direction of the meatus urinarius. Default also improved silver catheters, by causing them to be made with elliptical openings at the sides of the beak, with rounded edges, instead of the longitudinal slits, which were previously constructed. The inconvenience of these slits had been acknowledged by every practitioner in surgery; the lining of the urethra having been frequently entangled in them, pinched and lacerated, which produced acute pain, and sometimes profuse hemorrhage. With a view of preventing these evils, Default also was careful to fill the elliptical openings with lard, which could not fall into the hollow of the catheter, as an elastic gum bougie was passed into the cavity of the instrument, in order to hinder the occurrence, and was not withdrawn before the end of the catheter was actually in the bladder. See *Œuvres Chir. de Default*, t. iii. p. 118, &c.

Besides silver, or inflexible catheters, surgeons now frequently employ flexible catheters, made of elastic gum. These last instruments, indeed, are of so much importance, that they may be said to constitute one of the greatest improvements in modern surgery. They are stated to have been originally invented by a Frenchman of the name of

Bernard. Imperfect attempts, however, had been made by others, at an earlier period, to invent catheters possessing the property of flexibility. Van Helmont proposed the use of catheters made of horn; but this substance was found to be too stiff, and to become very quickly incruusted with depositions from the urine. Fabricius ab Aquapendente recommended the employment of flexible catheters made of leather; but these were objectionable, as they were very soon softened by the urine and mucus of the urethra, so that they shrivelled up, and were rendered impervious. There were also other flexible catheters, formerly tried, which were composed of spiral springs of silver wire, covered with the skins of particular animals. These last were found to spoil very quickly, in consequence of putrefaction; and when left in the urethra any time, the beak was sometimes entirely separated from the rest of the instrument, and left behind.

The elastic gum catheters now in use are liable to none of the preceding inconveniences. They are formed of silk tubes expressly woven for the purpose, and covered with a coat of elastic gum. They are sufficiently flexible to accommodate themselves to the different curvatures of the urethra; they are not softened by the urine, and they constantly remain with their cavity unobliterated. Their smooth and polished surface makes them continue a long while free from incrustations of the urine. Sometimes they are introduced without a file or wire, which is passed into their canal, for the purpose of giving them a certain curvature, and greater degree of firmness. This plan is adopted when the catheter will not pass with the file; but, in general, the file is employed and withdrawn as soon as the tube is in the bladder.

There are two methods of introducing a catheter; *viz.* with the concavity turned towards the abdomen; or, on the other hand, with the concavity of the instrument turned downwards in the first stage of the operation. The latter plan of course requires the instrument to be turned as soon as its beak has arrived in the perineum; and, consequently, the French surgeons distinguish this method by the name of the "*tour de maître*." The operation of introducing a catheter, or catheterism, as it is sometimes termed, may be practised either when the patient is sitting up or lying down: the last position, however, is accounted the most favourable. When the catheter is introduced, with its concavity turned upward, and the patient is in the recumbent posture, the thighs are to be separated, and the legs moderately bent. The surgeon is to draw back the prepuce, and to hold the penis between the thumb and fore-finger of his left hand, which are to be applied on each side of the corona glandis, and not at all to the under surface of the penis; as this would press upon the urethra, and obstruct the entrance of the catheter. The handle of the instrument being now held parallel to the axis of the body, its beak is to be introduced into the urethra. While the penis is extended and drawn forward, as it were, over the catheter, the latter instrument is to be gently pushed on, until its beak has arrived as far as the arch of the pubes. At this particular moment, the handle is to be depressed towards the patient's thighs, and the manœuvre, well managed, generally at once directs the end of the catheter, through the prostatic portion of the urethra, into the cavity of the bladder.

When the catheter is to be introduced with its concavity turned downwards, or by the "*tour de maître*," the beak of it is to be passed into the urethra, and the penis drawn forwards over it, as it were, just as in the foregoing method. As soon, however, as the end of the catheter has reached the point at which the canal begins to form a curve under the pubes, the surgeon is to make the penis and the instrument

ment perform a semicircular movement, by inclining them towards the opposite groin, and thence towards the abdomen. In the execution of this manœuvre, care is to be taken to keep the beak of the catheter stationary, so that it may be the centre of the movement, and simply revolve upon itself. The handle of the instrument is then to be depressed, and the operation finished exactly in the same manner as when the other mode is pursued.

As Default properly observes, the only circumstance in which the two methods differ is, that, in one, the same thing is performed by two movements, which is done in the other by one; so that the operation is protracted, and rendered more difficult and painful. Hence, the majority of good surgeons never practise the "*tour de maître*," except when their patients are either corpulent, or placed in the position usually chosen for lithotomy, when the other mode of introducing the catheter would be less convenient.

When the urethra is free from obstruction, an experienced surgeon can generally succeed in introducing a catheter into the bladder, without any difficulty or force. But this operation, which is so easy to surgeons accustomed to it, frequently proves extremely difficult to young practitioners, who, instead of guiding the instrument in the course of the urethra, create obstacles by pressing its beak against the parietes of this canal, or entangling the instrument in folds of its membranous lining. When this happens, it must be withdrawn a little, in order to be pushed on again, with its direction somewhat altered. If this second attempt should not answer better than the first, and the catheter should be stopped in the perineum, the surgeon must apply his fingers to the latter part, in order to discover towards which side the beak of the catheter has deviated, and to guide it properly as it passes further.

When the catheter cannot be got through the portion of the urethra, which is contiguous to the rectum, the forefinger ought to be introduced into the bowel, for the purpose of supporting the end of the instrument, and rendering the coats of the intestine somewhat tense, by drawing them a little downward and forward. If all these expedients should fail, the catheter should be changed for one of larger or smaller size, or of another curvature. A gum elastic catheter ought also to be tried, without the silet. In no case, however, is it justifiable to push forward the catheter with much force, lest the urethra should be lacerated, and a false passage produced.

The depth to which the catheter has entered, the cessation of any feeling of resistance to the motions of the beak, when revolved upon its axis, and the issue of the urine, are the circumstances by which the surgeon knows that the instrument has passed into the bladder.

According to the experience of Default, the practice of letting out gradually only a part of the urine, after the catheter has been introduced, is on every account wrong and detrimental. He also disapproves of running into the opposite extreme, that is to say, of letting the urine flow out of the bladder, through a catheter, as fast as it arrives in this receptacle: as, by the last practice, the bladder is constantly kept in a state of relaxation, its fibres cannot recover their proper tone. When also the bladder is continually empty, it comes into contact with the end of the catheter; a circumstance which has sometimes caused considerable irritation, pain, and even ulceration of that viscus. Besides these inconveniences, there are other objections: the catheter becomes sooner obstructed with mucus, and covered with incrustations, than when it is clofed with the silet. The patients are likewise compelled to remain in bed, where they are either wet with their urine, or obliged to have in-

cessantly a pot for its reception. The best practice, therefore, seems to be that of letting out all the urine, as soon as the catheter is introduced, and then clofing the instrument until the bladder has become moderately distended again. Experience proves, that such moderate distention and relaxation of the muscular fibres of the bladder, alternately kept up, have the same good effects on the organ, as moderate exercise has upon other parts of the body.

When an elastic gum catheter is used, care must be taken that it does not pass unnecessarily far into the bladder; and if it be too long, a part of it ought to be cut off.

When a catheter is to be left in the urethra, it should always be properly fixed with a narrow piece of tape, or else it is apt to slip out, or sometimes even to pass too far down the passage. Some surgeons use cotton thread for this purpose: they first fasten it to the rings, or round the outer portion of the catheter, and then carry its two ends some way along the dorsum of the penis, when a sort of noose is made, and the thread carried round the part and tied. When a silver catheter is employed, a tape or narrow ribbon is passed through each of the rings, and conveyed to the right and left side of the pelvis, where it may be fastened to a circular bandage. But there are numerous methods of fixing, which need not be specified; for, although they are of importance, the principles, which ought to be observed in adopting them, are the main things to be understood. These are, first, never to fix a catheter in such a way, that too much of the instrument projects into the cavity of the bladder; and, secondly, to be careful that the thread, or tape, which is applied, will not chafe and irritate the parts.

Having premised these general observations on the chief indication in cases of retention of urine, *viz.* that of giving issue to this fluid, we next follow Default, in order to consider the particular modifications to which the indication is liable; a subject which cannot be comprehended, without treating also of the causes of the disease.

1. *Of the Retention of Urine to which Persons of advanced Age are liable.*—Old men are so frequently afflicted with retention of urine, that the disorder is generally allowed to be one of the grievances to which their period of life is particularly exposed. The bladder, like the rest of the body, becoming less irritable, is no longer duly stimulated by the presence of the urine, and is only apprised of the necessity of emptying itself by the painful sensation arising from the distention of its coats. It then contracts; but, to use Default's expression, its elongated fibres have hardly force enough to overcome the natural reaction opposed to them by the canal of the urethra. There is almost an equilibrium betwixt the power and the resistance, and the urine could not flow out, if it were not for the assistance derived from the powerful action of the abdominal muscles. Nor is the expulsion of the urine even now complete, since the bladder no longer retains sufficient contractile power to efface the whole of its cavity. Some drops of the urine, after each evacuation, are still left undischarged, and already constitute an incipient retention. The quantity daily augments, and the fibres of the bladder becoming habituated to the presence of the urine, it happens at length that, at each evacuation, not more than half the fluid contained in this organ is actually voided.

According to the observations of Default, all old men are not equally liable to the complaint. It particularly attacks those who are of a phlegmatic temperament, plethoric, and of sedentary and studious habits. It also especially afflicts those who, from carelessness or indolence, do not give themselves time to expel the last drops of urine; and others,

others, who make a practice of voiding their urine into a pot as they lie in bed, instead of getting up to make the evacuation. "Although," says Bichat, "the latter fact may not be explicable upon any physiological principles, its truth is sufficiently established by clinical observation, and we cannot doubt its reality." Thus, the history of the patients' lives, their age, and kind of constitutions, form so many grounds for suspecting the nature of this species of retention of urine; but the suspicion is changed into certainty, when the following circumstances are joined with the usual symptoms of a retention of urine in the bladder.

The patients declare that they have never had in the urethra, or neighbouring parts, any affection capable of impeding the issue of the urine; that this fluid has always come away freely, and in a full stream; but that, although the stream was undiminished, the urine could not be discharged with the same force, nor to the same distance, as formerly. At length, instead of describing an arch as it flows out, it falls down perpendicularly between the legs. Towards the close of the evacuation, the patient also is no longer sensible of the final contractile effort of the bladder to expel the last portion of the urine; a particular sensation, of which he used to be conscious in his younger days. When he is about to make water, he likewise finds that he has to wait some time before the evacuation commences. As the disorder increases, he begins to perceive that he cannot make water without considerable efforts; that the quantity of urine, voided each time, manifestly decreases; that the desire to empty the bladder becomes more and more frequent; and, lastly, that the urine only comes away by drops, and that an incontinence has succeeded to a retention.

In this state, the patient's sufferings are not very great. The tumour, formed by the bladder above the pubes, is almost indolent; and, if it be pressed upon with some force, a certain quantity of urine is discharged from the urethra.

The retention of urine arising from old age is seldom complete: the urine, after having filled and distended the bladder, dribbles out of the urethra, so that the patient voids as much of this fluid in a given time as he does in a state of health. Nor is this species of retention of urine commonly attended with very urgent symptoms. It does not occasion, like complete retentions, a suppression of the urinary secretion in the kidneys; and as the urine escapes through the urethra, after the bladder is distended to a certain degree, the disorder is less apt to produce a rupture of this organ, and dangerous extravasations of the urine. The swelling of the bladder then continues, without the patient being seriously annoyed, except by a sense of weight about the pubes and perineum. Sabatier has seen patients, who have laboured under the disease six months, without ever having suspected its nature. The escape of the urine has indeed sometimes deceived surgeons, and led them to consider the swelling to be of a totally different character. Sabatier once attended a lady, who had been recommended to resort to a distant town, in order to try the effect of its mineral waters in dispersing a swelling brought on during her confinement in childbed, and which proved to be nothing more than a distention of the bladder with urine.

There are many old men who have been troubled with this sort of retention of urine a long time, and yet make no endeavour to get relief, supposing that the infirmity is natural to their period of life. The urine, however, stagnating in the bladder, undergoes a decomposition, and the coats of that organ itself at length become diseased.

This case presents two indications, *viz.* to evacuate the urine, and to restore the tone of the bladder: frequently,

both these things may be accomplished by the same means. When the retention is incipient, and the bladder is merely in an inactive state, its proper action may often be restored by laying cold applications upon the hypogastric region, or the thighs, and by the patient going from a warm into a cool place, in order to make water.

The patient must also be strictly careful not to defer making water immediately the least inclination is felt to do so; for, when the call of nature is not at once attended to, the distended fibres of the bladder lose their sensibility more and more; the desire to make water subsides; and the retention, which at first consisted of only a few drops, very soon becomes complete. It would then be in vain, as Default observes, to have recourse to the means which have been above recommended. No stimulus will now make the bladder contract with sufficient force to expel the mass of urine which it contains, and the catheter is the only thing by which this fluid can be discharged. This artificial mode of evacuation, however, only affords momentary relief; for, as the relaxed fibres of the bladder are slow in recovering their natural tone, the patient would necessarily fall into the same condition again, if the employment of the catheter were not continued. Hence, it is absolutely indispensable either to leave this instrument in the bladder, or to introduce it as often as the patient has occasion to make water. When there is a skilful surgeon constantly at hand, or when the patient knows how to pass the catheter himself, Default thinks it better only to introduce the instrument when the bladder is to be emptied; by which means, the inconvenience arising from the continual presence of a foreign body is avoided. In this case, either a silver catheter or an elastic gum one may be used with equal advantage; but if the instrument is to be kept in the bladder, that made of elastic gum, and provided with a curved silet, is to be preferred. Whatever sort of instrument is used, however, experience fully proves, that in old subjects, in whom the canal is as it were flaccid, a large catheter enters more easily, and with less pain, than one of smaller diameter.

As the treatment of the complaint must be continued for a long while, and the bladder seldom perfectly regains its proper tone in old age, the patient should be instructed how to introduce the catheter himself, and he is to pass it whenever he wants to make water. After a certain time, however, he may try if he can empty the bladder without this instrument. When he finds that he can expel the urine, he should certify himself by means of the catheter, that the last drops of this fluid are duly voided. Should they not be so, he must persevere in the use of that instrument. Without this precaution, says Default, the retention will soon attain the same pitch again, at which it was on first commencing the treatment.

In this sort of retention of urine, it has been proposed to throw into the bladder a variety of astringent injections, made with the sulphate of iron, decoction of bark, &c. Default tried them, but never found much good from their use.

Warm, balsamic, diuretic medicines, cold bathing, and liniments containing the tincture of lytta, have likewise been praised; but, according to Default, these means frequently prove hurtful to persons of advanced years, and are seldom useful. He restricted his own practice to the use of the catheter, which, when skilfully employed, often restored the tone of the bladder; and when it failed, other means also were ineffectual.

2. *Retention of Urine from Debauchery.*—This case, as Default observes, is very analogous to that which depends upon old age; both of them are unconnected with any previous disease

disease of the bladder, and simply originate from general languor and debility. Their commencement is indicated by the same circumstances, their progress is similar, they exhibit resembling symptoms, and they merely differ in their predisposing cause; the defect of irritability being in one case the consequence of old age, in the other that of intemperance. In the former instance, the disorder depends upon a decrepitude, the natural effect of advanced age; in the other, it arises, as it were, from a premature and unnatural old age. Nothing is more weakening to the constitution than an immoderate indulgence in venereal pleasures. From this kind of excess, the bladder, as well as other organs, becomes less irritable, and is at length rendered totally incapable of expelling the whole of the urine. Hence originates a retention. It is unnecessary here to repeat the diagnostic signs of this disorder, depending upon weakness of the bladder. The history of the case can alone discriminate it from that which is produced by old age. The prognosis, however, is not so unfavourable as in the other example; for, when the patient is gifted with a strong constitution, and he has not been too much reduced, the complaint may be radically cured.

An elastic gum catheter left in the bladder is here, according to Default, one of the most powerful means of relief which can be employed. It not only has the advantage of affording a ready outlet for the urine, exciting the irritability of the bladder, and promoting the action of its muscular fibres; but its continual presence in the urethra hinders the patient from yielding to those depraved habits, which are the very cause of the disorder. The latter use of the catheter is the more worthy of consideration, inasmuch as it is proved by experience, that most patients, who are not restrained by this obstacle, cannot resist the force of habit, though fully aware of the dangers.

Together with the employment of the elastic gum catheter, every endeavour should be made to strengthen the patient, and obviate the general relaxation and debility of the parts. Cold bathing, steel medicines, and cinchona, are the means which are usually preferred. The patient ought likewise to have the advantage of a salubrious air, nutritious and easily digestible food, undisturbed sleep, plenty of exercise, regular evacuations, tranquillity of mind; and more especially he ought to be diverted from what has been the cause of his indisposition.

3. *Retention of Urine from the immoderate Use of Diuretics.*—This is the next case which Default considers. Diuretics, both cold and warm, taken in excess, may equally occasion the disorder. He conceived that, by the former, the fibres of the bladder were hurtfully relaxed; and that, by the latter, their proper sensibility was gradually destroyed. In this last circumstance, the bladder being habituated to the impression of stimulating diuretics, is, when these are discontinued, not sufficiently irritated by the urine to contract, and it no longer obeys the calls of nature. Default has the candour, however, to acknowledge that the foregoing theory is rather founded upon reason than experience; he even confesses that he has met with no example establishing its reality, but he thought there was some probability in it, deduced from the well-known effects of strong liquors on the stomach.

If we exclude from consideration the information respecting the nature and quantity of the drink which the patient has been taking, before the functions of the urinary organs were disturbed, there are absolutely no circumstances, nor symptoms, by which this species of retention of urine can be distinguished from that induced by old age and intemperance; nor is the local treatment to be different from

what has been advised for the above cases. Besides the use of the elastic gum catheter, the surgeon must recommend cold bathing; the throwing of ice-cold water on the abdomen, perineum, and thighs; the application to the same parts of compresses wet with vinegar; dry friction on the hypogastric region; or stimulating liniments, containing ammonia or the tinctura lytta. Should all these means prove ineffectual, a blister may be laid over the sacrum and lower part of the loins; and it may either be kept open, or healed and then applied again, as Default particularly advised.

4. *Retention of Urine from an Affection of the Nerves of the Bladder.*—These nerves may be affected either at their origin, or in the course of their distribution. Injuries of the brain are seldom followed by a retention of urine; but the complaint often accompanies those of the spinal marrow. A concussion of this medullary substance, from blows or falls upon the vertebral column; the injury which it suffers in fractures and dislocations of the vertebrae, or from a violent strain of the back; its compression by blood, purulent matter, or other fluid effused in the vertebral canal; and the effects which a caries of the spine has upon it, may all operate as so many causes of a retention of urine. This form of the complaint may also be the consequence of tumours situated in the track of the nerves which are distributed to the bladder. It is not necessary that all the nerves, which ramify on this organ, be affected before the complaint is occasioned; for the compression of some of the nervous filaments is adequate to weaken the action of the bladder, and render it incapable of overcoming the natural resistance to the discharge of the urine.

When a retention of urine is caused by an affection of the spinal marrow, an insensibility and weakness of the lower extremities are almost always concomitant symptoms. The patients suffer very little; most of them are ignorant of their condition, and do not complain of any thing being wrong in the functions of the urinary organs. The surgeon, aware that a retention of urine is a very common occurrence in these cases, should examine whether any interruption of the evacuation prevails, either by feeling the state of the abdomen just above the pubes, or by introducing a catheter.

As this species of retention of urine is only symptomatic, and not dependent upon any previous defect in the bladder, it is not in itself alarming; but, with reference to the cause that has produced it, it is exceedingly dangerous. Affections of the spine, complicated with injury of the spinal marrow, are frequently fatal. By means of a catheter, it is always easy to relieve the inconveniences arising from the bladder not contracting, and thus fulfil the only indication which this sort of retention of urine presents, *viz.* the evacuation of the urine. But these means are merely palliative, and the bladder will not recover its contractile power until the causes of its weakness are removed. The last then is the main object in the treatment, which must vary according to the nature and extent of the disorder.

The consideration in detail of all the means which may be requisite for the relief of the different accidents and diseases of the spine, would form too long a subject to be brought into the present article. (See FRACTURES and LUXATIONS of the Vertebrae, and SPINE, *Discase and Curvature of.*) We shall merely observe here, that Default had a high opinion of the utility of cupping in shocks and concussions of the spinal marrow. This was done on the part of the back which had been struck, or in its vicinity; and the scarifications were multiplied according to the strength of the patient. The plan was sometimes repeated the same day, and for several days in succession; and when the patient could not bear the loss of more blood, dry cupping was employed.

employed. In caries of the spine, Default also gave a preference to the use of the moxa, instead of caustic.

5. *Retention of Urine brought on by Distention of the Fibres of the Bladder.*—As Default observes, this species of retention of urine may be called *secondary*, since it is invariably preceded and produced by a *primary* retention. It follows of course, that its remote causes consist of all those circumstances which may bring on the other forms of the complaint; but its immediate cause altogether depends upon the weakness and loss of irritability in the bladder, occasioned by the immoderate distention of its coats. Thus, we frequently find the disorder occur in persons who, from bashfulness, indolence, or intense occupation, neglect to make water when they first have the desire, or who cannot for a time empty the bladder, in consequence of some temporary obstruction in the urethra. Although the impediment to the escape of the urine no longer exists, and the bladder is in other respects found, yet as this organ has been weakened by the excessive distention of its coats, it cannot contract with sufficient force to obliterate the whole of its cavity, and expel the last portion of urine.

The indication in this case is very simple, for there is not here, as in other retentions of urine, another disease to be remedied. The catheter, when left in the bladder, generally proves adequate to the restoration of the tone and contractile force of this viscus. Default also conceived, that the object might be promoted by the exhibition of warm diuretics, and the employment of tonic injections, and other strengthening means. Before the catheter is discontinued, the surgeon ought to be sure that the bladder can completely expel the whole of the urine, without the aid of this instrument; for it is impossible to specify any particular period when the bladder will regain its power of contracting. The time will vary according to the duration of the disease, and the age and constitution of the patient. In some persons, a cure is effected in a few days; in some, not till after several weeks or months; and in others, the contractile function of the bladder is so irremediably destroyed, that the catheter is necessary during the rest of the patient's life.

6. *Retention of Urine from Inflammation of the Bladder.*—The majority of authors who have written on the diseases of the urinary organs, says Default, have ascribed different effects to an inflammation of the neck of the bladder, and to the same affection of the body of this viscus. They have in fact regarded the first occurrence as one of the causes of retention, and the last as a cause of incontinence of urine. It has been imagined, that an inflamed highly sensible bladder, instead of being weakened in this state, acquired an increase of energy, and contracted with greater than ordinary vigour. But, even if we had not been undeceived upon this subject by the observation of retentions of urine, which could be referred to nothing but inflammation of the bladder, still analogy would have protected us from error. We never find an inflamed muscle contract, and if we oblige it to act, its action is always weak. Default also constantly noticed, in opening the bodies of persons who had died of inflammation in the abdomen, that the inflamed intestines were distended, and not diminished and contracted.

Plethoric bilious subjects, with full habits, are particularly liable to this species of retention. It is also frequently occasioned by the abuse of wine or other spirituous liquors, heating diuretic drinks, or the external or internal employment of cantharides. This form of the complaint makes its attack suddenly, and may be recognized; 1st, By the frequent desire to make water. 2dly, By the acute pain in the region of the bladder; pain which is increased by the efforts to make water, and which shoots up to the loins and along

the urethra to the end of the glans. 3dly, By the frequency and hardness of the pulse, and other symptoms of fever. 4thly, By the aggravation of the pain, when the hypogastric region is handled or pressed upon. 5thly, By the easy passage of a catheter into the bladder. 6thly, By the acute pain which is excited by the instrument touching the inside of the bladder. 7thly, By the red inflammatory colour of the urine. 8thly, By the absence of all those symptoms which peculiarly characterize other cases of retention.

This form of the disorder demands the most prompt assistance. The urine, the presence of which is a new source of irritation, should be immediately drawn off. The catheter should be introduced with great gentleness, and merely far enough to let its eye get beyond the neck of the bladder, as its beak might otherwise seriously irritate this viscus, the lining of which is now extremely sensible.

After the urine had been discharged, Default used to throw in mucilaginous injections; but of these we entertain no opinion. The inflammation of the bladder is to be resisted by the most powerful antiphlogistic remedies, such as repeated venesection, the application of leeches to the perineum and hypogastric region, the warm bath, glysters, fomentations on the abdomen, and cold mucilaginous beverages. When, notwithstanding these means, the inflammation increases, extends to the other abdominal viscera attended with hiccup and vomiting, and continues beyond the sixth day, the patient's life is in extreme danger, and death almost inevitable.

7. *Retention of Urine from Hernia of the Bladder.*—The second volume of the *Memoirs of the French Academy of Surgery* presents us with numerous instances of this species of retention of urine. We there learn that it is a symptom almost constantly attending hernia of the bladder. But the weakness of this organ is not always the sole cause; for the urethra itself also makes greater resistance than natural to the issue of the urine. The neck and adjoining part of the bladder are drawn out of their right position by the portion of this organ which protrudes. Hence, the beginning of the urethra also undergoes an elongation, and a change of its curvature, by being pressed towards the symphysis of the pubes, and its diameter is likewise diminished. The urine may also be detained in the pouch composing the hernia, in consequence of the communication between this and the other part of the bladder being too diminutive. This state, indeed, is very common, and it accounts for those partial retentions of urine which take place only in the protruded portion of the bladder, and not in that of the receptacle which lies within the pelvis. Sometimes, however, such retentions depend upon the pressure of the abdominal muscles being removed, and upon weakness of the protruded part of the bladder. At the same time, it rarely happens that the rest of this organ, situated in the pelvis, can itself expel the last drops of the urine which it contains. Its complete contraction cannot be accomplished without great difficulty; and, in the end, it almost invariably follows that the urine is retained in both the protruded and unprotruded portions of the bladder.

When a retention, arising from a hernia of the bladder, is complete, and occurs in both parts of this organ, there is, in addition to the symptoms common to other retentions produced by weakness of the bladder, a more or less considerable swelling in the situation of the hernia. The tumour is unattended with any change of the colour of the skin; is not very tender on being handled; and it presents a feeling of fluctuation, sometimes obscure, sometimes very distinct. When the swelling is pressed upon, the desire to make water is excited or increased, and occasionally a few drops escape

from the urethra. As soon as the urine has been drawn off with a catheter, the part of the bladder which is out of the pelvis subsides, on the patient being put into a posture in which such portion of the bladder is higher than the rest of this organ within the pelvis. The hernial tumour seems then to be composed of thick membranes, which are softish, moveable, but yet incapable of being reduced. It is also some time in enlarging again; and, after its re-appearance, it presents the same symptoms as before.

When the retention of urine is confined to the hernia, and the opening, by which this communicates with the pelvis, is free, the tumour is indolent, increasing when the patient empties the other part of the bladder, and subsiding after the evacuation. As soon, however, as this is finished, the patient feels a desire to make water again; so that there is a sort of interval in the completion of this function. But, should the communication with the pelvis not be open enough, the swelling would be incompressible, or it could not be made to subside without a good deal of force. Were it strangulated, the circumstance would be indicated by the tension of the swelling, pain, heat, fever, and hiccough, succeeded by vomiting.

The first indication is to discharge the urine with a catheter, or by compressing the hernial tumour; but these expedients are only palliative. When the disease is recent, and the protruded portion of the bladder small and reducible, the part ought to be returned and kept up with a truss, by which means a perfect cure may be effected. When the part is adherent and irreducible, the swelling ought to be emptied, and a suspensory bandage made to fit and support it. If the hernia were in this way gradually got into the abdominal ring again, a truss would afterwards be requisite. Proposals have been made to endeavour to excite the adhesive inflammation in the cavity of the protruded part of the bladder, by methodical compression, gradually increased, and obliterate the pouch in which the urine is lodged out of the pelvis. Although Default thought the attempt cautiously made justifiable, he deemed the result very uncertain.

Were the retention of urine accompanied with a strangulated state of the protruded bladder, and the contents could not be pressed into the other part of this organ, a puncture of the swelling with a trocar might be proper. But if there were an enterocoele also present, as often happens, this operation would be attended with risk of injuring the intestine. Hence Default preferred opening the tumour by a careful incision; and he even approved of cutting away the protruded cyst, if the communication betwixt it and the rest of the bladder were obliterated.

8. *Retention of Urine caused by Displacement of the Viscera of the Pelvis.*—These displacements, which may occasion a retention of urine, are a retroversion, prolapsus, or inversion of the uterus, and a prolapsus of the vagina and rectum. When the intimate connexions of the bladder with the uterus and vagina in the female, and with the rectum in the male, are considered, it is obvious that these latter parts cannot be displaced without drawing along with them the bladder; and that in this state, whatever may be its contractile power, it cannot contract completely upon itself, so as to expel the whole of the urine. To this deficient action of the bladder is necessarily joined an increase of resistance on the part of the urethra. The beginning of this canal, being drawn by the bladder, changes its accustomed direction, and such alteration cannot be made without the sides of the tube being pressed together, and thus a more or less considerable obstacle formed to the passage of the urine. It is in this manner that, in the retroverted uterus, the os tincæ, being carried up above the pubes, drags along with it the posterior

side of the bladder, which, in its turn, draws after it the commencement of the urethra, pulls it upwards, and increases the curvature which this canal describes under the symphysis of the pubes, against which it is forcibly applied.

In a prolapsus or inversion of the womb, vagina, and rectum, the back part of the bladder, instead of being drawn upward and forward, is pulled downward and backward, and the curvature of the urethra is totally altered. Below the pubes, the bladder forms a convexity, and not a large concavity, as in the instance of a retroversion of the womb. This position of the parts should always be recollected in passing the catheter, as it shews what curvature and direction should be given to the instrument, in order to facilitate its introduction.

The retention of urine, arising from displacement of the viscera, may always be easily distinguished from the other species of this disorder. The symptoms, however, by which it is characterized, have been detailed in other articles, to which the reader is referred. See *PROLAPSUS Ani*, *PROLAPSUS Uteri*, *VAGINA*, *UTERUS*, *Retroversion of, &c.*

These kinds of retention of urine are not frequently followed by any very bad consequences. It is generally sufficient to rectify the wrong position of the bladder, and commencement of the urethra, by the reduction of the displaced viscera, and a cure is then a matter of course, unless the excessive distention of the fibres of the bladder has induced considerable weakness in the parietes of this organ. When this is the case, we must have recourse to the particular means which have been recommended for this cause of the disease. The reduction of the viscera usually constitutes the first indication.

For an account of the manner of doing this, we must refer to the above-mentioned articles. When the reduction cannot be immediately accomplished, or when it fails in directly relieving the retention of urine and symptoms depending upon it, the catheter is to be used. Frequently, when the urine has been drawn off, the reduction becomes more easy; but sometimes the altered direction of the urethra makes the introduction of the catheter difficult; nor can success be obtained, except by accommodating this instrument to the faulty state of the canal. For example, in the retroversion of the uterus, a catheter very much curved answers better than a straight one, like that ordinarily used for females.

A curved catheter, says Default, also answers in cases of prolapsus uteri, &c.; but with this difference, that, in a retroversion, the concavity of the instrument must be turned towards the pubes, but, in the prolapsus, towards the anus. Sometimes the catheter will not pass unless it be rotated, as it were; and sometimes, when a silver catheter cannot in any manner be introduced, one made of elastic gum, which adapts itself better to the curvature of the canal, will readily enter.

Were every effort to reduce the viscera and get a catheter into the bladder to fail, at the same time that a risk of this viscus bursting prevailed, the operation of puncturing it would become indispensably necessary. See *PARACETESIS of the Bladder*.

9. *Retention of Urine from the Pressure of the Uterus, or Vagina, on the Neck of the Bladder.*—It is alleged, that in pregnancy there are two periods when women are particularly liable to a retention of urine; viz. during the fourth month, and at the time of labour. In order to have an exact idea of this case, we must remember that, in the first months after conception, the uterus continues to lie concealed in the pelvis; that it does not ascend above this cavity till the fifth month, or later; that, at this period, as its size and weight

weight have progressively increased, it descends lower into the vagina, and compresses, in the manner of a wedge, the rectum, which is situated behind; while it presses the neck of the bladder and urethra, which are in front, against the symphysis of the pubes, sometimes in such a degree, as entirely to close them, and stop the passage of the urine through them.

From this account of the progress of the gravid uterus, the mechanism of this species of retention of urine appears so simple, and, as it were, natural, that one would expect to find the disorder frequently happen in the fourth and fifth months of pregnancy; yet, out of a great number of women who had been delivered in the Hôtel-Dieu at Paris, Default did not meet with a single one who had been thus affected. He does not, however, presume to assert, that the complaint may not occur; but he believes, that the manner in which the uterus enlarges must almost always protect the neck of the bladder and urethra from compression. In fact, says he, it is well known that the increase of this viscus begins at its fundus, and then extends to its body, while the cervix retains its size and length until the sixth month, when the uterus, being too large to be contained in the lesser pelvis, mounts up above the superior aperture.

As this viscus is larger at its fundus than its cervix, while situated within the cavity of the pelvis, it must rather compress the ureters and body of the bladder than the neck of this organ and the urethra, above which the most bulky portion of the uterus is always situated, unless there be a complete prolapsus of this organ. Although most writers have spoken of a retention of urine as being often occasioned by the lodgment of the head of the fetus, yet, according to Default, not a single instance occurred at the Hôtel-Dieu, during eight or ten years, in which space of time fifteen or sixteen hundred patients were there delivered. Therefore, without denying altogether the possibility of the case, he conceives himself justified in concluding that it is much less common than is usually supposed. It is true, says he, women often complain of a desire to make water when the head of the child continues a long while in the passage; and such desire may have led some careless practitioners to imagine that it proceeded from a full state of the bladder, who ought to have known that any irritation about this organ would cause the same kind of sensation.

When the position of the head of the child, at the time of its being wedged in the lesser pelvis, is considered with regard to the bladder, it appears that the body of this last organ and the ureters are more exposed to compression than the urethra and neck of the bladder. Default even thought it probable, that the urine, far from accumulating in this receptacle, could not descend into it, and was confined in the ureters.

This conjecture seemed to Default the more likely, inasmuch as a retention of urine is more frequently a consequence of, than an attendant upon, the lodgment of the child's head in the passage. The complaint then comes not from any obstruction of the meatus urinarius, but from weakness of the bladder, which has suffered contusion, which sometimes causes sloughs between the vagina and bladder, and produces urinary fistulae, always difficult of cure, and often incurable.

Were, however, a retention of urine to happen at one of the above periods of pregnancy, the diagnosis of it would be obvious enough. The state and position of the uterus, or the situation of the head of the infant, could easily be ascertained by manual examination; and the patient would be able to say whether the passage of urine had been previously

free, and whether she knows of any other cause that can impede the evacuation.

Frequent inclination to make water, and none of the urine at the same time coming away, are, in this case, very equivocal signs of a retention; for, as Default remarks, any irritation of the bladder will cause the first symptom, and the last may depend upon compression of the ureters.

If the complaint were caused, as is supposed, by the pressure of the uterus upon the neck of the bladder and the urethra, about the fourth month of pregnancy, we could not expect the disorder to be permanently relieved before the enlarged uterus had risen out of the pelvis. Until this had happened, the practitioner could only endeavour to facilitate the evacuation of urine by pressing the uterus away from the neck of the bladder and urethra, by introducing his finger sufficiently high behind, and a little on one side of the symphysis pubis. Should this method fail, it would be necessary to have recourse to the catheter.

Were the retention of urine produced by the child's head, delivery should be expedited by changing the position of the head with the forceps, &c. If the labour should still seem likely to be lingering, the urine ought to be drawn off with a catheter.

Besides the distention of the uterus and vagina in pregnancy and parturition, there are other conditions of these organs which may give rise to a retention of urine. This disorder sometimes arises from the presence of various kinds of tumours, or collections of blood or water in the uterus, or ovary; and it occasionally proceeds from distention of the vagina with the menstrual discharge, the use of pessaries, &c.

As this last kind of retention of urine is only symptomatic, the prognosis must be more or less unfavourable, according as the disease, of which it is a symptom, may happen to be more or less serious. It is of itself not very dangerous, because, by drawing off the urine with a catheter, it is always practicable to prevent or remove the inconveniences which it causes. But even the use of the catheter is not always necessary, especially when the cause of the retention of urine is easily removable, and the tone of the bladder is not impaired. This is generally the case when the complaint is induced by a pessary, or collection of blood in the vagina. In other examples, in which the cause of the difficulty of making water cannot be immediately obviated, as in several cases of tumours, the catheter must be employed. In scirrhus and cancerous diseases of the uterus, also, this instrument is the only means of relieving the retention of urine, as nature and art can do little for the removal of the cause. It ought to be known, however, that, as these last diseases increase, an incontinence often succeeds to a retention of urine, in consequence of ulceration taking place between the upper surface of the vagina and the lower part of the bladder.

10. *Retention of Urine from Pressure of the Rectum upon the Neck of the Bladder.*—Abscesses in the vicinity of this intestine, hemorrhoidal tumours, alvine concretions, and the scirrhus-contracted state of the gut, &c. may bring on a retention of urine by making pressure on the neck of the bladder. The irritation, also, existing in these cases, may tend to produce the complaint by exciting a spasmodic contraction of the urethra. Here the relief of the obstruction of the urine is to be effected by removing or curing the other disorder, which operates as its cause. If this cannot be immediately accomplished, the catheter must be used, though, in several instances, it will be better to avoid even the irritation of the catheter, and try the effects of bleed-

ing, the warm bath, and opium, which will frequently enable the patient to make water. The last means, however, will not suffice, when the cause of the retention is likely to continue any length of time.

11. *Retention of Urine from Tumours situated in the Bladder.*—Fungous diseases, carcinoma, and hydatids, says Default, are the principal tumours which may cause a retention of urine. Of all the diseases of the bladder, there are none which are so afflicting as fungous tumours; fortunately, they are not frequent. Default, however, had seen several cases in the dead subject. By the introduction of a sound into the bladder, the presence of a fungus might be suspected; something unusual would be felt; but the case could hardly be discriminated from an induration of the coats of the bladder, or other sorts of tumours of this viscous. The causes and mode of curing the affliction are equally unknown. In one instance, however, in which the fungous excrescence had a narrow base, Default is said to have made an incision into the bladder, and extracted the swelling with a pair of forceps. No hemorrhage, nor any other bad symptoms, ensued.

In carcinomatous diseases of the bladder, the use of the catheter is necessary, at least, until, by the progress of the disorder, ulcerated communications are formed betwixt that organ and the rectum, or uterus and vagina.

12. *Retention of Urine from foreign Bodies in the Bladder.*—When the urine is obstructed by a calculus at the neck of the bladder, the patient, by altering his position, frequently changes the situation of the stone, and he is immediately able to make water again. This expedient, however, will only procure relief while the calculus is loose in the cavity of the bladder; for, after it has become fixed in the commencement of the urethra, it must either be pushed back with a catheter, or extracted by a kind of operation resembling the apparatus minor. See LITHOTOMY.

Default never met with any case in which the bladder contained worms; but he was aware of there being many such instances on record. Tulpius, Schenckius, Bianchi, &c. have been eye-witnesses of the occurrence. These worms are not all alike; some resemble scarabæi, some are like ascarides, and others have the appearance of lumbrici. Ruysch and Hagendorn affirm, that they have seen some which had wings, and were able to fly as soon as they were voided. An interesting paper on this subject was published about six years ago by Mr. Lawrence, who met with an example in which an undescribed species of worms was abundantly voided from the bladder. "The origin of those animals (says Mr. Lawrence), which inhabit the internal parts of living bodies, is involved in much obscurity. Although the intestinal worms appear manifestly, from their peculiar form, consistence, and organs, to be particularly designed for those situations in which they are found; although they have generative organs, and no similar animals are known to exist out of living bodies; yet, it has been generally conceived, that the genus from which they spring enter from the mouth. The production of hydatids in various parts of the body cannot, however, be accounted for on such a supposition; neither can we very easily conceive that ova should enter from without into the urinary organs." The following facts, also stated by Coeze, (as Mr. Lawrence observes,) entirely overturn this opinion. Professor Brendel, of Göttingen, found ascarides in the rectum of an immature embryo. Blumenbach discovered tæniæ in the intestinal canal of young dogs a few hours after birth, &c. Versuch einer naturgeschichte der Eingeweidewürmer, p. 55.

The case which Mr. Lawrence has recorded is interesting, as it exhibits an unquestionable instance of peculiar and undescribed worms voided from the urinary passages. This gentleman says, that he knew of no other case in which a distinct species of worm has been clearly proved to come from the bladder. Most of the cases published were instances of common intestinal round worms, which sometimes perforate the intestines, and are discharged by abscesses, or get into the bladder, after the formation of adhesions betwixt this organ and the bowels. In other instances, coagula of blood, mucus, or portions of the mucous coat of the bladder, have been mistaken for worms; and, as Mr. Lawrence further observes, some of the descriptions can apply only to larvæ of insects. Two specimens of this last sort he has seen himself, which were sent from the country as worms voided from the bladder. See Medico-Chir. Transf. vol. ii. p. 382, &c.

In whatever way these animals get into the bladder, a retention of urine may be produced, either when they are numerous, or when there is only one present, but large enough to obstruct the vesical orifice of the urethra. In the very curious example related by Mr. Lawrence, the passage of the urine was obstructed, and the use of the catheter continually necessary. The oil of turpentine was given internally, with some appearance of benefit at first; but it afterwards brought on febrile symptoms and erysipelas, and its exhibition could not be kept up. It was then injected into the bladder, with an equal part of water. This rather accelerated the discharge of the worms; but they came away at times whether the injection was used or not, and as this means produced the erysipelatos indispotion again, it was left off. Olive oil was afterwards injected; the irritation after it was less, and the fits of pain about the bladder less violent. It was calculated, that at the time when Mr. Lawrence was writing the particulars of the case, from 800 to 1000 worms had been discharged. For a detail of the symptoms, and a particular description of the worms themselves, we must refer to the above-mentioned publication.

According to the observations of Default, a retention of urine is frequently occasioned by coagula of blood in the bladder. The blood is said sometimes to come from the kidneys, sometimes from the bladder, and sometimes it even regurgitates from the urethra. While fluid, it may be expelled with the urine; but when coagulated, it is no longer capable of being discharged. It is the blood which gets into the bladder after wounds, or the operation of lithotomy, that is most disposed to coagulate.

The diagnosis of a retention of urine, produced by coagula of blood, is not very clear. The issue of blood with the urine might raise suspicions; but there could be no certainty of the nature of the case, until the catheter were introduced. If the clots of blood should be too large to pass through this instrument, lukewarm water should be injected into the bladder, for the purpose of loosening and dissolving the coagula.

We shall merely notice one more example of retention of urine, arising from the presence of extraneous substances in the bladder; we mean that in which a piece of bougie has slipped into this viscous. It has frequently happened, that entire bougies, which were not properly fixed, have glided into the bladder. As Default observes, the urethra appears to possess a kind of antiperistaltic action, by which it tends to draw into the bladder whatever substances it includes; for, says he, it is constantly noticed, that when these substances are once within the urethra, if they be not expelled by the current of urine, they always advance towards the bladder.

bladder. This circumstance cannot be accounted for by their weight, and it must be ascribed to a contractile power of the urethra.

The bougies formerly made, and particularly metallic ones, and catheters made of spiral wire springs, frequently broke, and thus pieces of these instruments were often left in the bladder. Such an accident, however, is much less common now, that the fabrication of all sorts of bougies and catheters has been brought to a high state of perfection.

The insinuation of these foreign bodies into the bladder is a serious occurrence both for the patient and surgeon. The former cannot avoid the consequence, which will sooner or later originate from the extraneous substance, except by submitting to a dangerous and painful operation: the latter will be accused of being the author of all the evil, and will find it difficult to exculpate himself. In order to do away the necessity of cutting into the bladder, in such cases, Default proposed the use of small spring forceps, passed into the bladder through a cannula; but although the instrument seemed to answer on the dead subject, there have hitherto been no instances of its doing so on living patients.

We next proceed to notice the retentions of urine arising from affections of the urethra.

13. Retention of Urine from Inflammation of the Urethra.—It is easy, says Default, to conceive how inflammation of the urethra may occasion a retention of urine. In order to understand the mechanism of the case, we need only remember the axiom in surgical pathology, that inflammation never exists without a swelling of the inflamed part, and that every tumefaction of the lining of the urethra must necessarily diminish its diameter. Inflammation of the urethra is most commonly produced by the external application, or internal exhibition, of cantharides, gonorrhœa, the unskilful use of the catheter, the employment of stimulating injections, bougies, &c., together with the lessening of the canal by the effect of swelling; there can also be no doubt, that, in many of these instances, a spasmodic contraction of the urethra and neck of the bladder also contributes to the retention of urine. Default, indeed, entertained the opinion that inflamed parts, endowed with a contractile power, were not disposed to contract in that state; yet, it should be recollected, that even admitting this to be true, it seldom happens that the whole length of the urethra is inflamed, and that the rest may be affected with a spasmodic action. The effects of opium, tobacco, and other antispasmodics, often evinced in immediately relieving these kinds of retention of urine, seem indeed to leave no doubt respecting the existence of a sort of spasm in the passage. Whatever may be the cause of the inflammation of the urethra, the diagnosis is free from all obscurity. Besides the general symptoms of inflammation, the patient complains of a scalding sensation in the passage; he experiences a great deal of smarting, which is sometimes insupportable when he makes water; the penis becomes in some degree swollen, and more tender; and a very little pressure on the urethra gives acute pain. In the mean time, the stream of urine becomes gradually but yet quickly lessened; and at length this fluid can only be voided in a very narrow current, or only by drops, and often not at all.

The disorder is to be treated on antiphlogistic principles. Diluting, cooling, mucilaginous beverages, venesection, leeches to the perineum, the warm-bath, opium, fomentations to this part and the penis, are the means which usually suffice to give relief. When inflammation exists in the urethra, it is always desirable to avoid, as long as pos-

sible, the employment of catheters, which create irritation, and of course increase the cause of the retention. It is particularly in cases of this description, and in the retentions of urine arising from strictures, that Mr. Earle has suggested the use of tobacco in the form of clysters; a method deserving adoption when the means above enumerated are unavailing, and preferable to the use of the catheter, because not occasioning any increase of irritation and inflammation in the urethra. See Medical and Chir. Transf. vol. vi. p. 82, &c.

To this proposal we shall advert again, in considering the retention originating from strictures. When, in consequence of inflammation, however, an abscess forms in the vicinity of the urethra, and bursts into this canal, the use of an elastic gum catheter is proper, in order to prevent the urine from insinuating itself into the cavity which contains the pus.

14. Retention of Urine from Laceration of the Urethra.—The urethra is sometimes ruptured by violent contusions on the perineum, and the rough and unskilful use of metallic catheters. The consequences usually are, an extravasation of urine in the cellular membrane of the scrotum and penis; a considerable dark-coloured swelling of these parts, often followed by sloughing; and retention of urine. Respecting such cases, we shall merely observe, that the treatment ought to consist in introducing an elastic gum catheter into the bladder, and keeping it there until the breach of continuity in the canal is repaired. At the same time, the evils threatened from the effusion of the urine are to be lessened as much as possible, by making two or three free incisions in a depending part of the swelling produced by the extravasation. The tumour should also be well fomented, and antiphlogistic means adopted.

15. Retention of Urine arising from Tumours situated in the Perineum, in the Scrotum, or on the Penis.—No considerable tumour can form in any of these situations, without making more or less pressure on the canal of the urethra. Whether such swelling proceed from a simple tumefaction of the parts, or from a collection of any fluid in a cavity, or from the lodgment of an extraneous body, the effect will be the same. A retention of urine has been observed to arise from phlegmonous swellings and abscesses, extravasations of blood, and urinary tumours and calculi formed in the perineum and scrotum. The disorder has also been known to be caused by a sarcocele, hydrocele, a very large scrotal hernia, an aneurism of the corpus cavernosum, a ligature on the penis, &c.

We shall not repeat what has been already said respecting the symptoms of a retention of urine originating from affections of the rectum. The impediment to the evacuation will be known to depend upon one of the causes above specified, if the patient could make water quite freely before such cause existed, and no other reason can be assigned for the obstacle. Of course, the radical cure of all such retentions of urine can only be accomplished by curing the other disease, on which they are dependent. However, until the cause can be obviated, the urine must be drawn off with a catheter. Elastic gum catheters usually enter more easily than those made of silver, as, by their flexibility, they accommodate themselves better to any deviation of the urethra from its ordinary direction. Default particularly recommended a catheter of middling size to be selected, and introduced armed with its stilet, until it stopped in the canal; when he advised withdrawing the stilet for about an inch, in order to leave the beak of the instrument quite free, so that it might follow the curve of the urethra. Then the tube and the stilet are to be pushed further into the canal; care being taken,

taken, however, to keep the filet drawn back some distance from the extremity of the instrument. By these precautions, says Default, the catheter may always be got into the bladder. Should the introduction prove neither painful nor difficult, Default thought it would be better not to annoy the patient by making him continually wear the instrument, unless its presence in the urethra were essentially necessary to destroy the cause of the retention of urine, as it would be in the instance of urinary swellings.

16. Retention of Urine from Disease of the Prostate Gland.—As Default remarks, it would be superfluous to endeavour to prove by examples the reality of this species of retention of urine. If the fact were not established by a multitude of observations, we should be convinced, by advertising to the relation of the prostate gland with the commencement of the urethra, and understanding how this canal is only composed of a delicate membrane, that the gland could not be affected with swelling, without lessening in some degree the tube which it embraces.

An enlargement of the prostate gland may depend on inflammation, abscesses, calculi formed within its substance, a varicose swelling of the vessels which surround it, or on a scirrhous tumour and induration of it.

When a retention of urine arises from inflammation of the prostate, it makes its attack very suddenly, and rapidly increases. The patient at first complains of a sense of heat and weight about the perineum, and very soon afterwards of a continual throbbing pain about the neck of the bladder. This pain is severely increased, when the patient goes to stool; and he is afflicted with tenesmus, and frequent inclination to make water. He feels also as if a large mass of excrement filled the extremity of the rectum, and were ready to come out. When the finger is introduced into the bowel, the projection of the prostate can be felt at its anterior part. J. L. Petit adds another sign of a swelling of this gland: “Si Pon est curieux de voir les malades aller à la selle, lorsqu'ils rendent des excréments durs, on trouvera que la partie intérieure du boudin formé par les matières fécales, sera creusée, comme ayant passé sur la saillie, que forme la prostate dans la partie antérieure du rectum.” Bichat conceives, however, that such an appearance may be obliterated in the passage of the excrement through the sphincter ani. When the patient attempts to make water, it is a long while before the first drops come out; and if he should now increase the efforts, he makes an additional impediment, by pushing the swollen prostate more and more against the neck of the bladder, the aperture of which becomes stopped up, and no water can be voided, until the efforts are lessened. The stream of urine is smaller, and the pain arising from its expulsion more acute, in proportion as the inflammation of the prostate is more considerable. We may also add, as a particular symptom of this sort of retention of urine, that if an attempt be made to introduce a catheter, it passes without the least resistance as far as the prostate, where it stops, and causes great pain. The pulse is hard and frequent; there is much thirst; and all the usual symptoms of fever prevail.

This kind of retention of urine, as well as all those which originate from an enlargement of the prostate gland, or other obstructions in the canal, are, according to Default, generally more dangerous than other cases, which merely depend upon the weakness of the bladder, and in which there is very little risk of this viscous giving way.

When the urethra is free from obstruction, the urine, after distending the bladder to a certain degree, generally oozes through that canal; and the patient may live in this condition for years, without any alarming consequences.

But the case is different, when the retention of urine depends upon any stoppage or stricture in the urethra. The urine does not then partially escape; this fluid stagnates in the bladder; the distention increases; and if speedy relief be not afforded, that viscus inflames and sloughs, and a perilous effusion of its contents ensues.

In the retention arising from inflammation of the prostate, the indication is obvious: it is to use every possible means of resolving the inflammation. Venesection, leeches to the vicinity of the anus, the warm bath, emollient clysters, and poultices, are the remedies which seem most eligible. These must be assisted with a regimen strictly antiphlogistic.

It must be confessed, however, that the efficacy of these means is often too slow, and the symptoms too urgent, to allow us to wait for the urine to flow of itself. Frequently, also, the tone of the bladder is so much weakened by the distention, that this organ cannot expel its contents. The catheter must then be employed; but the contraction of that part of the urethra which runs through the prostate, sometimes renders the introduction of this instrument difficult, and always very painful.

According to Default, a large catheter generally answers better than a small one, and it may either be of silver or elastic gum. The latter, though the best for the purpose of being kept in the passage, has not always sufficient firmness to get through the obstruction in the canal, not even with the aid of the filet. In this respect, a silver catheter is sometimes preferable. But whatever may be the kind of catheter employed, it generally passes as far as the prostate with perfect facility, where it is stopped, not only by the narrowness, but also by the new curvature, of the passage: for the prostate cannot be enlarged, without pushing forwards and upwards, or to one side, that portion of the urethra behind which it is situated. This circumstance ought never to be forgotten, in regulating the length and direction of the beak of the catheter, which should also be longer, have a more considerable curvature, and be more elevated, at the time of its introduction, than in other cases of obstruction in the urethra.

In swellings of the prostate gland, Mr. Hey has particularly pointed out one advantage which belongs to elastic catheters, *viz.* that their curvature may be increased while they are in the urethra. This gentleman was introducing an elastic gum catheter in a patient, whose prostate gland was much enlarged, and finding some obstruction near the neck of the bladder, he withdrew the filet; in doing which, he accidentally repressed the tube, which then went into the bladder. In fact, he found that the act of withdrawing the filet increases the curvature, and lifts up the point of the catheter. *Pract. Obs. in Surgery*, p. 399: edit. 2.

After being tolerably certain, says Default, that the end of the catheter corresponds exactly to the direction of the urethra, and that the obstacle to its entrance into the bladder only depends upon the narrowness of the passage, we may, without being too fearful of making a false passage, forcibly push forward the catheter. This instrument will certainly rather dilate a canal, that already exists, than form a new passage for itself. Default confesses, however, that this plan would be attended with great danger in the hands of young inexperienced surgeons; and he adds, that it is only fit to be practised by those, who, combining great experience in the use of the catheter with an accurate knowledge of the different curvatures of the urethra, have at length attained that degree of skill, which never lets them lose sight of the situation and direction of the beak of the catheter. For, says he, if, while the instrument is forced forward, the beak should be inclined too low, or to one side,

side, &c.: a false passage would inevitably be occasioned by a laceration of the membranous portion of the urethra; an accident which is always of a serious nature, increasing the inflammation of the prostate, and rendering the introduction of the catheter more difficult. This bold practice, suggested by Default, is frequently pursued by Boyer and Roux, and sometimes in this country by Mr. A. Cooper, Mr. Pearson, &c. (See Croft's Medical Sketches of Paris.) We have indeed heard, that Mr. Thomas Blizard, and some other surgeons in London, always force their way through the prostate gland with a conical silver catheter, in preference to puncturing the bladder, when no instrument can be introduced through the urethra in a gentle manner. The urine afterwards passes through this sort of false passage, seemingly as well as through the natural one.

We have not, however, brought our own minds to think that much good is ever likely to result from this exertion of violence in the urethra: therefore, when the case is urgent, and no catheter can be introduced through the natural canal, we should prefer puncturing the bladder, which, in these cases, should always be done above the pubes. See *PARACENTESIS of the Bladder*.

Notwithstanding the many examples of the success that has attended this operation, the proceeding, as Default observes, has its dangers; and, consequently, it should never be resorted to, before repeated unavailing attempts have been made to get a catheter into the bladder; nor before a trial has been made, whether a bougie left in the passage a few hours will not bring on an evacuation of the urine; an event which has often happened, even though the instrument did not pass beyond the obstruction. Puncturing the bladder, in such cases, should also never be determined upon, without a previous consultation with another practitioner, especially if one be at hand, who has had greater experience in the use of the catheter.

When a catheter has been introduced, ought it to be left in the bladder, or withdrawn, after the discharge of the urine? Its presence no doubt will increase the irritation about the neck of the bladder; but, on the other hand, if it be taken out, the surgeon may not be able to introduce it again. No general precept, says Default, can be laid down on this point. The course which the practitioner will pursue must depend upon the difficulty he has experienced in getting the instrument into the bladder, and upon the confidence which he may have in his own skill, and which is deduced from constant success in analogous instances.

According to Default, when an abscess follows inflammation of the prostate, the body of the gland itself does not suppurate, but only the surrounding parts, and the cellular substance, which connects its lobes together. This, at least, was what was observed in examining several dead subjects, who were publicly opened in the amphitheatre of the Hôtel-Dieu. When the symptoms of inflammation have lasted a week, and all this time have continued to increase; when, after this period, they have abated a little, and then become violent again; and when the febrile symptoms get worse in the evening, and have been preceded by shiverings; there is reason to suspect the formation of matter. It cannot be known whether the pus is collected in one particular place, or diffused. When the matter is external to the gland, the case is less serious than when it occupies the cellular substance connecting the lobes. According to Default, the latter form of the disease seldom gets well. There are no peculiar symptoms which denote it; the matter does not readily make its way outward; and the state of things is not clear enough to admit of an incision being made. Besides, Default doubted whether an incision could be of

much use, since it would probably only let out the matter in its vicinity.

Things are different when the pus is collected in one place, and is more superficial. If situated between the gland and neck of the bladder, it will often spontaneously burst into this viscous, or it may be let out with the point of the catheter. It will then either be discharged through the instrument, or come away with the urine. Should the abscess lie near the rectum and perineum, and admit of being distinctly felt, a free opening would expedite the cure.

In all these cases, the use of the catheter is requisite, in order to let out the urine; and as the instrument must be left in the passage some time, one made of elastic gum is to be preferred.

When the abscess bursts of itself, either into the urethra or bladder, the catheter must be kept in as long as pus continues to be discharged with the urine. In the latter case, however, Default chiefly uses the instrument for the purpose of throwing mucilaginous injections into the bladder, which many surgeons would not consider necessary.

Morgagni has taken notice of the retentions of urine arising from the presence of calculi in the prostate gland. The nature of these concretions we have already described in a preceding article. See *URINARY Calculi*.

Calculi also sometimes form after lithotomy, when the outer part of the wound heals sooner than the bottom. A kind of urinary fistula then forms; and as the extraneous substance is constantly exposed to the contact of fresh urine, it may increase to a very large size. The diagnosis of prostatic calculi is seldom very clear. A retention of urine, and an impediment to the emission of the semen, are only symptoms which are common to several other affections of the prostate gland and urethra. When the finger is introduced into the rectum, the gland may indeed be felt to be enlarged, but the nature and cause of such enlargement cannot in general be distinguished. In one instance, however, lately recorded by Dr. Marcet, the calculi could be plainly felt through the coats of the rectum, and a proposal was made to extract them by an incision in that situation; but the patient did not accede to so judicious a measure. (*Med. and Chem. Hist. of Calculous Disorders*, Lond. 1817.) When a calculus projects from the prostate into the urethra, the end of a sound will strike against it; but then it can rarely be known whether the extraneous substance may not be a calculus that has passed out of the bladder into the urethra, or lies close to the neck of this viscus.

Whether the case be of one description or the other, however, the treatment should be the same; *viz.* the calculus should be extracted by an incision, resembling that practised in the lateral operation.

Another species of retention of urine is that produced by a considerable varicose affection of the vessels surrounding the prostate gland, which part is also generally somewhat enlarged. In this case, the water should be drawn off with an elastic gum catheter, which should be kept in the urethra; and a large instrument is to be preferred to a smaller one. For an account of the symptoms of this case, we must refer to Default's *Œuvres Chir.* t. 3, p. 234. The portion of the urethra which passes through the prostate, is afterwards to be gradually dilated with bougies or elastic catheters, which are to be worn a long while, and cleaned and changed at proper intervals.

A scirrhus induration and enlargement of the prostate gland form another very common disease in old subjects. The size and hardness of the gland are said to vary considerably, according to the duration of the complaint. It has often been found as hard as a cartilage; more commonly its struc-

ture presents an appearance as if filled with a firm tough lymph. Sometimes the part is two or three times as large as natural, and J. L. Petit once saw it as large as the fist. In some instances, only a part of it is scirrhous; in others, the whole of it is thus affected. The hardened gland can be felt in the rectum, and the examination does not give much pain.

A retention of urine is an ordinary symptom of a scirrhous of the prostate; the catheter is also here necessary, and the introduction of it is often attended with greater difficulty than in other affections of this gland. As the induration of the part does not allow it to yield, small catheters are better than those of large size. It also frequently happens, that considerable force must be used; and as this cannot be done with elastic catheters, a silver catheter, of the size used for children, was recommended by Default. The moderns sometimes employ a conical silver catheter, as we have already noticed. Sometimes, however, no instrument can be introduced unless it be rotated, in doing which it is essential to recollect that the urethra in these cases makes a very sudden turn upward before it terminates in the bladder.

After the silver catheter has been worn three or four days, the canal is usually freer, so that one made of elastic gum will now admit of being passed. This last must in general be continually employed for four or five weeks, and in the mean while attempts should be made to check the disease in the prostate by the exhibition of mercurials, conium, &c. Suppositories of hemlock have also been particularly recommended. Some of Mr. Hunter's remarks on this complaint will be found in the article *PROSTATE Gland, Disease of*.

17. *Retention of Urine brought on by Strictures.*—This is another case, which we deem necessary to notice in this work. The common nature, most frequent situation, and different methods of treating strictures in the urethra, have been already explained. (See *URETHRA, Strictures of*.) Persons who have been long subject to strictures in the urethra, but who are still able to void their urine in a small stream, are liable, from accidental causes, to have a complete retention, and are incapable of expelling the contents of the bladder. This arises in some cases from the diameter of the urethra being still further diminished by attacks of inflammation, but more frequently from the spasmodic state of the urethra and muscles of the perineum. The same effect may be produced by such patients retaining their urine too long after the first desire to void it is experienced. It happens not unfrequently, that the permanent stricture may be of such a nature, as not to admit of the introduction of any instrument into the bladder, even under the most favourable circumstances. A spasmodic state of the urethra, as Mr. Earle has further observed, would not facilitate such attempts. Other cases again occur, in which perhaps an instrument can be passed, when the urethra is in a more tranquil state, but where it would be highly injudicious, and often impracticable to introduce such instruments under circumstances of irritation, by which attempts the spasm would be increased, and the patient rendered liable to returns of retention, even were we to succeed in the first instance.

In all such cases, it is, as Mr. Earle remarks, highly desirable to overcome the retention by other means than the introduction of instruments. For this purpose purgatives, general and local bleeding, warm-baths, the tinctura opii, and tinctura ferri muriatis, are commonly resorted to. With respect to purgatives, their action necessarily requires more time than, from the urgency of the symptoms, is frequently admissible. The other remedies are highly useful, and will frequently fulfil every indication. Sometimes, however, they are unavailing, and we are compelled to resort to ope-

rations for relieving the distended bladder. Mr. Earle then proceeds to recommend the use of tobacco in the form of an enema, either of smoke or the decoction, which he found, in some cases which are detailed, a powerful and expeditious means of relieving the retention of urine, when other more common remedies had failed. See *Medico-Chir. Transf.* vol. vi. p. 84, &c.

18. *Retention of Urine produced by foreign Bodies in the Urethra.*—Most of the foreign bodies, occasionally met with in the bladder, may cause a retention of urine, when they are lodged and stopped in the urethra. Thus, calculi, bougies, &c. fixed in this canal, may become obstacles to the transmissibility of the urine through it. The means which have been recommended for promoting the removal of such extraneous substances are numerous. Some advise oily injections to be thrown into the urethra, in order to make its surface more slippery, while others think it better to dilate the canal as much as possible with catgut bougies. The ancients proposed the trial of suction. But, says Default, these and other similar means are ineffectual, when the foreign body is closely embraced by the urethra. In this case, he observes, if the extraneous substance cannot be pushed forward with the fingers applied externally, an endeavour may be made to extract it with the forceps, invented for the purpose by Mr. Hunter, and which are contained in a cannula. When, however, the foreign body is too large to be got out in this manner, it must be extracted by an incision. The wound of the operation will afterwards be found to heal up very well, if care be taken to keep an elastic catheter in the urethra, in order to prevent the urine from coming into contact with the cut part. There has lately been published a case of calculus in the urethra, attended with dysuria, where almost instantaneous relief was obtained from the exhibition of an enema of tobacco. The patient soon felt a strong desire to void his urine, and "upon making the attempt, a large calculus came rolling along the urethra, with complete relief of all his complaints." See *Edinb. Med. and Surg. Journal*, vol. xii. p. 373.

URINE, Suppression of, in Animals, a disease arising from the want of making water in consequence of some affection of the parts concerned in passing it. The complaint is caused, according to some, either by inflammation obstructing the functions of the kidneys, or by the ureters being obstructed by stones, small gravel, or other such foreign matters, or when affected with any numbness, or other defect, that may disable them in their office of separating the urine from the blood. In this last case, the bladder is, for the most part, empty, so that the animals make no motions to pass urine, but stand in the straddling manner, as in other disorders of the urinary passages, when the bladder is full or the urethra inflamed; this is particularly the case in the horse kind of animals; and if they continue a few days in this condition, without the secretion of urine, their bodies are liable to swell to a very great degree, and they, in this sort of animals, often break out universally in blotches and die, unless speedy relief be afforded. Where the disease is caused by strangury, it is commonly attended with a partial, if not a complete suppression of urine, but in general without much appearance of fever, though there are signs of uneasiness and irritation with loss of appetite. The disorder may be produced from different other causes, as from whatever has a tendency to affect the parts about the neck of the bladder, such as certain articles of food, blows, a spasmodic state of the muscles inducing contraction in them, and some others.

In the cure of the disease, it will first mostly be necessary, in cases where there is a tendency to inflammation, to take away a few pints of blood in proportion to the state of the affection

URINE.

affection and the size of the animal. Where horses are subject to an obstruction in the passages of the urine from calculus, but which is rarely the case, the proper method of cure is, according to some, to begin with strong diuretic remedies, in connection with stimulating clysters; and if there should be any suspicion of inflammation either in the kidneys or ureters, it may be proper to bleed in a plentiful manner, to the amount in some cases of three or four pints. And balls composed of the following ingredients are likewise advised to be given and repeated two or three times the first day, and as often the next, as in such cases no time is to be lost; for, if the horse or other animal does not stale or pass urine in the course of thirty hours, the case is mostly desperate: Juniper-berries in fine powder, an ounce; scotrine aloes and nitre in powder, each six drachms; oil of turpentine, three drachms, and of amber and juniper, each two drachms; liquorice powder and treacle, sufficient quantities to form a mass of suitable consistence for being divided into two balls, to be given at one time as above.

At the same time a clyster prepared in the following manner may be thrown up with great benefit: Barbadoes aloes, two ounces; the same quantity of turpentine, beaten up with the yolks of eggs; half an ounce of powdered jalap; four ounces of nitre, and juniper and bay berries bruised, each a small handful; infused in two quarts of a decoction of marshmallows, to which is then added a pint of linseed oil.

Where these remedies fail in removing the complaint, the horse or other animal's loins are advised to be rubbed with a mixture of oil of turpentine and of amber, and to lay a cataplasm over the small of the back and kidneys, formed of pounded garlic, mustard-seed, camphor, and soap. This, it is thought, may prove beneficial as a stimulant to the kidneys, in case they happen to be deficient in nervous influence; and that, in case of inflammation, the same remedy may act as a blister without the danger of producing a strangury, and in that way too be of service. It should be spread on a coarse flannel cloth doubled, bound on with a broad woollen roller, and renewed once in two days, until the horse or other animal comes to stale or pass urine freely: calomel too in the quantity of a drachm and a half or two drachms, made up into a ball, and repeated every two days, once or twice, may be of use in cases where the kidneys are not inflamed; after which the horse or other animal may be purged gently where it is necessary.

In cases where the suppression of urine is caused by or attended with strangury, after bleeding and opening the bowels when necessary, a ball, composed in the manner directed below, and given in a pint of the decoction, once or twice in the day, as there may be occasion, will often be found very beneficial: pure opium in powder, half a drachm; camphor rubbed into a powder, three drachms; nitre in powder, half an ounce; common soap, six drachms; balsam capivi sufficient to make them into a ball.

In preparing the decoction, four ounces of linseed and the same quantity of mallow root bruised, with three ounces and a half of gum arabic, should in the whole be boiled for a few minutes in three pints of water, and the liquor then strained off for use as above.

Wet cloths frequently squeezed out of a warm decoction of chamomile, and other similar herbs and flowers, may often be applied with great benefit to the parts between the legs, near to the neck of the bladder.

The animals should have masses of bran, malt, and other such matters, occasionally given to them, with warm water or oatmeal gruel for drink.

By these means, affections of this sort may commonly be speedily removed without any great difficulty.

URINE, Chemical Properties of. Perhaps no animal product has more attracted the attention of chemists than the urine, not only on account of its supposed connection with diseases, but also on account of its compound nature, and singular chemical properties. The older chemists, Brandt, Kunckel, Boyle, &c. were led to examine its nature chiefly on account of the phosphorus which they extracted from it. Since their time others have examined it with different and various views, among whom may be mentioned Boerhaave, Haller, Margraff, Pott, Rouelle jun., Cruickshanks, Fourcroy and Vauquelin, Proust, Klaproth, and more lately Berzelius, who has given by far the best and most rational account of this fluid which has yet been published.

Fresh human urine differs considerably in its appearance, according to the state of a person's health, his food, or the period at which it has been voided. In general, the urine of a person in health, voided in the morning, is a transparent liquid of a light amber colour, an aromatic odour, resembling that of violets, and a disagreeable taste. When it cools, the aromatic smell leaves it, and is succeeded by another, well known by the name of *urinous*. In two or three days this is succeeded by another, which has been compared to that of four milk. This also gradually disappears, and is finally succeeded by a fetid alkaline odour.

Fresh urine, just voided, reddens turnsole paper, and therefore contains a free acid. The specific gravity of urine, according to Mr. Cruickshanks, varies from 1.005 to 1.033. According to the recent experiments of Dr. Scudamore, the specific gravity of *healthy* urine lies between 1.010 and 1.015. The specific gravity of morbid urine, according to the same author, is frequently as high as 1.030, and occasionally as high as 1.040.

We shall give the results of Berzelius's analysis of this fluid, and afterwards make some remarks upon the more important ingredients contained in it. According to this accurate chemist, 1000 parts of urine are composed of

Water	-	-	-	-	-	933.00
Urea	-	-	-	-	-	30.10
Sulphate of potash	-	-	-	-	-	3.71
Sulphate of soda	-	-	-	-	-	3.16
Phosphate of soda	-	-	-	-	-	2.94
Muriate of soda	-	-	-	-	-	4.45
Phosphate of ammonia	-	-	-	-	-	1.65
Muriate of ammonia	-	-	-	-	-	1.50
Free lactic acid	-	-	-	-	-	
Lactate of ammonia	-	-	-	-	-	
Animal matter soluble in alcohol, and usually accompanying the lactates	-	-	-	-	-	17.14
Animal matter insoluble in alcohol	-	-	-	-	-	
Urea, not separable from the preceding	-	-	-	-	-	
Earthy phosphates, with a trace of fluat of lime	-	-	-	-	-	1.00
Uric acid	-	-	-	-	-	1.00
Mucus of the bladder	-	-	-	-	-	0.32
Silex	-	-	-	-	-	0.03
						1000.00

Of this analysis, Berzelius remarks, that "the relative proportions of the ingredients probably vary independently of disease. I believe, however, that in urine they are never very different, unless from pathological causes, which materially affect the health."

Of these numerous ingredients we shall briefly speak of
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URINE.

the acids only of the urine, having treated at length of *urea* in its proper place.

The acids of the urine may be considered as of two kinds, those peculiar to it, and generated in the act of secretion; and those common to it and the blood, and which of course pre-existed in that fluid. In the first class are comprised the sulphuric acid, the uric acid, and occasionally the benzoic and carbonic acids; in the second, the phosphoric and lactic acids, which appear to be more abundant in the urine than the blood, and consequently may be supposed to be formed in part in the kidneys also; in the third, the muriatic and fluoric acids which appear to pass from the blood to the urine without any increase from the kidney. As by the laws of chemical affinity these acids will unite with any alkaline base that may be present, and saturate themselves with it in the order of the force of their respective affinities, it must follow, as justly observed by Berzelius, that when the quantity of alkali is insufficient to saturate all the acids present, the weakest acids must be those that will remain uncombined, and will consequently impart to the urine their peculiarly acid characters. These therefore must necessarily be the lactic and the uric acids.

The *sulphuric acid* does not exist in the blood, but it is found in considerable quantity in the urine. Rouelle senior long ago pointed out this fact, but it seems to have been regarded by subsequent chemists rather as an accidental than as a constant occurrence. Berzelius, however, has shewn the contrary, and states that he has good reason for believing that this acid is an essential constituent of the urine. The same excellent chemist also has shewn that the whole of the sulphur contained in the blood is not acidified in the kidneys, but that a portion of it still remains in an unaltered though combined state in the urine.

The leading properties of the *uric acid* have been discussed under its proper head; we shall therefore confine ourselves here to a few circumstances connected with its formation and separation from the urine. The red crystalline deposit, or gravel, which occurs in urine that has been kept for a few days, consists chiefly of uric acid united with the colouring matter of the urine, or, according to Berzelius, with ammonia. What is termed also the *pink*, or *lateritious sediment*, a substance frequently formed in derangements of the digestive organs, and especially in gout, and which was formerly considered a distinct principle by Proust, who named it the *rosacic acid*, has been lately shewn to consist chiefly of uric acid, combined with colouring matter and soda.

The *benzoic acid*, according to Scheele, is sometimes found in the urine of infants. Berzelius, however, has never been able to detect it, and seems to doubt if it ever exists in healthy human urine.

With respect to the *carbonic acid*, Berzelius seems to doubt if it ever exists in healthy urine, and supposes its occasional presence to arise from the decomposition of urea. Dr. Marcet states that he has sometimes found traces of carbonic acid in the urine, and sometimes not; and concludes, "that the evolution of this gas from the urine, whether arising from the presence of uncombined carbonic acid, or from some decomposition of the animal matter contained in that fluid, depends upon certain states of the body at the moment the urine is secreted, rather than upon the introduction of the gaseous acid through the digestive organs."

The *phosphoric acid*, for the reasons before mentioned, can hardly be ever supposed to exist in urine in the free state. Its salts, however, form very important ingredients of that fluid. What is termed *white gravel*, or *sand*, usually consists of the phosphate of magnesia and ammonia, and of the

phosphate of lime, and are perhaps chiefly formed in the kidney.

To the *lactic acid*, and the peculiar animal matters which accompany it, Berzelius ascribes chiefly the acid properties, as well as the peculiar colour and smell of the urine.

The *muriatic acid*, and its compounds, the muriates of soda and ammonia, exist in the urine, (more especially the muriate of soda,) in considerable quantity. The muriate of soda is probably never a product of secretion, but derived from the blood. The origin of the muriate of ammonia is more obscure.

The presence of a small portion of the *fluoric acid* in urine in combination with lime has been demonstrated by Berzelius; but the existence of this principle, as well as of *silica* in the urine, rests at present, we believe, upon his authority alone.

The urine is not only liable to be much modified by disease, but from the same cause occasionally contains substances which never exist in it in a healthy state. The principal of these are albumen, saccharine matter, and oxalic acid, all which, as well as others, probably depend either upon a suspension or perversion of the secreting powers of the kidney.

Thus the albumen seems to be derived at once from the blood. The saccharine matter, as stated under *UREA*, appears to be formed by some unknown process from that substance, while the oxalic acid is probably derived from the same source.

The above observations apply to the human urine; we come now to make a few remarks upon the urine of other animals; a most extensive field of research, but which has not at present been much investigated.

Urine of the Lion and Tiger.—The urines of these animals, according to Vauquelin, closely resemble one another, and likewise bear some analogy to the human urine; they differ from it, however, in the following essential points: they contain no uric acid, nor any combination of that principle, as might have been expected from the food on which these animals live. They contain, however, a great proportion of urea, though very little muriate of soda. They have a peculiar fetid smell, which is derived, in part, probably from the ammonia developed from the decomposition of the urea. This smell is well known to be common to the urine of all the feline animals, and may in every instance be supposed to be owing to a similar cause.

The urines of the *horse* and *cow* do not differ much from one another, according to the same chemist. Both become muddy in cooling; both are alkaline, and contain a large proportion of carbonate of lime, benzoic acid, and urea, but no uric acid. One thousand parts of the urine of the horse, according to Fourcroy and Vauquelin, are composed of

Water and mucus	-	-	-	940
Urea	-	-	-	7
Carbonate of lime	-	-	-	11
Benzoate of soda	-	-	-	24
Carbonate of soda	-	-	-	9
Muriate of potash	-	-	-	9

1000

The urine of the *camel* has been examined by Rouelle. Its odour resembles that of the cow. Its colour is that of beer; it is not mucilaginous, and does not deposit carbonate of lime. It is alkaline, and contains the carbonate, sulphate, and muriate of potash, and urea. Mr. Brande, who has since

URINE.

since examined this fluid, thought he discovered in it traces of uric acid.

The urine of the *beaver* has been examined by Vauquelin. It bears a strong resemblance to the urine of herbivorous animals in general. It contains carbonate of lime, held in solution by excess of carbonic acid; also benzoic and acetic acids, urea, muriate of soda, and sulphate of potash, but no uric acid nor phosphates. It contains, however, muriate of ammonia, and carbonate and acetate of magnesia, according to the same chemist, though we think the existence of the last principle is doubtful. The specimen examined by Vauquelin also afforded distinct traces of the colouring principle of the willow bark, on which this animal feeds.

The urine of the *rabbit* has been examined by the same chemist, who found this, as well as the urine of the *guinea pig*, to resemble very closely the urines of the herbivorous quadrupeds above described.

The same indefatigable chemist also, assisted by Fourcroy, has examined the urine of *domestic fowls*, in which they found uric acid, a fact which has been confirmed by succeeding chemists. They also found the same acid in great abundance in the excrements of a South-sea bird, called *guano*.

Lastly, Dr. Prout has given the following analysis of the excrements, or urine, of the *boa constrictor*. One hundred parts were found to consist of

Uric acid	- - - - -	90.16
Potash	- - - - -	3.45
Ammonia	- - - - -	1.70
Sulphate of potash, with a trace of muriate of soda	- - - - -	.95
Phosphate of lime	- - - - -	.80
Carbonate of lime	- - - - -	
Magnesia	- - - - -	
Animal matter, consisting of mucus, and a little colouring matter	- - - - -	2.94
		100.00

The uric acid, in this instance, was in combination with the potash and ammonia, and was easily obtained in a perfectly pure state by the usual processes.

Hence it appears that the urine of quadrupeds agrees with the human urine, in containing urea; but materially differs from it, in being without phosphoric or uric acid, and in containing an excess of carbonic acid: while the urines of birds and serpents seem to contain an excess of uric acid, and a deficiency of the other ingredients existing in the human urine.

URINE, in *Agriculture*, the saline fluid secreted from the blood of animals by the kidneys, and discharged by the canal of the urethra, which is highly useful as manure in different cases, in promoting vegetation, and increasing the fertility of land. It is, indeed, in this last way, of great use, in improving most sorts of soil. Besides its value in other intentions too, Columella has asserted, that old urine is excellent when applied to the roots of trees. Hartlib also has much commended the Dutch for preserving the urine of cows as carefully as they do the dung, for enriching their lands.

This is therefore a fluid which is capable of being employed with great success and benefit both on meadow and on arable land, and which affords uncommon fertility and improvement to both in many cases. In the former case, the best time for sprinkling or applying the liquid over the land, is supposed by some to be during the winter months, when the rains will have the most power in washing

the fertilizing parts of it into the soil; or, the land may be sprinkled over with it, early in the spring, just before it is laid or shut up for hay; because no cattle will touch the grafs so long as the saline matters adhere to the blades of it. Another circumstance which is necessary to be attended to in such cases, in order to make the most of this very valuable fluid manure; is, that it be carried out to the meadow and pasture-grounds that are intended to be dressed with it, in a dry time, as the urine and farm-yard liquor in the reservoirs is at such periods the most strongly impregnated with saline and other matters, as may be known by the deep brown or blackish colour that is present. All such reservoirs or ponds, as are appropriated for the reception of it, should constantly be kept, in some measure, in a state of readiness for the purpose, at such seasons; and the lands may be sprinkled or moistened as often as occasion may render it necessary or proper.

The practice of most modern farmers in respect to preserving urine is, it is said, as opposite as possible; for they not only suffer that of their cattle to flow away, but have generally their dung-heaps so situated that they are drenched and impoverished by rain, which conveys their most valuable ingredients into the next river. The more heavy and cumbersome materials, which the water can neither dissolve nor sweep away; are frequently, it is said, alone reserved, to be bestowed, at a great expence, on the defrauded land.

It is conceived by a writer in the fourth volume of Communications to the Board of Agriculture, that the quantity of most valuable manure which may thus be carried away, is much greater than is perhaps imagined. Lately, the writer obtained more than half an ounce of a dry fetid substance from one quart of human urine. Supposing the urine of cattle, it is said, to be equally productive, every hoghead of it which flows out of a farm-yard, without even any impregnation from the dung-heap, carries away seven and a half pounds of solid matter. This should induce farmers in all cases to waste liquors of this sort as little as possible, and to convert them as much as can be to the improvement of land, and earthy substances as manure, for applying upon it.

It is remarked that urine is very liable to change, and to undergo the putrefactive process; and that that of carnivorous animals does it more rapidly than that of the graminivorous kind. That in proportion as there is more gelatine and albumen in urine, so in proportion does it putrefy more quickly. That the sorts of urine that contain most albumen, gelatine, and urea, are the best as manures; and that all urine contains the essential elements of vegetables in a state of solution. That as during the putrefaction of urine, the greatest part of the soluble animal matter that it contains is destroyed, it should, of course, it is said, be used as fresh as possible; but that if not mixed with solid matter, it should be diluted with water, as when pure it contains too large a quantity of animal matter to form a proper fluid nourishment for absorption by the roots of plants. The ancients had, however, a notion of using urine stale: but of mixing it with rich earthy matters, which is probably the best and most economical mode of applying it, they had, it would seem, no idea.

Putrid urine, it is said, abounds in ammoniacal salts; and that though less active than fresh urine, is a very powerful manure.

In some northern districts very great improvement is produced on grafs land by the application of urine and dung-liquor in the beginning of the autumn, as about November. The fluid is conveyed and applied to the land by means of a rum-

a rum-

a rum-puncheon, which is mounted on wheels, being filled by large pails with long handles. Two persons, a man and boy, are employed in the work. One puncheon full is capable of doing forty-six rods (of seven yards) forward, and three yards in breadth. In this way, it is very readily and conveniently made use of, when applied in the liquid state. The writer of the Agricultural Report of the County of Peebles observes, that the urine of cattle, until of late too much neglected, is now more attended to: it is collected by earth laid down to absorb it, as well as the liquids that run off from the dungheads, or it is received into a pit furnished with a pump. Some collect it in the first manner, and apply it to the land by putting it into a puncheon mounted as above, and furnished at the hindmost end with a pipe, terminating in a large rofe, somewhat like that of a watering pan. It is drawn over the field by one horse, and the urine from the rofe besprinkles to the breadth of nine feet, so that an eighteen-foot ridge is done in the going and returning of the carriage. It is observed, too, that as urine is of a scorching quality, it is unsafe to apply it to any growing crop, in great heat or drought; so that, in general, it is unadvisable so to apply it after the month of May. That it ought not to be applied to any land in winter, from its being so easily washed away by rains; and never on wet lands, earlier than the month of March; and then only in dry weather. That it may be laid on fallow, at any time when it is dry enough to absorb it readily. That, in dry warm weather, it is advantageously thrown over dunghills, especially those of the compost kind.

Notwithstanding these remarks on the great use of urine, it is stated in the seventh volume of the Bath Letters and Papers, that an attentive and diligent farmer took the trouble one year to carry out all the stable liquor *alone*, but without observing any good effects from it, and that another person was known to him who had done the same thing without any better success. The time, manner, or sort of land to which it was applied are not, however, mentioned, which would probably have explained the reason of its want of success in such cases.

URINE, *Salt of*. See *Fusible SALT*.

URINOUS SALTS are the same with what we otherwise call *alkaline salts*, or *alkalies*.

There are two kinds of urinous salts, the one *fixt*, the other *volatile*. The first prevail in plants, and the volatile in animals.

They are called urinous, in respect of their taste and smell, which bear some resemblance to those of urine.

URIPA, in *Geography*, a town of Peru, in the diocese of Cusco; 120 miles W.N.W. of Cusco.

URIQUE, a town of New Mexico, in the province of Cinaloa; 120 miles N.E. of Cinaloa.

URISAL, a town of Sweden, in the province of Uppland; 6 miles N. of Stockholm.

VRISHADWAJA, a name of the Hindoo deity Siva. It is a compound word, meaning he who rides a bull; this animal being the vehicle on which that deity rides.

VRITRA, a demon, according to Hindoo legends, slain by their god Indra, regent of the firmament, who is thence named Vritrahan. See *INDRA*.

URITANUS AGER, in *Ancient Geography*, a territory of Italy, mentioned by Apian and Velleius Paterculus.

URITH, in *Rural Economy*, a term sometimes used to signify the bindings of hedges in those of the staff and band or rife kind. See *FENCE and HEDGE*.

URITZ, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Lower Loire; 14 miles N.N.E. of Ancenis.

URIVES, in *Rural Economy*, a term sometimes applied

to the nets which are used to catch hawks, and other similar birds of prey with, in different places.

URIUM, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Hispania, in Bætica, on the confines of Lusitania, belonging to the Turditani. Ptolemy.—Also, one of two rivers of Bætica, between the Axas and the Bætis.

URIUMKAN, in *Geography*, a river of Russia, which runs into the Arguna, N. lat. 51° 55'. E. long. 124° 15'.

URJUP, or URUP, one of the Kurile islands, distant from Shipo Oi 25 versts. This island is larger than most of the others, being 200 versts long, and 20 broad. Its mountains are high, with bald heads; they are very steep, and about them are deep glens. On the north coast lie four small isles almost contiguous. In the vales, and beside the streams, a plain is occasionally seen; and in the valleys as well as on the mountains, and indeed over the whole island on the north and east sides, are high forests of birches, elders, the forbus sylvestris, and sturdy rattans. On the shores and in the valley-plains the herbs shoot to an uncommon height. Considerable streams flow from the mountains into the sea, and yield a variety of fish. In the northern part, about the middle of the island, is an inland sea, which discharges its waters by a level stream into the ocean; which stream teems with fish. The island abounds with rats, and with red and white foxes. In the clefts of the mountains is found ore, such as copper pyrites mixed with quartz, sulphur pyrites as hard as steel, with quartz, and a poor copper pyrites in a calcareous gangue. This island is only frequented for taking the foxes. Tooke's Russ. vol. i.

URK, a small island in the Zuyder Zee; 11 miles E. of Enckhuyten.

URKEND, or UZKUND, or *Adercand*, a town of Turkistan; 90 miles N.E. of Tonceat.

URKOK, a town of Bengal; 14 miles N. of Doesa.

URKONGE, or KORKANJE, or *Orkanje*, or *Urgentz*, a town of Asia, and capital of Charafin, on a branch of the Jihon, which runs into the lake Aral. In the year 1221, this place was besieged by the troops of Jenghiz Khan, and after an obstinate defence, and the death of the governor, the inhabitants set fire to their houses: those who remained after the slaughter which followed the surrender were condemned to slavery; 320 miles W.N.W. of Samarcand. N. lat. 42° 35'. E. long. 58° 30'.

URKUP, or YURKUP, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Caramania, on the Kizil-ermuk; 10 miles W.S.W. of Tocat. N. lat. 38° 37'. E. long. 34° 18'.

URLINGFORD, a small town of the county of Kilkeny, Ireland; about 10 miles S.W. from Durrow.

URLIUTIIPSKOI, a fort of Russia, in the government of Kolivan, on the east side of the Irtysh. N. lat. 53° 36'. E. long. 75° 34'.

URMIAH, or URUMEA, a district of Persia, in the province of Azerbaijan.—Also, an ancient city of the same province, the Thebama of Strabo, and supposed birth-place of Zoroaster, situated on a noble plain, which is fertilized by the river Shar, and on the south-west of the lake to which it gives name. This town is distant 32 furlongs from Tabreez, and contains a population of 12,000 souls. It is defended by a strong wall and deep ditch, that may be filled with water from the river, and the vicinity produces wine and corn in abundance. It cannot boast of a single river of consequence. N. lat. 37°. E. long. 45° 40'.—Also, a lake generally believed to be the Spauto of Strabo, and Marcianus of Ptolemy, about 80 furlongs or 300 miles in circumference. The water is more saline than the sea, and it emits a disagreeable sulphurous smell, so that no fish can live in it. Some say that the surface is occasionally incrufted

crusted with salt; but this is not always, if ever, the case. On one of the islands in the lake (for there are several) Holaku built a fortress, in which he secured the spoil he had collected during his conquests. The largest of these islands forms, in the dry season, a kind of peninsula, and is 25 miles in circumference; only inhabited by wild asses, deer, and many other kinds of game. In skirting the northern side of the lake, which is of an elliptic shape, we meet the town and district of Sa Bulagh (the cold stream). It is 12 furlongs from Maraga, and possessed by the Kurdish tribe of Meekree. Maraga (which see), supposed to be the Garmara of Diodorus, has a spacious bazaar; is encompassed with a high wall, and is pleasantly situated in a low valley, at the extremity of a well-cultivated plain, opening to the lake, from which Maraga is distant 9 or 10 miles. The town has about 15,000 inhabitants, a glass manufactory, a handsome public bath, and near it an observatory built on the top of a mountain by Holaku, for his friend Nafer-Aden, the most famous astronomer of his time, who here formed the tables known by his name. The elevated country in the vicinity of lake Urumea was the seat of the Affassins, finally extirpated by Holaku. M'Kinneir's Persia.

URMUK, a small island in the Red sea, near the coast of Arabia; 3 miles S.S.W. of Loheia.

URMUND, a town of France, in the department of the Lower Meuse; 10 miles N.N.E. of Maëtricht.

URN, URNA, a kind of vase, of a roundish form, but biggest in the middle, like the common pitchers; now seldom used, but in the way of ornament over chimney-pieces, in buffets, &c.; or, by way of acroters, at the tops of buildings, funeral monuments, &c.

The great use of urns, among the ancients, was to preserve the ashes of the dead, after they were burnt; for which reason they were called *cineraria*, and *urna cineraria*; and were placed sometimes under the tomb-stone, upon which the epitaph was cut, and sometimes preserved in vaults in their own houses.

Urns were also used, at their sacrifices, to put liquid things in. They were also of use in the *sortes Praenestinae*, or casting of lots. At Rome, also, the custom was to absolve or condemn the accused, by the suffrages, or calculi, which the judges cast into the *judicatory* urn.

Virgil represents Minos, the judge of hell, shaking the urn, to decide the lots of mankind.—*Quæstior Minos urnam movet.*

The urn is still the attribute of rivers, which are painted leaning on urns, representing their sources by the waters flowing from them. We find them represented, in the same manner, on antique medals, and reliefs.

These vessels are frequent in many parts of this kingdom, where there have been Roman stations, and are of very various kinds and manner of workmanship.

Dr. Lister, who was very fortunate in his researches into the structure and differences of these remains of antiquity, observed, that in Yorkshire, where there are great numbers found, there were met with three very different kinds, as to their matter and tempers.

1. A blueish-grey sort, which had a great quantity of coarse sand wrought in among the clay. 2. A sort of the same blueish colour, but containing a sand of a much finer kind, and full of mica, and probably made of a clay naturally sandy, or a fine smooth and stiff loam. And, 3. A red sort, made of a fine pure clay, with little or no mixture of sand. These are throughout of a fine red colour like bole, and many of them are elegantly adorned with figures

in basso relievo, and usually these have on the bottom, or else on the cover, the name of the workman, which some have mistaken for the name of the person whose ashes they inclose; but this must be an error, since great numbers of pots and urns are found with the same name. Those are varnished all over, both inside and out, with a varnish of a bright red colour.

The several matters of these urns informed this ingenious inquirer of the place where they were made; which he found to be in the same county on sand-hills, now never used as potteries; but, as he well observes, the difference is very great between the potteries of those days and of ours, since we, who use great quantities of clay, and but little sand, erect these works where there is much clay, and bring the small quantity of sand we use to it; whereas the Romans, on the other hand, who used much sand, and but little clay, naturally established their works where there was plenty of sand, and brought their clay to it.

The Roman urns differ from the earthen-ware made at this time in several particulars. 1. They have no lead-glazing, which seems a modern invention, and is, in many respects, a very bad one. (See GLAZING.) 2. They are composed of a far larger quantity of sand than clay. And, 3. They are baked not in an open fire, as our common earthen-ware, but have been inclosed in large earthen vessels, to defend them from the immediate contact of the flames; and hence it is, that the natural colour of the clay they are made of is not altered in them.

The red urns seem to have been the master-piece of the workmen, and to have employed their greatest art; the embossed work upon them is often very beautiful, and their coral-like glazing is more beautiful than any thing of the modern times, and seems to have been done by dipping them all over in some appropriated liquor, and afterwards baking them in the close manner before described. This has certainly been the method they used, since the fragments of these large coffins, or cases, are found near all the Roman potteries. Hooke's Philosophical Collections, p. 87.

The Romans, and most other nations, contented themselves to make their funeral urns of potters' ware, or baked earth; but we find there have been some people who have made them of gold, on particular occasions. In the year 1685, as a peasant of the island of Funen was ploughing a piece of land, which had before lain barren, he turned up no less than six golden sepulchral urns. They were all full of a greyish substance, which some took to be a grey earth; but it was much more probably ashes.

These are all preserved at this time in the museum of the king of Denmark at Copenhagen; the largest of them weighs two ounces and a half, and the others about two ounces and one drachm each. Wormius, and some others, give accounts, that it was an ancient custom among the northern nations to burn their dead, and when they were great persons to collect their ashes, and bury them in golden urns; and the finding of these seems an evident proof of the truth of that account.

These urns were very thin, and each had three rings of gold about their necks, and several circles, one within another, with one common centre carved on the outside round the body of the urn. They held about five ounces of liquids a-piece, or a little more than that; one near six ounces.

Sepulchral urns of crystal were also not uncommon; the same museum has some of these: they are of a conic figure, and have usually a gold wire wound round them. Urns of this kind have been found buried in some parts of Norway.

Urns

Urns of another kind were those which they called *lachry-males*, or the *tear-urns*: these were contrived to receive the tears of the friends of the deceased, which were afterwards mingled with the ashes of the burnt corpse. These were made of various materials, and of various shapes and sizes, according to the fancy of particular people. Phil. Trans. N^o 285.

URNS, *Vases*, &c. in *Ornamental Gardening*, objects used for the purpose of beauty in some cases of this sort of gardening. It has been observed by Mr. Loudon, in his work on farming and improving country residences, that these are materials which should be introduced with caution; and that none of the others require so much taste and judgment to manage them with propriety as urns, statues, busts, monuments, and inscriptions. The introduction of statues, except among works of the most artificial kind, is seldom or ever, it is said, to be allowed; as when they obtrude themselves among natural beauties, they always disturb the train of ideas that ought to be excited in the mind, and in general destroy the character of the scenery. In the same way, urns, busts, monuments, and other such figures, in flower-gardens, are, it is thought, quite misplaced, as may be felt in many such, by any person capable of attending to his own mind, and who understands the principles of taste. The obvious intention of such appendages is, it is supposed, to recal to mind the virtues, qualities, or actions of those for whom they were erected. Now, it is said, this requires time, seclusion, and undisturbed attention, which must either render all the flowers and other decorations of the ornamental garden of no effect; or, if they have effect, it can only be to interrupt the train of ideas excited by the other. As the garden, and the productions of nature in it, are what are intended to interest the spectator, it is plain, the writer thinks, that the others should not be introduced. This reasoning, while on the one hand it shews the absurdity of such a practice, on the other, it is said, directs that urns, monuments, and such like figures, should only be placed in solitary and unfrequented parts, where the mind is naturally led to contemplate, and where the remembrance of the virtues of great men, or the worth of relations now no more, afford proper subjects of contemplation. But even in places apparently solitary, or secluded, these have been introduced in so affected or improper a manner, as to furnish reason, it is said, for the greatest caution in future.

Though statues may sometimes come in well in sublime productions of architecture, they can seldom raise any sublime emotion, when they become principal in any scenery, as when they are used among trees, flowers, or in shrubberies. If placed among such scenery to be admired as works of art, as fine pieces of sculpture, they will never, it is said, sufficiently interest any but such contracted connoisseurs as would not enjoy the other objects, and would much distract the attention of men of true taste, as is the case with those in many places.

Inscriptions, merely as such, it is said, are in general defensible resources, and only indicate conceit and want of mind. If the inscription be apposite, we are much better pleased to feel or recollect the coincidence on reading, it is said, than to be told it by others; if it be foreign, or far fetched, it argues a gross defect in those who placed it there, and serves to excite ridicule; if it be merely a whim or fancy, as where an urn or seat in a pleasure-ground exhibits in large letters something trifling, it is disgusting.

URN, *Urna*, was also a Roman measure for liquid things;

containing about three gallons and a half of English wine measure.

The urn was half the amphora, and four times the congius.

UROCRITERIUM, or UROCRISIS, compounded of *υρον*, urine, and *κρισις*, criterion, mark, sign, a casting of water, or giving judgment on diseases by the sight of water. See URINE.

Hence, also, *uromancy*, *uroscopy*, &c.

UROGALLUS MAJOR, in *Ornithology*. See TETRAO, and also COCK of the Mountain, and GROUSE.

UROGALLUS MINOR. See TETRAO, and also GROUSE.

UROMASTIX, in *Zoology*, a name used by some authors for that sort of lizard called *cordylus*.

UROPIGIUM, in *Ornithology*, or rump, is that part of birds which is furnished with two glands, secreting a fattish liquor from an orifice in each, and which the birds express with their bills, in order to oil the decomposed parts of their feathers.

UROS, in *Ancient Geography*, a river of Italy, in Liguria, W. of Carthum.

UROSPERMUM, in *Botany*, from *ουρα*, a tail, and *σπέρμα*, seed, a name which originated with Scopoli, and is retained by Jussieu for the ARNOPOGON of recent authors; see that genus, described at length, at the end of our article TRAGOPOGON.

UROTAL, in *Mythology*, a name given among the Arabians to Dionysius, or Bacchus, under which appellation they worshipped the fun. See VOSSIIUS de Idol. l. i. c. 8.

UROTCHITSCHIE TASCHE, in *Geography*, a mountain of Russia, on the north coast of the sea of Aral. N. lat. 45° 30'. E. long. 60° 14'.

UROV, a river of Russia, which runs into the Argunia, near UROVKA.

UROVKA, a town of Russia, on the Argunia, on the borders of China; 120 miles E. of Stretensnk.

VROW-FISH, in *Ichthyology*, the name of a fresh-water fish of the malacostomous, or, as we call it, the leather-mouthed kind, caught in the lakes and rivers of Germany, and esteemed a very delicate fish.

It is something like the English rudd or finscale, but its body is somewhat longer, in proportion to its breadth; its back is brown, and its belly yellow; the belly-fins near the anus are a little reddish, but all the rest are brown; the scales are large and silvery, and the irises of the eyes have each, in their lower part, a blood-coloured spot; the tail is forked; and its usual size is about seven or eight inches, though it is sometimes caught considerably larger. Willughby's Hist. Pisc. p. 253.

URPANUS, in *Ancient Geography*, a considerable river of Pannonia, which discharged itself into the Danube.

URPHA, in *Geography*. See OUREA.

URQUHART, a parish in the shire of Elgin, Scotland, is situated on the coast of the Moray Firth, between the rivers Lossie and Spey, and extends about four miles in length, and three in breadth; but contains no creek or landing place of any kind. The north-west part is flat, and the soil sandy, rising only a few feet above the level of the sea; and probably has been formerly inundated, as there are evident marks of the sea having receded from the coast. The remainder of the parish is more elevated, and of an unequal surface: the air is mild and salubrious; the roads are in excellent repair; and the church is in good condition. The loch of Cotts, which is about a mile in circuit, contains pike only; it is frequented in winter by a great number of swans; and in the spring and autumn by vast flocks of wild fowls.

In the population return of 1811, this parish is stated to contain 229 houses, and 936 inhabitants. Four-fifths of the parish is the property of the earl of Fife, whose plantations cover an extent of 2478 acres, and add greatly to the beauty and ornament of the country. Innes-house, one of the numerous seats of the earl, is a noble mansion: it was formerly the residence of the ancient family of Innes, whose annals are marked with signal calamities. A priory was founded in this parish so early as the year 1125, by king David I.; the site has been recently converted into an arable field; and the name of Abbey-Well, which the country-people still give to the fountain that supplied the monks with water, is the only memorial now remaining.—Gazetteer of Scotland, 1806. Carlisle's Topographical Dictionary of Scotland, 1813.

URQUHART is also the name of a parish, now united with that of Glen-Moriston, in the shire of Inverness, Scotland. The united parishes occupy an extent of 30 miles in length, and from 8 to 12 miles in breadth. By the return of the year 1811, the population is stated to be 2446; the number of houses 482. The church is situated at Kilmore, in Urquhart; at Meikly, six miles up the country, is a good chapel; and in Glen-Moriston are two respectable meeting-houses, where the duty is performed by a missionary minister. The surface is, in general, mountainous, but comprehends the two valleys of Urquhart and Glen-Moriston, which extend in a westerly direction from loch Nefs, nearly parallel to each other, and separated by a ridge of lofty mountains; the height of which, Mealfuarmonie, is elevated 3060 feet above the level of the sea. Urquhart is a rich, though not a deep, loam, and uncommonly fruitful; the soil of Glen-Moriston is very inferior, being light and sandy. Three rivers pass through these parishes, the Moriston, Emeric, and Coiltie; they all fall into loch Nefs, and in their course form several magnificent cascades. The roads and bridges are in good repair; and at Borlem, a substantial bridge of three arches has been recently built over the Coiltie. On a rocky promontory, on the W. side of loch Nefs, are the ruins of Urquhart-castle: the loch washes the east wall, and the other three sides were fortified with a strong rampart, a ditch, and a drawbridge. Within the walls were accommodations for five hundred men. This castle was a royal fort, and was granted by king James IV. in 1509, with the lordship of Urquhart, to sir John Grant, chief of that ancient family, and ancestor to the present earl of Seafield. In the valley opposite to the castle are the remains of a religious house which belonged to the knights templars; and the site is still called "The Temple." At Corrymony, in Glen-Moriston, are to be seen vestiges of a druidical temple, in which the middle of the circle is occupied by a cairn of loose stones, on the summit of which is one very large stone.—Gazetteer of Scotland, 1806. Beauties of Scotland, vol. v., Inverness-shire, 1808. Carlisle's Topographical Dictionary of Scotland, 1813.

URQUHART is also a parish, now united with that of Logie-Wester, situated partly in the shire of Nairn, and partly in the shire of Ross, Scotland. It extends about nine miles in length, and four in breadth; lying along the eastern side of the Firth of Cromarty, and terminated by the river Conan, which here discharges itself into that arm of the sea. The surface is level, diversified by fertile fields, and sheltered by plantations. A new church has been lately built, on a more eligible situation than the old structure. The population of the united parishes was stated, in the return of the year 1811, to be, for that part in the shire of Nairn, 1510, occupying 369 houses, and for the part in Ross-shire, 2664, in 634 houses; making a total of 1003
Vol. XXXVII.

houses, and 4174 inhabitants. The property of the whole is divided among three heritors, who all possess elegant seats. These are, Findon, the property of sir Roderick Mackenzie, of Scattwell: on this estate is a small market-town, on the high road from Dingwall to Cromarty, where four annual fairs are held: Ferrintoth, belonging to Mr. Forbes of Culloden; this barony long enjoyed the exclusive privilege of distilling whisky without being subject to the excise laws; but in 1786 the right was resumed by government, the superior of the barony being allowed 20,000*l.* as a compensation: and Conan-side, the seat of sir Hector Mackenzie, of Gairloch, on whose estate are plantations of firs and forest-trees, of considerable extent, and in a flourishing condition.—Gazetteer of Scotland, 1806. Carlisle's Topographical Dictionary of Scotland, 1813.

URRIN, a river of the county of Wexford, Ireland, which joins the Slaney, a little south of Enniscorthy.

URRIS HEAD, a cape of the county of Mayo, Ireland, the northern point of the peninsula of the Mullet. N. lat. 54° 17'. W. long. 9° 51'.

URRISBEG, a mountain of Ireland, in the county of Galway, near the sea-coast; 38 miles W. of Galway.

URROLA, a river of Spain, in Guipuscoa, which runs into the sea, between the Orio and the Deva.

URROZ, a town of Spain, in Navarre; 12 miles S.S.E. of Pamplona.

URRY, in *Rural Economy*, a term sometimes applied to a sort of blue or black clay, lying near a vein of coal.

URSA, in *Astronomy*, the *Bear*, a name common to two constellations of the northern hemisphere, near the pole; distinguished by *Major* and *Minor*.

URSA *Major*, or the *Great Bear*, according to Ptolemy's Catalogue, consists of 35 stars; according to Tycho's, of 56; according to Hevelius's, of 73; but in the *British Catalogue*, we have 87. See CONSTELLATION.

URSA *Minor*, the *Little Bear*, called also *Charles's Wain*; and, by the Greeks, *Cynosura*; and its neighbourhood to the north pole gives the denomination *αρκτος* *bear*, to it. Ptolemy makes it consist of 8 stars; Tycho, of 7; Hevelius, of 12; but Mr. Flamsteed of 24. See CONSTELLATION.

URSA, *Cape*, in *Geography*, a cape of Sicily, on the N. coast. N. lat. 38° 18'. E. long. 13° 11'.

URSAKOWA, a town of Prussia, in the territory of Culm; 15 miles N.E. of Thorn.

URSCHENDOW, a town of Austrian Poland, in Galicia; 28 miles S.W. of Lublin.

URSEL, a town of Germany, in the county of Konigstein; 5 miles E.N.E. of Konigstein.

URSENTANI, in *Ancient Geography*, a people of Italy, in the interior of Lucania. Pliny.

URSEOLA, or URSOLIS, a town of Gallia Narbonensis, upon the route from Milan to Vienna, in passing by the Cottian Alps. See URSOLI.

URSEREN, in *Geography*, a celebrated valley of Switzerland, into which is an opening by a subterranean passage, through a rock of granite, called "Urner-loch," 9 feet broad, 10 high, and 220 long. In this valley are four villages, *viz.* Urteren, Hoptal, Realp, and Zandorf, which form a small republic under the protection of Uri. Its territory is about nine miles in length, and two in breadth, and contains about 1300 inhabitants. The people, in their general assembly, elect their "Talamman," or chief, and also some other magistrates; and there is a permanent council of fifteen members, who assemble in each of the different districts.

tricts. The people enjoy great privileges, but are not absolutely independent; for in civil causes an appeal lies from their courts of justice to Altdorf, and in criminal proceedings, two deputies from the government of Uri are present at the trial, and deliver to the judges of the valley the opinion of the council of Altdorf. This valley, though elevated and cold, affords excellent pasture. Above the village of Urferen is a small plantation of pines, the only wood in the valley, excepting a small quantity of underwood and stubbed willows, that feather the banks of the Reufs. In the adjacent country there are several mines of crysfall, a considerable quantity of which is exported. The language of the natives is a kind of provincial German, but almost every person speaks Italian.

The valley of Urferen is surrounded by high mountains, covered with pasture, terminating in barren rocks, in many parts capped with snow. Cox's Switzerland, vol. i.

URSHULT, a town of Sweden, in the province of Smaland; 22 miles S. of Wexio.

URSIGUNGE, a town of Hindoostan, in Benares; 16 miles W. of Morzapour.

URSINIA, in *Botany*, so named by Gærtner, appears to have been intended as a tribute to the memory of the Rev. John Henry Urfinus, formerly a clergyman at Ratibon, author of a learned octavo volume, entitled *Arboretum Biblicum*, published at Nuremberg in 1685, after its author's decease, in 1667. Gærtner, v. 2. 462. t. 174. Poiret in Lamarck Dict. v. 8. 256. This is the same genus with Mr. Brown's SPHENOGYNE, (see that article,) under which it ought to have been cited as a synonym. We know not why its earlier name was changed, the labours of Urfinus, though generally compilations, undoubtedly entitling him to such a memorial. There was also a Leonard Urfinus, professor of Botany at Leipzig, who died in 1664, at the age of forty-six, having written upon the Tulip, and on the White Lily, with a double flower; but these treatises were merely academical essays, probably of no great moment. See Dryander's Bibl. Bankf. v. 3. 260, and Haller's Bibl. Bot. v. 1. 536, and v. 2. 685.

URSINJAN, in *Geography*, a town of Persia, in the province of Fars, principally distinguished for a strong and narrow-defile, bearing the same name. This pass is on the direct road leading from Shiraz to Kerman; 58 miles from the former, and 100 from Robat, the eastern frontier of Fars. It is nearly two miles long, and not exceeding fifty yards in breadth. In some places, the mountains on either side rise perpendicularly to a great height; and, in the opinion of Mr. Pottinger, the place might be defended, with a very small force, against any number of men. The country between this and Robat is tolerably cultivated, and in some places very picturesque.

URSINS, JEAN-JOUEVAL DES, in *Biography*, a prelate and historian of the 15th century, was advanced to several posts, civil and ecclesiastical, and in 1449 became archbishop of Rheims, under which character he consecrated Lewis XI. In consequence of his revision, in concert with other prelates, of the sentence pronounced against the maid of Orleans, it was revoked. His learning and episcopal virtues established a respectable character; and he closed his life at the age of eighty-five, in the year 1473. His "History of the Reign of Charles VI., from 1380 to 1422," is said to be written with correctness and integrity. It was first published by Theodore Godefroi, in 1614, 4to.; and an improved edition by his son appeared in 1653, fol. Moreri. Nouv. Dict. Hist.

URSINUS; FULVIUS. See ORSINI.

URSINUS, ZACHARY, whose family name was BEER, or BEAR, a German Protestant divine, was born at Bresslau in 1534, and in the course of seven years' study at Wittenberg, recommended himself by his abilities and diligence to Melancthon, who was then principal of the university. He accompanied his tutor to the conference at Worms in 1557, and having visited Calvin at Geneva, studied Hebrew at Paris under the learned Mercer. In the following year, he accepted an invitation from the magistrates at Bresslau to become rector of their public school; but here a complaint was lodged against him by some Lutheran ministers, on account of his explanation of the article on the Lord's Supper, in a book of Melancthon's, which they conceived to be inconsistent with the true principles of Lutheranism. Although he defended himself by a tract on the Lord's Supper and Baptism, the storm continued, so that he applied for a dismissal from the magistrates, and returned to Zurich. In 1561, he was invited to Heidelberg, and was made professor in the college of Sapientia. In 1562, he obtained the honour of D.D., and that of the professorship of "Locorum Communium," or of common places; and in this year he drew up the Heidelberg, or Palatine catechism, publishing also, by order of the elector Frederic III. an apology for it, in answer to the remarks of some Lutheran theologians. To the elector, he rendered essential service in forming the plans and statutes of several schools which he founded; and continued at Heidelberg till Frederic's death, in 1577. By his successor, Lewis, who was a strict Lutheran, Ursinus was dismissed; and afterwards settled at Neulstadt, as theological professor in a seminary founded by prince Casimir, the son of Frederic. Here he also gave private lectures on logic, and published several works; but intense application hastened his death, which took place in 1583, when he had attained the age of forty-nine years. He was eminently learned, and an excellent teacher: in his disposition modest, but irritable. His various writings were collected after his death, and published in 1611 at Heidelberg, in 3 vols. folio. Bayle. Gen. Biog.

URSINUS, BENJAMIN, originally BEHR, a German mathematician, was born at Sprottau, in Silesia, in 1587; and resided for a long time as tutor to two young noblemen, along with Kepler, whom he assisted in the construction of the Rudolphine tables, first at Prague, and then at Linz, in Bohemia. In the latter place, he was teacher of mathematics; and from thence he removed to Frankfurt on the Oder, to undertake a similar charge; and here he died in 1635. In 1628, or 1629, he published, at Cologne, his "Cursus Mathematicus," containing Napier's logarithms, and some additional tables of proportional parts; and in 1624, he printed, at the same place, his "Trigonometria," with a table of natural sines and their logarithms, in Napier's form, to every ten seconds in the quadrant, the computation of which was a work of great labour. Haller. Gen. Biog.

URSITZ, St., or St. Ursenne, or Sonderstiz, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Upper Rhine; 20 miles S.W. of Bâle. N. lat. 47° 25'. E. long. 7° 6'.

URSKOG, a town of Norway, on the Glænmen; 44 miles N.N.E. of Frederickstad.

URSINACH, a town of the Helvetic republic, in the canton of Appenzel; 8 miles S.W. of Appenzel.

URSO, (*Ossura* or *Ossina*), in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Hispania, in Bætica, situated towards the west. It had the title of a republic in an inscription; and its medals, badly

badly executed, had on one side an unknown head, and on the other a sphynx.

URSOLI, a place that occurs in the Itin. of Anton. between Valence and Vienne.

URSPERG, in *Geography*, a princely abbey of Germany; 16 miles W.S.W. of Augsburg.

URSULA, Str., a town of the duchy of Stiria; 8 miles W.S.W. of Marburg.

URSULINES, an order of nuns, who observe the rule of St. Augustine; and are chiefly noted for taking on them the education and instruction of young maids.

They take their name from their institutress St. Ursula, and are clothed in white, or black.

This institute was first established in Italy by Angelus de Brescia, in 1537; it was afterwards approved in 1544, by pope Paul III. and united in one nunnery by solemn vows, by Gregory XIII. The Ursulines of France were founded in 1611 by Magdalen Lhuillier, lady of St. Beuve. Their chief house is at Paris, whence they have spread through other parts of the kingdom.

URSUS, BEAR, in *Zoology*, a genus of the class of Mammalia and order of Ferae, the characters of which are, that the front teeth are six both above and below, excavated within alternately; the two lateral ones of the lower jaw longer than the rest and lobated, with smaller or secondary teeth at their internal bases; the canine teeth are solitary; the grinders are five or six on each side, the first approximated to the canine teeth; the tongue is smooth; the snout prominent; eyes furnished with a nictitating membrane. Gmelin enumerates eight species, besides several varieties: *viz.*

ARCTOS. Blackish-brown bear, with abrupt tail. This is the ursus of Gesner, Aldrovandus, Ray, &c. the ours of Buffon, and brown bear of Pennant. The varieties mentioned by Gmelin are the black bear with a smaller black body, the brown bear with a brown and ferruginous body, the white bear with black body and white hairs intermixed, and the variegated bear with a body of various colours. The common bear, with some variations as to size and colour, is a native of almost all the northern parts of Europe and Asia, and is said to be found in some of the Indian islands, as Ceylon, &c.; and the brown bear is also found in some of the northern parts of America, where it destroys cattle; but this is a different species from the American black bear, which is not carnivorous. The common bear inhabits woods and unfrequented places, and feeds chiefly on roots, fruits, and other vegetables, occasionally preying on animals. In the Alpine regions, the bear is brown; in some other parts of Europe, black; and in some parts of Norway of a grey colour, and even perfectly white. The brown, the black, the grey, and the white land bears, are all of the same species: though it is observed, that the brown and the black varieties differ in their mode of life; the black confining itself almost wholly to vegetable food; whereas the brown bear frequently attacks and preys upon other animals, and destroys lambs, kids, and even sometimes cattle, sucking the blood like the cat and weasel tribes. Linnæus adds, that the bear has a mode of blowing up his prey, and of hiding or burying a part of it. Bears are said to be fond of honey, and to climb trees in search of it among the nests of wild bees. They sometimes take up their residence in the hollows of very large trees. They will also catch and devour fish, occasionally frequenting the banks of rivers for that purpose.

The bear passes a considerable part of the winter in a state of repose and abstinence, emerging from his den occasionally at distant intervals, and then concealing himself in his retreat

till the approach of the vernal season. The females continue in this state longer than the males, and during this period bring forth their young, which are commonly two in number. The young, though not shapeless animals, as some have erroneously conceived, differ in their aspect from the grown animal, the snout being much sharper, and their colour yellowish; and they are said to be blind for nearly a month.

AMERICANUS. The black bear, with ferruginous cheeks and throat; the black bear of Pennant. This, says Dr. Shaw, is a species distinct from the black bear of Europe, and has a long pointed nose, and narrow forehead; the hair of a glossy black colour, smoother and shorter than that of the European kind, and is generally smaller than the European bear. This animal inhabits all the northern parts of America, and occasionally migrates to the more southerly parts in search of food, which is said to be entirely vegetable; and it is affirmed, that when urged by extreme hunger, they will disregard all animal food whenever they can obtain a supply of roots and grain. They, however, sometimes destroy fish, and particularly herrings, when they come up into the creeks in shoals. They are said to continue in their winter retreats, either in dens beneath the snow under ground, or in the hollows of old trees, for the space of five or six weeks without food. The yellow bear from Carolina is supposed to be a variety of the former: it is rather smaller than the European bears, with a more agreeable countenance, and is perfectly tame and sociable; the colour being of a lively bright orange, inclining to reddish; the hair is thick, long, and silky.

MARITIMUS. White bear, with elongated neck and head, and abrupt tail: the ursus maritimus albus major arcticus of Martens Spitzbergen, the ours blanc of Buffon, and the Polar bear of Pennant. (See POLAR, or *White Bear*.) These bears, when on land, feed on deer and other animals, as hares, birds, &c. and various kinds of berries. They are said to be frequently seen in Greenland in large droves, allured by the scent of the flesh of seals, and will sometimes surround the habitations of the natives, and attempt to break in; and it is added, that the most successful method of repelling them is by the smell of burnt feathers. They grow extremely fat, a hundred pounds of fat having been taken from a single beast. The flesh is coarse, but the skin is valued for coverings of various kinds, and the Greenlanders often wear it for clothing. These skins were formerly offered by the hunters in the arctic regions to the high altars of cathedrals and other churches, for the priest to stand on during the celebration of mass in winter. The split tendons are said to form an excellent thread. Pennant and Shaw. For the method of hunting the bear, see BEAR.

MELES. The *Badger* (which see) with unmarked tail, body cinereous or grey above, black below, and a longitudinal black band through the eyes and ears. The common badger is the meles of Gesner, the taxus of Aldrovandus, and the blaireau of Buffon. This animal is an inhabitant of all the temperate parts of Europe and Asia: its form is clumsy, being thick-necked and thick-bodied, with very short legs. It commonly lodges in a hole under-ground, whence it emerges in the night in quest of food, which consists chiefly of roots and fruits, and occasionally of frogs, worms, &c. Its eyes are small, and its ears short and round; and the claws of its fore-feet are very long and straight, which latter circumstance has induced Pennant to rank it under a genus distinct from that of ursus or bear. Some have, without just reason, distinguished between the sow-badger and the dog-badger, the difference being merely sexual. The hair is thick; the teeth, legs, and claws, are very strong; so that it defends itself vigorously when attacked. The young badger may be

easily tamed, and it generally prefers raw flesh to every other food in a state of captivity. It is a cleanly animal, and keeps its habitation very neat. The female produces about three or four young. Like the bear, this animal is fond of honey, and will attack hives in order to obtain it. Pennant will not admit the badger to be a carnivorous animal, though Buffon asserts, that it drags young rabbits out of their burrows, and seizes birds, eggs, snakes, and many other animals, for feeding her young. The badger sleeps much, especially in winter, confining himself to his den in a state of semitorpidity. Ridinger has figured a singular variety of badger, of a white colour, with brown and reddish patches. Gmelin mentions two varieties, one white above and below yellowish; and the other spotted, white with reddish and brown spots. The former is found in New York; the latter is very rarely met with in forests, in the fissures of rocks and stones. For the method of hunting the badger, see HUNTING.

LABRADORIUS. The badger with the tip of the tail vilous, and of a brownish-yellow colour; the throat, breast, and abdomen white, and the feet four-toed: it is the pale yellowish-grey badger, with the throat and belly white, and the head striped with black. This is the American badger of Pennant and carcajou of Buffon: and so much resembles the common, that it may be taken for a variety of it. This species is rather scarce in America. It is found in the neighbourhood of Hudson's bay, and in Terra di Labrador, and, according to Pennant, as low as Pennsylvania, where it is called the ground hog. A variety of this occurs in some parts of America, with the under parts slightly tinged with yellow: it is the first variety of common badger mentioned by Gmelin.

LOTOR. The bear with annulated tail, and black transverse band across the eyes. This is the bear with a long tail of the Stockholm acts 1747, the bear with annulated variegated tail of Briffon, the mapach of Fernand and Nieremb, the raton of Buffon, the coati of Ray, &c. and the raccoon of Kalm, Pennant, &c. See RACKOON.

LUSCUS. The bear with a long tail, ferruginous body, dusky snout, the forehead and lateral part of the body whitish. This is the quick-hatch or wolverene of Edwards, and the wolverene of Pennant. Dr. Shaw suggests, that it is merely a variety of the next species. It is about twice the size of the common fox, and the description given of it by Edwards is as follows:—All the snout, upper and under jaw, as far as the eyes, is of a black colour; the forehead above becomes gradually of a whitish colour; the eyes are of a dark colour; the throat and lower side of the neck white, the first spotted with black, having some transverse bars of black on the under side of the neck; the ears are small and round, appearing but little longer than the hair that grows on the head; they are covered with short brown hair; the hind part of the head and neck, the whole body both above and beneath, the legs and tail, are all of a brown or chestnut-colour, clouded lighter and darker, viz. the upper side of the neck and beginning of the back is dusky, or very dark brown, which gradually changes to a lighter or more pleasant brown in the middle of the back; this colour again grows by degrees darker, till it becomes almost black in the hind part of the back; the tail towards the tip becomes of a dusky-colour; it hath a broad bar of very light ash-coloured brown passing round the body, beginning at each shoulder, proceeding on the sides backwards, and meeting on the rump, just above the tail, where it is broadest. The fur on the whole body is pretty long, and seems not to lie so flat to the skin as in some animals. All the feet, as far as the heel or first joint, are covered with short black

hair, which gradually becomes brown above the knees; the claws are of a light horn-colour; it hath on each foot four-wards four toes; the hind feet have five toes each.

GULO. The bear with tail of the same colour, rufous-brown body, and middle of the back black. The gulo of Gefn. and Aldrov., and the glutton of Buffon. It is considerably larger than a badger, but varying in size: the muzzle, as far as beyond the eyes, is blackish-brown, and covered with hard shining hair; over the forehead, down the sides of the head between the eyes and ears, runs a whitish or ash-coloured band or fillet; the top of the head and whole length of the back are black-brown, the colour widening somewhat over the sides as it passes on, and again lessening or contracting towards the tail; or the description might be given in other words, by saying, that the colour of the body is a fine glossy black-brown, with a ferruginous tinge along the sides, so as to form a broad lateral zone; but it is to be observed, that the animal varies considerably in colour; sometimes appearing black, with a subferruginous lateral band; and at other times of a chestnut-colour; the feet are black. Agreeably to its name, it has the character of being very voracious, preying indiscriminately both on fresh food and carrion. One of these animals would eat thirteen pounds of flesh in a day, without being satisfied. It attacks deer, birds, field-mice, &c. and even sometimes the larger cattle; and is said to fit on the branches of trees, and suddenly to spring down on such animals as happen to pass beneath; tearing them, and sucking the blood, till they fall down through faintness, when it begins to devour the spoil. In winter, it seeks out and catches ptarmigans under the snow. What it cannot devour at once it is said to hide under ground, or in the cavity of some tree. It is said to be an animal of uncommon fierceness and strength; and will sometimes dispute the prey both with the wolf and bear. It is also extremely feind. It breeds once a year, and brings from two to four young at a litter. The fur is much used for muffs, linings, &c. Those skins are said to be preferred which have least of the ferruginous tinge; and for this reason the Siberian variety, which is blacker than the rest, is most esteemed. The glutton is a native of the most northern parts of Europe and Asia, and is found in Sweden, Norway, Lapland, and Siberia, as well as in some of the Alpine regions, and in the forests of Poland and Courland, and in the northern parts of America.

INDICUS. The badger white above and black beneath, first described by Pennant from a specimen brought from India, and in the possession of the late Mr. John Hunter. It had five toes on each foot, with long, straight claws; the head small, the nose pointed, with scarcely any appearance of external ears; the colour of the nose, and face a little beyond the eyes, black; the crown, upper part of the neck, back, and upper part of the tail, white, inclining to greyish; the legs, thighs, breast, belly, sides, and under part of the tail, black. Its food is flesh, and its disposition lively and playful. Dr. Shaw observes, that this animal seems to be nearly allied to the genus viverra; and particularly to the species *V. mellivora* and *V. capensis*. See VIVERRA.

URTAMSKOI, in *Geography*, a town of Russia, in the government of Tobolsk, on the Oby; 52 miles W. of Tomsk.

URTICA, in *Botany*, an ancient name, derived from *uro*, to burn, or sting, and alluding to that property, for which the original and familiar species of this genus, our common Nettles, are universally known. For the mode in which this stinging is accomplished, see PUBESCENCE. A great proportion of the species, however, are simply downy, and

and harmless.—Linn. Gen. 486. Schreb. 633. Willd. Sp. Pl. v. 4. 347. Mart. Mill. Dict. v. 4. Sm. Fl. Brit. 1014. Prodr. Fl. Græc. Sibth. v. 2. 233. Ait. Hort. Kew. v. 5. 261. Pursh 112. Juss. 403. Tourn. t. 308. Poir. in Lamarck Dict. v. 4. 636. Lamarck Illust. t. 761. Gærtn. t. 119.—Clas. and order, *Monoclea Tetrandria*. Nat. Ord. *Scabridæ*, Linn. *Urtica*, Juss.

Gen. Ch. Male. Cal. Perianth of four roundish, concave, obtuse leaves. Cor. Petals none. Nectary, the rudiment of a germen, central, small, pitcher-shaped, undivided, tapering at the base. Stam. Filaments four, awl-shaped, spreading, the length of the calyx, and opposite to its leaves; anthers of two globular cells.

Female, generally on the same plant, *Cal.* Perianth of two ovate, concave, erect, permanent valves. Cor. none. Pist. Germen superior, ovate; style none; stigma downy. Peric. none, except the closed calyx. Seed solitary, ovate, compressed, blunt-edged, polished.

Effl. Ch. Male, Calyx of four leaves. Corolla none. Rudiment of a germen cup-shaped.

Female, Calyx of two leaves. Corolla none. Seed one, superior, polished.

Seet. 1. *Leaves opposite.*

1. *U. pilulifera*. Roman Nettle. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1395. Willd. n. 1. Fl. Brit. n. 1. Engl. Bot. t. 148. Mill. Illust. t. 79. Dodart Mem. t. 38. f. 1. (*U. romana*; Ger. Em. 706. Fuchl. Hist. 106. Lob. Ic. 522. *U. prima*; Matth. Valgr. v. 2. 469.)

2. *U. baccarica*; Linn. Sp. Pl. 1395. Willd. n. 2. Ait. n. 2. "Blackwell Herb. t. 321. f. 1."

Leaves opposite, ovate or somewhat heart-shaped, deeply serrated. Heads of fruit globose.—Native of the fourth of Europe. Abundant amongst stones and rubbish on the coasts of Norfolk and Suffolk, flowering in June and July, and laden with ripening seed through the autumn. Root annual. Herb branched, bushy, armed in every part with extremely venomous stings, whose wounds are more painful than those of our two common species. The stem is bluntly quadrangular, often purplish. Leaves stalked, varying much in breadth; sometimes nearly lanceolate; sometimes broadly ovate, or heart-shaped, even from the same seed, or on the same plant, so that *U. baccarica*, which has the latter character, is a mere variety: they are always of a dark and lurid green, copiously and very coarsely serrated, rugged, veiny. Flowers pale green, on axillary, generally twin, stalks, one of which is panicle, bearing numerous distant male blossoms; the other capitate, with only female ones. The fruit is a very prickly stinging ball, three quarters of an inch in diameter, composed of numerous tumid calyxes, each containing a brown seed, like flax, but smaller, as Dioscorides well describes it, this plant being, doubtless, his first species of *ακνυλῶν*, or Nettle. Dr. Sibthorp found it very common in Greece and the Archipelago. Linnæus quotes under *U. baccarica*, *U. pilulifera*, foliis cordatis circumferratis; Hall. Helv. 27. By way of correction, Willdenow inserts *ed. pr.* or the first edition! But it should be Hall. Goett. 27, where this passage may be found, with a reference to Dodonæus, and to Malchant, which should be Marchant, or rather perhaps Dodart. This reference, however, belongs to *U. pilulifera*. Schorigenam; Hort. Mal. v. 2. t. 39, is moreover quoted, though the plant there figured and described is *Tragia involucrata*. Such is too often the history of synonyms! The following species will shew why we judged it necessary to unravel, with much labour, the above citation.

2. *U. Dodartii*. Dodart's Nettle. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1395. Willd. n. 3. Ait. n. 3. (*U. altera pilulifera*, parietaria

foliis; Dodart Mem., Amsterdam edition, 633. t. 38. f. 2.)—Leaves opposite, ovate, nearly entire. Heads of fruit globose.—The native country of this species is not known, but the plant occurs frequently, as an annual weed, in cultivated ground, in England as well as in France, and is, to use the words of Dodart, more difficult to destroy than to raise. Linnæus justly thought the present a doubtful species, there being no difference between it and the foregoing, except the nearly entire leaves, and more slender habit. The late Mr. Davall gathered a wild specimen near Martigny, in Switzerland, of what he took for *U. pilulifera*, but which seems to us *U. Dodartii*, more serrated than usual, though still very unlike the broad coarse pecinated serratures of the *pilulifera* or *baccarica*, to which this specimen, nevertheless, betrays an affinity, and confirms the suspicion of Linnæus, of their being all too nearly related. Haller's having none of these species in his work on Swiss plants, made us anxious to determine Mr. Davall's plant, and to clear up the citation above mentioned. *U. Dodartii* ought now perhaps to find a place in the *Flora Helvetica*, though Schleicher has it not in his lists. *U. integrifolia*, Lamarck n. 4, we presume to be a lanceolate-leaved variety of *Dodartii*.

3. *U. pumila*. Dwarf Nettle. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1395. Willd. n. 4. Pursh n. 1.—Leaves opposite, ovate, blunt-pointed, three-ribbed, serrated. Flower-stalks somewhat corymbose, shorter than the footstalks.—In shady woods, among rocks, from Canada to Carolina. Annual, flowering in July. Smooth and shining, very variable in size. Pursh. The stem in our specimens is simple, about a span high, square, slightly downy, almost naked in the lower part. Leaves an inch long, more or less, bluntly serrated, nearly smooth and naked; the lower footstalks longest. Flowers crowded, as if whorled.

4. *U. longifolia*. Long-leaved Nettle. Willd. n. 5. (*U. verbascifolia*; Lamarck n. 21.)—Leaves opposite, elliptic-obovate, acute at each end, triple-ribbed, serrated. Corymbs axillary, dense, shorter than the footstalks.—Gathered by Commerçon, in the island of Mauritius. According to a note, attached to one of Commerçon's specimens, what Lamarck and Willdenow took for a branch, is nearly the whole of the plant, its stem being simple, not much above a foot high, angular, clothed with minute close-pressed hairs or bristles, and bearing about four pair of stalked, rarely almost sessile, leaves, four or five inches long, and one and a half or two inches broad, roughish on both sides with minute depressed bristles. Their serratures are shallow, most numerous towards the extremity. Flowers copious and small. Seeds thick-edged. The aspect of this species is like a *Procris* or *ELASTOTEMA* (see the latter article). Lamarck's name, *verbascifolia*, is changed unwar- rantly for the worse, by Willdenow.

5. *U. cuspidata*. Pointed-leaved Nettle. Willd. n. 6. (*U. lucens*; Lamarck n. 22, without any doubt.)—Leaves opposite, ovate, pointed, serrated, three-ribbed, smooth, and shining. Corymbs axillary, capillary, lax, spreading, nearly as long as the footstalks.—Gathered by Commerçon in the Mauritius. The branches are round, purplish, very smooth, leafy. Leaves two or three inches long, strongly though bluntly serrated; somewhat heart-shaped at the base; their points bluntish and entire. Footstalks varying in length from one to two inches. Corymbs often in pairs on one common stalk, on some specimens much shorter than the footstalks. Flowers very small. Seeds minute, brown, scarcely bordered.

6. *U. peduncularis*. Long-stalked Nettle.—Leaves opposite, ovate, pointed, serrated, three-ribbed, smooth. Panicles

Panicles axillary, racemose; their common stalks longer than the footstalks, or even the leaves.—Native of Java. Communicated by Thouin to the younger Linnæus. We cannot find any account of this species, which is very distinct, and among the most handsome and conspicuous. The leaves are three inches long, and half as broad; their base not heart-shaped; their points smaller than in the last; their serratures finer and sharper. Flowers in large axillary panicles, whose branches are alternate, racemose, and tufted; the male ones thrice as large as in the foregoing, and their common stalk foot, longer than the adjoining leaf with its footstalk; the female panicle is lower down, rather shorter than the leaf, with much smaller flowers.

7. *U. crassifolia*. Thick-leaved Nettle. Willd. n. 7.—“Leaves opposite, ovate-oblong, acute, three-ribbed, serrated, thickish; reticulated and pale beneath. Corymbs stalked, forked, longer than the leaves. Flowers tufted.”—Supposed to be a native of South America. Willdenow saw only an imperfect garden specimen, with the above name. The stem is shrubby. Leaves stalked, an inch and a half long, veiny, rather fleshy, clothed on both sides with short hairs, which on the under one are so copious, as to give a whitish hue to that surface. Footstalks half an inch long. Corymbs axillary, on long stalks, reaching beyond the leaves. Flowers in roundish heads.

8. *U. grandifolia*. Great-leaved Nettle. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1396. Willd. n. 8. Ait. n. 4. (U. iners racemosa fylvatica, folio nervoso; Sloane Jam. v. 1. 124. t. 83. f. 2.)—Leaves opposite, ovate, pointed, copiously serrated. Stipulas elliptical, entire, glaucous. Corymbs much branched, axillary, longer than the footstalks.—Native of Jamaica, in shady woods. Stem from eighteen inches to four feet high. Leaves from five inches to a foot or more in length, three-ribbed, stalked; roughish above; smooth and glaucous beneath. Stipulas in pairs within the footstalks, permanent, broadly ovate, or somewhat heart-shaped, smooth, glaucous and purplish. Flowers brownish, minute, very numerous, tufted.

9. *U. macrophylla*. Doubly-serrated Japan Nettle. Thunb. Jap. 69. Willd. n. 9.—“Leaves opposite, roundish, doubly serrated. Flowers panicled.”—Found near Nagasaki, and in Kofido, in Japan, flowering in September and October. The stem is square, furrowed, purplish, and like the rest of the plant finely downy. Leaves stalked, by no means heart-shaped, three-ribbed, acute, four inches wide, rough with hairs, with deep-cut serratures, which are separately serrated. Footstalks shorter than the leaves. Panicles axillary. Thunb.

10. *U. verticillata*. Whorled Nettle. Vahl Symb. v. 1. 76. Willd. n. 10. (U. iners; Forsk. Ægypt.-Arab. 160.)—“Leaves opposite, ovate, serrated. Flowers axillary, crowded, sessile.”—Native of hills in Arabia Felix. Perennial. Stems herbaceous, a foot high, branched, square, slender, most hairy upwards. Leaves stalked, an inch long, bluntly serrated, somewhat hairy; entire at the base; paler beneath. Footstalks slender, hairy, the length of the leaves. Flowers somewhat whorled, hairy. Vahl.

11. *U. reticulata*. Net-leaved Nettle. Swartz Ind. Occ. 286. Willd. n. 11. Ait. n. 5.—Leaves opposite, elliptic-oblong, acute; serrated towards the point; reticulated beneath. Stipulas ovate, entire. Clusters panicled, about the length of the footstalks.—Native of stony mountainous places, in the interior of Jamaica, according to Dr. Swartz, from whom we have a specimen. The root is perennial, with many long tough fibres. This species in many points approaches *U. grandifolia*, n. 8, but the stem is more shrubby, and rather taller, though the leaves are very much

smaller, hardly three inches long, thicker, and reticulated beneath; they are nearly smooth to the touch, though covered with close depressed bristles, especially the upper surface. The flowers are very minute, copiously panicled. Calyx of the female ones white, with an extremely narrow reddish border. Swartz.

12. *U. lasa*. Spreading Nettle. Swartz Ind. Occ. 288. Willd. n. 12.—Leaves opposite, ovate; pointed, serrated. Stem lax. Flowers dioecious; the male in round heads; female in cylindrical clusters.—Native of bushy shady places, on the banks of rivers, in Hispaniola, flowering in the spring. The stems are from three to five feet high, smooth, pale, roundish, branched; the branches loosely spreading and zigzag. Leaves two or three inches in length, and nearly half as broad, strongly serrated, with three principal ribs, and two small lateral ones, roughish; pale and a little hairy beneath. Flower-stalks axillary, slender, longer than the footstalks.

13. *U. diffusa*. Recumbent Nettle. Swartz Ind. Occ. 290. Willd. n. 13.—Leaves opposite, ovate, acute, serrated, hispid. Stipulas revolute. Stem procumbent. Clusters panicled, longer than the leaves.—Native of stony mountains in Jamaica. The stem is shrubby at the base, procumbent, sending forth numerous smooth, forked, round branches, lying on the ground in every direction, to the extent of two feet, but ascending at their leafy extremities. Leaves about an inch long, three-ribbed, thinning, clothed with a few scattered harmless bristles. Footstalks half as long as the leaves. Stipulas intrafoliaceous, small, cloven, reflexed. Clusters axillary, opposite, panicled, twice the length of the leaves. Flowers monoecious, very minute.

14. *U. betulifolia*. Birch-leaved Nettle. Swartz Ind. Occ. 291. Willd. n. 14.—Leaves opposite, nearly orbicular, somewhat heart-shaped, serrated. Stipulas oblong. Clusters compound. Stem nearly prostrate, with long runners.—Gathered by Dr. Swartz, in stony shady places, near springs, on the hills of Hispaniola, flowering in May and June. Root perennial, creeping, thread-branched. Stems herbaceous, a foot high, lax, scarcely branched, round, leafy, smooth, throwing out very long, slender, brittle runners from the bottom. Leaves on long smooth stalks, three-ribbed, veiny, smooth, near an inch broad, deeply serrated; those of the runners nearly sessile. Stipulas whitish, undivided, obtuse, erect. Flowers extremely minute, whitish, with reddish stalks.

15. *U. rufo*. Rusty Nettle. Swartz Ind. Occ. 292. Willd. n. 15. Ait. n. 6.—Leaves opposite, elliptical, acute, serrated, triple-ribbed; their veins hairy. Stipulas roundish, permanent. Clusters slightly branched. Stem shrubby, shaggy with rusty hairs.—Native of stony mountainous places, in the south part of Jamaica, flowering in spring. The stem is a foot high; woody, simple, naked and smooth in the lower part; bushy above, leafy, and clothed with long, dense, rusty down. Leaves three quarters of an inch long, neatly serrated; their stalks half as long. Stipulas whitish, clasping the stem above the footstalks. Clusters on long, hairy, axillary stalks. Flowers minute; the male ones largest, intermixed with the female. These last five West Indian species are all destitute of stings, as well as *grandifolia*, n. 8, to which they are more or less akin, though far inferior in size.

16. *U. urens*. Small Stinging Nettle. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1396. Willd. n. 16. Fl. Brit. n. 2. Engl. Bot. t. 1236. Pursh n. 2. Curt. Lond. fasc. 6. t. 70. Fl. Dan. t. 739. Bulliard t. 230. (U. minor; Ger. Em. 707. Fuchs. Hist. 108. Bruns. Herb. v. 1. 154. U. teria; Matth. Valgr. v. 2. 471.)—Leaves opposite, elliptical, strongly serrated,

ferrated, about five-ribbed. *Stipulas* lanceolate, reflexed. Clusters oblong, nearly simple.—Common throughout Europe, in cultivated ground, where it proves a most troublesome annual weed, of quick growth, and very prolific, often producing two crops in a year. In America it is more rare. The herb is rather bulky, bright green, armed all over with venomous stings. Leaves an inch or more in length, coarsely and deeply ferrated, full twice as long as their footstalks. *Stipulas* small, narrow, reflexed. Clusters stalked, drooping, hardly equal, in general, to the footstalks, composed of male and female flowers intermixed. Seeds bordered.

17. *U. spatulata*. Spatulate Stinging Nettle. (*U. minor urentissima*; Commerf. MSS.)—Leaves opposite, orbicular-heart-shaped, deeply ferrated, shorter than their footstalks, mostly three-ribbed. Clusters capitate, very short.—Gathered by Commerf. at Monte Video. The stem is more elongated, and less branched, than in the foregoing, very densely leafy. Whole herb plentifully armed with long venomous stings. Footstalks near an inch long. Leaves about half that length, with deep-cut, acute, radiating serratures. The *stipulas* we have not seen. Flowers much like *U. urens*, but in shorter tufts, and the seeds appear to be less conspicuously bordered. We suspect this to be a perennial species.

18. *U. dioica*. Great Stinging Nettle. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1396. Willd. n. 17. Fl. Brit. n. 3. Engl. Bot. t. 1750. Pursh n. 3. Curt. Lond. fasc. 6. t. 69. Fl. Dan. t. 746. (*U. urens*; Ger. Em. 706. *U. major*; Fuch. Hist. 107. Brunf. Herb. v. 1. 151. *U. secunda*; Matth. Valgr. v. 2. 470.)—Leaves opposite, heart-shaped, sharply ferrated. *Stipulas* ovate, distinct, spreading. Clusters much branched, in pairs, longer than the footstalks, mostly dioecious.—Common in waste ground, throughout Europe, as well as in North America and Asia, flowering in the middle of summer. The perennial creeping root, larger size and duller green of the whole plant, and the large branching flowerstalks, render this very obviously distinct from n. 16. The stems are three feet, or more, in height. Every part is armed with stings. Flowers chiefly male on one plant, female on another. Calyx of the latter often furnished with a pair of bractees at its base. The fibres of the stem may be manufactured into thread, but are inferior to hemp. The young leaves, boiled in spring, are not a bad substitute for spinach, to which herb the Nettle is allied, as well as to the hemp, in botanical affinity. Leers remarks the two additional leaves, or bractees, to the female calyx, in *U. urens*, as well as in the present species.

19. *U. gracilis*. Slender-stalked Nettle. Ait. ed. 1. v. 3. 341. ed. 2. n. 12. Willd. n. 29. (*U. procera*; Willd. n. 18. Pursh n. 4.)—Leaves opposite, ovate-lanceolate, ferrated; heart-shaped at the base. Stem and footstalks bipid. Flowers dioecious. Clusters in pairs, somewhat branched, about as long as the footstalks.—Native of Hudson's Bay, from whence it was brought to Kew, in 1782. Aiton. Found by the sides of waters, in rocky situations, from Canada to Pennsylvania, flowering in July and August. Perennial. The specimen of *U. gracilis*, in the herbarium of A. B. Lambert, esq., agrees in every respect with *procera*. Pursh. This being the case, we retain, of course, the original name. We have seen no specimen of either plant. *U. procera* is described by Willdenow as very nearly related to the common *dioica*, so as to be possibly no more than a variety; but differing in its less heart-shaped leaves, whose serratures are smaller. The footstalks are fringed with bristles towards the base of each leaf, where the *dioica* is downy only. The spikes, or clusters, moreover, are less

compound, sometimes shorter than the footstalks, not longer.

20. *U. morifolia*. Mulberry-leaved Nettle.—Leaves opposite, heart-shaped, broadly and bluntly ferrated. *Stipulas* ovate, combined, reflexed. Clusters in pairs, cylindrical, unbranched, drooping.—Sent by Mutis from Mexico. Linnæus considered it as *U. dioica*, from which, when examined, it manifestly differs in the above characters, and, even at first sight, in the broad blunt serratures of the nearly naked, though rough, leaves, whose surface is even, not wrinkled, except when very young. The clusters are slender, and in our specimen entirely female. Seed nearly orbicular, crowned with a short style.

21. *U. chamedryoides*. Germander Nettle. Pursh n. 5.—“Leaves opposite, almost sessile, ovate, ferrated; bristly beneath. Tufts of flowers axillary, sessile, nearly globose, reflexed. Stem armed with stings.”—On the islands of Georgia, St. Simon's, &c. Mr. Lyon. Annual, flowering in May. The leaves are small. Stings white, very conspicuous. Pursh.

22. *U. membranacea*. Wing-stalked Nettle. Poir. in Lamarck n. 9. Willd. n. 19. Desfont. Atlant. v. 2. 340. (*U. caudata*; Vahl. Symb. v. 2. 96. *U. dioica* β; Linn. Sp. Pl. 1396.)—Leaves opposite, broadly ovate, somewhat heart-shaped, coarsely ferrated. Flowers monoeious; the male in twin, upright, unbranched, stalked spikes, with a winged receptacle; female in nearly sessile spikes, shorter than the footstalks.—Native of the south of Europe, the north of Africa, and the isle of Bourbon, in which last place our specimen was gathered by Commerf. The root is perennial. Herb stinging, resembling *U. dioica*, but paler, more delicate, of a brighter green; the leaves also are broader, rounder, less sharply ferrated, on longer stalks. The *stipulas* are almost perfectly combined, spreading. The upright, stalked, unbranched, linear male spikes, with their membranous-winged receptacle, form the most remarkable character of the present species. They grow in pairs, from the bosoms of the upper leaves, which they greatly exceed in length. The female spikes, situated lower down, are much shorter, and less conspicuous. Their calyx is downy.

23. *U. ferox*. Armed Nettle. Forst. Prodr. 66. Willd. n. 20.—Leaves opposite, hastate-heart-shaped, coarsely toothed, fringed with bristles; downy beneath. *Stipulas* heart-shaped. Clusters panicled, in pairs, longer than the footstalks.—Gathered by Forster, in New Zealand. A shrub, whose branches and footstalks are clothed with hoary down. The midrib of each leaf is beset, on the upper side, with rigid bristles; and the under side is downy. The habit of the plant resembles *U. dioica*. Willdenow.

24. *U. ficifolia*. Fig-leaved Nettle. Lamarck n. 10. Willd. n. 21.—Leaves opposite, heart-shaped, somewhat hastate, acutely five-lobed, crenate; downy beneath. Panicles cymose, divaricated.—Gathered by Commerf. in the isle of Bourbon. This appears to be a tree, with thick, rather fleshy, branches, leafy at their extremities. The leaves grow on longish footstalks, and are three inches long, nearly as much in breadth, very irregularly five or seven-lobed, with taper points; their upper surface almost smooth; under clothed with white silky pubescence. The same tree sometimes bears deeply three-lobed, as deeply pinnatifid, leaves. Flowers very numerous, small, whitish, in large, compound, spreading panicles, somewhat like the cymes of Elder, but not so large.

25. *U. cannabina*. Hemp-leaved Nettle. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1396. Willd. n. 22. Ait. n. 9. (*U. foliis profunde laciniatis*, femine lin.; Amman. Ruth. 173. t. 25.)—Leaves opposite, in three deep pinnatifid segments. Clusters cylindrical,

lindrical, in pairs, erect.—Native of Siberia, especially beyond lake Baikal. Miller appears to have had it at Chelsea, in 1749. A hardy perennial, five or six feet high, flowering from July to September, well compared, in its foliage, to Hemp. The leaves are of a deep rich green, rough with very minute points, and a few marginal bristles, on the upper side; smooth at the back. *Footstalks* half the length of the leaves, armed, like the stem, with scattered, large, and powerful stings. *Clusters* thick, an inch and a half or two inches long, being about half the length of the leaves with their footstalks. *Flowers* and *seeds* very large in proportion to most of the foregoing. *Calyx* beset with stings.

26. *U. virgata*. Wand-like Nettle. Forst. Prodr. 66. Willd. n. 23.—“Leaves opposite, ovate, serrated, three-ribbed. Spikes axillary, folioly, interrupted.”—Native of the Society Isles. *Rosier*.

27. *U. rugosa*. Rugged-leaved Nettle. Swartz Ind. Occ. 293. Willd. n. 24.—Leaves opposite, elliptical, serrated, three-ribbed, rugged. *Clusters* short, dense, terminal. Stem simple, erect.—Native of moist stony places, about the banks of rivers, in Hispaniola, flowering in spring. *Root* annual. *Stem* a foot high, round, downy. *Leaves* crossing each other in pairs, stalked, from one to two inches long, finely and regularly serrated, rough but not stinging, somewhat plaited at the margin; hairy beneath. *Stipulas* large, ovate. *Flowers* dioecious, very minute and crowded, in tufts shorter than the stipulas.

28. *U. repens*. Creeping-stalked Nettle. Swartz Ind. Occ. 294. Act. Holm. for 1787. t. 1. f. 1. Willd. n. 25.—Leaves opposite, roundish-ovate, obtuse, bluntly serrated, three-ribbed; entire at the base. *Clusters* capitate, axillary, stalked. Stem simple, creeping.—Found on the sandy banks of rivers in Hispaniola, flowering in the spring. The *root* is annual and fibrous. *Stem* a span long, creeping close to the ground by means of radicles from each joint. *Leaves* hardly an inch long at the utmost, slightly hairy, not stinging. *Footstalks* hairy, shorter than the leaves. *Flowers* monoecious, in little oblong clusters, on capillary, opposite stalks; much shorter than the leaves.

29. *U. holonifera*. Trailing Nettle. Swartz Ind. Occ. 296. Willd. n. 26.—Leaves opposite, elliptic-oblong, slightly serrated. Stem ascending, with radical runners. Panicles terminal, folioly, dioecious, on slender stalks.—Found on the rocky banks of rivers, among mosses, in the interior part of Hispaniola. *Root* perennial. *Stem* none, or very short; in Dr. Swartz's specimens two or three inches long, simple, most leafy at the top, sending out trailing shoots from the base, clothed with very small leaves. The leaves of the main stem are about an inch long, rough to the touch, and rather downy, but not stinging; the *footstalks* about the same length. *Stipulas* oblong, entire, membranous, accompanying all the leaves. *Flower-stalks* from the middle of the crowded terminal (not radical) leaves, which they exceed in length. *Flowers* green, small; the male in a roundish dense tuft; female in an oblong, lax, compound panicle; on distinct plants.

30. *U. nudicaulis*. Naked-stalked Nettle. Swartz Ind. Occ. 311. Willd. n. 27. Ait. n. 11.—Leaves chiefly terminal, opposite, elliptic-lanceolate, pointed, three-ribbed, entire, nearly smooth. Stem angular; leafless below. *Clusters* lateral, dioecious.—Native of lime-stone rocks, in the interior of Jamaica. *Root* fibrous. *Stem* one or two feet high, nearly erect, scarcely branched, jointed, angular, and striated, contracted at the joints; its light-green colour, and smooth surface, in some degree resembling the stems of several species of *Epidendrum*, or their allies. *Leaves* chiefly

about the top of the plant, on short stalks, generally smooth and naked, one and a half or two inches long, very minutely dotted, destitute of *stipulas*. The uppermost *clusters* are axillary, the rest at the joints of the stem, opposite, small. *Flowers* minute, white, crowded, very rarely monoecious. Dr. Swartz mentions a variety, with narrower, somewhat hipid, leaves; longer, more diffuse, clusters; and a less naked stem.

31. *U. lanceolata*. Lanceolate-leaved Nettle. Lamarck n. 15. Willd. n. 28.—Leaves opposite, linear-lanceolate, three-ribbed, entire, nearly sessile. *Clusters* capitate, axillary, folioly.—Native of Hispaniola. *J. Martin*. Poiret says this species is remarkable, and very distinct, on account of its narrow, linear-lanceolate, nearly sessile, leaves. The stems are weak, herbaceous, naked, almost cylindrical, jointed. Leaves about an inch long, and two or three lines broad, somewhat wavy at the edges; paler beneath. By the description, there seems some reason to doubt whether this be distinct from the last, but we have seen no specimens of it. On the other hand, *nudicaulis* is in the list of species unknown to M. Pourret.

32. *U. corymbosa*. Corymbose Entire-leaved Nettle. Lamarck n. 17. Ait. n. 30.—Leaves opposite, ovate, pointed, entire; unequal at the base. *Corymbs* axillary, on elongated stalks.—Native of Guadeloupe. *Badier*. Stems very rough, with glandular points. Leaves about five inches long, and three broad, one side shorter than the other at the base; their surface rough to the touch. *Footstalks* very long, but shorter than the leaves. *Corymbs* each on a long, simple, axillary common stalk, probably like our *peduncularis*, n. 6.

33. *U. Parietaria*. Pellitory-leaved Nettle. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1397. Willd. n. 31. Ait. n. 13. Swartz Obs. 357. (*Parietaria foliis ex adverso nacentibus, urticæ racemifera flore*; Sloane Jam. v. 1. 144. t. 93. f. 1.)—Leaves opposite, ovate-lanceolate, entire. Stem much branched. Flowers dioecious.—Native of lofty mountains in the West Indies, flowering throughout the year. Stem from two to eight feet high, erect; somewhat shrubby in the lower part; much branched and herbaceous above, red, quadrangular, striated; the ultimate branches slender, wavy, leafy, and smooth. Leaves stalked, an inch or inch and a half long, pointed, three-ribbed, veiny, fringed, very slightly, if at all, unequal in the two halves: on the small flowering branches one of two opposite leaves is but a third the size of the other. *Footstalks* long, red, spreading. *Clusters* stalked, axillary, terminal, or opposite to some of the leaves; their stalks slender, coloured, erect, smooth, quadrangular, longer than the footstalks. *Flowers* very small. *Seed* minute, black, shining. Such is Sloane's and Swartz's plant, of which we are obliged to the latter for specimens. It is wanting in the Linnean herbarium.

34. *U. ciliaris*. Fringed Three-furrowed Nettle. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1396. Willd. n. 32. (*Parietaria racemosa, foliis ad oras villosis*; Plum. Ic. 111. t. 120. f. 2.)—Leaves opposite, ovate, entire, strongly three-ribbed, fringed. *Clusters* divaricated, corymbose, much branched.—Native of the West Indies, but rare. A specimen was given by Sir Joseph Banks to the younger Linneus. The branches are very smooth, reddish, obtusely quadrangular. Leaves stalked, from one to two inches long, pointed, smooth, except some scattered and marginal white hairs; the three ribs remarkably prominent beneath, and furrowed above. *Clusters* axillary, opposite, stalked, level-topped, widely spreading, half the length of the leaves. The fringe of the latter is far less evident in our specimen, than in Plumier's figure, and yet we have no doubt of its identity.

35. *U. hederacea*. Ivy-leaved Nettle. Lamarck n. 29.—“Leaves opposite, roundish-ovate, crenate; abrupt at the base. Clusters short, on long stalks.”—Native of Guadeloupe. *Richard*. A small species, with fibrous roots, and weak stems, two or three inches high, clothed with fine short hoary hairs. *Leaves* stalked, small, with large notches, like those of Ivy in miniature, with a few scattered hairs, especially on their ribs and footstalks. *Flowers* in little dense tufts, on axillary stalks twice the length of the leaves. *Poiret*.

36. *U. rhombica*. Rhomb-leaved Nettle. Linn. Suppl. 417. Willd. n. 33.—Leaves opposite, rhomboid, entire, three-ribbed, flat, about the length of their footstalks, which are longer than the cymose axillary panicles.—Sent by Mutis from Mexico. The stem is herbaceous, about a foot high, much branched, smooth, leafy. *Leaves* from half an inch to an inch, or rather more, in length, and above half as much across their middle, obtusely pointed at each end, smooth and even on both sides, without stings. *Stipulas* short, membranous, abrupt. *Flower-stalks* axillary, solitary or in pairs, scarcely ever so long as the footstalks. *Bractæ* lanceolate, membranous, at each of their subdivisions. *Flowers* crowded into little heads, small, monoecious. *Seeds* elliptical, beaked. The whole plant resembles a *Parietaria*.

37. *U. ciliata*. Speedwell-leaved Nettle. Swartz Ind. Occ. 298. Willd. n. 34.—Leaves opposite, elliptical, three-ribbed, crenate, fringed, acute at each end; entire at the base. Stem divaricate. Flowers aggregate, on axillary stalks, about the length of the footstalks.—Found in rocky woods, in the interior of Jamaica. The stem is herbaceous, dividing from the base into several smooth, spreading, ascending branches, about six inches high. *Leaves* an inch long, not unlike *Veronica officinalis* in general aspect, but shorter, on longish stalks, crenate rather than serrated, minutely downy, not stinging. *Stipulas* minute, accompanied by tufts of hairs. *Flowers* most assuredly axillary, not terminal, forming a kind of umbels, in which the male ones seem to occupy the upper part. This species is, as Dr. Swartz observes, totally different from the Linnean *U. ciliaris*, but we would beg leave to remark that their names are too much alike.

38. *U. radicans*. Parasitical Nettle. Swartz Ind. Occ. 299. Willd. n. 35.—Leaves opposite, ovate, crenate, thinning; slightly wedge-shaped at the base. Flowers axillary, nearly sessile. Stem and branches trailing, with downy radicles.—Native of umbrageous forests, in the interior of the northern part of Jamaica, where it trails over the trunks of trees, even to their very summits, thriving plentifully under their shade, as well as on the rotten trunks of fallen trees in the same situations; but it rarely blossoms. The spreading stems are sometimes attached throughout their whole length, by shaggy or downy radicles; they are brittle, subdivided, with many opposite leafy branches. *Leaves* stalked, horizontal, obtuse, half or three-quarters of an inch long; their upper surface covered with minute depressed bristles, though not harsh to the touch, nor stinging. *Stipulas* scarcely discernible. *Flowers* minute, green, the male and female ones in the same axillary tuft.

39. *U. pendula*. Pendulous Nettle. Willd. n. 36. (U. ruppertia; Lamarck n. 18. “U. umbellata; Bory de St. Vincent Voy. v. 3. 173.”)—Leaves ovate, bluntly serrated, generally four in a whorl, on unequal footstalks. Clusters axillary and terminal, on long solitary stalks, somewhat corymbose.—Native of the isles of Mauritius and Bourbon, hanging from the rocks in an elegant manner. The root is fibrous, apparently perennial. Stems from eight to twelve

inches long, covered with minute depressed bristles, and dividing at the extremity into many spreading, opposite, leafy branches. *Leaves* hardly an inch long, broadly ovate, somewhat triple-ribbed, and marked with many transverse veins; their under side smooth, brown or purplish; upper bright green, covered with very minute depressed bristles, as in the last, which do not interfere with their smoothness to the touch. Some of the footstalks are as long as the corresponding leaf; others in the same whorl but half that length. *Flower-stalks* longer than the longest footstalks, slender, smooth, solitary, forked at the upper part, bearing several little round tufts of flowers, which in our specimen are all female, and in seed; nor do we find any traces or remains of male ones. M. Poiret in Lamarck describes the upper side of the leaves smooth, the under slightly downy; yet we cannot doubt his plant being the same as ours. He speaks of a variety with narrower, more lanceolate and pointed, leaves, which has not fallen in our way.

40. *U. fasciculata*. Tufted Nettle. Poiret in Lamarck n. 19.—“Leaves opposite, ovate, toothed, on long stalks. Flowers tufted at the divisions of the panicle.”—Native of Carolina. M. Poiret says this is very distinct from the preceding. The leaves, like every other part, are smooth, much larger than the last, acute, generally remarkable for the great length of the smooth slender footstalks. Clusters many-flowered, very dense, crowded, aggregate and axillary, hardly longer than the footstalks.—We have seen no specimen answering to this description, nor is the present species adopted by Willdenow or Pursh; at least not by the above name.

41. *U. sessilifolia*. Sessile-leaved Whorled Nettle. Poiret in Lamarck n. 30. Willd. n. 37.—Leaves nearly sessile, lanceolate, sharply serrated, three or four in a whorl.—Gathered by Commerçon in the isle of Mauritius. The stems are rather woody, with straight leafy branches. *Leaves* mostly four in each whorl, their teeth, or serratures, pointed; both surfaces covered with short, white, not very evident, hairs, such as are found also on the stem; the upper side is of a fine green; the under a little reddish. The flowers have not been observed, so that the genus is presumed from the habit only.

42. *U. nummularifolia*. Moneywort-leaved Nettle. Swartz Ind. Occ. 301. Act. Holm. for 1787. t. 1. f. 2. Willd. n. 38. (Nummularia faxatilis minima repens, floribus albis, foliis crenatis villosis; Sloane Jam. v. 1. 208. t. 131. f. 4.)—Leaves opposite, orbicular, crenate, hairy. Clusters dense, terminal, monoecious. Stems thread-shaped, simple, creeping.—Native of fissures of rocks, among the mountainous woods of Jamaica. A pretty little creeping species, downy, or minutely hairy, all over. The leaves are about half an inch in diameter, obtuse, bright green, crenate like those of a *Chrysosplenium*; paler beneath. *Stipulas* membranous, whitish, obtuse. Clusters from the bosoms of the uppermost leaves, each of several male and female flowers; the former largest, on longer stalks; the latter very minute. *Seeds* nearly orbicular, brown, tumid.

43. *U. depressa*. Depressed Nettle. Swartz Ind. Occ. 303. Willd. n. 39.—Leaves opposite, roundish, crenate, smooth. Clusters dense, terminal, dioecious. Stem creeping, subdivided.—Native of shady grassy borders of fields, in the interior of Jamaica. Perennial. Stem three or four inches long, succulent, pressed close to the earth, and fixed by many small radicles. The short branches form a kind of turf with the adjoining plants. *Leaves* small, ribbed, rather succulent, of a brownish green. *Stipulas* ovate, small and white. *Flowers* dioecious, about three to five, in little terminal sessile clusters; the female ones extremely minute.

Seeds roundish, black. Differs from the last in its smoothness, darker colour, dioecious flowers, and more numerous, entangled, depressed, copiously branched, stems.

44. *U. herniariaefolia*. Rupture-wort Nettle. Willd. n. 40. (*U. herniarioides*; Swartz Ind. Occ. 309. Aët. Holm. for 1787. t. 2. f. 1.)—Leaves opposite, roundish, entire; tapering at the base: the terminal ones four in a whorl. Flowers terminal, stalked, monoecious. Stem thread-shaped, diffuse.—Found on large stones, in the rivers and rivulets of Hispaniola. A very small, slender, smooth, trailing, annual herb, three or four inches long at most, not much branched. Leaves stalked, somewhat spatulate, bluntish, scarcely two lines in diameter; their upper surface covered with depressed bristles, as if stitched, but not rough to the touch. Flowers excessively small, in little terminal monoecious tufts. Seed brown.

45. *U. microphylla*. Small-leaved Nettle. Swartz Ind. Occ. 305. Willd. n. 41. Ait. n. 14. (*Parietaria microphylla*; Linn. Sp. Pl. 1492. Am. Acad. v. 5. 412. *Herniaria lucida aquatica*; Sloane Jam. v. 1. 145. t. 93. f. 2.)—Leaves opposite or clustered, ovate, acute, lusculent, nearly entire. Flowers scattered, dioecious. Stems ascending, branched in the upper part.—Very common throughout the West Indies, in waste or watery places, or on old walls, &c. flowering throughout the year. The roots are perennial, long and capillary. Herb much stouter and more erect than the preceding, about four inches high, with innumerable minute leaves, resembling that species, but more ovate and acute, as well as occasionally notched; their upper side in like manner clothed with close bristles. Flowers axillary, stalked; the male largest, reddish; the female on a separate plant, with shorter stalks, crowded, very minute. Seed roundish, polished.

46. *U. trianthemoides*. Purslane-leaved Nettle. Swartz Ind. Occ. 307. Willd. n. 42.—Leaves opposite, obovate, obtuse, entire; one much smaller than the other. Flowers monoecious. Stem erect, branched.—Native of shady rocky places, near rivers, in Hispaniola. Perennial. Stem herbaceous, a foot high, jointed, branched from the base, succulent and smooth; ultimate branches alternate, spreading, leafy. Leaves stalked, of a shining green, smooth to the touch, but striated, as it were, with small, inseparable, flattened bristles, on the upper side; the under being dotted, and only partially hairy. The largest leaf of each pair is not an inch long; the smaller scarcely one-fifth that size. Stipules none. Flowers numerous, in axillary or lateral tufts, at each joint of the branches. The female calyx is said to consist of three valves.

47. *U. ferrulata*. Blunt-notched Nettle. Swartz Ind. Occ. 313. Willd. n. 43.—Leaves opposite, lanceolate, abruptly serrated, nearly sessile; tapering at the base. Heads of flowers axillary, stalked. Stem shrubby, quadrangular.—Native of limestone rocks, in the interior of Jamaica, flowering in the vernal months. A little, shrubby, bushy plant, about a foot high, with scattered, square, roughish, but not hairy, leafy branches. Leaves about an inch long, dark green, minutely bristly, or fitched, as it were, on the upper side, like several of the foregoing; paler beneath; tapering at the base into short footstalks; furnished in their upper part with blunt, somewhat glandular, ferratures. Flowers monoecious, their stalks red, shorter than the leaves; the male ones with a red calyx.

48. *U. lucida*. Shining Cut-leaved Nettle. Swartz Ind. Occ. 315. Willd. n. 44.—Leaves opposite, pinnatifid, shining, clothed on both sides with depressed bristles. Heads of flowers on axillary stalks, longer than the leaves. Stem shrubby, angular.—Found in rocky, or waste places, among

the cooler mountains of Jamaica, flowering in spring. A very pretty little shrub, the height of the last, with brown quadrangular branches. The bright-green shining leaves, scarcely half an inch long, resemble those of an Oak, or rather of *Myrica quercifolia*, in miniature, their lobes and sinuses being rounded in a similar manner. Their flattened bristles are large in proportion. Flower-stalks simple, capillary, each bearing a very small head, in which the male and female flowers are intermixed.

49. *U. trilobata*. Three-lobed Glaucous Nettle. Poirét in Lamarck n. 14. Willd. n. 45.—Leaves oblong, obtuse, undivided or three-lobed, stalked, three or four in a whorl, hoary with close-pressed bristles. Stem round, with quadrangular branches.—Gathered in the island of Mauritius by Commerçon, one of whose specimens is before us. This, like what M. Poirét examined, is destitute of fructification, but the habit, and especially the remarkable depressed bristles of the leaves, so copious as to render the plant glaucous or hoary, scarcely allow of a doubt as to the genus. The stem is somewhat shrubby, bushy, of taller stature than the two last; round, glaucous, and leafless below; furnished at the upper part with elongated, square, leafy, opposite or ternate, branches. Leaves on longish stalks, spreading, of a greyish-green, smooth to the touch, linear-oblong, rounded at each end, scarcely an inch in length; some of them quite undivided and entire; but the greater part are furnished at each side, about the middle, with a small, spreading, obtuse lobe. A few of the lower leaves are opposite only.

50. *U. cuneifolia*. Smooth Wedge-leaved Nettle. Swartz Ind. Occ. 319. Willd. n. 46.—Leaves opposite, obovate-wedge-shaped, very smooth, toothed at the end; one much smaller than the other. Clusters terminal, on capillary stalks. Stem shrubby, round.—Native of massy lime-stone rocks, among the mountains of Jamaica. Root creeping. Stem from three inches to a foot in height, erect, branched, striated, smooth. Leaves almost ribless, on very short stalks, without stipulas, one of each pair six times the size of its companion, which is obovate and nearly entire. Flowers: monoecious, in little tufts, not capitate, on solitary, reddish, spreading stalks, from the bosoms of the terminal leaves, which they do not equal in length. Male flowers with a thick red calyx, and white anthers; female ones more numerous, and much smaller. Dr. Swartz mentions a dwarf variety, only an inch high, with ovate leaves, and extremely minute flowers. This is one of the very few species of which we have seen no specimens.

51. *U. cuneiformis*. Roughish Wedge-leaved Nettle. Poirét in Lamarck n. 20. Willd. n. 47.—Leaves opposite, stalked, obovate-wedge-shaped, serrated, triple-ribbed, minutely hairy. Flowers tufted, on short axillary stalks. Stems simple, ascending.—Gathered by Commerçon, in the isle of Mauritius. Root perennial, creeping. Stems several, about four or five inches high, roundish, leafy, rather woody, and numerously jointed. Leaves almost an inch long, strongly serrated except at the tapering base, the opposite ones very slightly unequal in size. Flowers reddish, few together, on lateral stalks, about the length of the footstalks.

SECT. 2. *Leaves alternate.*

52. *U. lappulacea*. Bur Nettle. Swartz Ind. Occ. 317. Aët. Holm. for 1787. t. 2. f. 2. Willd. n. 48.—Leaves alternate, ovate, roughish, hairy, entire. Flowers terminal, nearly sessile. Seeds triangular. Stem diffuse.—Very common in dry stony places in Jamaica, flowering in spring. The aspect of the plant is like a *Parietaria*. Stem trailing, much branched. Leaves stalked, from a quarter to three-quarters

quarters of an inch long, somewhat hairy, not stinging, imperfectly fringed. *Stipulas* none. *Flowers* crowded between the terminal leaves, somewhat racemose, the male and female ones together, the latter sessile. *Germens* two, one to each valve, triangular. The permanent valves of the *calyx*, fringed with minute hooked bristles, attach themselves to any thing that comes in their way, and carry the *seeds* along with them. Swartz describes a sort of rough covering to the *seeds*, besides the *calyx*-valves, and justly remarks that this species is a very singular *Urtica*, very near the *Parietaria* in habit; and we may add somewhat similar, perhaps, in character.

53. *U. glomerata*. Tufted-flowered Nettle. Willd. n. 49.—Leaves alternate, ovate, entire; rough above; most hairy beneath. Flowers pentandrous, nearly sessile, in axillary tufts. Stem erect, with slender elongated branches.—Native of the East Indies. Communicated by professor Willdenow himself. The *stem* is somewhat shrubby, a foot and a half or two feet high, with alternate, long, slender, angular, leafy, reddish branches, downy when young. *Leaves* numerous, scattered, stalked, from half an inch to an inch, rarely more, in length, bluish, three-ribbed; dark green, and rough with minute points, as well as a few hairs, on the upper side; paler, and clothed with prominent bristly hairs, beneath. *Flowers* reddish, hairy, monoecious, in numerous little round tufts; the males five-cleft. The whole plant has altogether the appearance of a *Parietaria*.

54. *U. mollissima*. Silk-leaved Nettle.—Leaves alternate, ovato-lanceolate, bluish, entire; soft and downy on both sides. Flowers nearly sessile, in axillary tufts. Stem erect, with downy branches.—Gathered by Commerfon, in the ile de Mauritius. We find no description in any author answerable to this plant, though it is a very distinct species. The *branches* have a shrubby aspect, being stout, angular or furrowed; silky, and sometimes zigzag, when young. *Leaves* two inches, or two and a half, in length, ovate at the base, tapering to a blunt point, three-ribbed, of a bright light green; minutely dotted on the upper side, and very hairy on both, with soft silky pubescence. *Footstalks* one-third of an inch long, broad, very downy. *Flowers* numerous, in dense, globular, axillary tufts, intermixed with scaly bractæes. They appear to be all males in our specimens, but are in too young a state for precise determination. We have been inclined to suspect that this may be the *Parietaria verbascifolia* of Poiret in Lam. Dict. v. 5. 16, but the *leaves* in our specimens are all alternate, ovate, rather than lanceolate, and blunt, not sharp. It is, however, sufficiently akin to *P. arborea* of the same author, though abundantly distinct, to excite this suspicion. This *P. arborea*, (*Urtica arborea*; Linn. Suppl. 417. L'Herit. Stimp. t. 20.) is *Boehmeria rubescens*, Willd. Sp. Pl. v. 4. 344; a handsome greenhouse shrub, flowering copiously in the spring.

55. *U. rotundifolia*. Pepper-leaved Nettle. Lamarck n. 38. Willd. n. 50.—Leaves alternate, roundish-ovate, pointed, coriaceous, nearly entire, smooth; minutely dotted above. Spikes axillary, aggregate, interrupted. Flowers in round balls, with linear downy bractæes.—Gathered by Commerfon, in the island of Mauritius. A fine large shrubby species, with the aspect of a Pepper-vine. The *branches* are round, smooth, hollow. *Leaves* three inches long, and two broad, with three ribs, connected on the under side by transverse parallel veins, and innumerable reticulations; the upper dotted with minute callous points. Willdenow mistranslates Poiret, so as to describe these latter on the under surface. *Footstalks* above an inch long, very

smooth. *Clusters*, or *spikes*, twice that length, erect, three together, unbranched, but formed of several dense, distant, globular, many-flowered heads, interperled with long, narrow, rusty bractæes. All the *flowers* appear to be female in Commerfon's specimen, but we cannot clearly ascertain the generic character, so as to be free from doubt on that subject. We should gladly have named this species *monilifera*.

56. *U. heterophylla*. Various-leaved Nettle. Vahl Symb. v. 1. 76. Willd. n. 51. (*U. palmata*; Forfk. Ægypt.-Arab. 159. Ana-chorigenam; Rheede Hort. Malab. v. 2. 77. t. 41).—Leaves alternate, ovate, with tooth-like serratures; the upper ones three-lobed. *Clusters* axillary, stalked, oblong, compound.—Native of Arabia Felix, and the East Indies. *Root* apparently annual. *Stem* simple, eighteen inches high, furrowed, spotted, bristly. *Leaves* somewhat heart-shaped, pointed, with three principal ribs, from two to four inches long, and nearly as broad. *Footstalks* bristly, shorter than the leaves. *Flowers* monoecious; the males in globose *clusters*; the females below them; their *clusters* hipcid and forked when in fruit.

57. *U. glauca*. Surinam Nettle. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1397. Willd. n. 52. Ait. n. 15. Jacq. Hort. Schoenbr. v. 3. 72. t. 388; see n. 66. (Pino, five *Urtica*; Pif. Brasil. 235).—Leaves alternate, ovate, serrated; minutely heart-shaped at the base. *Clusters* axillary, forked. Fruit in orbicular corymbs.—Native of Surinam. Linnaeus raised it in the Upfal garden. The *root* is annual or biennial. *Herb* stinging, with a furrowed, simple, hairy *stem*. *Leaves* on long hairy stalks, larger than those of *U. dioica*, and less deeply or sharply serrated; contracted in a peculiar manner towards the base, where their two small lobes make a heart-like sinus. *Clusters* in our specimen shorter than the footstalks, forked and subdivided; in Pifo's figure they are longer, and assembled about the top of the stem, as in Jacquin's plant, which latter is said to have no stinging property. Hence arises a doubt as to his synonym, which, without comparing specimens, we cannot remove. Pifo speaks of his plant as powerfully stinging, and Linnaeus implies the same in the specific name. The bristles on the *leaves* indeed appear constructed like those of our Stinging Nettle, but those of the *stem* look like what Linnaeus terms them, "harmless prickles."

58. *U. capitata*. Many-headed Nettle. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1397. Willd. n. 53. Pursh n. 6.—Leaves alternate, heart-shaped, serrated, roughish, nearly naked. Heads of flowers globular, densely spiked. *Stem* smooth.—In shady woods, near rocks, from Canada to Carolina; perennial, flowering in June and July. *Pursh*. This species bears some resemblance to *U. dioica*, or rather to our *morifolia*, n. 20; but the *leaves* have three well-marked principal ribs, and are more pointed than in the latter, besides being alternate. The *clusters*, or rather *spikes*, are axillary, erect, solitary, various in length, composed of crowded or confluent heads, of sessile *flowers*. Sometimes these *spikes* assume the nature of *branches*, and terminate in a few leaves; sometimes they are much shorter than the *footstalks*. The *seeds* are ovate, with a broad tumid border.

59. *U. japonica*. Hairy Japan Nettle. Thunb. Jap. 70. Willd. n. 54.—Leaves alternate, heart-shaped, villous, unequally serrated. Flowers in globular, axillary, stalked heads. *Stem* downy.—Grows near Nagasaki in Japan, flowering in September and October. The cortical fibres serve to make cables for small vessels. The *stem* is square, furrowed, erect. *Leaves* an inch and a half long; paler beneath. *Footstalks* half that length.

60. *U. villosa*. Small Shaggy Japan Nettle. Thunb. Jap.

Jap. 76. Willd. n. 55.—Leaves alternate, heart-shaped, bluntly serrated, hairy, on very short stalks. Flowers in sessile, scattered, globular heads.—Native of Japan. The stem is herbaceous, round, hardly a span high, with alternate wide-spreading branches. Leaves obtuse, unequal, as long as the nail. Heads of flowers minute, dispersed over the branches.

61. *U. jejiflora*. Dense-whorled Nettle. Swartz Ind. Occ. 321. Willd. n. 56.—Leaves roughish, elliptical, tapering at each end; serrated towards the point: the upper ones sometimes opposite. Clusters very short, in dense axillary whorls. Stem erect, round, nearly smooth.—Native of rocky mountainous places, in the interior of Jamaica. Root perennial, branched, fibrous. Stem a foot high, shrubby at the base, divided upwards, scarcely roughish; the branches generally, not always, alternate. Leaves two inches or two inches and a half long, and an inch and a quarter wide across the middle, somewhat triple-ribbed, rather fleshy; roughish on the upper side only, (not tingling,) with very minute short bristles. Footstalks an inch or inch and half long, smooth. Stipulas none. Flowers monoeious, very small, forming little dense whorls.

62. *U. muralis*. Arabian Wall Nettle. Vahl Symb. v. 1. 77. Willd. n. 57. (U. parafitica; Forfk. Ægypt.-Arab. 160).—Leaves alternate, ovate, three-ribbed, downy, equally serrated. Stipulas lanceolate, pointed, distinct. Clusters very short, in dense axillary whorls.—Found by Forskall, on the walls of Coffee-gardens, in Arabia. Perennial. Stem a foot high, round, downy; hoary in the upper part. Leaves an inch and a half long, pointed, sharply serrated, clothed with soft shaggy pubescence, especially the upper ones, not tingling; entire at the base and point. Footstalks an inch in length. Whorls villous and hoary. Differs from *U. japonica*, n. 59, in the equal serratures, and even surface, of its leaves, as well as in its sessile heads of flowers. Vahl.

63. *U. caffra*. Caffre's Nettle. Thunb. Prodr. 31. Willd. n. 58.—Leaves alternate, ovate, somewhat heart-shaped, serrated. Flowers axillary, sessile. Stem weak, not quite erect.—Native of Southern Africa. Thunberg.

64. *U. ruderalis*. Otaheit Nettle. Forfk. Prodr. 66. Willd. n. 59.—Leaves alternate, ovate, somewhat heart-shaped, bluntly serrated, smooth. Panicles axillary, corymbose, divaricated, stalked, nearly equal to the leaves.—Gathered by Forster in Otaheit and the Society Isles. His specimen before us is a foot long, woody, alternately subdivided, and appears to be but a branch of a shrubby stem, of considerable size. Willdenow, on the contrary, speaks of the stems as only a finger's length. The leaves are above an inch long, on long stalks; paler beneath, but we do not find them at all rough. Panicles on long, smooth, angular stalks. Seeds ovate, bordered, light brown, somewhat wrinkled.

65. *U. leptostachya*. Slender-spiked Nettle.—Leaves alternate, ovate, serrated; rough on the upper side. Spikes axillary, solitary, simple, cylindrical, downy, on stalks much longer than the leaves.—Gathered by Commerfon, in the Isle of Bourbon. We do not find it any where described. The root is perennial, creeping very extensively. Herb not tingling. Stem a foot high, or more, erect, round, simple, leafy, downy or roughish. Leaves scattered, an inch or inch and a half long, on slender downy and bristly stalks, half that length; their upper surface harsh to the touch; under smoother, but with hairy ribs. Flower-stalks erect, three or four inches long, slender, undivided, from the bosoms of the smaller upper leaves, besides a terminal one,

larger than the rest; they are all naked below; minutely bracteate in the upper part; and each terminates in a dense spike of numerous sessile flowers, all female, as far as we can discern, in our specimen. Calyx ovate, turgid, downy.

66. *U. divaricata*. Wing-stalked Nettle. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1397. Willd. n. 60. Pursh n. 7. (U. racemosa major virginiana, mitior, five minds urens; Pluk. Phyt. t. 237. f. 2, excluding the synonyms.)—Leaves alternate, ovate, roughish, strongly serrated. Clusters compound, divaricated, as long as the leaves: male flower-stalks winged, wedge-shaped.—Gathered in Canada by Kalm, whose original specimen is before us. If Mr. Pursh's plant be the same, of which there appears some doubt, we have his authority for this species inhabiting shady woods, in rocky situations, from Canada to Carolina, flowering in August. Neither Willdenow nor Poirer ever saw *U. divaricata*. Its general aspect is so like Jacquin's figure of *U. effluans*, see n. 57, that we should suppose that figure belonged to the present species, were the very peculiar wedge-shaped, membranous-winged stalks, of the male flowers, there represented. These could not have eluded the observing Jacquin, though not expressed by Plukenet, whose plant may indeed be different from our's, and yet not the same with the following. The stem of *U. divaricata* is tawny, strongly furrowed, slightly prickly. Leaves three or four inches long, ovate, with a small sinus at the base, pointed, copiously and sharply serrated, on bristly footstalks; they have scarcely more than one principal rib; they are roughish on both sides, but especially the upper, with extremely minute points, and some scattered bristles. The clusters are terminal, or at least crowded about the top of the stem, several together, spreading, stout, twice compound; their common stalks bristly, as are the partial ones, more or less. Those of the male flowers, a quarter of an inch long, we have already described; these flowers are all past in our specimen. The seeds are of greater diameter than mustard-seed, nearly orbicular, oblique, compressed, smooth, brown, with a curved point; their stalks short and simple. Calyx very small. We hope some North American botanist will illustrate this curious species, and its synonyms.

67. *U. canadensis*. Canada Nettle. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1397. Willd. n. 61. Ait. n. 16. Pursh n. 8. Michaux Boreal.-Amer. v. 2. 178, excluding Plukenet's synonym. (U. racemosa canadensis; Dodart Mem., Amsterdam, ed. 631. t. 37. U. virginiana major racemosa mitior, seu minus urens; Moris. lect. 11. t. 25. f. 2.)—Leaves alternate, ovate, somewhat hairy, serrated. Stipulas obtuse. Clusters axillary, compound, spreading, shorter than the leaves; the lower ones male, sessile; upper female, stalked.—Near rivulets, in rocky or sandy situations, from Canada to Carolina, especially on the mountains, flowering in July and August. The root is perennial, reddish, rather woody, with stout fibres. Stems four or five feet high, annual, erect, simple, roundish, striated, slightly bristly; their fibres tough. Leaves three or four inches long, pointed; sometimes a little unequal at the base; slightly hairy on both sides, rather harsh to the touch, but not tingling. Footstalks an inch long, bristly, with a pair of rounded reddish stipulas at their insertion. Our Linnæan specimen is destitute of flowers. Dodart compares them to those of the "Common Nettle;" we presume *U. dioica*; and such is nearly their appearance in a specimen from Jacquin's old herbarium, at Sir J. Banks's, marked by mistake *divaricata*; but they are more slender and branched than *U. dioica*.

68. *U. hirsuta*. Hairy Arabian Nettle. Vahl Symb. v. 1. 77. Willd. n. 62. (U. divaricata; Forfk. Ægypt.-Arab.

Arab. 160.)—Leaves alternate, ovate, somewhat heart-shaped, serrated. Stem and footstalks hairy. Stipulas linear-lanceolate. Clusters compound, longer than the leaves.—Native of Arabia. The herbage has no stinging quality. The stem is but a foot high, most hairy in the upper part. Leaves about an inch long, acute; paler beneath, with hairy ribs. Footstalks the length of the leaves. Clusters axillary, solitary, less compound than in the last, hairy. Flowers tufted.

69. *U. capensis*. Horehound-leaved Cape Nettle. Linn. Suppl. 417. Willd. n. 63. Thunb. Prodr. 31.—Leaves alternate, heart-shaped, crenate; downy and soft beneath. Clusters axillary, erect, aggregate. Flowers fasciculated.—Gathered by Thunberg, at the Cape of Good Hope. The stem is round, erect, with spreading branches, somewhat hairy, not stinging. Leaves an inch and a half long, and nearly as broad, acute, broadly and rather sharply crenate; smooth above; densely downy and hoary beneath. Footstalks downy, about as long as the leaves. Clusters two inches or more in length, stalked, slender, cylindrical, unbranched, composed of small, round, slightly distant, tufts of flowers.

70. *U. argentea*. Silvery Cape Nettle. Forst. Prodr. 65. Willd. n. 64.—“Leaves alternate, elliptic-lanceolate, nearly entire; glaucous beneath. Spikes axillary, solitary, interrupted.”—Native of the Society Isles. Forster.

71. *U. nivea*. Chinese White-leaved Nettle. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1398. Willd. n. 65. Ait. n. 17. Jacq. Hort. Vind. v. 2. 78. t. 166. (Ranium majus; Rumph. Amboyn. v. 5. 214. t. 79. f. 1.)—Leaves alternate, roundish-ovate, pointed, toothed, three-ribbed; snow-white and downy beneath. Clusters axillary, repeatedly compound. Flowers fasciculated.—Native of China, and the remote islands of the East Indies. Miller appears to have cultivated this species at Chelsea in 1739, and it still exists there, in the open border, though generally considered as a greenhouse or stove plant. The stem is shrubby, erect, but little branched, three or four feet high. Leaves from three to six inches long, and three or four in breadth, on long hairy stalks; their upper surface dark-green, opaque, rough to the touch; the under clothed with soft, very close, pubescence, of the purest most brilliant white, marked with three principal ribs, and many fine veins, all reddish or green, hairy, not downy. Clusters repeatedly compound, bearing numerous small round heads of flowers, all female in the specimens we have examined. We see no reason to doubt the synonym of Rumphius, though Jacquin expresses a contrary opinion; led perhaps more by the figure, which is diminished and bad, than by the description. This *Urtica* is a very handsome and singular plant, well worthy of cultivation in warm sheltered parts of a flower-garden, or shrubbery, at least in our southern counties.

72. *U. elata*. Jamaica Tree Nettle. Swartz Ind. Occ. 322. Willd. n. 66.—Leaves alternate, ovate, acute, serrated, somewhat bristly. Stem arboreous. Clusters much branched, divaricated, lateral, below the leaves. Flowers dioecious.—Native of hills in the southern part of Jamaica. A tree about ten feet high, whose trunk is an inch or two in diameter, with a smoothish grey bark, and spreading branches, armed when young with stinging bristles. Leaves on the young branches only, stalked, pointed, an inch or two long, with broad, sometimes shallow, serratures; green on both sides, and besprinkled, more or less, with fine stinging bristles, some of which are marginal. Clusters on the naked parts of the branches, from above the scars left by the last year's leaves, an inch long, slender, bristly.

Flowers minute, distant, sessile. Dr. Swartz never met with the male blossoms.

73. *U. caracallana*. Broad-downy-leaved Nettle. Jacq. Hort. Schoenbr. v. 3. 71. t. 386. Willd. n. 67.—Leaves alternate, heart-shaped, acutely crenate; rough above; soft and downy beneath. Panicles lateral, leafless, forked, divaricated. Flowers capitate, dioecious. Stem arboreous.—Native of the Caracacs. It flowered in autumn, in the stove at Schoenbrun. We find an old specimen, without name or place of growth, in the Linnæan herbarium. The stem is eight feet high, and an inch thick, round, woody, but light. Leaves on downy stalks, broadly heart-shaped, from five to eighteen inches long, copiously but not strongly crenate, furnished with one principal rib, which sends off many obliquely transverse ones; green on both sides, though the under is clothed with dense velvet-like pubescence, which has rather less of a stinging property than the hairs on the footstalks and young branches. Panicles from above the scars left by last year's leaves, two or three inches wide, repeatedly forked, their stalks white, smooth and tender. Flowers purplish, in small round heads. We have seen only the males, which are four-cleft.

74. *U. baccifera*. Berry-bearing Nettle. Linn. Sp. Pl. 1398. Willd. n. 68. Ait. n. 18. Jacq. Hort. Schoenbr. v. 3. 71. t. 387. Andr. Repof. t. 454. Swartz Obf. 358. (*U. arborefcens baccifera*; Plum. Ic. 259. t. 260.)—Leaves alternate, heart-shaped, toothed, prickly as well as the shrubby stem. Calyx of the fruit pulpy.—Native of lofty shady mountains in South America and Jamaica; flowering in the stove in summer. A stout shrub, or small tree, of a coarse rather succulent habit, armed all over with copious large venomous prickles, of a conical figure. Leaves a span long, acute, dark-green; paler beneath. Panicles numerous, lateral or axillary, large, drooping, lax, very much branched, with red prickly stalks. Flowers small, dioecious; we have seen the female plant only, and consequently no perfect fruit. The stigma is a beautiful tuft of radiating hairs. The calyx is permanent, swelling, and becoming pulpy, as the seed ripens, which is clearly expressed in Plumier's figure.

75. *U. stimularis*. Buffalo's Nettle. Linn. Suppl. 418. Willd. n. 69.—Leaves alternate, oblong, entire; contracted and slightly heart-shaped at the base; roughish on the upper side. Stem shrubby, prickly. Panicles axillary, compound, divaricated, hairy.—Native of Java, where, according to Thunberg, it is called *Buffelblad*, or Buffalo's leaf, being used to drive those animals, by means of the large stings, with which the branches are armed. Of these stings we find no traces on the dried specimen. The branches are woody, round; the young ones leafy, rough to the touch, with extremely minute points, such as are found likewise on the foliage. The leaves are a span long, (on stalks rough in a similar manner, an inch in length,) furnished with a single stout mid-rib, which sends off numerous alternate, transverse veins or ribs; the under side is smooth, rather pale. Stipulas ovate, membranous, partly hairy, deciduous. Panicles stalked, twice the length of the footstalks, with somewhat racemose branches, clothed with numerous, apparently stinging, bristles. Flowers somewhat tufted, small, probably dioecious.

76. *U. laurina*. Laurel-leaved Nettle.—Leaves alternate, ovate-oblong, pointed, nearly smooth, with shallow serratures. Panicles lateral, divaricated, downy. Flowers capitate.—Sent by the late Mr. Christopher Smith, from Amboyna. The stem is shrubby or arboreous, with woody solid branches, leafy at the extremity. Leaves deciduous, about

about four inches long, of an elegant, somewhat elliptical, taper-pointed form, bordered with shallow serratures chiefly towards the end, and furnished, as in the last, with a single mid-rib, sending off transverse veins; the upper side is smooth to the touch, though covered with callous points, even more minute than in the preceding; the under paler, somewhat downy when young, but afterwards smooth, except the rib and veins, which are finely hairy. *Footstalks* downy and hairy, three-quarters of an inch long. *Stipulas* nearly as long, lanceolate, hairy, deciduous. *Panicles* copious, from the scars of the naked branches, left by the last year's footstalks, each of several straggling, slightly divided, racemose branches, finely downy, not hairy or stinging. *Flowers* in little round heads, all male in our specimen, four-cleft and tetrandrous.

U. cylindrica, Linn. Sp. Pl. 1396; *spicata* of Thunberg, which is *japonica*, Linn. Suppl. 418; *alienata* of Linn. Syst. Veg. which is *Parietaria zeylanica*, Sp. Pl. 1492; *interrupta*, Sp. Pl. 1398; and, as we have already said, *arborescens*, Suppl. 417; are all referred by Willdenow to *BOEHMERIA*, in his Sp. Pl. v. 4. 340; see that article.

URTICA, in *Gardening*, furnishes plants of the hardy herbaceous kind, among which the species cultivated are, the Tartarian or hemp-leaved nettle (*U. cannabina*); the Canada nettle (*U. canadensis*); and the snowy Chinese or white-leaved nettle (*U. nivea*).

The first is a rather curious plant, rising with many square stalks to the height of five or six feet, and flowers hanging in the form of long catkins near the top parts of them.

The second sort, or Canadian nettle, has erect stalks two feet in height, and the flowers produced in the form of branching upright aments or catkins.

The third sort is perennial, with upright numerous stalks three or four feet in height, with the flowers in loose aments, the whole plant having a hoary white appearance.

Method of Culture.—These plants may be increased by parting or dipping the roots in the autumn, or early in the spring, and planting them out where they are to remain.

The third sort is rather tender, and should have a dry situation where it is warm and sheltered, or be kept in pots to be sheltered under frames, or in the green-house, during the severity of the winter season.

The two first sorts afford variety in the borders and clumps of pleasure-grounds, in assemblage with herbaceous plants, by the singularity of their manner of flowering, and the last among potted plants. They will continue for many years, especially the two first sorts.

URTICA Errans, in *Zoology*, the name of a sea-animal of the nature of the common *urtica marina* in many particulars; but as that is always fixed down to the rocks, this species is always found loose. See the next article.

It has been supposed that these creatures affected the skin with a pain like that of the stinging of nettles on touching them, and even the eyes of those who only look attentively on them; but M. Reaumur, who saw prodigious numbers of them on the coasts of Poitou, declares that he found no such property in any of them, any more than in those fixed to the rocks.

These in substance so much resemble a stiff jelly, that if they were called sea-jellies, there would want but a short additional description to make them understood. Their flesh, if it may be so called, appears of the colour as well as the consistence of a common jelly; and if a piece of one of them be taken up, the mere heat of the hand is sufficient to make it melt away into plain water. These are notwithstanding true and perfect animals; and those who have been of a contrary opinion, have not examined them with suffi-

cient attention. There are very different figures among them; but this is owing to their being of different species; for all those of the same species are ever exactly of the same figure. One great reason of people's supposing them unorganized bodies, is, that what is seen of them about the shores is very often a fragment of a dead animal, not the whole of a living one; and no wonder if all the necessary parts of an animal could not be found in such a piece of one.

Though the generality of these animals are of the simple colour of a jelly, there are some of a greenish cast, and others which have a broad band of a beautifully purple round their extremity; and some are beautifully spotted with brown. Their figure is very well expressed by that of the head of a large mulshroom; their upper surface is convex in the same manner, and this convexity is greater or less in the different kinds, as it is in the different species of mulshrooms.

If one of these animals be dried in the sun in hot weather, there remains nothing of it but a substance like a thin parchment; but if one of them be boiled in water, it does not dissolve away as might have been expected, but only regularly decreases in size; and when it has become of about one-fourth of its natural bigness, it there stops the decrease, and continues nearly of that size, and after that will not melt away upon the hand.

All the creatures of this species, which we see thrown upon the shores, are found lifeless and without motion; but there is nothing wonderful in that, because the violent shocks and blows which they must have received, in being dashed against the rocks or sands by the waves, are enough to kill so tender an animal. One proof that these animals once lived, is, that all those which we find about the shores are heavier than the water, and sink to the bottom; whereas all those seen out at sea, swim upon the surface; and this could not be the case in regard to any substance heavier than water, unless kept up by some voluntary motion. This motion M. Reaumur has observed to be a reciprocal contraction and dilatation of the whole body, in the manner of a systole and diastole. In the contraction, it elevates the convexity of the body, and in the dilatation it makes it more flat; and by continually repeating these motions, it keeps above water as a man does by swimming. Mem. Acad. Par. 1710.

URTICA Marina, the name of a remarkable genus of aquatic animals, so called from a supposition of their affecting the skin on touching them, with a painful sensation like that of the stinging of nettles. These are animals of the lowest class, and have by many been reckoned among those creatures called zoophytes, or plant-animals, as supposed to partake of the nature of vegetables and of animals. Some of the species of this animal are found loose upon the smooth shores, and some fixed to the rocks which are always covered with water. This has given birth to a distinction of them into two classes, which is as old as Aristotle; those of the one being such as move in the open sea, called by later writers *urtica solute*, and referred by Linnæus to the genus of medusa, and denominated by the common people sea-jellies and sea-blubbers (see *URTICA Errans*); and those of the others such as are fixed to rocks, and were supposed always to remain immovably in the same place, which belong to the actinia of Linnæus. The accurate M. Reaumur has observed, however, that even these last have a power of a progressive motion, and are not doomed to an eternal residence on the same spot. The motion of these creatures is so slow, that it might easily pass unobserved by less accurate observers; this gentleman comparing it to that of the hour-hand of a clock, and adding, that a journey of

an inch takes them up commonly between one and two hours. He observes also, that many of the species have no property of stinging, or causing any painful sensation on the flesh.

Dr. Gærtner observes, that there is not a single species of the *urtica marina* possessed of that stinging quality which the ancients ascribed to them; their tentacula indeed feel rough and clammy, when touched with the finger; but this roughness is not perceptible, except when the animal attempts to lay hold of the finger; in which case it throws out of the whole surface of the feeler a number of extremely minute suckers, which, sticking fast to the small protuberances of the skin, produce the sensation of a roughness, which is so far from being painful, that it even cannot be called disagreeable.

These creatures occasionally change their bodies into so many different forms; that there is no giving any description of their figure. The most natural and general shape seems that of a truncated cone, the base of which is applied to the rock; but this base is often round, often elliptic, and often of a perfectly irregular figure. The surface of the top of the cone is not flat, but convex, and has in its centre an aperture, which the creature makes larger or smaller at pleasure. In some positions, the whole animal not unaptly resembles a purse, only with this difference, that the body is not drawn up into any folds or wrinkles by the closing of the aperture or mouth. In the middle of this purse, as we call it, is placed the body of the creature, touching this outer covering at the bottom on every side, and of a conic figure, as that is. At its top, however, it is loose, and stands every way free from its covering; the sides are more or less distant from this free or loose part of the body, as the aperture at the top of the cone is more or less open; when it is nearly shut up, very little of the body of the animal can be seen; but when it opens into different widths, more or less of the body becomes visible; and when it is at the widest, every part of it, and all the horns, are seen perfectly distinct. These horns resemble in appearance those of the common snail; but in their use they seem much more allied to the pipes or proboscides of the *chamæ* kind, the animal generally throwing out water at them on being touched. They are placed in three ranges on the internal surface of the covering, and are very numerous, their whole number not being less than a hundred and fifty.

The creature very often not only opens the outer covering or purse to the utmost width it is capable of, but at the same time turns back its extremities: in this case, the internal part, or body, becomes visible on the surface, and at the same time all the horns being, by this bending back of the skin on which they grow, thrown into the posture of so many rays, the whole makes a very remarkable figure, and not unaptly resembles an anemone, or some other such flower, when fully open. Very often also there is a great addition to the beauty of this appearance, by several round vesicles of water, which appear blue, or of some other lively colour. The general colour of the different species of this animal, or indeed of the same species in different circumstances, is as variable as the shape; sometimes they are seen pellucid and colourless, sometimes white, often yellowish, sometimes of a rose colour; at other times, they are of a beautiful green, and often of various shades of brown. In some, these colours are equally diffused through every part; in others, they are only seen in form of spots and clouds, or variegations; sometimes these are irregularly disposed, sometimes more regularly, but always with great beauty. The green ones have usually a broad line of blue all round their base.

Neither the colour nor shapes of these animals can be any marks of different species; but the firmness of their flesh may; in this they remarkably differ one from another, and this is a difference the more obvious, as their flesh is always open to the touch, there being no shell, nor any other hard substance to cover it. However slow the progressive motion of this creature is, when examined it is found to depend on a very remarkable mechanism, to understand which we must attentively consider what is obvious to the eye in the structure of the creature, and remember the comparison of the whole to a purse. We find that what resembles the bottom of that purse is flat, and is fixed to the rock, while the body is contained in the rest of the purse, but never fills it, unless when the mouth of the purse or covering is close drawn together. The whole covering is a collection of muscles, which are all tubular. The base of the animal never appears to us, because always fixed down to the rock; but when the creature is raised from that position, and the base examined, it appears composed of a vast number of tubes placed one behind another, and running from the centre to the circumference. These tubes are often filled with an aqueous liquor, which may be forced out on pressing them. Besides these tubes, there are also many circular ones surrounding one another.

The progressive motion seems to be thus performed: when the creature has determined which way it will march, it distends all those longitudinal tubes which are on that side of its body which is placed toward the point it would move to; this, from its round shape at the base, gives it an oblong one; that is, it throws the fore-part somewhat forward upon the rock; and, at the same time, if the longitudinal tubes on the opposite side of the body be all left empty, and the circular ones distended, these naturally draw the whole body toward the fore-part, and thus a small advance is made and preserved, and this, often repeated, is the slow progression of this animal. All this is, however, performed so very slowly, that though there is a continual change going on in the creature, both as to shape and place, yet if the eye is kept continually on the object, neither is perceived; but if taken off for some time, and the place and figure both kept in mind, both will be found to be altered on viewing again.

There is a species of this animal also which moves by means of its horns; this is known from the rest by the length of the horns, and their being covered with a glutinous moisture. This species lives in the cavities and holes of rocks; and when it has a mind to move, it turns itself bottom upwards, and crawls slowly on by means of its horns, which then touch the rock.

The food of the *urtica marina* is not less wonderful than its structure and motions. It should seem very strange that an animal, soft like this creature, with no feet nor instrument of that kind to help itself with, should be able to feed on the flesh of muscles, sea-snails, and other shell-fish; yet these are its constant food. They find means to take in the shell-fish whole into the body, and then close the aperture fast upon it, so that it is not to be seen that they have any such thing within them; they keep them here as long as they please, and afterwards throw out the empty shells by the same aperture, which they can, as before observed, widen and contract at pleasure. By what means the *urtica* is able to get out the body of these fish, is not known, as it all passes in the body; but it very often fails, and the creature is obliged to throw out the shell-fish alive again; and sometimes when it has greedily gorged too large a morsel, and it is got into a wrong position to be thrown out the same way, it is obliged to let it through the base, where there is no natural

natural aperture, and where its passage must be attended with a terrible wound. The manner, in which the larger shells are thrown out by the mouth, is by opening it extremely wide and turning it back, so that the inside appears outward for a little way down; and this motion is also used on another very necessary occasion, the excluding of the young ones, for these animals are viviparous. Mem. Acad. Par. 1710.

It has been found that this creature has the remarkable property of the polype, in reproducing such parts as it had lost. M. Reaumur tried many experiments on the various species of this, and of the star-fish kind, and found that whatever parts were cut off, the wound soon healed; and M. de Villars had opportunities of watching the whole progress of the growth of the animals afterwards, and found that they not only seemed alive and well after cutting, their wounds soon cicatrizing, but that they, in a very little time, regained what had been cut off, and became as perfect as before. See *Sea-ANEMONES*.

Dr. Gærtner refers the *urtica marina*, or sea-nettles, to the hydra of Linnaeus, commonly called the polype; for he says, that they agree with that genus in the following general characters, besides many of its less essential or accidental qualities: they are of a gelatinous substance; they have only one opening in their bodies which gives a passage to the food, as well as to the excrements of the animal; and they have also a set of feelers, which surround this opening, and serve these creatures for claws, to catch their prey with, and convey it to their mouths. Phil. Transf. vol. lii. art. 13. p. 73, &c.

These animals were known to the Greeks and Romans by the names of *πνιμα θαλασσινα*, and *pulmo marinus*, or sea-lungs. They attributed medicinal virtues to them. Accordingly Dioscorides informs us, that if rubbed fresh on the diseased part, they cured the gout in the feet, and kided heels. Aelian says that they were depilatory, and if macerated in vinegar, would take away the beard. Their phosporic quality was noticed by Pliny, who says that a tick rubbed with them will appear to burn, and the wood to shine all over: he also adds, that when they sink to the bottom of the sea, they portend a continuance of bad weather. Pennant's Brit. Zool. vol. iv. p. 59.

URTICÆ, in Botany, so named from the great genus *URTICA*, see that article, is the 98th natural order in Jussieu's system, the third of his 15th, or last, class. The characters of this class are given under *EUPHORBIE*, where we have ventured to observe that the class is by no means a really natural one. To the order before us, though clogged with doubtful genera at the end, there is little or no exception. It is analogous to the *Scabride* of Linnaeus, and may serve to give an idea of that tribe, which we have omitted in its proper place.

Jussieu's characters of his *Urtice* are these.

Flowers monoecious or dioecious, rarely united. *Calyx* universally of one leaf, divided. *Corolla* none. The male flowers with a definite number of *filaments*, inserted into the calyx, opposite to its segments. *Female* ones with a solitary superior *germen*; *style* either wanting, or one, or two, often lateral; *stigmas* often two. *Seed* one, enclosed in a brittle crust, or tunic, either naked, or enclosed in the calyx, which sometimes turns pulpy. *Coraculum* straight or incurved, without *albumen*. The plants are either trees, shrubs or herbs; in some cases milky. *Leaves* generally accompanied by stipulas, and either alternate or opposite. *Flowers* sometimes solitary, sometimes racemose; in some genera seated on a many-flowered catkin-like receptacle; in others

concealed within a simple-leaved common involucre. *Fruit* therefore sometimes many-seeded, in consequence of the assemblage of the seeds of numerous aggregate flowers in one involucre or receptacle.

SECT. 1. *Flowers concealed in a common simple-leaved involucre*. This contains five genera.

Ficus; *Ambora* of Jussieu, which is MITHRIDATEA of Commerçon and Schreber; see that article; *Dorstenia*; *Hedyotis* of Forster, doubtfully placed here by Jussieu, as he suspects it may be more akin to his *Anona*, or to his *Ranunculaceae*; and, lastly PEREBEA of Aublet, of which we have spoken in its proper place, as a genus undoubtedly of this order, notwithstanding our present incomplete acquaintance with its fructification.

SECT. 2. *Flowers either situated on a common many-flowered receptacle; or collected into heads, with involucreal scales; or separate and scattered*.

Cecropia; *Artocarpus*; *Morus*; *Elatostema* of Forster, to which belongs *Procris* of Commerçon and Jussieu, as already mentioned, see ELATOSTEMA; *Boehmeria* of Jacquin. Willd. Sp. Pl. v. 4. 340; *Urtica*; *Forstkæla*; *Parietaria*; *Pteranthus* of Forskall, the *Louichea* of L'Heritier, Schreb. Gen. 840; *Humulus*; *Cannabis*; and *Theligonum*.

SECT. 3. *Genera related to Urtice*.

Gunnera, to which we have united *Misandra* of Commerçon, see GUNNERA, and to which also the *Panke* of Feuillée undoubtedly belongs; *Piper*; *Gnetum* of Linnaeus, from which *Thoa* of Aublet and Jussieu cannot be separated, see GNETUM; *Bagassa*, Aublet Guian. t. 376; *Coussapoa*, Aubl. Guian. t. 362, 363; and *Pourouma* of the same author, t. 341; the three last but imperfectly known.

Ulmus and *Celtis* are reckoned by Linnaeus amongst his *Scabride*, but Jussieu refers them to the *Amentaceae*; *Bosca* and *Acrida*, as well as *Trophis*, are *Scabride* of Linnaeus; Jussieu considers the two first as *Atriplices*, and the last stands amongst his *Plantæ incertæ sedis*, Juss. Gen. 442.

URVASI, in Hindoo Mythology, is the name of one of the numerous race of chorifiers, dancers, minstrels, &c. attending on the gods of that polytheistic and poetical people. The name of Urvasi does not often occur.

Urvasi is to be classed among the Uparas, answering to the Nereids of western fable; as she arose from the ocean, with Rhemba, queen of the Uparas, and a glorious train, when churned by the gods and demons, as described in the article KURMAVATARA.

URUBU, in Ornithology. See VULTUR.

URUBUARA, or URUBA-CUARA, in Geography, a town of the Braills, on a river of the same name, at its union with the Amazons; 90 miles W. of Para.

URUBU, a river of Brasil, which runs into the Amazons river; 100 miles above Pauxis.

URUCUYA, a river of Brasil, which runs into the St. Francis, S. lat. 15° 20'.

URUGNAY, a river of South America, which rises about S. lat. 26° 30', and runs into the river Plate, S. lat. 34°.

URUGUNDI, in Ancient Geography, a people of Scythia, on the bank of the Danube. Zoëmus.

URUMEA, in Geography. See URMAH.

URUNCÆ, or URUNCIS, in Ancient Geography, a place of Germany, between Atrialbinum and Mons Brifacius. Anton. Itin.

VRUNDI, in Mythology, one of the wives of the Hindoo deity *Krishna*; which see.

URUP, in Geography. See URJUP.

URUS, a lake of Russia, in the government of Archangel; 48 miles N. of Schenkursk.

URUS,

URUS, in *Natural History*, the name of a species of wild bull, of a very remarkable size and strength. Cæsar, in his Commentaries, has described them as little inferior to elephants in size, and resembling the bull in shape, figure, and colour. He adds, that they were very swift and fierce, and had horns very much larger, and very different from those of the common bull. And Mentzelius tells us, that it is a vast and terrible species of wild bull, common in Livonia, &c. and that when killed its brain is found scented like musk. Mr. Ray wishes very much, that some one, who has an opportunity of seeing this creature, would give a more accurate and perfect account than those we already have of it.

This animal is the *bos ferus* of Pliny, the *bonafus* and the *bison* of Pliny, Gesner, Aldrov. and Linnæus, the *bos taurus* of the Linnæan system with round horns curving outer, and loose dewlap; and it is the species of *Bos* from which the several races of cattle have been gradually derived. It is found wild in many parts both of the old and new continent, inhabiting woody regions, and attaining to a size much larger than that of the domesticated or cultivated animal. In his wild state, the bison was distinguished, not only by his bulk, but by the superior depth and shagginess of his hair, which, about the head, neck, and shoulders, is sometimes so long as to touch the ground; his horns are rather short, sharp-pointed, extremely strong, and situated at a distance from each other at their basis, like those of the common bull. His colour is sometimes a dark blackish-brown, and sometimes rufous-brown; his eyes are large and fierce; his limbs are very strong, and his whole aspect extremely savage and gloomy. The principal European regions where this animal is now found, are the marshy forests of Poland, the Carpathian mountains, and Lithuania. Its chief Asiatic residence is the vicinity of Mount Caucasus; but it is also found in other parts of Asia. The American bison differs in no respect from the European, except in being more shaggy, and in having a more protuberant bunch over the shoulders; the fore-parts of the body are very thick and strong; the hinder parts comparatively weak. The colour of the American bison is a reddish-brown; and the hair in winter is of a woolly nature, falling down over the eyes, head, and whole fore-parts of the animal. In summer, it often becomes wholly naked, particularly on the hinder parts of the body. It grows to a vast size, and has been found to weigh 1600, and even 2400 pounds; nor can the strongest man lift one of the skins from the ground. It has been a question of difficult solution, how these animals migrated from the old to the new world; but it was probably from the north of Asia, which anciently might have been stocked with them, though they are now extinct in those regions. At that time, the two continents might have been united between Tchutkinofs and the opposite headlands of America; and the many islands that lie off that promontory, with the Aleutian or New Fox islands, somewhat more distant, might be fragments of land, which joined the two continents, and formed their insular state by the mighty convulsion which divided Asia and America.

The American bison is found in the regions 600 miles W. of Hudson's Bay, and this is its most northern residence. From thence these animals occur in large droves as low as Cibola, in lat. 33° a little N. of California, and also in the province of Mivera, in New Mexico; and immediately to the S. of these parts the species seems immediately to cease. They also inhabit Canada, W. of the lakes, and more abundantly the rich savannas which border the river Mississippi, and the large rivers that flow into it from the W., in Upper Louisiana, where innumerable herds of them

are seen, intermixed with those of stags and deer; feeding chiefly in the morning and evening, and retiring into the shade of the lofty rocks which border the rivers during the heat of the day. They are very wild, and fly from mankind; but if wounded, they become furious, and pursue their enemy.

The chase of these animals constitutes a favourite diversion of the Indians, and they are killed either by shooting them, or by gradually driving them into a small space, by setting fire to the grass round the place where a herd is feeding. They are much terrified by fire, and crowd together to avoid it: they are then killed by bands of Indians, without any personal hazard. On such occasions, it is said that 1500 or 2000 have sometimes been killed at a time. The flesh is used as food, and the skins and hair as commercial commodities, which latter, being of a woolly nature, may be spun into cloths, gloves, &c. that are very strong, and appear as if manufactured from the best wool. The fleece or hair of one of these bison has been known to weigh eight pounds. These animals are not domesticated by the Indians, who have long lived in a savage state, and subsist chiefly by the chase. The common ox is the bison reduced to a domestic state. (See OX and CATTLE.) The Indian ox is a variety found in many parts of India, and the Indian and African islands: it is of a reddish colour, very large size, and distinguished by a very large protuberance above the shoulders. (See ZEBU.) The loose-horned ox is found in Abyssinia and Madagascar, and is distinguished by its pendulous ears, and horns attached only to the skin, so as to hang down on each side. The bouri is a native of Madagascar and some other islands, and is of the size of a camel, and of a snowy-white colour, with a protuberance on the back. The ox of the island of Tinian is of a white colour, with black ears. Pennant's Arctic Zool. and Shaw's Zoology.

URY, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Moselle; 8 miles N.E. of Metz.

URZAN, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Asia, in the interior of Sufiana. Ptolemy.

URZUM, in *Geography*, a town of Russia, in the government of Viatka; 72 miles S. of Viatka.

USA, a town of Japan, in the island of Ximo; 22 miles S.S.E. of Kokura.

USA Bafi, a lake of Asiatic Turkey, in Natolia; 5 miles E. of Palatka.

USAD, a town of Russia, in the government of Viatka; 16 miles S. of Malmisch.

USADIUM PROMONTORIUM, in *Ancient Geography*, a promontory of Africa, in Mauritania Tingitana, on the coast of the western ocean.

USAGE, in *Law*. See PRESCRIPTION and CUSTOM.

USAGE, in *Language*. See LANGUAGE.

USAGE, St., in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Saône and Loire; 3 miles N. of Loudun.

USALITANUM OPIPIDUM, (*Jallouah*), in *Ancient Geography*, an ancient town in the interior of Africa, mentioned by Pliny, situated W.S.W. of Adrumetum.

USANAS, in *Astronomy*, a Hindoo name of the planet Venus, more commonly called *Sukra*; which see.

USANCE, *Uso*, in *Commerce*, is a determinate time fixed for the payment of bills of exchange, reckoned either from the day of the bills being accepted, or from the day of their date; and thus called, because regulated by the usage and custom of the places on which they are drawn. See BILL of Exchange.

Bills of exchange are drawn at one or more usances, either from sight, or from date. The Italians say, *uso doppio*, for double usance, or two usances.

This term is longer or shorter, according to the different countries. In France, the usance for bills drawn from Spain and Portugal, is sixty days date; from other countries, thirty days date. Bills are generally drawn on Amsterdam, Cadiz, Genoa, Hamburgh, Leghorn, London, Madrid, Naples, and Venice, at sixty days date. Marseilles, however, draws on Genoa at thirty days, and on Leghorn and Naples, at forty-five days date. Ten days grace are allowed on bills payable at one or more usances, at so many days date or sight, or on a specified day; but bills drawn *à vue* must be paid on being presented. Bills made payable at a fair must be settled on the last day, or on the very day, if the fair lasts only one day.

At London, the usance for bills drawn from Holland, Germany, or France, is one month; from Spain and Portugal, two months; and from Italy, three months; all after date.

At Amsterdam, the usance is, for all Germany and Switzerland, fourteen days sight; Dantzic, Konigsberg, and Riga, one month's sight; Antwerp, Geneva, London, and Paris, one month after date; Italy, Spain, and Portugal, two months after date. Six days of grace are allowed for the payment of bills of exchange; but the general practice in Amsterdam is, that bills payable in banco be presented for payment the very day on which the written term is expired. At Antwerp, the usances and days of grace are the same as at Amsterdam. Bills drawn at sight must be paid within twenty-four hours after having been presented.

At Augsburg, the usance is fifteen days; half usance, eight days; double usance, thirty days; one and a half usance, twenty-three days, after acceptance. Bills have from one to eight days of grace; for such as fall due on the Tuesday must be paid the next day, but such as fall due on the Wednesday are not paid till that day week; however, bills drawn *à vista*, or at sight, must be paid within twenty-four hours after being presented, and also any other bills which are not presented until after the Wednesday subsequent to the day on which they become due.

At Bergamo in Italy, the usance is the same as at Venice for foreign bills; but for bills drawn from Zurich, it is fifteen days after acceptance. Bills payable *à vista*, or sight, must be paid on being presented; those that are at some days sight, or at usance, must be paid on the very day they become due, no days of grace being here allowed.

The usance for bills drawn on Berlin is fourteen days after acceptance. Berlin draws on Amsterdam, Breslau, Hamburgh, and Leipzig, at four or five weeks date, and at sight, on London and Paris, at two months date; the days of grace by the edict of 1751 are three.

At Bern in Switzerland, there is no law or custom respecting usance, nor are any days of grace allowed. At Bologna bills of exchange are paid in banco, except when they are expressly drawn in money Fuori banco, or when the acceptor and holder of the bill both agree that they shall be paid in currency; in the latter case, the payment is regulated by the *Agio* in banco. Bills drawn on Bologna from other parts of Italy are usually paid eight days after acceptance, in which neither the day of acceptance nor the day of payment is included. No other days of grace are allowed. Bills payable after date, or on a determined day, must be paid the first day after their written term. Bills drawn on Bolzano, or Botzen in the Tyrol, are mostly payable at the fairs; nor have any regulations been made with regard to the usance or days of grace. At Bremen, the usance for bills drawn from several parts of Germany, is fourteen days sight; from London and Paris, one month

after date: the days of grace are eight; but for promissory notes and bills at short sight no days of grace are allowed.

The usance for bills drawn on Breslau is fourteen days after acceptance; half usance, eight days; and the days of grace are three. For bills, however, payable at the fairs, two of which are held every year by a royal edict of 1742, no days of grace are allowed; but such bills must be settled on the last day of payment in those fairs, or else be protested. Breslau draws on Amsterdam and Hamburgh at sight, or at four or five weeks date; on Berlin and Konigsberg at sight, or eight or twelve days date; on Vienna, Leipzig, and other parts of Germany, at usance of fourteen days sight; on Paris and London, at two or three months after date.

At Brunswick, the usance is fourteen days after acceptance. Three days are allowed to the holder of a bill to present it for payment; but no days of grace are allowed to the acceptor. At Cadiz, the usance is, for bills drawn from France, one month after date; but two months for bills from all the rest of Europe. Six days grace are allowed, on the last of which bills must be either paid or protested.

In Castile, a province of Spain, the usance for bills drawn from London, Paris, or Genoa, is sixty days; from Amsterdam, two months; and from Rome, three months after date.

Foreign bills, when they are accepted, have fourteen days grace allowed, except bills drawn from Rome, which, as well as bills that have not been accepted, must be either paid or protested on the very day on which they are made payable. Bills drawn from Bilboa are allowed nineteen days; and from other parts of Spain, eight days grace. Bills at sight must be paid when presented. At Cologne, the usance is fourteen days sight; six days grace are allowed; and if the sixth should fall on a Sunday, or holiday, the bill must be either paid, or protested, on the first day of business following.

Bills between Constantinople and the principal trading places of Europe are commonly drawn at thirty-one days sight; but from one place in Turkey on another, at eleven days sight. Some European merchants pay their bills on the very day on which they become due; and others take as many days grace as are allowed in their respective countries.

At Copenhagen, there is no established usance; but bills are made payable on a certain day. Eight days grace are allowed; and if bills be not paid within that time, they may be protested immediately, and the protest cannot be delayed beyond the tenth day; otherwise the holder of the bill is to bear all risks and expences. The days of acceptance and protest, as also Sundays and holidays, are included in the ten days; but in Altona, bills may be protested on the eleventh day.

At Dantzic, the usance is fourteen days after acceptance, and the days of grace are ten; and when the tenth day falls on a Sunday or holiday, the bill must be paid on the preceding day. But bills at sight, or such as are protested, after the days of grace are elapsed, must be either paid or protested within twenty-four hours after being presented, which may be done even on a Sunday. Bills at fourteen days sight have three days grace allowed. Bills drawn in Dantzic cannot be negotiated there a second time, but must be remitted by the first holder to the place on which they are drawn.

In India, the business of exchange is chiefly carried on between the three presidencies; namely, Bengal, Madras, and Bombay: which draw on each other at various dates, and mostly in the denomination of money of the place where the bill is to be paid; but as there is always the greatest demand for

for bills on Bengal, being considered the capital of the English possessions in India, the course of exchange is mostly in favour of that place.

London draws on Bengal in current rupees at 2s. more or less; or in sicca rupees at sixteen *per cent.* above current; also on Madras in pagodas at 7s. 6d. more or less; and on Bombay in rupees at 2s. 2d. more or less.

Such bills are mostly at sixty or ninety days sight; but bills from those places on London are generally drawn at six, nine, or twelve months sight; in which case the sicca rupee is valued at 2s. 6d., the pagoda at 8s., and the Bombay rupee at 2s. 4d. sterling, more or less.

The bank of Bengal has been incorporated by a charter for seven years, granted under the governor-general in council, by virtue of the authority vested in him by the act of the 47 Geo. III. c. 28.

The capital of the bank is 5,000,000 sicca rupees, that is, 50 lacs. It is divided into 500 equal shares, 100 of which belong to the government, and the other 400 to individuals.

The interest of money in India fluctuates from eight to twelve *per cent. per annum*, and it has been even higher; but the bank, which engages not to charge above twelve, has already lowered the rate of interest, and has in many other respects rendered essential service to trade and commerce.

Bills drawn from Rome, or Venice, on Florence, are accepted on Saturday, and paid on that day fortnight; but bills from Bologna, accepted on Saturday, must be paid on the next Saturday following, or be protested on the same day. The usance with other places is the same as in Leghorn. Florence has no days of grace; but a bill must, on the day it becomes due, be paid or protested before the departure of the post for the place where it was drawn.

Bills drawn on Frankfurt at one usance (*i. e.* fourteen days after acceptance), also bills drawn at four days or more after sight, or after date, have four days grace allowed, besides Sundays and holidays. But when a bill has no acceptor, or when it is payable by the drawer himself, if not honoured when due, and if the first indorser, or the person to whose order the bill is drawn, refuses to accept it, the bill must be protested on the day when it becomes due. Neither are any days of grace allowed on bills *a vista* (at sight), or at less than four days sight or date. All such bills must be paid within twenty-four hours of the specified time.

The usance of bills drawn on Geneva from Holland, England, and France, is one month of thirty days; from Germany and Italy, fifteen days sight. In defect of payment on the maturity of a bill, it must be protested on the fifth day afterwards, exclusive of Sundays. Geneva draws on Amsterdam, Paris, and London, at three months, and sometimes at two months date; on Genoa, Leghorn, Milan, and Turin, at eight days sight; on Lyons, at sight and at the payments. The usance for bills drawn on Genoa from Amsterdam, Spain, and Sicily, is two months, and from London and Lisbon, three months after date; from Naples, Ancona, and Trieste, three weeks sight; Venice and Rome, fifteen days; Augsburg and Vienna, fourteen days; Leghorn, Milan, and Turin, eight days sight. Thirty days are allowed to the holder of a bill to demand payment; but no days of grace are allowed to the acceptor. A bill may be presented on the next day after it becomes due, though it is usual to delay the protest till the first post day for the place from which the bill came.

The usance for bills drawn on Hamburg from all parts of Germany is fourteen days sight; when bills are drawn at usance, the day of acceptance is reckoned for the first; but

when at any other number of days after sight, the day after acceptance is reckoned for the first. The usance for bills drawn from England, France, and Holland, is one month; from Spain, Portugal, Trieste, and Italy, two months, after date. Twelve days of grace are allowed for payment, or protest; the day on which the bill would become due, if no grace were allowed, is reckoned for the first day; and Sundays and holidays are also included in the twelve days.

The exchanges of Ireland are chiefly with England. The par of exchange is as their monies; that is, 100l. English = 108l. 6s. 8d. Irish; but the course of exchange has been known to vary from 105 to 120 *per cent.* Of late years, the price has been between 109 and 113. Bills on Dublin are mostly drawn at twenty-one days sight, or, what is considered as equivalent, at thirty-one days date, and such are called "bills in course." If the term be longer, an advance is accordingly made in the price of exchange. Thus, bills at forty-one days date are charged one-eighth *per cent.* more; but, beyond this term, the advance is in a higher proportion, being at the rate of half *per cent.* per month. Days of grace, and all other usages and laws of exchange, are the same in Ireland as in England, except that when a bill becomes due on Sunday, it is not customary here to present it on the preceding Saturday, as in England, but on the Monday following.

At Konigsberg, the days of grace are three, as at Berlin.

The usance at Leghorn for bills drawn from Amsterdam, Antwerp, Cadiz, Madrid, Cologne, and Hamburg, is two months after date; from Paris, Lyons, and Marseilles, thirty days after date; from London and Lisbon, three months after date; from Augsburg and Vienna, twenty-two days after date; from Venice, Cremona, Bergamo, Breiscia, Modena, and Naples, twenty days after date; from Bologna, Ferrara, Lucca, Florence, and Pisa, three days sight; from Genoa, Milan, and Turin, eight days sight; from Sicily, one month sight, or two months date; from Sardinia, one month sight; from Perugia, five days sight; from Tarento, Bari, and Lecce, twenty-seven days sight; from Rome, ten days sight, or fifteen days date; from Ancona and Rimini, ten days sight; from Switzerland, eight days sight. No days of grace are allowed on bills; but they are paid three times a week at the "Stanza," a place where merchants meet on Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays, from eleven in the forenoon till half past two in the afternoon: thus, bills which become due on Tuesdays, Thursdays, or Saturdays, are not payable till the following days of meeting and payment.

At the fairs of Leipzig, three of which are held every year, and each fair lasts fourteen days, bills are preferred for acceptance in the four first days of the fair; and the acceptance can be delayed, at new-year's fair, which begins on the 1st of January, only till the day before the second proclamation; but at the other two fairs, *i. e.* the Easter and Michaelmas fairs, till the Friday in the first week, at ten o'clock in the forenoon at the latest; and if the acceptance should not then have taken place, the bills must be protested. The time of payment of bills of exchange is during the five first days after the close of the fair is proclaimed; so that, at new-year's fair, payment must be made on the 12th of January at the latest; and at the other two fairs, on the Thursday in the second week; in default of which, the bills must be then protested before ten o'clock at night, or all resource is lost against the drawer.

The usance in Leipzig is fourteen days after acceptance. No days of grace are allowed here; but on the day a bill becomes due, the holder must demand payment; and in

case of non-payment, he is not permitted to connive at any delay, but must, on the very day, have it protested, with interest, expenses, &c. and return the bill the first opportunity. If he neglects any of these regulations, he loses all claim on the drawer and indorsers. Bills payable *a vista*, or on demand, may be presented and accepted even on a Sunday or holiday, and must be paid within twenty-four hours after acceptance.

The *ufance* at Lisbon for bills drawn from Spain is fifteen days sight; from London, thirty days sight; from Germany and Holland, two months after date; from France, sixty days ditto; from Italy, and also Ireland, three months after date. Six days of grace are allowed on foreign bills, when they have been accepted; but unaccepted bills must be either paid or protested on the very day when they become due. Bills drawn from any part of the Portuguese dominions, both in Europe and in other parts of the world, are allowed fifteen days grace.

In London, the *ufance* for bills drawn from Holland, Germany, or France, is one month; from Spain and Portugal, two months; and from Italy, three months; all after date. Three days grace are allowed on all bills payable at *ufance*, or after date, or at so many days sight; but if the third day should fall on a Sunday, payment must be made on the preceding Saturday. Bills at sight, or on demand, must be paid on the day when they are presented.

At Lubec, *ufances* are the same as at Hamburg; and ten days grace are allowed.

The *ufance*, and all other regulations respecting bills of exchange, in Lucca, are the same as in Leghorn.

The *ufance* at Marseilles, for bills drawn from Spain and Portugal, is sixty days; and from other countries, thirty days after date. Bills at sight must be paid on being presented, and the payment of other bills may be claimed on the next day after their term is expired; but it is not customary among the merchants to demand payment till a few days after, and the bills are not protested till the ninth or tenth day. This is also with regard to notes payable to order, for value received in merchandise.

The *ufance* at Milan, for bills drawn from Genoa, Leghorn, Piedmont, and all Lombardy, is eight days sight; from Rome, Florence, Augsburg, Vienna, and all Germany, fifteen days sight; from Venice, twenty days date; from Naples and Sicily, twenty days sight; from France and Savoy, one month after date; from Spain, Holland, and Flanders, two months; from London, three months after date; the month always reckoned at thirty days. Bills at sight must be paid on being presented; bills payable at *ufance*, or some days after date or sight, must be paid the day after their written term; and if this should fall on a Sunday or holiday, payment is to take place on the next working day. Accordingly no days of grace can be claimed at Milan; yet the holder of the bill may grant to the acceptor of it three days; in which case, however, the bill must be carried to the notary of the chamber of commerce, who writes upon it "seen on such a day;" and when the bill is afterwards accepted, the acceptance is to be dated from the day on which it was first presented; but if refused, the protest is to take place on the day marked by the notary. The same grace may be allowed with regard to payment, when the bill becomes due; but any delay is always at the option of the holder.

The *ufance* in Naples, for bills drawn from any part of the kingdom of Naples, is fifteen days after acceptance; and from Sicily, Genoa, Venice, Leghorn, and Rome, twenty-two days; from Spain, two months after date; and from London, three months. The acceptance is to take

place on the Saturday after the arrival of the post from the place where the bill was drawn. But bills payable at so many days sight or date must be accepted or protested on being presented, without any delay. Three days grace are allowed, except for bills at sight.

The *ufance* at Novi, in Italy, for bills on Genoa, Milan, and Bergamo, is twenty days from the clearing day; on Florence, Venice, Rome, Lucca, and Bologna, twenty-five days; on Naples, Valencia, and Barcelona, thirty days; on Palermo, Messina, and Madrid, forty-five days; on Lisbon and Seville, two months; all reckoned from the clearing day inclusive. No days of grace are allowed.

At Nuremberg, the common *ufance* for bills of exchange is fifteen days; half *ufance*, seven days; double ditto, thirty days; one and a half ditto, twenty-three days; all reckoned from the day after acceptance. When bills are payable after date, the time is reckoned from the day after that on which the bill was drawn; Sundays and holidays, and vacations of the bank, are included. When bills are made payable at one or more months after date or sight, they become due on the same day of the month on which they were drawn or accepted. Six days grace are allowed; but none on bills at sight, or two, three, or four days sight, or at a shorter date than half *ufance*. If a bill payable after date should not arrive until after some of the days of grace are elapsed, these days are not to be reckoned from the arrival of the bill, but from the day on which it is made payable; and if all the six days should be elapsed, the bill must be paid within twenty-four hours of its arrival.

The *ufance* at Prague is fourteen days after acceptance; and three days grace are allowed, as in all the Austrian dominions.

Rome draws on Amsterdam, Ancona, Bologna, Florence, Genoa, Leghorn, London, Lyons and Paris, Madrid, Milan, Naples, and Venice, at *ufance*, which is three weeks after acceptance; but bills on Paris are drawn at thirty-five or forty days after date. Bills drawn on Rome at *ufance* from any part of the ecclesiastical states are accepted on the Wednesday or the Saturday; bills from foreign parts are generally accepted on the Saturday in the week in which they are received, except those from the kingdom of Naples, which are accepted on the Friday. Protests for non-acceptance or non-payment are to take place on those days. The *ufance* is properly two weeks after acceptance, and it has been the constant practice of bankers to pay their bills at the expiration of the fourteen days; a week of grace however is allowed, and merchants and all other traders, except bankers, avail themselves of it. This week is understood in the following manner:—Bills accepted on a Friday or Saturday, are paid twenty-one days after acceptance; but the period for bills accepted on a Wednesday is only eighteen days. Bills drawn at so many days sight must be paid on the day their written term expires.

At Rotterdam, six days grace are allowed; and when bills become due during the time the bank remains shut, it is not usual to demand payment until the third day after the opening.

Bills drawn in Russia, which are payable after date, are allowed ten days grace; but if payable at sight, three days only; Sundays and holidays are included in both cases. Payment must be demanded in the morning of the day the bill becomes due; and in case of non-payment, the protest should take place at latest on the following day. The ten days grace are allowed, even though the written term of the bill should be elapsed before it is presented or accepted. But bills payable at so many days after sight, are not allowed any days of grace; and if the acceptance be delayed, the term

term is reckoned from the day on which the bill was presented. See *RUSSIA*.

At *St. Gall*, in Switzerland, *ufance* is fifteen days; double *ufance*, thirty days; half *ufance*, eight days; the day of presentation being reckoned the first. Three days grace are allowed on bills drawn at *ufance*, but two only on bills payable at a longer or shorter term than *ufance*. Sundays and holidays are always included.

The days of grace, and other customs and laws relating to bills of exchange, are the same in Scotland as in England.

Bills are drawn in Sicily on Leghorn and Genoa, at *ufance* of one month after acceptance, or at two months date, or at a few days sight; on Rome, Venice, and Naples, at eight or fifteen days sight; on London, at three months date. The *ufance* for foreign bills, drawn on Palermo and Messina, is twenty-one days sight, including the day of acceptance; the *ufance* for bills between Messina and Palermo is four days after acceptance. No days of grace are allowed here in any case.

The *ufances* and days of grace vary in different parts of Spain; thus, at Madrid and Seville, the *ufance* for bills drawn from England, France, Genoa, and Leghorn, is sixty days after date; from Amsterdam, Hamburg, and other places in the north of Europe, two calendar months.

At Cadiz, the *ufance* from France is one month after date; and from the other parts of Europe, sixty days.

At Bilbao, the *ufance* from France is one month, and from the other parts of Europe, two months after date.

At Barcelona, the *ufance* for all foreign bills is sixty days after date.

In all parts of Spain, the *ufance* for bills drawn from Rome is ninety days after date, without any days of grace.

The days of grace for all other bills drawn on Madrid, Seville, Bilbao, and Barcelona, are fourteen days, provided the bills be accepted before they become due, otherwise no days of grace are allowed. Such bills must be protested immediately.

At Cadiz, six days grace are allowed in all cases.

In drawing bills of exchange upon Spain, it has become necessary, of late years, to write "payable in effective, and not in *vales reales*," otherwise they may be paid in this paper, which is generally at a discount.

The *ufance* at Stettin, in Prussian Pomerania, for bills drawn from London and France, is one month; from Amsterdam, six weeks; from Hamburg, four weeks, after date. Stettin draws generally on Amsterdam, Copenhagen, and Hamburg, at six or eight, or sometimes three or four weeks date; on England and France, at two months date. The days of grace are three, as in Berlin.

The *ufance* at Strasburg, for bills from Germany, is fifteen days after sight; and from France thirty days after date. The acceptor of a bill cannot claim any days of grace; but the holder may allow ten days, after which the bill must be either paid or protested.

The *ufance* in Sweden is reckoned at one month after sight. Six days of grace are allowed for the payment of bills, Sundays and holidays included; if the sixth day, however, should fall on a Sunday or holiday, the bill must be paid on the preceding day; but those six days are not understood to be granted, except in cases of necessity; and a person who wishes to preserve his credit, must not claim any days of grace, but pay his bills on the day they are made payable.

Bills payable on demand, or at two or three days sight, are not allowed any days of grace; bills payable in the middle of a month become due on the fourteenth, whatever may be

the number of days in that month; and the six days of grace are allowed.

When a bill, payable after date, is not presented till two or three days after its written term is expired, no more days of grace are allowed than may remain unelapsed at the time of presentation.

The *ufance* at Turin, for bills drawn from London, is three months after date; from Holland, two months; and from France, one month. The period allowed for the payment of bills drawn from any other country besides the foregoing, begins on the day they are presented for acceptance, and ends on the day when an answer can be had, by the regular post, from the place where the bill was drawn or negotiated. Hence the *ufance* for bills drawn in Geneva, Genoa, and Milan, is commonly reckoned at eight days after sight; for those drawn in Venice, Florence, Leghorn, Rome, Augsburg, and Vienna, at fifteen days sight; and for those drawn in Naples and Sicily, at twenty-one days sight.

The presentation for acceptance of a bill payable at a determined period, cannot be delayed beyond two months after the date of the bill. The same regulation is observed with regard to claiming the discharge of a bill payable at sight; if it is not claimed within that period, it is supposed that the necessary steps have not been taken to obtain payment.

The day on which a bill is dated is always reckoned in the term it has to run.

The holder of a bill, payable after date, is at liberty either to demand payment when it becomes due, or to wait till the fifth day; and if this should fall on a Sunday or holiday, payment is to take place on the next following day of business; but bills at sight must be paid when presented.

The *ufance* at Venice, for bills drawn from London, is three months after date; from Amsterdam, Antwerp, and Hamburg, two months; from Bergamo, Milan, Modena, and Mantua, twenty days after date; from Augsburg, Frankfurt, Genoa, Naples, Bari, St. Gall, Nuremberg, Bolzano, and Vienna, fifteen days after acceptance; from Rome and Ancona, ten days after acceptance; from Bologna, Ferrara, Lucca, Florence, and Leghorn, five days after acceptance.

Bills are allowed six days grace, after which they must be either paid or protested; Sundays or holidays are not included. Formerly payment could not be claimed, nor a bill protested, during the time the bank remained shut, except in case of a bankruptcy; and if two or three of the days of grace had elapsed before the bank was shut, the remaining days were reckoned after the opening, so as to make six days in all.

Protests are made by the *fanti* or clerks of the commercial college, who enter all the bills they have protested in a book, to which every merchant has free access. Thus many bills, which would otherwise be returned, are accepted and paid for the honour of the drawer or indorser. This practice is likewise useful in giving early notice of approaching insolvency.

At Vienna, the following regulations are established for bills of exchange:—

When the written term of a bill is expired, three days of grace are allowed; and if the bill should not be paid by five o'clock on the third day, it must be immediately protested and returned. In these days of grace, Sundays and holidays are included; but if the day of payment should fall on a Sunday or holiday, the bill must be paid on the next following day of business. This allowance of three days, however, is only made in order that the holder of a bill, if

he should not be able to demand payment sooner, may have the advantage of that delay; but a good payee will not avail himself of the days of grace, in order to delay the payment of a bill beyond the written term.

If a bill which is not duly paid is not protested immediately, as above, the holder has no recourse except against the acceptor.

Bills drawn at sight, or on demand, or at less than seven days sight, or date, are not allowed any days of grace, but must be paid within twenty-four hours at the latest, unless they fall due on a Sunday or holiday.

Ufance is fourteen days after acceptance; half ufance, seven days; one and a half ufance, twenty-one days, including Sundays and holidays; but the day of acceptance is not included.

Bills payable *medio mense* (in the middle of the month) are reckoned due on the fifteenth, and are allowed, like other bills, three days grace, if necessary.

The ufance at Zurich, for bills drawn from Amsterdam, or any part of Germany, is fourteen days after sight. No days of grace are allowed. The exchanges at Zurzach in Switzerland, in which there are two great fairs annually, are regulated by those of Zurich. Kelly's Cambist, vol. i. passim. See EXCHANGE and BILLS of EXCHANGE.

USBEKS, in *Geography*. See UZBEKS.

USBIUM, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Germany, near the Danube. Ptolemy.

USCHEAU, in *Geography*, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Boleslaw; 5 miles N.W. of Nimburg.

USCHECH, a town of Arabia, in the province of Yemen; 10 miles S.E. of Chamir.

USCOKAN, a small island in the East Indian sea, near the south-west coast of Borneo. N. lat. $6^{\circ} 21'$. E. long. $116^{\circ} 25'$.

USCUDEMA, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Thrace, belonging to the Bessi, taken by Lucullus.

USCUP, in *Geography*. See SCOPIA.

USDAW, a town of Prussia, in Oberland; 7 miles N. of Soldau.

USDECISICA, in *Ancient Geography*, a prefecture of Thrace, on the side of the two Mælias, in the vicinity and to the W. of mount Hæmus. Ptolemy.

USE, in *Geography*, a river of Germany, which runs into the Nidd, near Assenheim.

USE, *Ufus*, in *Law*, denotes the benefit or profit of lands and tenements.

Use imports a trust and confidence reposed in a man for the holding of lands; that he, to whose use or benefit the trust is intended, shall reap the benefits of it.

A deed consists of two principal parts; the *premises*, which include all that comes before the habendum, or limitation of the estate; and the *consequent*, which is the habendum itself; in which there are two limitations; the one of the *estate*, or property the party shall receive by the deed; the other of the *use*, expressing to or for what use and benefit he shall have the same.

Uses, some say, were invented upon the flat of Westminster, *Quia emptores terrarum*; before which time no such uses were known. And because, in course of time, many deceits got footing, by settling the possession in one man, and the use in another, it was enacted, anno 27 Hen. VIII. cap. 10. that the use and possession of lands should stand united, or that the possession should be given to him who had the use.

Hence this statute is called the Statute of Uses; or, in conveyances and pleadings, the statute for transferring uses into possession.

USE and Custom, in *Ancient Law-Books*, denotes the ordinary method of acting or proceeding in any case, which, by length of time, has obtained the force of a law.

USE, *Cestui que*. See CESTUI.

USE, *Contingent*. See CONTINGENT.

USE, *Refusing*, is an use which, being limited by the deed, expires, or cannot vest, and returns back to him who raised it, after such expiration, or during such impossibility: as if a man makes a feoffment to the use of his intended wife for life, with a remainder to the use of her first born son in tail; here, till he marries, the use reverts back to himself; after marriage, it is executed in the wife for life; and if she dies without issue, the whole reverts back to him in fee.

USE, *Secondary*, or *Shifting*, is that which, though executed, may change from one to another by circumstances *ex post facto*; as, if A makes a feoffment to the use of his intended wife and her eldest son for their lives, upon the marriage the wife takes the whole use in fee; and upon the birth of a son, the use is executed jointly in them both. Blackst. Com. book ii.

USES, *Covenant to stand seized to*. See COVENANT.

USES and Customs of the Sea are certain maxims, rules, or usages, which make the safe or ground-work of the maritime jurisprudence; by which the policy of navigation, and commerce of the sea, are regulated.

These uses and customs consist in three kinds of regulations. The first, called laws, or judgments of Oleron, were made by order of queen Eleanor, duchess of Guienne, at her return from the holy war; and that chiefly from memoirs which she had gathered in the Levant, where commerce was at that time in a very flourishing condition. She called them *rolls of Oleron*, because she then resided in an island of that name, in the bay of Aquitaine. These were much augmented, about the year 1266, by her son Richard, king of England, on his return from the Holy Land. See *Laws of OLERON*.

The second regulations were made by the merchants of Wisby, a city in the island of Gothland, in the Baltic, anciently much famed for commerce; most of the nations of Europe having their particular quarters, magazines, and shops, in it. These were compiled in the Teutonic language, and are still the rule in the northern countries. Their date does not appear; but it is probable they were made since the year 1288, when the city of Wisby was destroyed the first time, and afterwards restored by Magnus, king of Sweden. See *Marine INSURANCE*.

The third set of regulations was made at Lubec, about the year 1597, by the deputies of the HANSE-TOWNS.

USEDOM, in *Geography*, a town of Anterior Pomerania, situated on the south-west coast of the island of Usedom, on the bay of the Frische Haff; 8 miles E. of Anclam.—Also, an island in the Baltic, separated from the coast of Pomerania, partly by the river Peene, and partly by the Frische Haff; about 30 miles in length, of a very irregular form, and in no part above three miles from the sea. N. lat. $54^{\circ} 15'$ to $54^{\circ} 45'$. E. long. $13^{\circ} 11'$ to $13^{\circ} 58'$.

USEFF, a town of Tunis; 32 miles N.W. of Cairoan.

USEL, a river of Bavaria, which runs into the Danube, 3 miles W. of Neuburg.

USELETT, a long range of mountains in Tunis, called by the ancients *Mons Usitanus*, W. of Cairoan.

USELLIS, in *Ancient Geography*, a town on the western side of the island of Sardinia, between the mouths of the rivers Thyrsus and Sacer, with the title of a colony.

USER DE ACTION, in *Law*, is the pursuing or bringing an action in the proper court, &c. See **ACTION**.

USETIN, or **WZETIN**, in *Geography*, a town of Moravia, in the circle of Hradisch; 30 miles N.E. of Hradisch.

USEU, a town of Spain, in Catalonia; 37 miles N. of Balsguer.

USEVASKOI, a town of Russia, in the government of Archangel, on the Mezen; 64 miles N.E. of Pineg.

USHA, in *Hindoo Mythology*, is a name of Reti, the wife of Kama, the god of love. She is fabled to have been incarnate in the person of a daughter of a raja named Bhima, to be espoused terrestrially by Kama, in an incarnation of his in the form of Anirudha, a son of Krishna. Kama is more commonly called Pradyumna in this avatara, or incarnation. The amours and adventures of Anirudha and Usha are the subject of a pretty tale, and a very interesting drama in several of the languages of the East.

USHANT, or **OUessant**, in *Geography*, a small island in the Pacific ocean, discovered in 1768 by M. Bougainville, near the coast of New Guinea. S. lat. 11° 5'. E. long. 146° 33'.

USHANT. See **OUessant**.

USHENICK POINT, a cape on the east coast of Lewis. N. lat. 57° 56'. W. long. 6° 25'.

USHER, **HUISSIER**, signifies an officer or servant who has the care and direction of the door of a court, hall, chamber, or the like.

In the king's household there are four gentlemen-ushers of the privy chamber, appointed to attend the door, to give entrance, &c. to persons that have admittance thither: four gentlemen-ushers, waiters, and an assistant gentleman-usher, and eight gentlemen-ushers, quarter-waiters in ordinary.

There are also in the queen's household three gentlemen-ushers of the private chamber, three gentlemen-ushers, daily waiters; each of whom has the same annual appointment with those of the king's household; and three gentlemen-ushers, quarterly waiters. In the French court, there are two ushers of the ante-chamber, or hall, where the king dines in public. They wait, sword by side, all the year, and open the door to such as are to come in. There are above sixteen ushers of the chamber, two of the cabinet, and one of the order of the Holy Ghost.

The ushers of the Inquisition in Spain and Portugal were persons of the first quality, who thought themselves highly honoured, by only looking to the doors of that sacred tribunal.

USHER is also used for an officer in the exchequer; of which sort, three or four attend the chief officers and barons at the court at Westminster, as also juries, sheriffs, and other accountants, at the pleasure of the court. See **EXCHEQUER**.

USHER of the Black-rod. See **BLACK-rod**.

In a chapter held at Whitehall, 13 Car. II. it was ordained, that this office should be fixed to one of the gentlemen-ushers, daily waiters at court; the eldest of which always holds the place, and is called gentleman-usher, and black-rod.

In relation to the order of the Garter, he is appointed to carry the rod at the feast of St. George, and other solemnities, which he also makes use of as an authority to attach delinquents, who have offended against the statutes of the order, which he frequently doth by touching them with it. He wears a gold badge, embellished with the ensigns of the order. He has a house in Windor-castle, and other privileges.

USHER, JAMES, in *Biography*, archbishop of Armagh,

and primate of Ireland, was born at Dublin, January 4, 1580-1, being a descendant of an English family of the name of Neville, long settled in Ireland. He was taught to read by two maternal aunts, who had been blind from their infancy; and having been instructed in the elements of literature by two excellent scholars, who had removed from Scotland to Dublin, his proficiency was such, that in his 13th year he was fit for admittance into the newly founded university of Dublin; and he was one of the three matriculated students on its opening in 1593. At this early period he is said to have been inclined to poetry; but at the age of 14, he was seriously engaged in historical studies. Such was his progress in this department of literature, that between his 15th and 16th years he had drawn up a chronicle of the Bible, as far as the book of Kings. Divinity was also an object that engaged his early attention, and the circumstances of the times led him to study the points in controversy between the Catholics and the Protestants; and he devoted no less than 18 years of the prime of his life to this kind of employment. He was diverted, however, from his academical career; yet in 1596 took his degree of B.A.

It was the wish of his father that he would pursue the profession of law; but his views and purposes were of a different kind: and that he might not be embarrassed and obstructed by law-suits, to which his patrimonial property might be subject, he resigned his inheritance to his brother, reserving only for himself a sufficiency to maintain him at college, and to procure a supply of books. Of his proficiency in the Popish controversy, he gave an extraordinary proof when he was about 18 years of age; a challenge was published by a Jesuit to maintain in disputation the Catholic cause against the Protestants. Usher accepted the challenge, and had an interview with the Catholic champion. The dispute terminated by a discontinuance of the conference on the part of the Jesuit. In 1600 Usher took the degree of M.A., and was chosen professor and catechetical lecturer of the university; and in his 21st year he was persuaded, though under the canonical age, to become a candidate for ordination, which was conferred upon him by his uncle, the archbishop of Armagh. The subject of his first sermon was the controversy between the Protestants and Catholics; and he took occasion, in the ardour of his zeal, to oppose the toleration, or indulgence, with regard to the exercise of their worship, which the Catholics were then endeavouring to obtain, because he considered their religion as superstitious and idolatrous, and the established government in church and state as endangered by it. The first ecclesiastical preferment conferred upon Usher was the chancellorship of St. Patrick's, Dublin, and this he held till he was promoted to the episcopal bench. In 1606 he revisited England, and contracted an intimate acquaintance with the two eminent antiquarians, Camden and sir Robert Cotton. To the former he communicated information relating to Ireland and Dublin, which was very serviceable to him in the composition of his "Britannia." In 1607 he took the degree of B.D., and was soon after made professor of divinity in the university of Dublin, which office he occupied during 13 years. About this time his attention was directed to a dispute concerning the Corban lands, anciently appropriated to the chorepiscopi, and free from secular imposts and jurisdiction, but liable to certain payments and services to the bishops. The substance of the treatise composed by him on this subject was translated into Latin, and afterwards published by sir Henry Spelman, in the first part of his Glossary. On his next visit to England, in 1609, he was noticed at court, and very much augmented his literary connections; and from this time he visited England regularly
once

once every three years. When Usher had attained his 30th year, he was unanimously elected to the provostship of the college; but he thought proper to decline this honourable office. Two years afterwards he was admitted to the degree of D.D. In 1613, upon a visit to England, he printed at the royal press his first publication, entitled "*Gravissimæ Quæstionis de Christianarum Ecclesiæ, in Occidentis præsertim Partibus, ab Apostolicis temporibus ad nostram usque ætatem, continuâ successione et statu, Historica Explicatio.*" This work may be regarded as a continuation of bishop Jewel's "Apology for the Church of England," intended to prove that the tenets of the Protestants were the same with those of the primitive Christians. In this year he married the daughter of Dr. Luke Chaloner, who charged his daughter, on his death-bed, to marry no one but Dr. Usher, if he ever proposed the connection. She was an heiress with a considerable fortune; and they lived together in the greatest harmony for 40 years, and left an only child, who was a daughter, and afterwards lady Syrryl.

At a convocation of the prelates and clergy of the Irish establishment, held at Dublin in the year 1615, it was determined that they should assert their independence on the church of England. Usher was principally employed on this occasion; and as he was known to maintain the opinion, that bishops were not a distinct order in the church, but only superior in degree to presbyters, he was represented to king James as a favourer of puritanism, which was the object of that monarch's invincible antipathy. When he visited England in 1610, he thought proper to bring with him a recommendatory letter from the lord-deputy and his council to the English privy-council, containing a testimonial to his orthodoxy, and a high encomium on his professional and moral character. This attestation, together with the satisfaction which he gave to the king of his orthodoxy religious and political, more especially with regard to the head of the church, and the unlawfulness of resistance to the royal authority, not only removed the prejudice which had been conceived against him in the royal mind, but obtained for him a spontaneous nomination to the see of Meath. On his return to Ireland in the following year, he was consecrated, and took possession of his see, with a resolution faithfully to perform the duties of his office. In a sermon preached before the lord-deputy in 1622, from the following text, "He beareth not the sword in vain," he gave offence to the Recusants, who considered it as a kind of call upon the new governor, lord Falkland, to employ the sword against the enemies of the established religion. Some exceptionable passages were pointed out to him by his metropolitan, primate Hampton, who advised a voluntary retraction. In this instance, the good prelate seems to have been urged by his zeal to overpass the limits both of discretion and equity. However this be, the persons then in power did not disapprove his sentiments; and the king was so pleased with the support he gave to his spiritual supremacy, that he soon after nominated him a privy counsellor of Ireland. In order to oppose the errors and superstitions of Popery, which were then prevalent, he published an English treatise concerning "the Religion of the ancient Irish and Britons;" the design of which was to evince the conformity of the doctrines and rites of the early ages of Christianity in those countries with those of the Protestants; and to point out the periods in which the practices of the church of Rome were introduced. This learned treatise was reprinted at London in 1631. He was afterwards engaged, by command of king James, in an elaborate work on the antiquities of the British church; and he came over

to England, in order to obtain every kind of necessary information on his subject. On his return to Ireland in 1624, he employed some time in writing a reply to the challenge of an Irish Jesuit, in which work he displayed a very accurate acquaintance with ecclesiastical history and the writings of the fathers. Dr. Hampton having by his death left a vacancy in the see of Armagh and primacy of Ireland, Usher was nominated by the king to the vacant dignity, and received some other tokens of the king's predilection in his favour. The same attachment was manifested to our author by Charles I., who succeeded to the throne. In November 1625, our prelate was invited by the earl Mordaunt, afterwards the first earl of Peterborough, to visit him at his seat at Drayton, in Northamptonshire. The object of this visit was a disputation on the points in controversy between the churches of Rome and England. His lordship was a zealous Catholic, and his lady, the daughter and heiress of Howard lord Effingham, an equally zealous Protestant, who being desirous of converting her husband, had solicited Usher as her champion. The Catholic advocate was an English Jesuit. The conference between the disputants lasted three days, five hours in each day. The Catholic champion, upon a trivial pretence, withdrew from the contest, and lord Mordaunt became a convert. Upon his return to Ireland, after this adventure, in 1626, he was installed in his new dignity, and took his place at the head of the Irish church. As war subsisted at this time both with France and Spain, it was proposed to augment the military of Ireland; and to engage the concurrence of the Catholics, they were led to expect a more enlarged toleration of religion. The primate summoned a meeting of prelates, and they protested against the proposed indulgence; alleging, "that the religion of the Papists is superstitious and idolatrous; their faith and doctrine erroneous and heretical; and their church, in respect of both, apostatical. To give them, therefore, a toleration, or to consent that they may freely exercise their religion, and profess their faith and doctrine, is a grievous sin." Upon this protestation, Bayle observes, "that the archbishop and his suffragans acted according to the principles of the extremest intolerance; for they did not found their reasoning upon maxims of state, like the advocates for mitigated intolerance, but solely upon the nature of the Roman Catholic worship; without making any mention of its persecuting spirit, which is the only cause why even the friends of toleration argue that it ought not to be tolerated;" and this censure is unquestionably well grounded. Milton, though a friend to toleration in general, adds to his reasons for not tolerating Popery, that of its being idolatrous. But it is well observed by Dr. Aikin (*ubi infra*), that the argument against the toleration of Popery, on account of its being a false religion, is such as every established religion may with equal right urge against every other, and may therefore justify universal intolerance. See TOLERATION.

The primate, besides attending to the various duties of his office, employed himself and obtained the assistance of others in augmenting his library, and in promoting the common interests of literature. In order to procure oriental books and MSS., he corresponded with an intelligent merchant at Aleppo, and by his means obtained a curious copy of the Samaritan Pentateuch, a Syrian Pentateuch, and a Commentary on a great part of the Old and New Testaments, and several other valuable MSS. From the Samaritan Pentateuch he furnished some extracts for his friend Selden, in his "*Arundelian Marbles*;" and he deposited the MS. itself in the Cottonian library. Dr. Walton availed himself of Usher's collection in his Polyglott Bible; and

and his oriental treasures were finally centred, for the most part, in the Bodleian library. The primate, being with respect to doctrine Calvinistical, was alarmed by the progress of Arminianism in the English church at the commencement of king Charles's reign, and took part in the predestinarian controversy of that period. Accordingly he published, in 1631, a history of the Benedictine monk Gottschalc, who, in the ninth century, strenuously vindicated the doctrine of predestination. This history, the first Latin production of the Irish press, is entitled "Gottschalci et Prædestinariz Controversiæ ab eo motæ Hystoria." Nevertheless he servilely submitted to royal instructions, communicated to him under the influence of Laud, a zealous partisan of Arminianism, for seizing all remaining copies of a work, published in Ireland by Dr. Downham, bishop of Derry, against the Arminians, avowing his purpose "that nothing should be hereafter published contrary to his majesty's sacred direction." In conformity to a circular letter from his majesty to the Irish archbishops, Usher was active in resisting the spread and prevalence of Popery. With this view he adopted a much better method than that of enforcing penal laws; which was that of cultivating an acquaintance with Catholics of different ranks, and treating them with hospitality and kindness.

In 1632 Usher appeared before the public as editor of an antiquarian work entitled "Veterum Epistoliarum Hibernicarum Sylloge, quæ partim ab Hibernis, partim ad Hibernos, partim de Hibernis vel rebus Hibernicis sunt conscriptæ." Under the administration of lord-deputy Wentworth, who wished to render the government of Ireland in every respect dependent on the crown of England, the independency of the Irish church, which had articles and canons of its own, became a subject of litigation. When it was proposed in convocation, that the whole body of the English canons should be adopted by the Irish church, the primate at first resisted; but after much discussion, a compromise took place, by admitting a certain number of the English canons, and retaining such of the Irish as had a particular reference to the circumstances of that church and kingdom. It was afterwards stipulated that the candidates for ordination in the Irish church should subscribe both sets of articles, those of the English, and those of the Irish church; but this double subscription was found to be the cause of great confusion: and therefore, after the Restoration, the English articles alone were subscribed, as they have ever since been. In 1638 Usher published at Dublin a short treatise, entitled "Immanuel, or the Mytery of the Incarnation of the Son of God;" and in the following year, his great work "De Ecclesiæ Britannicarum Primordiis," of which an edition, corrected and improved by the author, was published at London in 1677. In the year 1640, the primate visited England; and in a parliamentary debate concerning church-government, he offered (says Whitelock) an expedient for conjunction, in point of discipline, that episcopal and presbyterial government might not be at a far distance, reducing episcopacy to the form of a synodical government in the ancient church. The parliament was speedily dissolved, and nothing resulted from this proposal. In 1641, a collection of tracts in defence of episcopacy was published at Oxford: and in this collection were two pieces of Usher's, viz. "A Discourse on the Origin of Bishops and Metropolitans," and "A Geographical and Historical Disquisition on the Lydian or Proconular Asia;" which last was reprinted with additions at Oxford in 1643. By these tracts, it appears that Usher adhered to his early opinion, that bishops and presbyters differed not in order, but in degree, though he asserted the apostolical origin and authority of

episcopacy. In defence of the cause of monarchy, he composed, by the king's command, a treatise concerning "The Power of the Prince, and Obedience of the Subject," which remained in MS. till after the Restoration, and was then published by the primate's grandson, James Tyrrel, esq., with a preface by bishop Sanderson.

On occasion of the impeachment of lord Strafford, Usher's conduct has been much censured. It was generally considered that the bishops were instrumental in persuading the king to consent to Strafford's death; and Usher not only shared in this imputation, but was charged with having taken this part in revenge for having been obliged by Strafford to concur in abrogating the articles of the Irish church. But the moral character of Usher raised him far above the suspicion of such malignity. Dr. Parr has produced the king's own attestation to the primate's innocence as to the charge of contributing to Strafford's fate. The Irish rebellion, which broke out in 1641, was very detrimental to the prelate in a variety of respects; so that for his support at the interval, he was obliged to sell his plate and jewels. His library, however, on which he set the principal value, in the midst of the wreck of all his other property, was preserved, having been conveyed to Chelster, and thence to London. Soon after this disastrous event, he had a grant from the king of the temporalities of the see of Carlisle, then vacant, which supplied his moderate wants till the seizure of the episcopal lands by the Long parliament. It has been said by some, but doubted or denied by others, that in this time of his distresses he was offered the place of honorary professor in the university of Leyden, with an increase of salary; and that cardinal Richelieu invited him to France, where he should enjoy an ample pension, and freedom of religion. After the commencement of the civil war, Usher resided at Oxford, where he pursued his literary studies, occasionally preached, and had frequent conferences with the king, who, it is said, assured him of his attachment to the Protestant religion. Such, at this time, was his attachment to the royal cause, that he declined being a member of the assembly of divines at Westminster in 1643, and controverted their authority; and this conduct gave great offence to the parliament, so that his library was confiscated; but by the interposition of Selden, it was redeemed by Dr. Featly, a member of the assembly, for a small sum, and afterwards returned to the original owner.

In 1644 Usher finished his corrected edition of the epistles of Ignatius, which was printed at Oxford, and entitled "Polycarpi et Ignatii Epistolæ, una cum vetere interpretatione Latina, ex trium Manuscriptorum codicum Collatione integritati suæ restituta, &c. &c."

He had also prepared for the press the Epistle of Barnabas, but the copy being destroyed by fire at the printer's, the author's "Premonition," concerning the age, author, and purpose of the epistle, which alone was preserved, was afterwards inserted, in a mutilated state, in bishop Fell's edition of the same epistle, Oxford, 1685. In 1645, the royal cause being on the decline, Usher obtained the king's leave to quit Oxford; and from thence he went to Cardiff, to his son-in-law, sir Timothy Tyrrel, who was then governor of the place. When Tyrrel was obliged to quit his command at Cardiff, Usher was under a necessity of seeking another refuge. Whilst he was in a state of suspense, he received an invitation from the dowager lady Stradling, to take up his abode at her residence in the castle of St. Donat's, Glamorganshire. On his way thither, in company with his daughter, he was met by a party of stragglers, who conducted him and his train to the main body of the army, who, though nominally raised for the king's service,

considered them as lawful objects of pillage, because they were English. They were rudely treated and plundered; but a party of officers interposed, and restored as much of the baggage as they could find. They then conducted the travellers to the house of Sir John Aubrey, where they were lodged for the night. During his abode at St. Donat's, he was seized with a disorder which had nearly proved fatal, and which, indeed, occasioned a report of his death; but he afterwards slowly recovered, and continued in Wales nearly a year and a half. Failing to succeed in his attempt to cross the Channel, he accepted the invitation of the countess of Peterborough to reside at her house in London, and arrived thither in 1646. About this time there was an order of parliament to pay him the sum of 400*l. per annum*; but it does not appear that this pension was paid above once or twice. Early in the year 1647 he was elected preacher to the society of Lincoln's-Inn, and here he continued to enjoy comfortable apartments, and to officiate for nearly eight years. It is said that his sermons were chiefly extemporaneous, and no trace of them remains. His literary labours were continued. In the year 1648, when the king was confined at Carisbrook castle, in the Isle of Wight, Usher, and five others of the episcopal clergy, were deputed to visit him, and to treat with him on the subject of church-government. The primate renewed his former proposition of "Episcopal and Presbyterian Government conjoined;" but the parliamentary commissioners being determined upon the total abolition of episcopacy, the treaty terminated without effect. In a conversation which occurred between Baxter and Usher, it appears that the latter admitted the validity of presbyterian ordination. "I asked him," says Baxter, "his judgment about the validity of presbyters' ordination, which he asserted, and told me, that the king asked him at the Isle of Wight, where ever he found in antiquity that presbyters alone ordained any? and that he answered, I can shew your majesty more, even where presbyters alone successfully ordained bishops; and instanced in Hierom's words (Epist. ad Evagrium) of the presbyters of Alexandria choosing and making their own bishops from the days of Mark till Heraclius and Dionysius." After this interview with the king, Usher saw him only once more, on the scaffold. The sight was so affecting, that he was obliged to withdraw; and being overpowered by it, he was led down from the leads of lady Peterborough's house, at Charing-cross, and laid upon his bed, where abundant tears and prayers gave relief to the deep sorrow with which he was overwhelmed. His great chronological work, entitled "*Annales Veteris Testamenti*," was so far completed, that in 1650 he published the first part of it, and the second part was printed in 1654. In 1652 he published his "*Epistola ad Lodovicum Capellum de Textus Hebraici variantibus lectionibus*," in which he displays varied and profound erudition concerning the Greek Septuagint and the Samaritan Pentateuch. It appears that Cromwell requested a conference with Usher, and that the former promised the primate a lease for twenty-one years of part of the lands belonging to the archbishopric of Armagh, which he did not refuse to accept; but the grant was never passed during his life, and after his death was refused to his daughter and son-in-law on the pretext of "malignancy." On occasion of the death of his old friend Selden, towards the close of the year 1654, he delivered a funeral discourse at the Temple-church before a splendid and numerous audience; and this was the last of his public pulpit services. His work "*De Græca Septuaginta Interpretum Versione Syntagma, &c.*" was printed in 1655. In an interview with the Protector, whilst he was attended by a surgeon who dressed a boil on

his breast, Cromwell said, "If this core (pointing to the boil) were once out, I should quickly be well." "I fear," replied Usher, "the core lies deeper; there is a core at the heart that must be taken out, or else it will not be well." "Ah!" rejoined the unhappy great man, "so there is indeed!" pronouncing the words with a sigh. At Ryegate, whither the primate soon after retired, he employed himself in the completion of his "*Chronologia Sacra*;" and here he felt symptoms of decay; for in his almanac, opposite to his birth-day, in 1655-6, was found written the following note: "Now aged seventy-five years: *my days are full*;" and after a small interval, in capital letters, the word *RESIGNATION*. On the 20th of March he was attacked with a pleuritic inflammation, which occasioned acute pain, and indicated his approaching end. Having taken respectful and grateful leave of his noble hostess, the countess of Peterborough, he withdrew, and requested to be left to his private devotions. The last words he was heard to utter were, "O Lord, forgive me; especially my sins of omission!" and presently after expired, March 21, 1655-6, having completed his 75th year nearly three months. It was proposed to bury him at Ryegate, in lady Peterborough's family vault; but Cromwell sent an order that his body should be brought for burial in Westminster-abbey, with the ceremony of a public funeral. On the 17th of April his remains were met, near London, by the carriages of most persons of rank then in town; and from Somerset-house to the Abbey they were attended in procession by all the clergy, and a great concourse of people. The funeral sermon was preached by Dr. Nicholas Bernard, the primate's former chaplain, upon the following appropriate text: "And Samuel died, and all Israel were gathered together, and lamented him, and buried him."

Primate Usher was in person moderately tall and well-shaped, with an erect carriage to the last; of a sanguine complexion, and features expressing gravity and benevolence combined. His constitution was firm, and enabled him to bear uninjured his early hours of study, and the various fatigues of a life both active and contemplative. His mode of living was simple; his manners were free and affable, void of all pomp and affectation; his temper was remarkably sweet and placable, though he could rebuke with severity when he thought the occasion required it. Among his numerous eulogists, no one, perhaps, has estimated him more correctly than bishop Burnet, who, in his "*Life of Bishop Bedell*," mentions the primate in the following terms:

"Together with his great and vast learning, no man had a better soul, and a more apostolic mind. In his conversation he expressed the true simplicity of a christian; for passion, pride, self-will, or the love of the world, seemed not to be so much as in his nature; so that he had all the innocence of the dove in him. He had a way of gaining people's hearts, and of touching their consciences, that looked like somewhat of the apostolic age revived. He spent much of his time in those two best exercises, secret prayer, and dealing with other people's consciences, either in his sermons or private discourses; and what remained he dedicated to his studies, in which those many volumes that came from him shewed a most amazing diligence and exactness, joined with great judgment; so that he was certainly one of the greatest and best men that the age, or perhaps the world, has produced. But no man is entirely perfect: he was not made for the governing part of his function. He had too gentle a soul to manage that rough work of reforming abuses, and therefore left things as he found them."

Usher, through life, seemed to have had gloomy forebodings with regard to the return and temporary triumph of popery,

popery, and he founded his predictions of such an event on his interpretation of some passages of Scripture; and it has been said, that at some seasons he seemed to think himself warranted to speak of future events in a higher tone of authority than as a mere conjecturer. A popular opinion prevailed, that Usher was endowed with a prophetic spirit; but there is no sufficient evidence that he himself pretended to this extraordinary gift. It was his intention to have left his library, consisting of nearly 10,000 books and MSS. to his "alma mater" at Dublin; but being stripped, by the disasters of the times, of all other property, he thought it right to bequeath it to his daughter, to whom he had given nothing, and who had a large family. The king of Denmark and cardinal Mazarin bid for it; but the Protector conceiving it disgraceful to his administration to allow such a treasure to be sent out of the kingdom, prohibited the disposal of it without his consent. Probably through his private suggestion, the officers and soldiers of the victorious army in Ireland purchased it for 2200*l.*, with a view of appropriating it agreeably to the first intention of the primate. It lay at the cattle till the Restoration, and after suffering various depredations, it was bestowed by Charles II. upon Dublin college.

It has been a subject of dispute, how far the opinions of Usher differed from those of the established church. Dr. Peter Heylin alleged against him many charges of non-conformity. These are summed up under distinct heads, and particularly examined by Dr. Parr. Our limits will merely allow a recital of them. 1. The divine authority for keeping the sabbath, or seventh day's rest, as transferred to the Christian Sunday. 2. His opinion that bishops and presbyters differ in degree only, not in order; and, as an inference, that presbyterian ordination and sacraments are valid. 3. His limitation to the elect of that universal redemption of mankind by the sufferings and death of Christ, which is the doctrine of the church of England. It is, however, a subject of controversy not yet decided, whether the articles of the English church, as to these points, are to be understood in a Calvinistic or an Arminian sense. In early life, the theological system of Usher was Calvinistic; but it has been said that he changed his sentiments concerning the doctrines of Calvinism before his death. 4. The primate is accused by Heylin of not holding the doctrine of the true and real presence of Christ's body and blood in the sacrament of the eucharist, conformably to the church of England. But it is hardly conceivable that any modern divine of the church of England would go farther than the primate, who distinguished between the outward and inward act of the communicant: "in the first of which he really receives the visible elements of bread and wine; in the second, by faith, really receives the body and blood of our Lord, that is, is truly and indeed made partaker of Christ crucified to the spiritual strengthening of the inward man." 5. The next charge is, that he did not admit the power of the priest to forgive sins, in the sense of the church of England. Heylin contends for an *authoritative* power in the priest to remit sins; whereas the primate's opinion seems to have been, that the priest's absolution is only *declarative*, or on condition of repentance; or *operative*, by the way of prayers and intercession. Dr. Parr contends, that the doctrine of the church is that held by the primate. 6. His opinion concerning Christ's descent into hell is alleged to have deviated from that of the church, inasmuch as he did not admit of a local descent into the real hell, or place of punishment for the wicked, but a mere separation between the soul and body during the time that Christ lay in the grave.

As a man of learning, Usher's name became celebrated

throughout Europe, and he carried on a correspondence with several learned persons, both at home and abroad. Of his works we shall here subjoin a catalogue.

Publications of archbishop Usher:—*De Ecclesiis Christianarum Successione et Statu*, 1613; *The Religion of the ancient Irish and Britons*, 1622; *Gottschalci et Prædilectæ Controversiæ ab eo Motæ Historia*, 1641; *Veterum Epistolarum Hibernicarum Sylloge*, 1632; *Immanuel, or the Mytery of the Incarnation of the Son of God*, 1638; *De Ecclesiis Britannicarum Primordiis*, 1639; *A Discourse on the Origin of Bishops and Metropolitans*, 1641; *A Geographical and Historical Disquisition on the Lydian or Proconular Asia*, 1641; *Polycarpi et Ignatii Epistolæ*, &c. 1644; *Appendix Ignatiana*, 1647; *Diatriba de Romanæ Ecclesiæ Symbolo Apostolico aliisque Fidei Formulis*, 1647; *De Macedonum et Asianorum Anno Solari*, 1648; *Annalium Pars prior*, 1650; *Epistola ad Ludov. Capellum de Textus Hebraici variantibus Lectionibus*, 1652; *Annalium Pars posterior*, 1654; *De Græca Septuaginta Interpretum Versione Syntagma*, 1655.—*Poëthumæ*: Various Tracts, edited by Dr. Bernard, 1657; *Chronologia Sacra*, edited by Dr. Barlow, 1660; *The Power of the Prince, and Obedience of the Subject*, written 1641, printed after the Restoration; *Historia Dogmatica Controversiæ inter Orthodoxos et Pontificios de Scripturis et Sacris Vernaculis: Accessere Dissertationes duæ*, 1660.

See the life of Usher by Dr. Aikin, who appeals for the facts which he has recited to the Life of Usher by Dr. Parr, who was the primate's chaplain at the time of his death; and who has annexed to his account a large collection of letters, that passed between Usher and his correspondents; and also to the Life of Usher by Dr. Smith, which is the first and principal article of his work, entitled "Vitzæ quorundam eruditissimorum et illustrium Virorum," 1707, 4to.

USIA, in *Geography*, a river of Russia, which runs into the Vaga; 8 miles S. of Vieslk, in the government of Vologda.

USIATIN, a town of Poland; 28 miles N. of Kaminiac.

USIDICANI, in *Ancient Geography*, a people of Italy, in Umbria.

USIDITANA, a town of Mæcia, in the vicinity of Thamyris.

USIJES, in *Geography*, a town of Arabia, in the province of Yemen; 12 miles N.N.W. of Chamir.

USILLA, INS-KILLS, in *Ancient Geography*, a place of Africa, upon the coast of the Mediterranean sea, S. of Rufa.

USIMADO, in *Geography*, a town of Japan, in the island of Nippon; 86 miles S.W. of Meaco.

USINGEN, a town of Nassau Usingen, which gives title to a branch of the house of Nassau, with a family seat. In 1793, it was taken by the French; 12 miles S.S.E. of Weilburg.

USIPII, or USIPIANS, in *Ancient Geography*, a people of Germany, who at occasional intervals of time, inhabited the same places with the Teuchteri. The Usipii anciently dwelt between the Cherusci and the Sicambri; but the Catti expelled them; and after having wandered for about three years in different countries of Germany, they established themselves upon the Rhine, in the vicinity of the Sicambri. The Menapii occupied the two banks of this river; and therefore it must have been with their consent that the Usipians and Teuchteri took possession of the country of the Menapians, situated to the E. of the Rhine. In the year 698 of Rome, the Usipians and Teuchteri were almost entirely

entirely exterminated. A very small remnant of a populous nation repassed the Rhine, and established themselves with the Sicambri; but in the time of Augustus, or a little more than half a century after the terrible defeat just mentioned, they found themselves in a condition to make war, first with the Sicambri, and then with the Romans. From the expedition of Drusus into Germany, we learn that the country of the Ufipians and that of the Teuchteri were then different. The Ufipians extended along the right bank of the Lippe; but when Drusus passed the Rhine, and subjugated the Ufipians, he threw a bridge over the Lippe, by which he entered into the country of the Sicambri. The Teuchteri inhabited a territory W. of the Sicambri, and the Rhine separated them from the Menapians. Tiberius, having afterwards transported the Sicambri into Gaul, the country which they had occupied in Germany was given to the Ufipians and Teuchteri; at length the Teuchteri extended themselves along the Rhine from the Segos (the Sige) as far as the Roer, and along the Lippe and the Alise (the Alene). As to the Ufipians, they remained on the two banks of the Lippe and the Rhine, perhaps as far as the place where the Rhine divides to form the isle of the Batavi. At the commencement of the reign of Trajan, it appears that the Teuchteri had been almost exterminated by the Cherufci and Angrivarians, who took possession of a great part of their territory. The Ufipians must also have suffered. In the time of Constantine, the Ufipians and the Teuchteri ceased in a manner to have any political existence, having probably submitted to some people more powerful than themselves.

USITZA, in *Geography*, a town of Servia, taken by the Turks in 1738; 23 miles N.W. of Jenibafar.

USK, a borough and market-town in the upper division of the hundred of the same name, and county of Monmouth, England, is situated at the confluence of the rivers Olwy and Ulfk, at the distance of 14 miles S.W. from the county-town, and 144 miles W. by N. from London. Though scarcely a vestige of Roman remains has, at least in modern times, been discovered at this place, all antiquaries, except Salmon, who makes this the site of Ifca Silurum, have agreed to fix here the Burrium of Antoninus' Itinerary, and the Bulæum of Ptolemy. It is evident that Ulfk is a place of high antiquity, and has been of much larger extent and greater importance. The history of its castle furnishes the earliest written records of the place; and though from some of its architectural features, it appears to have been of Roman or Roman-British origin; yet the remotest notice that has hitherto been discovered is, that, in the time of Henry III., it formed part of the possessions of Richard de Clare, earl of Gloucester: from his family it came to the Mortimers, earls of March. In the third year of Henry VI., on the death of Edmund Mortimer without issue, his great possessions were granted to his nephew Richard duke of York, whose favourite residence this castle appears to have been: his sons, Edward IV. and Richard III., were born here. On the death of the latter, it became the property of Henry VII.: it afterwards belonged to William Herbert, first earl of Pembroke: the duke of Beaufort is the present proprietor. This fortress experienced frequent assaults during the alternate successes of the Welsh chieftains and the Anglo-Norman lords: and it suffered particularly, together with the town, in the ravages of Owen Glendwr, who, at length, here met with a complete defeat. The present remains of the castle consist of a court, the principal entrance to which is by a tower gateway, having a pointed arch with a groove for a portcullis: an area of considerable extent is surrounded by walls, flanked with round and square towers,

destitute of windows, but having occasional narrow apertures: within are the keep, a square tower, and several apartments, one of which appears to have been the baronial hall. A priory was founded in this town, previous to the year 1236: a few remains of the building are still standing; and in an apartment on the first floor, the frieze of the ceiling is decorated with thirty emblematic devices and emblazoned arms. Ulfk is a borough town and since the 27th year of Henry VIII. has been privileged with elective franchise, being, in conjunction with Monmouth and Newport, represented by one member of parliament. By a charter granted in 1398, the civil government is vested in a bailiff, community, and burgeses. The town is of considerable extent, but, according to the population return of the year 1811, contains only 164 houses, and 844 inhabitants. Several ways bear the name of streets, though scarcely deserving that appellation: for the houses in general are isolated, having gardens, orchards, and paddocks intervening; which, though they give an irregularity to the town, tend much to comfort and convenience. Two fairs are held annually, and a small market weekly on Mondays: the town has no trade, and only a small manufactory of japan ware. Some of the inhabitants derive advantage from its being a thoroughfare; some are employed in husbandry; and some gain a maintenance by the salmon fishery, which is abundant in the river Ulfk. The church, which belonged to the priory, appears to have been erected in the Anglo-Norman era. By foundations yet remaining, it was built cruciform, in the manner of a cathedral: the square embattled tower, now standing at the east end, was in the centre, and seems to have communicated with a transept and choir, both of which have long been destroyed. Many alterations have taken place in the building; the circular columns and arches of the tower exhibit the Norman character; but the nave is separated from the north aisle by four pointed arches, and the windows and doorways are in the same style. The interior affords nothing worthy of notice, except an inscription on a brass plate, which has for more than half a century been a perplexing subject to antiquaries, and still appears to defy critical disquisition. It was first published in the second volume of the *Archæologia*, thence copied into Gough's edition of Camden, and since given more correct by Mr. Coxe. A stone bridge of five circular arches, flanked on each side by triangular buttresses, is the only other public structure deserving mention. Near the foot of the bridge was formerly a Roman Catholic chapel: it is now the common prison. In the vicinity of Ulfk are several ancient encampments: almost every two or three miles exhibit vestiges of hostile positions, and the tumuli of heroes slain.—*Beauties of England and Wales*, vol. xi. Monmouthshire, by J. Britton, F.S.A. Coxe's *Historical Tour through Monmouthshire*, two vols. 4to. 1801.

USK, a river of South Wales, which rises in the S.W. part of the county of Brecknock, and runs into the Severn, below Newport, in Monmouthshire.

USKALINMAA, a small island on the E. side of the gulf of Bothnia. N. lat. 61° 18'. E. long. 21° 5'.

USKEI, an island belonging to Russia, in Beering's straits. N. lat. 65° 58'. E. long. 180° 21'.

USKELA, a town of Sweden, in the government of Abo; 27 miles E. of Abo.

USKER, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in the government of Kur, on the Kur; 12 miles N.N.E. of Akalziké.

USKOLOMSKOI, a town of Russia, in the province of Utiug, on the Vitcheгда; 80 miles E.N.E. of Eas Sifolk.

USKUBS, a town of Natolia; 36 miles N.W. of Boli.

USLAH,

USLAH, a town of Bengal; 9 miles S. of Curruke-deah.

USLAR, a town of Westphalia, in the principality of Calenberg. In the year 1755, duke Frederic ordered the name to be changed to Freudenthal; 17 miles W.N.W. of Göttingen.

USMAN, a town of Russia, in the government of Tambow, on a river of the same name; 40 miles S.W. of Tambow. N. lat. 52° 8'. E. long. 40° 24'.

USNAU, *Island of*, sometimes called *Hutten's Island*, a small island in the lake of Zurich, Switzerland, about an English mile in circumference, belonging to the abbey of Einsiedeln. It contains only a single house, two barns, a kind of tower or summer-house, a chapel that is never used, and a church in which mass is said once a year. Within is the tomb of St. Alderic, who built an hermitage in the island and retired hither, where he died, after a life of reputed sanctity, in 1473. It is called Hutten's island, from an extraordinary person of that name, famed for his learning and valour, and for his intemperate ardour in defence of the opinions of Luther. After having rendered himself an object of terror both to Lutherans and Catholics, he sought repose in this sequestered island, and died here in 1523, in the 36th year of his age. The island, which is agreeably diversified with hill and dale, is very fertile in pasture, produces hemp, flax, a few vines, and a small tufted wood, which overhangs the margin of the water. This is the only island in the lake, except an uninhabited rock, which yields a small quantity of hay.

USNEA, in *Botany*, a name retained by Dillenius, for which he modestly solicits the indulgence of botanists, notwithstanding its Arabian origin, being derived from the *Asneeb* and *Usnee* of Serapio. It has long been the official name of one of this genus, which, though sunk in *Lichen* by Linnæus, is now restored by Acharius, under the above appellation.—Dill. Musc. 56. Achar. Prodr. 223. Meth. 306. Lichenogr. 127. t. 14. f. 5. Syn. 303. Sm. Prodr. Fl. Græc. Sibth. v. 2. 322. Hoffm. Germ. v. 2. 132.—Class and order, *Cryptogamia Algæ*. Nat. Ord. *Algæ*, *Lichenes*.

Eff. Ch. Receptacles? orbicular, peltate, scarcely coloured, without a border; subtended by a dilatation of the frond, which is branched, and contains a central elastic pith.

The filamentous Lichens of Linnæus chiefly compose this genus. (See *LICHEN*, sect. 9; and *LICHENES*, n. 6, n. 28, and n. 21).—We need not repeat the account and observations there given, respecting the fructification of the genus before us. With respect to its technical discrimination, Acharius considers as essential the very tough, elastic, central thread, which pervades the whole frond and its branches, remaining unbroken when the outer coat, tumid and cracked, assumes, in several species, a jointed or beaded appearance. The orbicular disks are not circumscribed by any tumid border from the frond, but are often bounded by an indeterminate, or irregular, dilatation of that part, very frequently subtended, or fringed, with prominent bristles, or threads, resembling young branches. How far these disks are real receptacles of seeds must appear, from the observations above cited, very doubtful; or rather it seems clear that they are not so, and that the convex more coloured tubercles, destitute of any border, found in some of the species, are more probably the receptacles. According to this idea, we should rather prefer the following:

Eff. Ch. Receptacles lateral, sessile, tumid, rugged, coloured, without a border. Frond thread-shaped, branched, with a central elastic pith.

Leaving the question thus open, for future examination and determination, we proceed to the elucidation of the species, which are very prudently curtailed in the last work of Dr. Acharius, his *Synopsis*.

1. *U. melasanthæ*. Orange and black *Usnea*. Ach. Syn. n. 1. Meth. 307. (*Lichen aurantiaco-ater*; Jacq. Mifc. v. 2. 369. t. 11. f. 2. Linn. Syst. Veg. ed. 14. 965.)—Frond nearly erect, tufted, rough, tawny; ultimate branches tapering, black. Disks concave; black above; corrugated underneath; naked at the margin.—Commerlon, Menzies, and other voyagers, have gathered this handsome species, at the straits of Magellan, Staten land, Falkland islands, &c. The stem is simple at the root, but divides immediately into a dense bushy mass of subdivided, entangled, round, very tough branches, and is three or four inches high. The surface is rough with minute points, partly tawny or orange-coloured, partly black and shining; the smaller branches are beautifully annulated with tawny and black alternately; the ultimate ones black, tapering to a sharp point. The internal substance is solid, white, very hard. Receptacles lateral, solitary, causing the branch to form an acute angle at the insertion of each. When young they are almost globular, then hemispherical, or nearly flat. Their disk is dark brown or black, and of a distinct substance from the pale or tawny accessory border, formed from the frond, inflexed when young, corrugated beneath, remaining thin, even, smooth, naked and uninterrupted, encompassing the disk.

We admit this species here chiefly in conformity to our distinguished guide. While we beg leave to protest against his change of the excellent original name, we decline restoring that name combined with *Usnea*, because we feel some suspicion that the plant may belong to Dr. Acharius's new genus *Evernia*, Syn. 244. The frond, though corticated, is solid, and the receptacles are shield-like, sessile, with a thin coloured concave disk, surrounded by an elevated inflexed margin from the substance of the frond, which are the characters of *Evernia*, rather than of *Usnea*.

2. *U. jamaicensis*. Jamaica *Usnea*. Ach. Syn. n. 2. "Lichenogr. 619. Nov. Act. Upfal. with a figure, unpublished."—Frond nearly erect, rough, pale, forked; branches divaricated, widely spreading. Disks peltate, nearly sessile, rather concave, of the colour of the frond; smooth, appendiculate and proliferous beneath; naked in the circumference.—Native of trees in West Indies. *Acharius*.

3. *U. cornicularia*. Brown-horned *Usnea*. Ach. Syn. n. 3. "Lichenogr. 619. Nov. Act. Upfal. with a figure, unpublished."—"Frond spreading, rigid, very smooth, thread-shaped, slender, white, much branched; branches intricate, zigzag; ultimate ones partly brownish."—Found on the trunks of trees in New Zealand. *Acharius*.

4. *U. ceratina*. Intricate-horned *Usnea*. Ach. Syn. n. 4. "Lichenogr. 619. Nov. Act. Upfal. with a figure, unpublished."—"Frond prostrate, rather pendulous, rigid, very rough, whitish, slightly fibrous; branches very long, subdivided, spreading, diffuse. Disks concave, of the colour of the frond; somewhat proliferous beneath; encompassed with long, stout, curved rays."—Found on trees in Silesia. The author mentions a variety, found on rocks in France, Spain, and North America, thus distinguished.

b. *scabrofa*. "Frond erect, rough, rigid, somewhat tufted, pale, branched; branches straight or zigzag, tapering, widely spreading."

Some specimens from America are furnished with red tubercles, or *cephalodia*.

5. *U. florida*. Flowery *Usnea*. Ach. Syn. n. 5. Meth. 307. Sm. Prodr. Fl. Græc. n. 2482. Hoffm. Pl. Lich.

v. 2. 19. t. 30. f. 2. (*U. vulgatissima tenuior et brevior*, cum orbiculis; Dill. Musc. 69. t. 13. f. 13. Lichen floridus; Linn. Sp. Pl. 1624. Ehrh. Crypt. n. 148. Engl. Bot. t. 872.)—Fronde nearly erect, rough, greyish, with crowded horizontal fibres; branches widely spreading, scarcely divided. Disks flat, very broad, whitish, with long rays. Tubercles flesh-coloured, nearly globular, wrinkled.—Frequent on old trees, especially about the tops of aged oaks, sometimes on pales, in various parts of Europe. The fronds form upright, bushy tufts, of a pale greenish-grey when moist, whiter when dry, springing from a hard black base; they are round, consisting of a crustaceous bark, enclosing a tough white fibre, the bark slightly cracking here and there, but not widely. The innumerable branches, crowded with taper fibres, are polished, though minutely warty. When of full age, they bear very broad, unequal, irregular disks, at first lateral, but by the flexure of the branch, and the stoppage of its growth, becoming terminal. They are smooth on both sides, paler or slightly flesh-coloured on the upper, having all the appearance of the shield of a *Parmelia*, &c.; their border of the substance of the frond, narrow, elevated when young, copiously fringed with radiating fibres. The same plant bears, though rarely, small flesh-coloured tubercles, situated like the disks, destitute of rays; having when young a tumid even border, of their own substance and red colour, which is subsequently obliterated, as in the genus *Lecidea*, by the great elevation and swelling of the middle part, forming a tubercle like those of a Cup-Lichen, *Boomyces*. These were noticed by Hoffmann, Persoon, and Schrader, though that circumstance was unknown to us, before they appeared in *English Botany*; and the discovery is the most curious that has for a long while been made in the history of the *Lichen* tribe.

Acharius enumerates the following varieties.

b, *rigida*. "Fronde elongated, straight, rigid, slender, somewhat dependent, rough; branches rather long, zigzag, beset with fibres and small branches."—Native of Lusitania and England.—We have not met with any thing answering to this.

c, *rubigosa*. Ach. Meth. 310. t. 6. f. 3.—Fronde spreading, branched, dirty grey, rough; branches elongated, zigzag, forked, lax, closely beset all over with prominent parallel fibres. Disks flesh-coloured, very broad, somewhat lobed, with radiating teeth.—Found in North America. This seems merely the effect of age.

d, *villosa*. "Fronde and branches dirty ash-coloured, diffuse and entangled, clothed with very short and crowded villous fibres."

e, *rubiginosa*. Michaux Boreal.-Amer. v. 2. 332.—"Fronde somewhat fibrous, of a rusty red, with disks of the same colour."—Native of North America.

f, We have a very long, straggling, minutely fibrous, variety, brought by Mr. Menzies from the Cape of Good Hope, which hardly comes under any of the above definitions. On this we have seen one solitary flesh-coloured tubercle, situated on the main stem, as in *U. hirta*.

6. *U. hirta*. Common Rough Usnea. Hoffm. Pl. Lich. v. 2. 17. t. 30. f. 1. Sm. Prodr. Fl. Græc. n. 2483. (*U. florida* β; Ach. Meth. 309. U. plicata c; Ach. Syn. 305. n. 6. *U. vulgatissima tenuior et brevior*, sine orbiculis; Dill. Musc. 67. t. 13. f. 12. Lichen hirtus; Linn. Sp. Pl. 1623. Ehrh. Crypt. n. 138. L. floridus β; Hudf. 560. Ach. Prodr. 224.)—Fronde erect, somewhat shrubby, much branched, greenish-grey; branches spreading, wavy, fibrous, roughish, entangled, tapering. Tubercles lateral, slightly elevated, flesh-coloured, rugged. Radiating disks none.—Extremely common on trees, posts,

and pales, throughout Europe, as well as in America. We cannot conceive this to be a variety, either of the preceding or the following species. The whole plant is more finely fibrous than *U. florida*, and rather greener. The tubercles are lateral, and do not disturb the direct continuation of the branch beyond them; nor are they so perfectly sessile, but rather elevated on a short thick stalk. Sometimes we find them accompanied by a few radiating fibres, but never approaching to the nature of an expanded disk.

To this we presume must belong the variety d, *glabrata*, of Ach. Syn. 306. n. 6.—"Fronde nearly upright, rather shrubby, white, very smooth and naked; branches crowded, widely spreading, nearly simple, fibrous; powdery at the summit."—Native of Switzerland. Wool boiled in water with *U. hirta*, without alum, takes a fine permanent tawny yellow.

7. *U. plicata*. Stringy Usnea. Ach. Syn. n. 6. Meth. 310. (*U. vulgaris*, loris longis implexis; Dill. Musc. 56. t. 11. f. 1. Lichen plicatus; Linn. Sp. Pl. 1622. Engl. Bot. t. 257. Weltring Lich. t. 8.)—Fronde pendulous, smoothish, pale grey; branches lax, compound, entangled, partly fibrous; the ultimate ones capillary. Disks flat, fringed with slender fibres.—Found hanging from the branches of old trees, in dark shady woods of the more mountainous countries of Europe. The whole plant, when full grown, measures from one to two feet in length, being a dense mass of entangled branching fibres. Its hue is less green than that of *U. hirta*, nor have any flesh-coloured tubercles been remarked on this species. The disks at first resemble such tubercles in form, but not in colour; soon becoming concave, with an inflexed somewhat radiated margin; and at length expanding into a flat shape, smooth and even on both sides, very slightly tinged with red-brown above, their border more or less fringed with radiating, sometimes elongated, fibres. To this is now reduced, as a variety,

b, *comosa*. (Lichen comosus; Ach. in Stockh. Transf. v. 16. 209. t. 8. f. 1.)—"Fronde rather erect and shrubby, pale and whitish; lateral branches widely spreading, diffuse, crowded, smooth, much divided; the ultimate ones taper-pointed, roughish, slightly drooping. Tubercles pale-flesh-coloured, finally brown."—Found chiefly on tall stems of Birch-trees, in Sweden. We have not examined this plant, but its tubercles seem to agree rather with *U. hirta*, as well as its habit.

8. *U. barbata*. Bearded Usnea. Ach. Syn. n. 7. Meth. 313. Sm. Prodr. Fl. Græc. n. 2484. (*U. barbata*, loris tenuibus fibrosis; Dill. Musc. 63. t. 12. f. 6. Lichen barbatus; Linn. Sp. Pl. 1622. Engl. Bot. t. 258. f. 2.)

b, *dasypoga*; Ach. Syn. 306. n. 7. (*U. plicata* γ, *dasypoga*; Ach. Meth. 312. "U. barbata; Hoffm. Germ. v. 2. 132, excluding the reference to Dillenius." Achar.)

c, *articulata*; Ach. Syn. ibid. (*U. barbata* β; Ach. Meth. 313. *U. capillacea et nodosa*; Dill. Musc. 60. t. 11. f. 4. Lichen articulatus; Linn. Sp. Pl. 1623. Engl. Bot. t. 258. f. 1.)

d, *intestiniiformis*; Ach. Syn. ibid.

Fronde pendulous, smooth, tumid, cracked, inflated, greyish-white; branches divaricated, fibrous, with capillary points. Tubercles lateral, flesh-coloured, somewhat lobed.—Found on the branches of old trees in various parts of Europe, scarcely bearing tubercles but in Italy, and other southern countries. The variety d we have from Exmouth warren, Devonshire, where it grows on the sandy ground, in large patches. This elegant and striking species has always more or less of a jointed, or bearded, appearance, the principal

cial stems resembling a necklace: in the last variety, d, they are singularly inflated and pitted, though less interrupted or broken, while the subdivided branches are more suddenly capillary than the usual habit of the plant. That the *Lichen barbatus* and *articulatus* of Linnæus constitute but one species, and are hardly varieties of each other, Mr. Lightfoot first hinted, nor could any one have a doubt on the subject after examining the Dillenian specimens. What the variety, b, *dafopoga*, of Acharius may be, we have no authentic information. It has been referred to *plicata*, but if at all like that species, it can have no affinity to the present. *U. barbata* never exhibits, as far as we can learn, any traces of radiated disks. Its proper fructifications are the lateral, flesh-coloured, much wrinkled or lobed, *tubercles*, ranged numerously along some of the branches, without causing any flexure, or change in their direction. These we have gathered near Viterbo. (See Tour on the Continent, ed. 2. v. 1. 335.) They are represented in Engl. Bot. t. 258, and in Micheli, Nov. Gen. 76. t. 39. f. 1, 2. The central pith in this species is very slender, appearing between the divided portions, like a rough thread of very white cotton.

9. *U. longissima*. Long Slender Ufnea. Ach. Syn. n. 8. Nov. Aët. Upfal. with a figure, unpublished.—“Fron pendulous, thread-shaped, slightly compressed, rough and somewhat powdery, pure white, very long, scarcely branched, clothed with horizontal, twisted, simple, ash-coloured fibres.”—Found on the branches of trees, in the woods of Lufatia. The frond is slender, with a few branches, two, three, or four feet in length. *Receptacles* unknown. Acharius.

10. *U. angulata*. Angular Ufnea. Ach. Syn. n. 9.—“Fron pendulous, nearly simple, zigzag, pale grey, with acute rough angles; fibres horizontal, crowded, simple, short, round, tapering.”—Native of trees in North America. *Fructification* unknown. At first sight this species resembles the variety c, *strigosa*, of *U. florida*, but is more related to *longissima*, from which, as well as from the rest of the genus, it is sufficiently distinguishable by the conformation of the frond. Acharius.

11. *U. trichoides*. Capillary Ufnea. Ach. Syn. n. 10. Meth. 312. t. 8. f. 1.—Fron prostrate, smooth, whitish, thread-shaped, very slender, branched; fibres horizontal, scattered, partly turned one way. Disks of the same colour, terminal, with a narrow, elevated, naked, entire border.—Found in Nova Scotia, at the Cape of Good Hope, and in the isle of Java. Differs from the rest of its genus in the capillary, spreading, not pendulous, frond, and in the want of rays to its disks, which are very slightly concave. The medullary thread is blackish; the cortical substance crustaceous, thin, scarcely jointed. Ach. Meth.

12. *U. gracilis*. Slender Ufnea. Ach. Syn. n. 11. Nov. Aët. Upfal. with a figure, unpublished.—“Fron pendulous, white, very smooth and shining, thread-shaped: branches scattered, uniform, straight, simple, slightly fibrous.”—Native of the isle of Bourbon. Acharius thinks this a distinct species, though he never met with the *fructification*.

13. *U. flaris*. Greenish Thread Ufnea. Ach. Syn. n. 12. (“*U. gracilis*; Pers. in Aët. Soc. Wetteran. 2. t. 10. f. 6.”)—“Fron thread-shaped, greenish. Disks scattered, small, fringed with bristles.”—Native of America. *Perfoon*. Acharius had not seen a specimen, but he conceived this species to be really distinct from the last, and was, therefore, obliged to change *Perfoon*’s specific name.

14. *U. incarnata*. Red-pithed Ufnea.—Fron pendulous, pale, smooth, capillary, cracked, with numerous horizontal tapering fibres; the medullary thread reddish.

Disks lateral, concave, fringed with long distant bristles.—Gathered in Nova Scotia, by Mr. Archibald Menzies, to whom we are obliged for specimens. We cannot refer them to any of the preceding species, but without a comparison with some of those, particularly the two last, the question must remain in a little uncertainty. The fronds are six inches long, of an ivory white, polished, not at all warty or powdery, very slender, copiously cracked, but not tumid nor inflated; the central thread, when laid bare, appearing of a flesh-colour, or light red. Disks copious, small, slightly reddish, with a thick inflexed border, beset with a few unequal, rather long, spreading bristles. In a young state, when smaller than mustard-seed, they greatly resemble the fields of a *Parmelia*.

15. *U. denudata*. Naked-branched Ufnea.—Fron thread-shaped, tawny, greenish, rough with minute points, subdivided, destitute of lateral fibres. Disks lateral, flat, glaucous, fringed with tapering bristles.—Gathered by Mr. Menzies in Otaheité. We cannot tell whether this be pendulous or erect, but the frond and branches are all nearly of equal thickness, without any fine tapering lateral fibres or subdivisions. They are slightly cracked here and there, but not tumid; their colour partly tawny, partly a dirty greenish-white. Disks ranged along the uninterrupted frond; when young globular, concave, naked at the edge; finally flat, a quarter of an inch wide, brown, with a glaucous bloom; their border narrow, wavy, slightly elevated, more or less copiously fringed with cracked bristles; very unequal in length.

USNEN, a name given by Avicenna and Serapion to the plant kali, of which the alkali salt called *pot-afnes*, and used in the compounding of our soap, is made. There are also several other things called by this name, and, in general, all that were used in the scouring or cleaning of clothes. The dung of sparrows was used by some people for this purpose, as the dung of hogs is at this time; and this was, therefore, called by some *usen*. Hyflop, a plant famous for its cleaning virtue, was also called by the same name; and some have also applied it to the foldanella, or sea bind-weed.

Wherever, in the Arabian writers, the word *usen* is used in any of these latter senses, there is something added to distinguish which of the things before expressed is meant by it; but whenever it stands alone and unexplained, it is to be understood as meaning the kali.

USOZA, in *Geography*, a river of Russia, which runs into the Svopa, near Patez, in the government of Kursk.

USPALLATA, a spacious plain, about 50 miles long and 6 broad, situated on the eastern mountains of the Andes, in the province of Acacagaya, which gives name to the most celebrated silver mine, as Chili. The vein of silver, on the skirts of the eastern chain of this plain, has been traced to the enormous length of 90 miles; nor is its termination yet fixed. It is supposed by many to extend to Potosi, which lies in the same direction, or through a space of 14°, or 840 geographical miles. The grand vein is always nine feet in thickness, and on both sides throws off numerous branches, which may be said to penetrate a chain of mountains 30 miles in breadth. This productive mine, though discovered in 1638, was neglected till the year 1762, when the people of Mendoza, a town not far from Uspallata, invited two expert miners from Peru; and they continued to work the mine with prodigious advantage.

USPENSKE, a town of Russia, in the government of Ekaterinoflav; 16 miles S. of Donetsk.

USPENSKOI, a town of Russia, in the province of Utiug; 28 miles S. of Utiug.—Also, a town of Russia, in the government of Archangel; 80 miles S. of Kola.

USQUEBAUGH, a strong, rich, compound liquor, chiefly taken by way of dram; its basis being brandy, or a more ordinary spirit.

The manner of making it is somewhat various, and the ingredients numerous. We shall give a receipt, much commended formerly, as a specimen.

To two gallons of brandy, or spirits, put a pound of Spanish liquorice, half a pound of raisins of the sun, four ounces of currants, three of dates, sliced; tops of thyme, balm, fennel, and mint, and tops or flowers of rosemary, of each two ounces; cinnamon and mace bruised, nutmegs, aniseeds, and coriander-seeds, bruised likewise, of each four ounces; citron, or lemon or orange-peel, scraped, of each an ounce: all these are to be left to infuse forty-eight hours in a warm place, often shaking them together; then set them in a cool place, for a week; after which, the clear liquor is to be decanted off, and to it is to be put an equal quantity of net white port-wine, and a gallon of canary. The whole is finally to be sweetened with a proper quantity of double refined sugar.

USRENUS, in *Ancient Geography*, a river of Asia, in Syria, which had its source in a branch of mount Amanus, and by a south-west course discharged itself into a lake, near the gulf called Issicus.

USSAC, in the *Materia Medica of the Arabians*, a name given by Serapio to the gum ammoniacum of the Greek writers. It seems no other than a false spelling of the word *assac*, which is the common name of the gum in Avicenna, and other of the writers of that nation; but this does not seem to be the same drug, which we call gum ammoniacum at this time.

USSARA, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Africa, in Mauritania Cæsariensis, situated in the vicinity of Lamida.

USSASI, or **USSAYE**, in *Botany*. Rumph. Amboin. v. 3. 60. t. 33. Poiret in Lamarck Dict. v. 8. 261. This is a tree found in Ceram, and some other spice islands, but not in Amboyna. Its stature equals the Lemon-tree. Branches opposite, crossing each other in pairs; quadrangular when young. Leaves opposite, stalked, ovate, acute, entire, single-ribbed, from four to six or seven inches long, and the breadth of three or four fingers, nearly smooth, of an acid, not unpleasant, flavour, like that of an unripe grape. Fruit lateral, sessile, irregularly ovate, or somewhat globular, green, various in size, with a thin tough skin, inclosing a watery acidulous grateful pulp, full of numerous thin flat seeds, like those of a cucumber, or gourd. The smaller-fruited variety, perhaps a distinct species, has a firmer pulp, with only four or five seeds. Both kinds raise the base of the stem, upon forked roots, high out of the ground. Nothing is known of the parts of the flower, nor indeed of the true structure of the fruit, by which these plants could be scientifically described or classed.

USSASSYR, in *Geography*, one of the Kurile islands, which lies 17 versts from Rallagu, and in length and breadth may be 25 versts each. It consists properly of two islands lying close together, composed of considerable rocks and cliffs. Opening to the south is a round bay, in the shape of a kettle encompassed with hills, where the strand is sandy; and along it, as well as on the sea-shore, runs a source of almost hot water, and not far from it another. Here too are some spouts, running strong, and throwing the water to a considerable height in the air. In many places are perceived chaps and chafins in the earth, 100 fathoms in length, and sometimes more. Near the great spout the shore is steep and high, producing large lumps of sulphur and falmiak, which partly fall down, and partly

are collected there. In other respects, the island is like *Raffagu*; which see.

USSEL, a town of France, and principal place of a district, in the department of the Corréze; 32 miles E.N.E. of Uzerches. N. lat. 45° 33'. E. long. 2° 23'.

USSES, a river of France, which runs into the Rhône, near Seissel.

USSETA, a town of the state of Georgia; 160 miles W.S.W. of Augusta.

USSITERNA, a town of Servia; 24 miles W. of Piltrina.

USSITZA, a town of Servia; 32 miles W.N.W. of Novibafar.

USSON, a town of France, in the department of the Puy-de-Dôme; 16 miles W. of Ambert.—Also, a town of France, in the department of the Vienne; 12 miles N.E. of Civray.

USSORA, a river of Bosnia, which runs into the river Bofna; 32 miles N. of Serajo.

USSUBUM, in *Ancient Geography*, a place marked in the Itin. of Anton. on the route from Bourdeaux to Agen, between Sarione and Fines.

USSUI, in *Geography*, a town of Japan, in the island of Niphon; 86 miles N.W. of Jedo.

USTAK, a town of Natolia; 22 miles N. of Karahisin.

USTARITZ, a town of France, and principal place of a district, in the department of the Lower Pyrénées; 48 miles W. of Pau. N. lat. 43° 23'. W. long. 1° 23'.

USTAYANTHO, a lake of New York, from which the river Delaware takes its rise.

USTCHOTZKOI, three islands on the west coast of Kamtschatka. N. lat. 57° 10'. E. long. 156° 14'.

USTERIA, in *Botany*, so named by Willdenow, in honour of Dr. Paul Usteri, of Zurich, member of several learned academies, as well as of the legislative body of his own country, and well known by his very useful periodical compilation, entitled *Annalen der Botanik*, as well as by the *Magazin für die Botanik*, edited by Römer and himself. These works extend to many octavo volumes, and have been eminently serviceable to German readers, in making them acquainted with some of the most valuable and expensive botanical publications of other countries, at a cheap rate; several of such works being copied entire in these volumes. Willd. in Röm. and Ust. Mag. fasc. 8. 151, without a name. Act. Soc. Berol. v. 10. 52. t. 2. Schreb. Gen. 782. Willd. Sp. Pl. v. 1. 18. Mart. Mill. Dict. v. 4. Afzel. Gen. Pl. Guineens. part. 1. 1—11, with a figure.—Class and order, *Monandria monogynia*. Nat. Ord. *Rubiaceae*, Jussl.

Gen. Ch. Cal. Perianth inferior, of one leaf, four-cleft, permanent; the three inner segments minute, close-pressed, acute; the outer one very large, petal-like, horizontal, linear-lanceolate, very blunt. Cor. of one petal, salver-shaped, deciduous: tube narrow, cylindrical, twice the length of the longest segment of the calyx: limb in four deep, lanceolate, acute, unequal segments, rather turned to one side. Stam. Filament solitary, short, tapering, inserted into the margin of the tube, between the two larger segments of the limb; anther prominent, arrow-shaped, versatile, of two oblong diverging cells. Pist. Germen superior, ovate-conical; style thread-shaped, longer than the tube of the corolla; stigma quite simple, slightly corrugated. Peric. Capsule ovate-oblong, compressed, with two furrows, two, partly cloven, concave valves, and two cells, the partition transverse, double, from the inflexed parallel margins of the valves,

valves, so that the capsule easily separates into two lobes. *Seeds* imbricated in two rows, upon a large, deciduous, convex, longitudinal *receptacle* in each cell, numerous, ovate, peltate, depressed, small, obtuse, each encompassed with a large, nearly orbicular, cellular, reticulated wing.

Eff. Ch. Calyx four-cleft; the outer segment very large. Corolla salver-shaped, four-cleft. Capsule of two cells, with inflexed partitions. Seeds imbricated, winged.

Obf. We have adopted Dr. Afzelius's more accurate description of this curious and very distinct genus, compared with dried specimens. That of Willdenow is in many respects very incorrect; nor can all his mistakes be well accounted for. He took the *receptacle* for a solitary seed.

1. *U. volubilis*. Twining *Ustertia*. Afzel. as above, five. (*U. guineensis*; Willd. n. i. *Monodynamis* Iferti; Gmel. Syst. Nat. Linn. v. 2. 10.)—Native of the Guinea coast, especially of the hills of Sierra Leone, and of Bananas and Plantain islands, in dry stony places, where Dr. Afzelius found it in great abundance, flowering from September to December, and bearing ripe capsules from February to May. The negroes know this plant by the name of *Makbòt*, or *Makbòt-T'bòt*. Willdenow received it from Mr. Ifert, see *ISERTIA*; but the first specimens ever brought to Europe by any botanist, were those of Mr. Smeathman, many years before. The *stem* is shrubby, with long, slender, round, smoothish, opposite, twining branches, supporting themselves on any thing that stands in their way; their bark, when first tasted, sweetish, afterwards bitter. *Leaves* stalked, opposite, crossing each other in pairs, elliptical, entire, smooth, from two to four inches long, bluntnish, with one rib, and many transverse veins. *Fossilak* two or three lines long, connected by a very short, annular, intrafoliaceous *stipula*. *Panicles* terminal and axillary, large, compound, corymbose, forked, finely downy or hoary, as well as the *calyx*, and the tube of the white, or partly violet, *corolla*. *Capsule* one inch and a quarter long, much resembling that of a *Cinchona*, to which genus this plant is naturally allied, though so distinct in its flower. Dr. Afzelius confirms this affinity, by informing us that the natives of Guinea sometimes cure fevers with an infusion of the leaves and young branches.

USTERIA is also the name of a genus in Cavanilles' *Icones*, v. 2. 15. t. 116, now called *MAURANDIA*; see that article.

USTIA, in *Geography*, a town of European Turkey, in Moldavia, on the Dniester; 88 miles E. of Jassy.

USTJAK, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Natolia; 20 miles N. of Kiutaja.

USTIANO, a town of Italy, in the department of the Mincio, on the Oglio; 26 miles W. of Mantua.

USTICA, an island in the vicinity of Sicily, with a town of the same name. It was opposite to Pacopus, and appears as one of the Lipari islands. This island was for centuries uninhabited, except by some wild goats, till, in the year 1765, a citadel was built here, furnished with a garrison: at the same time a colony was sent, which flourishes, though the island is without springs, and only supplied with fresh water by rain kept in cisterns; 25 miles from the coast of Sicily. N. lat. 38° 44'. E. long. 13° 36'.

USTILAGO, in *Botany*. See *UREDIO*.

USTION, *Ustio*, formed from *urere*, to burn, in *Pharmacy*, the preparing of certain substances, by burning them.

The ancients made use of burnt horns, nails, feathers, and other parts of animals, for divers remedies; and the moderns still use as *ustum*, which is burnt copper, or copper that has undergone the *ustion*, with sulphur.

VOL. XXXVII.

The *ustion* of minerals is a more imperfect kind of calcination. It is a degree beyond torrefaction.

USTIUG, or *VELIKI*, in *Geography*, a town of Russia, and capital of a province, in the government of Vologda, situated on the Dwina, at the conflux of the Suchona and the Jug, the see of an archbishop. It contains ten or twelve churches, built of stone, with some others, which, with the houses, are of wood. The merchants are numerous, and great quantities of grain are sent to different parts. The city is chiefly on the left side of the Dwina; 1002 miles from Peterburg. In order to characterise the weather of the northern region of Russia, we observe, that Ustiug lies 516 miles from the nearest shore of the Frozen ocean, and 15½° more to the N. than St. Petersburg; and that the mean heat and cold here is above Reaumur's freezing point in the month of April until September; below the freezing point in the month of October until March. The mercury in the same thermometer, in the month of June alone, falls never below 0, and only in January never rises above 0. The cold increased at times so late as in the middle of April to 30°, and the quicksilver may, sometimes so early as November, and again in the first days of March, be hammered. In every winter are 120 days, in which the cold is more than 5°; and of these, 65 days in which it exceeds 10°; yet the summer has more hot than the winter has cold days. The thermometer stood, upon an average of several years, the whole day above 0, on 152 days, and below 0, on 150; and consequently there were 63 days on which it stood alternately above and below 0. The rivers are navigable about the 10th of May; at the end of that month the summer corn is sown, and about the middle of June the fields are manured for winter sowing: the harvest is commonly in August. The trees shed their leaves sometimes so early as the 10th of August, but usually about the 20th. On the 4th of November, 1786, the quicksilver froze in the open air, during a cold of 30½° of Reaumur's thermometer; the 1st of December, at 40°, it fell the same day to 51°, and the 7th of December was down to 60°. The quicksilver then froze to a solid mass, so as to bear beating with a hammer, in a warm room, several times before any pieces flew off from it. See the Observations of Mr. Fries, in Croll's *Annals*, 1787, p. 2, cited in Tooke's *Russia*, vol. i. N. lat. 60° 50'. E. long. 45° 40'.

USTIUG, a province of Russia, and by far the most considerable part of the government of Vologda, being 400 miles in length, and 240 in breadth.

USTIUZNA, a town of Russia, in the government of Novgorod, on the river Mogaja; 144 miles E. of Novgorod.

USTRINA, among the Romans, the place where they burnt the bodies of the dead. It was commonly in the Campus Martius, or some other place in the suburbs, and sometimes in the city for persons of quality; and for the common people on the Esquiline mount. See *BUSTUM*.

USTVIANSKOI, in *Geography*, an otrog of Russia, in the government of Irkutsk, on the Yana. N. lat. 70° 30'. E. long. 131° 38'.

USTULATION, *Ustulatio*, a word used by pharmacæutic writers to express the roasting or torrefying of humid or moist substances over a gentle fire, so as to render them fit for powdering. The same word is also used by some for what we call burning of wine.

USTUM, *Æs*. See *Æs Ustum*.

USTURANTZKOI, in *Geography*, a fortress of Russia, in the government of Irkutsk, on the borders of China; 76 miles S. of Selenginsk.

USUBIS, in *Botany*, a name of Burmann's. See SCHMIDELIA.

USUCAPTION, *Ufucapcio*, in the *Civil Law*, is an acquisition of the property of a thing by a possession and enjoyment of it for a certain term of years prescribed by law.

Some make a difference between prescription and ufucaption; maintaining that the latter is only used with regard to moveables, and the former with regard to immoveables. But there is no essential difference between them; and, accordingly, prescription and ufucaption are generally held synonyma.

Ufucaption denotes the acquisition of domain founded on a long possession uninterrupted and undisputed, or on an acquisition solely proved by this possession. Wolf defines it, an acquisition of domain founded on a presumed desertion; by which definition he explains the manner in which a long and peaceable possession may serve to establish the acquisition of domain. Modestinus says, in conformity to the principles of the Roman law, that ufucaption is the acquisition of domain from a continued possession, during a time expressed by the law. These three definitions, says Vattel, are not incompatible with each other. Prescription is the exclusion of all pretensions to a right founded on the length of time during which it has been neglected; or, as Wolf defines it, the loss of a proper right in virtue of a presumed consent: this definition is allowed by Vattel to be just; that is, to explain how a long neglect of a right occasions its being lost; and it agrees with the nominal definition which he has given, and in which he explains what is commonly understood by this term. Ufucaption, however, is a term little used; prescription being adopted in lieu of it. Many celebrated authors (Grotius, Puffendorf, and Wolfius) have asserted and proved, that ufucaption and prescription are derived from the law of nature; and Vattel has investigated and established this point, which some others have disputed. Nature, says this excellent writer, has not herself established property with respect to wealth, and in particular with regard to lands: she only approves this introduction, for the advantage of the human race. It would therefore be absurd to say, that domain and property being once established, the law of nature can secure to a proprietor any right capable of introducing disorder into human society. Far from giving such a right, the law of nature prescribes to the proprietor the care of what belongs to him, and lays him under an obligation to make known his right, that others may not be led into an error: for nature does not approve his property, and only secures it to him on those conditions. If he neglects this for a time long enough not to be admitted to reclaim it, without endangering the rights of others, the law of nature will not permit him to reclaim it. Why does the law of nature order all to respect this right of property in him who possesses it, if it be not for the peace, safety, and advantage of human society? Nature must then, from the same reason, require that every proprietor, who for a long time, and without any just reason, neglects his right, should be presumed to have entirely renounced and abandoned it. This forms the absolute presumption, or *juris et de jure*, of its being abandoned, and upon which another is legally entitled to appropriate the thing abandoned to himself. This presumption composes a title as firm and just as that of property itself, established and supported by the same reasons. The honest possessor, who had founded a presumption of this kind, has then a right approved by the law of nature; and this law,

which requires that the right of every one should be firm and certain, does not permit their being disturbed in their possession.

The right of ufucaption properly signifies, that the honest possessor is not obliged to suffer his property to be disputed; he proves this by his possession itself, and he repulses the demand of the pretended proprietor by prescription. Nothing can be more equitable than this rule. Prescription, being only founded on an absolute or lawful presumption, has no place, if the proprietor has not really neglected his rights. This condition implies: 1. That the proprietor cannot allege an invincible ignorance, either on his own part, or on that of his friends: 2. That he cannot justify his silence by lawful and solid reasons: 3. That he has neglected his right or kept silence during a considerable number of years. These remarks relate to ordinary prescription. Immemorial prescription, founded on immemorial possession, that is, on a possession, the origin of which is unknown or obscure, secures the possessor's right; and it cannot be taken from him.

Ufucaption and prescription, founded on the law of nature, form a part of the law of nations, and ought to take place between different states: for the law of nations is nothing but the application of the law of nature to nations, rendered, in a manner, suitable to the subject: and so far is the nature of the subject from forming here any exception, that ufucaption and prescription are much more necessarily used between sovereign states than between individuals. However, they are often more difficult in their application to nations, as these rights are founded on a prescription drawn from a long silence. The tranquillity of the people, the safety of states, the happiness of the human race, do not allow that the possessions, empire, and other rights of nations, should remain uncertain, subject to dispute, and always ready to occasion bloody wars. It is, therefore, necessary to admit between nations a prescription founded on a long interval of time, as a solid and incontestible method. Ufucaption and prescription being necessary to the tranquillity and happiness of human society, it is justly presumed that all nations have consented to admit the use of them as lawful and reasonable, with a view to the common advantage, and even to the particular benefit of each nation. Prescription of many years standing, as well as ufucaption, is therefore established by the voluntary law of nations. Vattel's Law of Nations, b. ii. ch. 11. See PRESCRIPTION.

USUFRUIT, *Ufus fructus*, in the *Civil Law*, the temporary use or enjoyment of any lands or tenements; or the right of receiving the fruits and profits of an inheritance, or other thing, without a power of alienating or changing the property thereof.

When the usufructuary dies, the usufruct returns to the proprietor. The dower of the jointure of a widow is only an usufructuary due; that is, she only enjoys the usufruct thereof, and cannot dispose of the principal.

All mutual presents between man and wife only import the usufruct of the goods of the first that dies, to the profit of the survivor. The incumbents of benefices are only usufructuary. An usufructuary has full right over the coppice, but he cannot fell timber-trees.

USUM, in *Geography*, a river of Romania, which runs into the Mariza, 4 miles S.E. of Assarli.

USURA *Maritime*, terms applied to contracts for the repayment of money borrowed, not on the ship and goods only, but on the mere hazard of the voyage itself; as when a man lends a merchant 100*l.* to be employed in a beneficial

cial trade, with condition to be repaid with extraordinary interest, in case such a voyage be safely performed. This kind of agreement is sometimes called *fœnus nauticum*. See *BOTTOMRY, and RESPONDIUM*.

USURER, a person charged with a habit or act of usury.

The laws of our ancient Saxon and Norman kings are very severe upon usurers, or letters-out of money upon interest. "Ufurarios quoque defendit rex Edwardus (Confessor), ne remaneret aliquis in toto regno suo; & si quis inde convictus esset, quod fœnus exegerat, omni substantia propria careret, & postea pro ex lege habeatur: quoniam usura radix omnium malorum." Leg. Edv. Confess. cap. 37.

They were, indeed, allowed to dispose of their goods before conviction, and whilst they were living; but after their death they were confiscated, if it could be proved they lent money to use within a year before their death.

If a clergyman were an usurer, his goods were not to be confiscated, but to be distributed to pious uses. In those days usury was thus defined:

"Est usura suos quisquis tradit mihi nummos
Spe lucri, fœnus duplex usura vocatur."

USURIOUS Contract is any bargain, or contract, where a man is obliged to pay more interest for money than the statute allows.

It is enacted by statute 13 Eliz. cap. 8. that all brokers shall be guilty of a *premunire*, who transact any usurious contract where more than ten per cent. interest is taken.

USURPATION, in *Law*, an injurious using or enjoyment of a thing for continuance of time, that belongs of right to another. See *TYRANNY*.

USURPATION, in a more peculiar sense, denotes an absolute ouster or dispossession of the patron of a church; and happens when a stranger, that hath no right, presenteth a clerk, and he is thereupon admitted and instituted. In which case of usurpation, the patron lost by the common law not only his turn of presenting *pro hac vice*, but also the absolute and perpetual inheritance of the advowson, so that he could not present again upon the next avoidance, unless in the mean time he recovered his right by a real action, viz. a writ of right of advowson. However, because bishops, in ancient times, either by carelessness or collusion, frequently instituted clerks upon the presentation of usurpers, and thereby defrauded the real patrons of their right of possession, it was in substance enacted by the statute Westm. 2. 13 Edw. I. cap. 5. sect. 2. that if a possessory action be brought within six months after the avoidance, the patron shall (notwithstanding such usurpation and institution) recover that very presentation which gives back to him the seisin of the advowson. Yet still, if the true patron omitted to bring his action within six months, the seisin was gained by the usurper, and the patron to recover it was driven to the long and hazardous process of a writ of right. To remedy which, it was further enacted by statute 7 Ann. cap. 18. that no usurpation shall displace the estate or interest of the patron, or turn it to a mere right; but that the true patron may present upon the next avoidance, as if no such usurpation had happened. So that the title of usurpation is now much narrowed, and the law stands upon this reasonable foundation, that if a stranger usurps my presentation, and I do not pursue my right within six months, I shall lose that turn without remedy, for the peace of the church, and as a punishment for my own negligence; but that turn is the only one I shall lose thereby. Usurpation now gains no right to the usurper, with regard to any future avoidance, but only

to the present vacancy: it cannot indeed be remedied after six months are past; but, during those six months, it is only a species of disturbance. Blackst. Comm. book iii.

USURPATION of Franchises and Liberties, is when a subject unjustly uses any royal franchises, &c. And this is said to be an usurpation upon the king, who shall have the writ of quo warranto against the usurpers.

USURY, **USURA**, in the general, denotes a gain or profit which a person makes of his money, by lending the same; or it is an increase of the principal exacted for the loan thereof; or the price a borrower gives for the use of a sum credited to him by the lender: called also *interest*, and in some ancient statutes, *dry exchange*. For lawful interest, see *INTEREST*.

The word usury is usually taken in an evil sense; viz. for an unlawful profit which a person makes of his money; in which sense it is, that usury is forbidden by the civil and ecclesiastical law, and even by the law of nature. In this sense it also is, that it is held usury to lend money on pawns, to exact interest for money, without surrendering the principal, and to stipulate interest for money which is not employed in trade, nor brings any profit to the person who receives it: but, as the Latin word *usura*, at least the plural of it, *usure*, may be understood of a lawful interest, *usury*, in English, might also be used in the same harmless sense.

Use or interest, by the civil law, is divided into *lucrative* and *compensatory*. *Lucrative* is, when it is paid where there hath been no advantage made by the debtor, and no delay or deceit in him: and this is condemned by the civil law. *Compensatory* is, when it is given, where the thing lent hath been advantageous to the debtor, and disadvantageous to the creditor that he was not sooner paid: and this is permitted by that law. Wood. Civ. L. 213.

And by the civil law (Swinburn tells us), a manifest usurer cannot make a testament; and though he make one, it is void in law concerning goods and chattels, unless he satisfy for the usury, or put in caution for satisfaction to be made. Swinb. 101.

And as manifest usurers are forbidden to make testaments themselves, or to dispose of their goods by their last wills; so are they forbidden to reap any benefit by the testament of others, or to be capable of any legacy of goods. Swinb. 376.

These are the anathemas of the popes, and not the rescripts of the emperors. (See Cod. 5. 5.) The punishment by the civil law was once a quadruple penalty, (L. 2. Cod. Theod. de Usuris,) but this seems to have been mitigated by Justinian, who contents himself with declaring that whatever is paid more than the legal interest, shall be accounted part of the principal. Cod. 4. 32. 26. Noodt, de Fœn. et Us. lib. 2. cap. 16.

By a constitution of Edmund archbishop of Canterbury; "We forbid any man to detain a pledge, after he hath received the principal out of the profits, after deduction of the expences, for this is usury." Lind. 160. The pledge in this case must be supposed to be lands, cattle, or such like, out of which a profit ariseth. Johnf.

And by Can. 109. If any offend their brethren by—usury; the churchwardens or questmen and siders, in the next presentments to their ordinaries, shall faithfully present every such offender, to the intent that he may be punished by the severity of the laws, according to his deserts; and such notorious offenders shall not be admitted to the holy communion, till they be reformed.

And in general, it is said, that by the ecclesiastical laws, if a man be a manifest usurer, not only his testament is void (as hath been said); but his body, after he is dead, is not

to be buried amongst the bodies of other Christian men, in any church or churchyard, until there be restitution or caution tendered, according to the value of such goods. Swinb. 102.

Most of the early fathers of the church have condemned usury in the strictest sense, *i. e.* any profit made of the loan of money, as contrary to the divine law. Alexander III. in the council of Lateran, prohibited the taking of all interest for money; and it has been observed, that Gregory IX. places the chapter of usury after that of theft. But the Mo-
saic law, though it forbade the Jews to take interest from their brethren, allowed them to take interest from strangers, or to borrow from them on the same terms; and that this law has not condemned the lending of money on interest as *malum in se*, and contrary to the law of nature and of nations, which many have thought, but merely prohibited it amongst the Jews, as dangerous in a political view, considering their itinerant and agricultural life, has been ably demonstrated by Noodt in his *Treatise de Fœnore et Usuris*, c. 10. and 11. (See INTEREST.) Nearly the same regulations obtained amongst the Romans in the infancy of the republic; but when commerce was introduced amongst them, the contract of lending money at a certain profit became frequent. The highest rate of legal interest among the Romans, from the time of Cicero and Justinian, was the *centesima* or twelfth part paid every month, amounting to 12 *per cent. per annum*; but the satirists inform us that some usurers exacted three, four, or even five times that profit. Justinian in his code fixed the legal rate of interest at 4, 6, 8, or 12 *per cent.* according to the station of the lender and the nature of the contract. (Cod. 4. 32. 26.) Various evasions of the laws, however, were practised at Rome, and some of these were not unknown to the canonists; for usurious profit might be secured under the contract of a sale and repurchase, or letting to hire, or might be stipulated for in consideration of the gain of the borrower, or of the loss which the lender suffered by the detention of his money. To these, modern money lenders have added the purchase of annuities, in which, as the purchaser risks his capital, he is allowed to take a greater share of interest, though this must be within equitable bounds. (Vaughan v. Thomas, 1 Bro. 556. Heathcote v. Paignon, 2 Bro. 167.) But if any of these transactions appear from circumstantial evidence to be merely the covering of an usurious contract, they are held to be within the statute of Ann. See *Chesterfield v. Janfen*, 2 Vesey, 125.

By the laws of king Alfred, it was ordained, that the chattels of usurers should be forfeited to the king, their lands and inheritances should escheat to the lords of the fee, and they should not be buried in the sanctuary. Swinb. 102. 1 Haw. 245.

Also it seems to have been the opinion of the makers of divers acts of parliament since the Reformation, that all kinds of usury are contrary to good conscience. 1 Haw. 245.

However, custom has now distinguished betwixt usury and legal interest; and appropriated the term usury to that which exceeds the interest determined by statute. The legal interest is five *per cent.* by 12 Anne, st. 2. cap. 16. commonly called the statute against usury, which ordains not only that all contracts for taking more than 5*l.* *per cent.* and proportionably for a greater or less sum, are in themselves totally void, but also that the lender shall forfeit treble the value of the money borrowed. And farther, if any scrivener or solicitor takes more than 5*l.* *per cent.* procuration money, or more than 1*l.* above the stamp duties for making a bond or bill for loan or forbearing thereof, or for any counter-bond or bill concerning the same, he shall for-

feit 2*l.* with costs, and shall suffer imprisonment for half a year.

As this act declares all usurious contracts void, the indorsee of a bill of exchange give nup on an usurious consideration cannot recover, although he had no notice of the usury; and had given a valuable consideration for the bill. (Low v. Waller, Doug. 736.) And if more than the principal and legal interest be paid, an action will lie to recover the surplus: *per* Ld. Mansfield, in *Smith v. Bromley*, 1b. 696.

In these days, a distinction seemeth to be made betwixt usury and legal interest: for what exceedeth the legal interest is properly usury; and he who exacteth it seemeth still to be punishable as an usurer. 1 Dom. 126.

And, upon the whole, it seemeth now to be generally agreed, that the taking of reasonable interest for the use of money is in itself lawful, and consequently that a covenant or promise to pay it, in consideration of the forbearance of a debt, will maintain an action. See INTEREST.

The usury laws have lately become a subject of parliamentary and public discussion; and an excellent treatise of Mr. Jeremy Bentham, of which a new edition was published in 1816, has claimed peculiar attention. The prejudices in which these laws had their foundation maintained their ground, notwithstanding the ruins of the mercantile system to which they naturally belong; and they soon derived support from an opinion in their favour, delivered by Dr. Smith, in a work which powerfully operated towards dispelling the other errors of the mercantile theory. Mr. Bentham was the first writer who openly and systematically attacked them; and this he did with such success, as to produce a general conviction of their injustice and impolicy. He ascribes, perhaps, too much importance to religious bigotry: to this purpose, he observes that the practice of self-denial was substituted at a very early period for active virtue; and as the greater the temptation the greater the merit, much virtue was arrogated to themselves by those who declined the use of means for making money, which was generally regarded as a favourite pursuit. Hence, he says, the obvious method of making wealth productive, by lending it for a profit, was proscribed as an illegal gratification; and besides, as the Jews were much addicted to this practice, and had the money-trade principally in their own hands, the Christians, very anxious to avoid their customs, deemed it peculiarly sinful. The authority of Aristotle had also great weight in determining the judgment and conduct. (See INTEREST.) Our author also remarks, that the natural antipathy of the spendthrift towards the saving man, arising from the envy with which he regards him, had no inconsiderable influence. To which it may be added, the feeling excited against a rich man, as the trader must always be compared with the borrower, and in favour of a poor one, by the very circumstance of the former making the latter pay for half, according to his necessities, and reaping a profit without any labour or even trouble on his own part. The reasons commonly alleged in justification of the laws against usury have been such as follows; the first is the prevention of prodigality. Mr. Bentham replies, that if this be a good work at all, it is at least a work of supererogation, but in reality, the restraints under consideration do not operate in this way. Would any man of sound mind think of giving six *per cent.* for the use of money, howsoever pressing his wants, if he could get it for five! Or, can a man, however prodigal, be prevented from selling all he can get rid of by sale, and pledging all which he cannot sell? Those who have security of any kind to offer the lender are not protected by the law; for the lender never makes his bargain upon a view of the borrower's character and habits, but

but of his security. If the spendthrift has no security to offer, how is he more likely to get money at a high than at a low rate? A friend is the only person likely to accommodate him, and he will not take more than the ordinary rate. Prodigals usually borrow money in moderate sums, at the usual rate, in various quantities; and when they can find a lender disposed to speculate, and obtain a compensation for the great risk of trusting them in the high profits of the transaction, such a person will neglect the prohibitions of the usury laws, and make the poor man pay so much more for the additional risk they make him run. Besides, the most certain road to ruin for all prodigals is to obtain goods upon credit, as long as their credit lasts, and here no law interferes.

The protection of indigence is another reason urged in behalf of these restraints: but it may be asked, Can any one rate of interest be adapted to every man's situation? To some it may be profitable to borrow even at ten per cent., whilst others may find six per cent. too high, compared with the sum in prospect, whereas the usury laws determine one standard of exigency for all. This arrangement operates, not in protecting, which is the pretext, but in crushing the indigent. If the protection of indigence were the object of these laws, they stop short of their pretended object: they without doubt prevent a poor man from borrowing at a high rate; but they take no means of compelling the rich to lend him at a lower rate.

A third reason alleged is the protection of simplicity. But how simple must that man be who gives more than he knows, or may easily learn to be necessary, for the use of money! Nothing may be more easily ascertained than the market rate of interest. It is to a very great degree invariable, and it is the same throughout the whole community. A simple man, or a man who is not very simple, may be deceived in other bargains; but in case of loans, the legislator neither does, nor can afford, him the least assistance. The unwary borrower has always the security in his own hands; and if he has been really over-reached, he can have no difficulty in obtaining redress. If, indeed, persons may be supposed to be so simple as to need protection in their money bargains, they are exposed to as great a danger in all their other transactions, in which no lawgiver ever dreamed of affording protection to simplicity.

As a fourth reason in favour of these restraints, it is alleged that a free access to the money-market tends to encourage projectors. Dr. Smith has very much contributed to the prevalence of this notion. He classifies projectors with prodigals; stigmatizes both as persons likely to waste the capital of the community, and approves of the *maximum* for its tendency to keep a portion of that capital out of their hands. We cannot, within our limits, do justice to Mr. Bentham's elaborate refutation of this dogma, and the exposition of the prejudices upon which it is founded.

The restraint, as he justly remarks, professing to fall upon rash, imprudent, useless schemers, does in fact fall upon such persons as, in the "pursuit of wealth, or even of any other object, endeavour, by the assistance of wealth, to strike into any channel of invention. It falls upon all such persons as, in the cultivation of any of those arts which have been by way of eminence termed *useful*, direct their endeavours to any of those departments in which their utility shines most conspicuous and indubitable; upon all such persons as, in the line of any of their pursuits, aim at any thing that can be called *improvement*; whether it consist in the production of any new article adapted to man's use, or in the meliorating the quality, or diminishing the expence,

of any of those which are already known to us. It falls, in short, upon every application of the human powers, in which ingenuity stands in need of wealth for its assistant."

It is indeed manifest, that, in this view, the usury laws are absurd, unless it be possible to distinguish, before trial, good from bad, that is, successful from losing projects; in which case, the law ought to fix a *maximum* for the loans to the one, and leave the other free access to the market,—which is plainly impossible. Those who are too prudent to risk their money upon an unpromising scheme, will risk it upon no scheme at all, but will lend only to established concerns. The temptation of higher profit than usual is absolutely necessary, to prevail upon capitalists to embark in new trades. The usury laws prevent, therefore, any capital from finding its way into those channels by way of loan, and directly discourage projects, that is, invention and improvement in all the arts of life; for, without discouraging the useful and the good, they cannot discourage the wild and the bad. Shall we then say, that the danger to the capital of the community, from a failure of certain schemes, is so alarming as to justify us in putting down all manner of schemes, as far as lies in our power? Let it only be remembered, that every thing valuable in civilized life is the fruit of schemes; that all we enjoy above the lot of savages, comes from arts that were once mere projects; and we shall not be disposed to condemn, in one sweeping sentence, every innovation. This is in truth to denounce, as rash and ill-grounded, (we use the author's forcible illustration,) all those projects by which our species has been successively advanced, from feeding upon acorns, and covering themselves with raw hides, to the state in which it at present stands. Whatever (as he says) is now the routine of trade, was, at its commencement, *project*; whatever is now *establishment*, was at one time *innovation*.—And why such fears, after all, of our being impoverished by failing schemes? Long before the existence of the usury laws, the prosperity of our race was running on in an accelerating course;—long before the statutes in this country, its wealth and general improvement was rapidly and constantly advancing. There were every now and then failures, and individual losses in consequence; still their proportion to the bulk of successful projects was trifling; and no one can maintain, that, since the restraints were imposed, the proportion has diminished. Were the law silent on this head, money would still be lent to projectors, by those most deeply interested in the prudent disposal of it. We may safely trust their discretion for its being kept out of desperate risks. No one, indeed, has ridiculed the over-anxiety of such regulations as pretend to save men's capital from injudicious application, more happily than Dr. Smith himself. It is the great text, of which his immortal work is the illustration, almost in all its pages; and in no passage is he more severe, than where he reprobates the intermeddling of government to prevent private imprudence. After remarking, that the number of prudent and successful undertakings is every where much greater than that of injudicious and unsuccessful ones; he administers the following memorable correction to rulers for their love of meddling, and we may observe, that it is quite as well merited by the promoters of the usury laws, as by any other class of legislators. "It is the highest impertinence and presumption, therefore, in kings and ministers to pretend to watch over the economy of private people, and to restrain their expence, either by sumptuary laws, or by prohibiting the importation of foreign luxuries. They are themselves always, and without exception, the greatest spendthrifts in the society. Let them look well after their own expence, and they

they may safely trust private people with theirs. If their own extravagance does not ruin the state, that of their subjects never will."

However presumptuous and impertinent it may be, says Mr. Bentham, for the sovereign to attempt in any way to check by legal restraints the *prodigality* of individuals; to attempt to check their *bad management* by such restraints, seems abundantly more so. To err in the way of prodigality is the lot, though, as you well observe, not of many men, in comparison of the whole mass of mankind, yet at least of any man: the stuff fit to make a prodigal of is to be found in every alehouse, and under every hedge. But even to err in the way of projecting is the lot only of the privileged few. Prodigality, though not so common as to make any very material drain from the general mass of wealth, is however too common to be regarded as a mark of distinction, or as a singularity. But the stepping aside from any of the beaten paths of traffic, is regarded as a singularity, as serving to distinguish a man from other men. Even where it requires no genius, no peculiarity of talent, as where it consists in nothing more than the finding out a new market to buy or sell in, it requires however at least a degree of courage, which is not to be found in the common herd of men. What shall we say of it, where, in addition to the vulgar quality of courage, it requires the rare endowment of genius, as in the instance of all those successful enterprizes by which arts and manufactures have been brought from their original nothing to their present splendour? Think how small a part of the community these must make, in comparison of the race of prodigals; of that very race, which, were it only on account of the smallness of its number, would appear too inconsiderable to you to deserve attention. Yet prodigality is essentially and necessarily hurtful, as far as it goes, to the opulence of the state: projecting, only by accident. Every prodigal, without exception, impairs, by the very supposition, if he does not annihilate, his fortune. But it certainly is not every projector that impairs his: it is not every projector that would have done so, had there been none of those wise laws to hinder him: for the fabric of national opulence—that fabric of which you proclaim, with so generous an exultation, the continual increase—that fabric, in every apartment of which, innumerable as they are, it required the reprobated hand of a projector to lay the first stone, has required some hands at least to be employed, and successfully employed. When, in comparison of the number of prodigals, which is too inconsiderable to deserve notice, the number of projectors of all kinds is so much more inconsiderable—and when from this inconsiderable number must be deducted, and then the inconsiderable proportion of successful projectors—and from this remainder again, all those who can carry on their projects without need of borrowing—think whether it be possible, that this last remainder could afford a multitude, the reducing of which would be an object deserving the interposition of government by its magnitude, even taking for granted that it were an object proper in its nature?

But we forbear, and proceed with the same admirable writer, to state the mischiefs which the usury laws create in all directions. The most obvious mischief is, the depriving many persons altogether of the loans of which they stand in need. A person having the means of supplying himself with money, and being also pressed by necessity, is precluded from all chance of obtaining it, unless he has still further means of meeting his wants by evading, at an additional cost, the laws in question. Had it not been for these laws, such a person might have relieved his wants with

ease: and he is one of those who have the greatest occasion for assistance, and the best claims to it. Since, by the supposition, they cannot do without the loan, and are both able and willing to pay the extraordinary rate of interest.

The next mischief is that which the law of usury inflicts upon those who have the means of giving, not only such an extraordinary rate of interest as the lenders, but for the restrictions, would be satisfied with, but somewhat more. These are not excluded altogether from the money market, like the former class; but the terms of the bargain are raised to them. Suppose they have nothing to sell, by which they can raise the money they want, then they must pay for the breach of the law, and this in two ways, both by giving a sufficient premium to the lender to make him run the extraordinary risk, and because the illegality of the trade keeps many dealers out of it, and by narrowing the competition, raises the profits. In the course of the last twenty years, a great trade has been driven in annuities, which admirably illustrates the operation of these laws, this being a perfectly legal mode of evading them, and yet one attended with ruinous expence to the borrower. The law has imposed a number of regulations upon such transactions, with the view of preventing them from becoming too easy a means of evading the usury laws. Those regulations increasing the risk of the lender, somewhat raise the price to the borrower. Then the nature of the transaction renders an insurance necessary upon the life of the borrower; and this is a large increase of price. Moreover, the number of lenders at usurious interest in the illegal way being narrowed by the competition, as all who are driven from this traffic do not necessarily resort to the line of annuities, the market is, notwithstanding the legal method of evasion, considerably narrowed. It has thus happened, that persons with excellent security, and who could easily have gotten loans at six and a half or seven *per cent.* but, for the law, are obliged to pay eight or nine, besides the insurance, or from ten to twelve in all; and this, not to private money-lenders, who exact much more, but to the great insurance-companies, who have fallen upon this way of employing their superfluous capital, tempted by the double gains of lenders and insurers.

Moreover, suppose now, that the laws have prevented a man from borrowing at seven *per cent.*, and that he has still goods which he can part with to raise the money. But for the law he might keep his goods; and nothing can prevent his selling them at an under price, according to his necessities. No one who has known any thing of sales made in distressed circumstances, will think a loss of thirty *per cent.* very extraordinary in such cases. To such a loss as this, the most exorbitant usury bears no proportion; yet this is exactly the premium which the distressed man is compelled to pay for money, by the law which says he shall not borrow at the rate of five and a half. The pressure upon proprietors of real estates is still more severe. Suppose a man comes into possession of an estate worth two hundred a-year, charged with a thousand pounds; and that the incumbrancer wishes to have his money rather than the legal interest, but would be satisfied with one or two *per cent.* above that rate;—at any rate, if he would not, some other certainly could be found to advance the money at that premium, upon the same security.

The last mischief occasioned by the usury laws is, perhaps, more important than all the rest; *viz.* the corrupting influence upon the morals of the people, by the pains they take, and, as Mr. Bentham observes, cannot but take, to give birth to treachery and ingratitude.

"To purchase," says the author, "a possibility of being enforced, the law neither has found, nor, what is very material, mult it ever hope to find, in this case, any other expedient, than that of hiring a man to break his engagement, and to crush the hand that has been reached out to help him. In the case of informers in general, there has been no truth plighted, nor benefit received. In the case of real criminals invited by rewards to inform against accomplices, it is by such *breach of faith* that society is held together, as in other cases by the *observance* of it. In the case of real crimes, in proportion as their mischiefousness is apparent, what cannot but be manifest even to the criminal is, that it is by the adherence to his engagement that he would do an injury to society, and, that by the breach of such engagement, instead of doing mischief he is doing good. In the case of usury this is what no man can know, and what one can scarcely think it possible for any man, who, in the character of the borrower, has been concerned in such a transaction, to imagine. He knew that, even in his own judgment, the engagement was a beneficial one to himself, or he would not have entered into it: and nobody else but the lender is affected by it."

It has been further alleged, that the laws against usury allow of transactions substantially usurious; and, indeed, that they cannot prevent these, without wholly putting a stop to the course of trade. Some of the most ordinary occurrences in commerce, are in their nature usury. The practice of drawing and redrawing, by which merchants are accommodated with money for a short time, at a certain commission over and above the five per cent., and then for as much longer, until they pay ten, twelve, and more per cent. during the whole year, is only a more cumbrous and expensive method of borrowing above the legal rate of interest. But other well-known lines of traffic, though apparently more remote from usury, are not less closely connected with it:—pawn-broking, bottomry, and repondentia, will immediately occur to the reader. Nay, insurance in all its branches, and the purchase and sale of *post-obits*, with all cases in which a man is allowed to undertake an unlimited risk for an unlimited premium, are in their principle usurious transactions. Of these, the most notorious is the traffic in annuities; which, accordingly, has been found to be the easiest and safest mode of evading the usury laws, although we have already shewn how greatly it increases the rate of interest. For further particulars we must refer to the Treatise above cited; and also to the Edinburgh Review, N° liv.

USUS, in Roman Catholic times, was a term for the particular manner of performing the cathedral service; as almost every diocese had its own plain-chant, or at least differed in performing some parts of the mass from the rest. The *Ufe of Salisbury, Secundum ufum Sarum*, was the most general.

USWAY, in *Geography*, a river of Northumberland, which runs into the Coquet.

USZCZA, a town of Poland; 25 miles E. of Cracow.

USZTERNIA, a town of European Turkey, in the province of Servia; 25 miles S. of Jenibafar.

USZOMER, a town of Russian Poland, in Volhynia; 70 miles N.W. of Kiev.

USZTAN-UTAR, a town of Charafm; 250 miles N. of Urkonje.

UT; a Latin term, signifying, literally, *as*; much used in the stating of ratios and proportions.

Sir Isaac Newton assigns its use thus: if indeterminate quantities of divers kinds be compared together, and one of them be said to be *ut, as*, any other, directly, or inversely; the meaning is, that the first is increased, or diminished, in

the same ratio as the latter. And if one of them be said to be, *ut, as*, two or more others, directly, or inversely; the meaning is, that the first is increased, or diminished, in a ratio compounded of the ratios in which the others are increased or diminished.

Thus if A be said to be *as B* directly, and *as C* directly, and *as D* inversely; the meaning is, it is increased, or diminished, in the same ratio with $B \times C \times \frac{1}{D}$; that is, A

and $\frac{BC}{D}$ are to each other in a given ratio.

UT, the name of the first sound in each of the hexachords of Guido. By transpositions, *ut* (or *do*) is the key-note in solfima of all major keys, and the mediant or 3d in minor keys.

This note, with the rest, were taken out of the hymn of St. John the Baptist, composed about the year 770, in the time of Charlemagne, according to Possevin, by Paulus Diaconus of Aquileia. *Ut quant laxis*, &c. See Music.

UTAJARVI, in *Geography*, a town of Sweden, in the government of Ulea; 28 miles S.E. of Ulea.

UTAMANIA, in *Ornithology*, the name of a bird of the web-footed kind, wanting the hinder-toe. It is common about the island of Crete, and is very expert at diving. It is of the size of a teal, and has its head and back black, and its belly white. Its feathers resemble down rather than plumage; but though they are soft and slender, they are very firmly affixed to the skin. Its beak is sharp at the edges, and covered in a great part with down. From the description of Bellonius, as well as his figure, this bird approaches to the common razor-bill, if it is indeed essentially different from it.

UTAS, OCTAVA, in our *Statutes*, the eighth day following any feast or term, as the *ut as* of St. Michael, &c. And any day between the feast and the octave is said to be within the utas. The use of this is in the return of writs, as appears by stat. 51 Hen. III.

UTAWAS, or UTWAS, in *Geography*, a river of Canada, which joins the St. Lawrence, near lake St. Francis.

UTENDORF, a town of the county of Henneberg; 4 miles N.E. of Meiningen.

UTENSIL, UTENSILE, a little domestic moveable, particularly such as belong to the kitchen. Such as pots, pans, plates, &c.

UTENSILS are more particularly used in war, for the moveables which the host is obliged to furnish the soldiers quartered with him; which are a bed with bed-cloaths, a pot, and a spoon. They are likewise to have a place at their host's fire, and candle. Utensils are sometimes furnished in money, and sometimes in kind.

UTERINE, in *Anatomy*, an epithet applied to various parts belonging to the uterus; as its arteries, veins, &c. The uterine portion of the placenta is the part immediately adhering to the uterus. See EMBRYO, and GENERATION.

UTERINE, *Falus extra*. It sometimes happens that the fecundated or impregnated ovum, instead of falling from its calyx into the fimbriated end of the corresponding Fallopian tube, (see CONCEPTION,) and thence descending into the uterus, its natural nidus, either continues adherent to the ovary, and is there nourished and increased; or, separating from the ovary, and missing the mouth of the tube, falls into the cavity of the abdomen, and adhering to the mesentery, or some of the bowels, absorbs and takes its nourishment from thence; or, lastly, having entered one of the Fallopian tubes, and not able, from the straightness of the passage, to pass on to the uterus, it is there detained and nourished.

nourished. In this case, it frequently happens that after the ovum has attained the size of a hen's or a goose's egg, the sides of the tube (not being able to bear further distension) burst, and hæmorrhage from the ruptured vessels ensuing, the woman dies. De Graaf and Santorinus have each of them related a case of this kind that fell under their notice (see *Obi. Anatom. J. D. Santorini*, 4to. p. 225.), and have given engravings, representing the appearance of the parts on dissection. In which it is remarkable, that though the fœtus, in neither case, had reached the uterus, yet that viscous had increased, and its cavity was distended, nearly to the same size it would have been if the fœtus had been there. But when the ovum is not restricted in its growth by the straightness of the place where it happens to be deposited, or is not blighted and destroyed by any other cause, it continues increasing, and the inclosed fœtus grows, and attains nearly the same size it would have done if it had been lodged in the uterus, and at the end of nine months, the usual term of gestation, the woman has pains similar to those of labour; but as there is no opening by which the fœtus can be excluded after she has been tormented with pains for some days, they cease, and the child dies. If the cyst or bag in which the ovum is contained happens to be placed in a part not very susceptible of pain, it may remain in a quiescent state many weeks, months, or even years, without occasioning much disturbance to the woman, and the fœtus, with its involucre, attain a cartilaginous consistence. It more frequently happens, however, that the fœtus becoming putrid soon after death, and the flesh dissolving, the now denuded bones, pressing against the cyst, excite inflammation and pain in the parts of the woman to which it is contiguous, which at length suppurating, or sloughing away, an opening is made either externally, through the muscles and teguments of the abdomen, or internally, through the coats of the bowels, and the bones of the fœtus are either voided with the stools, or through the abscess in the abdomen. Women after these distressing circumstances, during which their sufferings have been extreme, not unfrequently recover a good state of health, and live many years.

In these cases, though art can do but little, yet some assistance may be occasionally given. When the cyst has opened internally into the bowels, after the discharge of the putrid colluvies, into which the soft parts of the child has been dissolved, the bones begin to come away; and if one of them should lie across the rectum, occasioning violent straining and pain, by passing a finger into the gut, the position of the bone may be altered, and its exit promoted. The passage of the bones may also be facilitated, and the pain occasioned by them alleviated, by injecting emollient glysters, to which it may be sometimes useful to add thirty or forty drops of the tincture of opium. When the abscess is external, its suppurating may be promoted by poultices, or the aperture, after it has burst, may be enlarged with a lancet or knife, and the bones taken out with a pair of forceps. When the fœtus makes its exit through the bowels or vagina, it may sometimes be many weeks, months, or even years, before the bones are completely evacuated; but when the opening is external, through the parietes of the abdomen, the whole process is usually over, and the abscess healed in the space of a few weeks.

Ordinarily there are no symptoms, in the early months of pregnancy particularly, by which we may suspect the fœtus not to be in the uterus. The menses cease, and there is the same nausea, sickness, and fullness of the breasts, as in natural conception or pregnancy. The uterus increases in bulk, and its cavity enlarges, though not to the same extent

as when the fœtus is included. At the end of the period of gestation, pains are excited so like to those in a natural labour, as to deceive for a time even experienced practitioners.

Many cases of this kind have been recorded by medical writers, besides those mentioned by De Graaf and Santorinus. The following account of a fœtus of six months, which was voided entire by the anus, is taken from Mr. William Giffard's Collection of Cases in Midwifery, No 157, published by Dr. Edward Hody, in 4to. 1734. The woman died a few days after the exclusion of the fœtus, and was opened by Mr. Giffard, assisted by Mr. Nourie, one of the surgeons to Bartholomew's hospital, in the presence of Dr. Dodd, physician to the same hospital. The parts were exhibited to the Royal Society, and drawings of them taken, under the direction of Sir Hans Sloane, the president. From them two engravings were executed, which are published with the volume.

The ovum appears not to have completely left the ovary, which, with the fimbriated end of the Fallopian tube, and the ligamentum latum of the right side, appear to be confusedly joined together, and each of them contributing towards forming the facculus, or bag, containing the ovum. The fœtus had been perfect, but was beginning to be putrid. It was of the size fœtuses usually are at six months. It is not delineated. The woman had the usual signs of breeding, and at the proper time felt the motion of the child, which increasing, and by its weight sinking down behind the uterus, and dragging the fundus of that viscus with it, at length, by its pressure on the rectum, occasioned inflammation, and a portion of the rectum, and of the bag sloughing off, the fœtus fell into the gut, and was voided by the anus.

The uterus was not examined, but it appears by the drawing to have been of a larger size than it is usually seen to be in women who are not pregnant, and if it had been opened, the cavity would doubtless have been found proportionably increased.

De Graaf, in his work "De Organis Mulierum," p. 252. tab. 21, has given a delineation of an ovum that was detained in one of the Fallopian tubes, from Vesalius, who dissected the body of the woman. The embryo was between three and four months old, when the sides of the tube giving way, the woman died. Vesalius thought the cavity in which the ovum had been retained was a second uterus.

Ciprianus, in a letter to Dr. Millington, president of the college of physicians, London, has given the case of an extraordinary fœtus that had continued in the abdomen of its mother twenty-one months. He extracted it by enlarging the opening of an imposthume that had broken naturally. The letter is dated Leyden, 1707.

Straussius gives an account of a woman, aged sixty-three years, who died in consequence of a fall. She had, for twenty years previous to her death, complained of a pain and swelling in the middle and lower part of the abdomen. On opening the body, a fœtus was found perfectly formed, but of the hardness of stone. "Cutifera faxi in modum dura," he says, "Caput erat malleo frangendum, &c." Laur. Straussii Resolutio casus Multiparanti fœtus extra uterum, &c." p. 39.

UTERINE Hæmorrhages. See FLOODING.

In this dangerous disorder the styptic powder of Helvetius is much recommended: and the stibium ceratum has also been tried with great success. See VITRUM antimonii ceratum.

In the Stockholm Acts, 1770, there are several cases of uterine hæmorrhages cured by a third or half a grain of ipecacuanha, rubbed with sugar, given every four hours or oftener.

oftener. In one case, the hæmorrhage returned on discontinuing the medicine, and ceased on repeating it. These small doses had good effects in catarrhal coughs, even in those which attend consumptions; and if not beneficial, are at least not hurtful, in bloody coughs, in which vomiting has several times been observed to come on, without any increase of the hæmorrhage. They may be useful in peripneumony and pleurisy, in which cough is often the most troublesome symptom, and in which seneka root (which in increased doses proves also emetic) has been so much recommended.

UTERINE Brothers or Sisters are those born of the same mother, but by different fathers.

UTERINUM JECUR. See JECUR.

UTERINUS, FUROR, in *Medicine*. See FUROR.

Men are subject to the like disease, as well as women; so that it might with more propriety be called, the *furor veneræ*, or venereal fury. It had its name, *furor uterinus*, from an opinion, that it proceeded from vapours, rising from the womb to the brain.

It has been frequently found, that maids, supposed to be possessed, were only seized with uterine fury.

UTERINUS Lapis, in *Natural History*, a name given by some authors to a stone found in New Spain, and in some other parts of America; it is very hard and heavy, of a beautiful black, and capable of a very elegant polish. The natives cut it into various shapes, and apply it to the navel in diseases of the womb, and pretend that it possesses very great virtues.

UTERUS, in *Anatomy*, the womb, the organ in which the embryo is received from the ovarium, to which it becomes adherent so as to receive the materials of its growth, and in which it is retained for a longer or shorter time in various species, until its expulsion in the process of parturition. A proper uterus belongs only to the mammalia; oviparous generation, under various modifications, is found in the other classes, and the female organ is therefore reduced to a mere canal (oviduct) for the transmission of the ova. See GENERATION. See also CONCEPTION, GESTATION, and EMBRYO.

UTERUS, *Inversion of*. Sometimes the uterus descends through the os tincæ into the vagina, and occasionally quite out of the vulva. The first case is termed the *incomplete*; the second, the *complete* inversio uteri. In the latter, the vagina is also drawn downward, and inverted, so that the whole tumour, situated before the parts of generation, seems to hang by a pedicle, composed of the inverted vagina. Between this pedicle and the labia, there is no interstice which will admit a probe. The outer surface of the tumour is, in fact, the lining of the uterus itself.

It being obvious, that the fundus uteri cannot descend through the os tincæ, unless this aperture be considerably dilated, it follows, that an inversio uteri can only happen just after delivery; and one common cause of the accident is, the unskilful employment of force in the extraction of the placenta. Polypi, growing from the fundus uteri, however, are particular cases, in which the inversion of this organ may take place from its being drawn downwards by the weight of such tumours.

Great pain, inflammation, tumefaction, and hæmorrhage, are the usual consequences of an inversion of the uterus. Even mortification, convulsions, and death may result from the complete form of the disease, especially when it has occurred in a very sudden manner.

The reduction of an inverted uterus ought to be attempted without the least delay. The longer the operation is deferred,

the more difficult it becomes; for, in these cases, pain, inflammation, and swelling, generally come on with great rapidity. If inflammation should already prevail, there are some practitioners, who think it best to apply leeches and fomentations to the swelling, before undertaking its reduction. It is certain, however, that very little time should be allotted to any proceedings, before endeavouring to reduce the part, which can hardly be kept from inflaming more and more, the longer it remains out of its natural situation. Leeches, fomentations, and even venesection, must, however, be highly proper, whenever the first attempts at reduction do not immediately succeed.

In very old cases, in which the fundus uteri has suffered long compression in the vagina, such an alteration takes place in the shape and structure of the uterus, that the inversion is totally incurable; and all that can then be done is to restrain its further descent by means of a pessary.

The uterus, besides being inverted, may also be in a scirrhus, or actually cancerous state. In this circumstance, the propriety of amputating the diseased organ has been established by several precedents recorded in the annals of surgery. Yet the prudence and utility of this operation must very much depend upon, whether the uterus is the only part affected with the disease; whether the lymphatic glands in the groin and within the abdomen are found; and whether the general state of the patient is such as to justify a rational hope of recovery.

UTERUS, *Polypi of*. See POLYPUS.

UTERUS, *Procidencia* or *Prolapsus of*. See PROLAPUS Uteri.

UTERUS, *Retroversion of*. See RETROVERSIO Uteri.

UTERUS, *Rupture of*. This accident may happen in any kind of labour; the cause of it is probably the uterus being thinner and weaker in some part than is usual, particularly near to its union with the vagina, that being found to be the most common seat of the accident. That it is not occasioned by any peculiar disease of the uterus, is probable, as there are no symptoms occurring during pregnancy from which we might judge it to be likely to happen, but in the course of the labour, an hour or two before the accident takes place, the women complain of an exceedingly acute pain in some part of their bellies. At the moment of the rupture, they feel that something has given way within them. The labour-pains cease; and if the head of the child has not passed the veins of the pelvis, it recedes, and gradually gets out of the reach of the fingers. Vomiting, paleness of the face, sighing, and a cold sweat, shewing the magnitude of the disaster, succeed. The pulse becomes weak, quick, and scarcely perceptible; and at the end of twenty-four, thirty-six, or forty-eight hours the woman dies.

If the person attending is competent to the business, it is right to follow the child with his hand through the rent in the uterus, into the abdomen, and to bring it away by its feet. This is not done so much with a view to preserve the life of the woman, who almost inevitably perishes, as to save the child, which, if the operation is immediately performed, may often be done. The late Dr. Andrew Douglas relates the history of one case in which the woman was also saved. It is the only case of the kind on record, or perhaps that ever occurred. To give the woman this chance, the operation must be performed immediately, for as the uterus is found speedily to contract, and diminish the aperture, to attempt it after that has taken place, would be to reopen the wound, to renew the hæmorrhage, and consequently to hasten the death of the woman.

UTERUS *of fish*. Among the fish kinds, all those which

are oviparous have no uterus; but, on the contrary, all the viviparous fishes have this part. The whales, and all the cetaceous kinds, as also many of the cartilaginous ones, have the uterus very fair. It is probable that the eel kind also have it; but this is less certain, the generation of those fishes being yet somewhat obscure. The uterus in the cetaceous fishes is always divided into two proceffes or horns; but in the cartilaginous ones it is divided into two glandulous bodies, which are pervious, and, according to the opinion of Needham, discharge a whitish liquor into the womb, and are of great use in gravitation.

UTERI, *cornua*, are also called horns of the womb.

UTERI, *hydrops*. See DROPSY.

UTERI, *vagina*, or *cervix*. See those articles.

UTFANGTHER, in our *Law-Books*. See OUTFANTHERE.

UTHINA, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of the interior of Africa Propria, between Tabraca and the river Bagrada. It had the title of a colony.

UTHISIA, a town of Africa, in Numidia.

UTHLEDE, in *Geography*, a town of the duchy of Bremen; 23 miles N.N.W. of Bremen.

UTICA, (*Boothatter*), in *Ancient Geography*, a maritime town of Africa, between Carthage and the promontory of Apollo. It was a colony of Tyrians, and named by the Greeks *ΤΥΡΗΝ*, *Itica*. This town, by its magnitude and dignity, was inferior only to Carthage; and after the destruction of this city, it became the capital of the province. According to Strabo, it was situated upon the same gulf with Carthage. Augustus granted the title of Roman citizens to its inhabitants. It is often mentioned in the history of the civil war of Cæsar; and it became still more famous by the death of Cato. On its seite are found old walls, a very large aqueduct, cisterns, and other vestiges of edifices, which announce a large and magnificent city. To the S.W. of these ruins may be seen spacious fields, which the Romans rendered famous by their military exercises. Boothatter, by the accumulation of mud brought down by the river Bagrada, is now about 7 miles from the sea.

UTICA, in *Geography*, a flourishing incorporated post-village of New York, the commercial capital of the great western district of this state, situated on the S. bank of the Mohawk, 93 miles W. of Albany, in the town of White-town, Oneida county. It stands on the seite of Old Fort Schuyler, 13 miles N.E. of Rome, anciently Fort Stanwix, and is handsomely laid out in streets, squares, &c., and was incorporated as a village in 1798, and again in 1805. Although Utica is small in area, it contains a population of 1700 persons, and has 300 houses and stores, a Presbyterian and an Episcopal church, a grammar-school, &c. Besides these buildings it has many others, with mills, factories, shops of mechanics, printing-offices, and large book-stores. Weekly papers are published here, and widely circulated through the surrounding country. The Manhattan bank has established a bank at Utica, and in 1812 it obtained a charter for a bank, with a capital of one million of dollars. The soil is fertile, and the situation healthy and pleasant. This village is the central point for all the principal avenues of communication by common roads and turnpikes, and forms the key of trade and travel between the western country and Atlantic ports and towns. N. lat. 43° 6'. W. long. 1° 12' from New York.

UTICNA, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Africa Propria, situated to the S. of Adrumetum.

UTIDAVA, a town of Dacia. Ptolemy.

UTIDORSI, a people of Asiatic Scythia, upon the

coast of the Caspian sea, towards the river Cyrus. Pliny.

UTIEL, in *Geography*, a town of Spain, in New Castile; 48 miles S.E. of Cuença.

UTII, in *Ancient Geography*, a people who were Persians, or subjects or allies of the Persians. They had for their commandant, in conjunction with the Myci, Arfarnenes, son of Darius, according to Herodotus. From various circumstances, it has been inferred that the Outians or Utians of Herodotus are the Uxians of Strabo and Ptolemy.

UTIKON, or OETIKON, in *Geography*, a town of Switzerland, in the canton of Zurich; 12 miles N.E. of Zurich.

UTILA, an island in the gulf of Honduras, about 30 miles from the coast; about 15 miles long, and 5 broad. N. lat. 16° 4'. W. long. 87° 45'.

UTILE, a Latin term, signifying probable, or useful; sometimes used, by English authors, in the same sense.

The *utile* and the *dulce*, profit and delight, are both to be aimed at in poetry; but it is disputed, which of them is to be aimed at in the first place. Corneille says, expressly, " Dans la tragedie l'utile n'entre que sous la forme du delectable."

In the language of the philosophers, there is nothing *utile*, but what is just and honest: *nihil bonum, nisi honestum: nihil malum, nisi turpe*. Cic. de Fin. lib. ii.

UTILE Dominium. See DOMINIUM.

UTILITY, in *Moral Philosophy*, is the tendency of any action to promote the general happiness. According to archdeacon Paley, actions are to be estimated by their tendency. Whatever is expedient is right: and it is the utility of any moral rule alone which constitutes the obligation of it, and this is the criterion of right. On this subject, see OBLIGATION, *Moral Philosophy*, and VIRTUE.

UTILLO, in *Geography*, a town of the island of Cuba; 50 miles S.S.E. of Havana.

UTINA, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of ancient Venetia, now Ondina.

UTIS, a river of Italy, or rather of Gallia Cisalpina.

UTKINSKAIA, or UTKINSKOI, in *Geography*, a town of Russia, in the province of Ekaterinburg, on the Tchufovaia; 36 miles N.W. of Ekaterinburg.

UTLAGARIE PERDONATIO. See PERDONATIO.

UTLAGATIO, in *Law*, an outlawry.

UTLAGATO *capiendo*, *quant. utlagatur in uno comitatu, & postea fugit in alium*, a writ for apprehending a man who is outlawed in one county, and flies into another. See OUTLAWRY.

UTLAGATUM CAPIAS. See CAPIAS.

UTLAGH, UTLAGHUS. See OUTLAW.

UTLAND, *Outland*, is opposed to *Inland*.

UTLARY, or UTLAWRY, UTLAGARIA. See OUTLAWRY.

UTNEMSKOI, in *Geography*, a town of Russia, in the province of Utiug, on the Vitcheгда. N. lat. 62° 56'. E. long. 54° 14'.

UTON, an island near the east coast of Sweden, in the Baltic. N. lat. 58° 57'. E. long. 18° 5'.

UTPHA, a town of Germany, in the principality of Solms Laubach, on the Horlof; 2 miles S.W. of Hungen.

UTRACH, a town of Austria; 7 miles N. of St. Wolfgang.

UTRAQUISTE, in *Church History*, an appellation given by way of reproach to those in Bohemia who communicate under both species, bread and wine.

UTRECHT, in *Geography*, a department of Holland, late one of the Dutch States, which, excepting in one small

small strip of land to the northward, and bordering on the Zuyder See, is wholly environed by Holland and Guelderland: it enjoys a good air, and in most parts the soil is very fruitful; to the eastward it is indeed a high and sterile country, consisting either of sandy hills or small eminences, which are in general over-run with wood; and westward the country perfectly resembles Holland, being for the most part rich meadow, though in many parts full of turf grounds.

UTRECHT, a city of Holland, and capital of the state or department so called; in Latin, *Ultrajctum*, *Trajctum Inferius*, *Trajctum Utrienfium*, *Antonina Civitas*, which last name was given it from Antoninus, a Roman senator, by whom it was built, in the time of Nero; and *Trajctum ad Rhenum*, to distinguish it from Maastricht, which was called *Trajctum ad Mosam*. It is a handsome, large, and rich city, situated on the ancient Rhine. The Wiltes ruined it, and left nothing but the castle, which they called *Wilttenbourg*. In the year 718, Clotaire king of France rebuilt it, and first called it Utrecht, from the word *Trecht*, which signifies passage, because it was the grand passage over the Rhine, before that river had changed its bed. It was enlarged, and surrounded with walls, about the year 934, by Balderic de Cleves, the fifteenth bishop. Its figure is oval, and it is about four miles in circumference, besides four large faubourgs; but though fortified with some bastions and half-moons, it is not strong. The emperor Charles V. when he became master of the signiory and city of Utrecht, in the year 1529, built a chateau, which he called *Vrebourg*, or the *Château of Peace*; and in the year 1546, celebrated a chapter of the order of the Golden Fleece in the cathedral church, when Maximilian king of Bohemia, and afterwards emperor, Cosmo duke of Florence, Albert duke of Bavaria, Emanuel Philibert duke of Savoy, and eighteen other lords, were intalled knights. The dome, or the cathedral church, it is said, was first built in the year 630, by king Dagobert I., and St. Willebrord made it an abbey church, and soon after it became a cathedral. The height of the tower is 380 feet, and from the top in a clear day fifteen or sixteen cities may be seen. The cathedral was at first dedicated to St. Thomas, afterwards to St. Martin. The church of Notre-Dame, commonly called *Buur-Kerech*, and English church, has a small library, which contains some ancient manuscripts; the other parishes are St. James, St. Nicholas, and St. Gertrude. It has likewise hospitals for orphans, foundlings, &c. Before the Reformation, it had many religious houses. The magistracy is composed of a grand bailli, two burgomasters, twelve echevins, a treasurer, an intendant of buildings, a president, three commissioners of finances, and a senator, which are changed every year on the 12th of October, and assemble in the town-house, which is a handsome structure. The principal streets are cut through with canals, two of which run through the whole city, namely, the Vaert, and the new Gracht, over which there are thirty-five bridges. These are the principal canals of the town, and the buildings on the banks of the new Gracht are magnificent. The market-place is very large, and the centre of several handsome streets. The houses are of brick, and many of them stately; they have in general good cellars, which they cannot have in the state of Holland, the ground there being too marshy. Without the town there are beautiful rows of trees, to which the English have given the name of the Mall, by reason of their having some resemblance to St. James's Park. This place was the seat of an archbishop, before it fell into the Protestants' hands, and had four

collegiate churches, two commanderies, and several abbeys, which have been all secularized by the States, and applied to other uses. As it stands in a very healthful air, it is frequented by persons of distinction, who have very fine houses in this city. The university, which has been very famous, was originally only a public school, founded by David of Burgundy, bishop of Utrecht; but in the year 1636, it was converted into an university by the States. The university is subject to the magistrates of the city, and has not many privileges. The students wear their ordinary drefs, and board in private houses in the town, for there are scarcely any endowed colleges in Holland. Here the states of the province assemble to take cognizance of the affairs of the whole province. There is a public library, well stocked with books in all branches of learning. The town is famous for the treaty of union, signed in 1579, between the Seven Provinces, which laid the foundation of the republic; as likewise for the treaty of peace, signed here in 1713, between France and the Grand Allies. Utrecht gave birth to pope Adrian VI., whose house they always shew to foreigners; and to the celebrated Ann Mary Schurman, so admired in the last century for her learning; 18 miles S.S.E. of Amsterdam. N. lat. 52° 6'. E. long. 5° 11'.

UTRECHT, a township of New York, in Long island.

UTRERA, a town of Spain, in the province of Seville. It contains two parishes, four hospitals, and eight convents; near it is a salt spring; 21 miles S. of Seville.

UTRICULARIA, in *Botany*, so named by Linnæus, from the numerous little bladders, *utriculi*, which often accompany the leaves, and serve to float the plant.—Linn. Gen. 14. Schreb. 19. Willd. Sp. Pl. v. 1. 111. Mart. Mill. Dict. v. 4. Vahl Enum. v. 1. 194. Sm. Fl. Brit. 28. Prodr. Fl. Græc. Sibth. v. 1. 11. Brown Prodr. Nov. Holl. v. 1. 430. Pursh 15. Ait. Hort. Kew. v. 1. 45. Epit. 376. Juss. 98. Poir. in Lamarck Dict. v. 8. 267. Lamarck Illust. t. 14.—Clafs and order, *Diandria Monogynia*. Nat. Ord. *Corydalis*, Linn. *Lychniæ affinis*, Juss. *Lentibularia*, Richard and Brown.

Gen. Ch. *Cal.* Perianth inferior, of two equal, ovate, concave, small, mostly undivided, permanent leaves. *Cor.* of one petal, ringent: upper lip flat, obtuse, erect; lower larger, flat, undivided; its palate heart-shaped, more or less prominent between the lips. Nectary a simple or double spur, protruding from the base of the petal behind. *Stam.* Filaments two, inserted into the base of the corolla, very short, incurved; anthers small, cohering together. *Pist.* Germen superior, globose; style thread-shaped, the length of the calyx; stigma conical, sometimes divided. *Peric.* Capsule large, globose, of one cell. *Seeds* numerous, small, attached to a large globular receptacle.

Eff. Ch. Corolla ringent, spurred. Calyx of two equal leaves. Capsule superior, of one cell.

A very curious and elegant genus, of herbaceous, stemless, aquatic or bog plants, found in various parts of the world, but perhaps more numerous in New Holland than in any other country. Linnaeus in the 14th edition of his Syst. Veg. has but nine species in all. Willdenow has eleven, Vahl thirty-four, Poir. thirty-six. Three are found in Britain; nine, according to Mr. Pursh, in North America. But Mr. Brown defines twenty-four *Utricularia*, natives of New Holland alone. Of these several were detected by Sir Joseph Banks and Dr. Solander. We have heard the former of these eminent botanists relate, that almost every morning's walk afforded them a new *Utricularia*; but the delicate flowers were generally so frail and transient, or the distinctive characters of the species so difficult to de-

fine, that several of these beautiful novelties were necessarily left undetermined. Any botanist possessed of an extensive herbarium, cannot fail to acknowledge that he is reduced to the same necessity; for Vahl, who has given the best general account of the species of this genus, confesses that he had seen many more, that were undoubtedly distinct, but for which he could not hit upon specific characters, such being scarcely discernible in dried specimens. None of these plants appear capable of cultivation, at least none have as yet been introduced into gardens. Vahl distributes them into four sections, which we shall adopt, with such additions and corrections as we are enabled to attempt. Our kind friend Dr. Afzelius has supplied several apparently new species from Sierra Leone, which, as far as possible, we shall try to reduce to order. It is very probable, especially as the whole genus is more or less aquatic, that the same species may occur in the old and new continent, or other widely distant countries. But as we find not a single instance of this kind recorded, we shall not venture to refer any of our unknown species, from one quarter of the globe, to the descriptions of any found in another. The Guinea species, for instance, we must presume to be all different from those of New Holland, or of South America. The herbarium of the younger Linnaeus contains perhaps eight species, without any indication of their native country, or any mark whatever. These must of course be omitted, as they may possibly be New Holland species, communicated, like many other plants, to their late possessor, by his friend Solander; and it would be too precarious to refer them, by examination in their dried and imperfect condition, to any of Mr. Brown's descriptions, however excellent the latter may be with a reference to living plants. Vahl has a numerous section, fifteen species, said to have no leaves. Such indeed is the frequent appearance of many of the plants, in the dried state, in which alone he had an opportunity of examining them. But Mr. Brown, who saw so many alive, mentions none that are truly leafless, though he says the foliage is often deciduous in those with undivided leaves. There is great likelihood, therefore, that several of Vahl's last section may properly belong to his first; as proves to be the case with his *uliginosa*, asserted by Mr. Brown to be either *graminisfolia*, or *cyanea*, he could not positively say which. For the rest we can only trust to his opinion or observation.

SECT. 1. *Leaves radical, simple.*

1. *U. alpina*. Alpine Bladderwort. Linn. Sp. Pl. 25. Willd. n. 1. Poir. n. 1. (*U. montana*; Jacq. Amer. 7. t. 6. "*U. unifolia*; Fl. Peruv. v. 1. 20. t. 30. f. b.")—Nectary awl-shaped. Stalk mostly single-flowered. Roots tuberous. Leaves elliptic-lanceolate. Lips of the corolla nearly equal.—Gathered by Jacquin, on the loftiest mountains of the island of Martinico, in wet exposed situations, flowering in February. *Root* fibrous, furnished with many small elliptical knobs. *Leaves* two, radical, stalked, acute, entire, an inch and a half long, smooth, shining, rather fleshy. *Flower-stalks* solitary, simple, erect, smooth, six inches high, bearing two opposite *bracteas*, and one, sometimes two, large handsome *flowers*, above an inch in diameter, whose *corolla* is white, the *calyx* and *nectary* only being slightly tinged with yellow. *Jacquin*. This seems to have the largest *flower* of any known species, except the following.

2. *U. montana*. Mountain Bladderwort. Poir. n. 2.—Nectary conical, acute. Stalk naked, mostly two-flowered. Roots vericillate. Leaves radical, ovato-lanceolate.—Native of Martinico. This might be supposed the same as the last,

but Poir. says "the lower leaves, or rather the roots, are brown, consisting of numerous spreading fibres, a little compressed, laden with short setaceous filaments, which bear a few minute globular vesicles. Radical leaves stalked, at least an inch long, bluntish, smooth, fleshy, entire, with fine branching veins. *Footstalks* full as long as the leaves. *Flower-stalks* six or eight inches high, bearing several distant, minute, membranous, oval-oblong, scaly *bracteas*, and divided at the top into two widely spreading branches, each bearing one *flower*, an inch at least in diameter, apparently white; with a tinge of blue. *Calyx-leaves* oval, obtuse, very thin, broadest at the base, marked, like the *corolla*, with straight longitudinal lines. The two lips of the latter are flat, very broad, nearly equal, rounded, almost entire. *Spur* rather shorter than the lips, awl-shaped, slightly curved."

3. *U. hispida*. Branched Rough Bladderwort. Lamarck Illustr. v. 1. 50. Vahl n. 2. Poir. n. 3.—"Nectary awl-shaped, reflexed. Stalk branched; hispid in the lower part. Leaves linear. *Calyx-leaves* roundish."—Found in Cayenne, by M. Richard. *Roots* fasciculated, subdivided, hardly an inch long. *Leaves* three, radical, an inch long, acute, smooth, without rib or veins, each tapering at the base into a footstalk. *Flower-stalk* half a foot high, or more, round; smooth in the upper part, where it divides into two or three zigzag branches; *partial stalks* four or five, distant, single-flowered. *Flowers* small. *Nectary* nearly the length of the petal. *Vahl*.

4. *U. volubilis*. Twining Bladderwort. Brown n. 3.—"Stalk twining, round, about two-flowered. Lips of the corolla undivided; the upper wedge-shaped; lower very large, hatchet-shaped. *Spur* descending, obtuse, depressed. *Calyx* obtuse."—Gathered by Mr. Brown, on the southern coast of New Holland.

5. *U. spiralis*. Spiral-stalked Bladderwort.—Stalk twining spirally, with several distant flowers. Lower lip very large, cloven. *Spur* descending, awl-shaped, pointed. *Calyx* acute.—Native of Sierra Leone. *Afzelius*. The *stalk* of our only specimen is a foot or more in height, slender, smooth, unbranched, twining round the stem of a grass, and bearing four *flowers*, two inches at least apart, except the two uppermost. Each *flower* stands on a slender partial stalk, half an inch long, accompanied by two small ovate *bracteas*. The *spur* is very sharp, the length of the partial stalk, and rather longer than the lower lip. The colour of the *flowers*, as far as can be judged, is purplish. We have seen no leaves nor root, and therefore place this species here merely from the agreement of its *stem* with the last, of which we have but few examples.

6. *U. speciosa*. Handsome Bladderwort. Brown n. 4. (*U. dichotoma*; Labillard. Nov. Holl. v. 1. 11. t. 8. Poir. n. 9.)—Stalk straight. Flowers opposite. Upper lip abrupt; lower very large, hatchet-shaped, undivided. *Spur* obtuse. Leaves linear-spatulate, ribbed; tapering at the base.—Native of New South Wales and Van Diemen's island. *Root* of many tufted fibres, bearing small knobs. *Leaves* radical, spreading, above an inch long, immersed in water, as well as half the *stalk*, which is twelve or fifteen inches high, quite smooth and naked till within three or four inches of the top, where it bears about three distant pairs of opposite, stalked, bracteated, large and handsome purple *flowers*; whose *palate* is bearded; *spur* thick and abrupt, half the length of the lower lip; one leaf of the *calyx* cloven.

7. *U. oppositiflora*. Opposite-flowered Bladderwort. Brown n. 5.—"Stalk straight, round. Flowers opposite. Lips

UTRICULARIA.

Lips undivided; the lower very large, hatchet-shaped. Palate lobed. Spur obtuse. Leaves ovate, obtuse, stalked."—Gathered by Mr. Brown, near Port Jackson, New South Wales. The *stalk* grows altogether out of the water.

8. *U. uniflora*. Single-flowered Bladderwort. Brown n. 6.—"Stalk straight, round, single-flowered. Leaves few, roundish, deciduous. Upper lip wedge-shaped, abrupt; lower very large, hatchet-shaped, undivided. Palate lobed. Spur obtuse."—Native of the same country, and of Van Diemen's island; growing likewise above water.

9. *U. Baueri*. Bauerman Bladderwort. Brown n. 7.—"Stalk capillary, mostly simple, with a few distant scales about the middle. Flowers racemose. Lips undivided; the upper linear; lower broader than long. Spur straight, defending, bluntish, longer than the lips."—Gathered near Port Jackson, by Mr. Ferdinand Bauer.

10. *U. lateriflora*. Lateral-flowered Bladderwort. Brown n. 8.—"Stalk capillary, simple, round, with distant scales at the base. Flowers lateral, somewhat spiked. Upper lip linear, rather abrupt; lower roundish, obscurely crenate. Spur emarginate."—Native of Port Jackson, and Van Diemen's island. *Brown*.

11. *U. parviflora*. Small-flowered Zigzag Bladderwort. Brown n. 9.—"Stalk nearly simple, angular, somewhat zigzag, with minute scales at the base. Flowers lateral, distant, nearly sessile. Upper lip linear, emarginate; lower roundish, undivided. Palate rugose. Spur straight, bluntish. Lower calyx-leaf emarginate."—Sent by Dr. White, from New South Wales, in 1792. The *stalk* is from four to six inches high, and though seldom branched, seems to elongate itself annually by a lateral shoot just below the top. Of the *leaves* we know nothing. There are many minute pointed *scales*, scattered along the stalk. The *spur* is thick, full as long as the lips. *Palate* downy.

12. *U. simplex*. Simple Capillary Bladderwort. Brown n. 10.—"Stalk capillary, quite simple, single-flowered. Lips rounded, undivided; the lowermost broader than long. Spur straight, depressed, emarginate."—Found by Mr. Brown, on the fourth coast of New Holland.

13. *U. violacea*. Simple Violet Bladderwort. Brown n. 11.—"Stalk capillary, quite simple, single-flowered. Lips nearly entire; the lower deflexed, as long as the descending, nearly cylindrical, undivided spur. Leaf ovate, generally solitary."—Gathered by Mr. Brown, in the same country.

14. *U. Menziesii*. Menziesian Bladderwort. Brown n. 12.—"Stalk thread-shaped, single-flowered. Leaves numerous, spatulate. Lower lip undivided. Spur descending, cylindrical, obtuse, twice the length of the lips."—Gathered by Mr. Menzies, on the fourth-west coast of New Holland. We do not discover it amongst the specimens with which he has favoured us; nor did Mr. Brown gather this species himself.

15. *U. albiflora*. Small White-flowered Bladderwort. Brown n. 13.—"Stalk thread-shaped, single-flowered. Upper lip emarginate; lower wedge-shaped, with three teeth. Spur conical, defending."—Gathered by Banks and Solander, in the tropical part of New Holland.

16. *U. compressa*. Flat-spurred Bladderwort. Brown n. 14.—"Stalk . . . Upper lip emarginate; lower somewhat three-lobed, the middle lobe emarginate. Spur conical, flattened, pointing upwards."—Found by the distinguished botanists just named, in the same part of New Holland as the preceding.

17. *U. striatula*. Little Striated Bladderwort.—Leaves

orbicular. Stalk simple, angular, with a few racemose flowers. Spur awl-shaped, acute, as long as the lips. Calyx-leaves permanent, very unequal; the upper one orbicular, emarginate, striated.—Brought from Sierra Leone, by Dr. Afzelius. A small delicate species, whose fibrous roots bear a few minute tubercles. The *leaves* are several, stalked, scarcely a line in diameter, smooth, with divaricating veins; some of them apparently concave, or bladder-y. *Stalk* near three inches high, slender, smooth, bearing scarcely more than one scale towards the middle, and terminating in a cluster of three or four purplish flowers, on capillary stalks, whose lower lip seems cloven. The membranous capsule is accompanied by the likewise membranous, pale, permanent, spreading calyx, whose lower leaf is small and obtuse; the upper five times as large, orbicular, with several purplish longitudinal ribs.

18. *U. cyanea*. Sky-blue Bladderwort. Brown n. 15.—"Stalk simple, straight, with a few lateral remote flowers; partial stalks with three bractæes. Calyx acute, about equal to the corolla. Lips entire. Spur conical-awl-shaped, acute, defending. Capsule compressed. Leaves linear, decumbent."—Gathered by Mr. Brown, at Port Jackson, New South Wales.

19. *U. graminifolia*. Grass-like Bladderwort. Vahl n. 3. Brown n. 16. (*U. cærulea*; Herb. Linn. but not Sp. Pl. *U. uliginosa*; Vahl n. 25?)—Stalk simple, angular, distantly racemose; partial stalks with three bractæes. Calyx acute. Upper lip of the corolla emarginate; lower somewhat three-lobed. Spur defending, conical. Capsule compressed. Leaves linear-elongated.—Native of the dried margins of ponds, in the East Indies. We have specimens from Dr. Buchanan, gathered in the Myfore country. Sir Joseph Banks found this species in the tropical part of New Holland. Linnæus confounded it with his original *cærulea*, described in our 4th section, n. 47, but the present plant is furnished with one or more grassy, acute, sessile, radical leaves, half as tall as the stalk, detected by professor Vahl and Mr. Brown. The common flower-stalk is rather short, from three to six inches high, not branched, but sometimes, as in several other species, elongated by a lateral shoot, either in consequence of its having flowered before, or having been broken off. Cluster wavy, lax, of three or four blue flowers, whose partial stalks spread horizontally as they ripen feed. Calyx permanent, its leaves ovate, acute, membranous, striated, closely embracing the capsule; one of them emarginate. One of Koenig's original specimens of his *U. uliginosa*, now before us, is so imperfect, that we labour under the same difficulty as Mr. Brown, in deciding whether it belongs to this or the last species.

20. *U. bifida*. Divided Yellow Bladderwort. Osbeck It. 243. t. 3. f. 2. English ed. v. 2. t. 3. f. 2. Linn. Sp. Pl. 26. Willd. n. 8. Vahl n. 24.—Stalk simple or divided, racemose. Bractæes solitary. Calyx acute. Upper lip of the corolla ovate, undivided; lower cloven. Spur descending, conical, acute, the length of the upper lip. Leaves linear, stalked.—Gathered by Osbeck, near the watering-place on the Danish island, off Canton, in swampy ground, but not under water, flowering in October. It has also been found in Ceylon, from whence we have specimens, one of which is accompanied with leaves, hitherto unnoticed by any botanist. The very specimens delineated in Osbeck's voyage, are preserved in the Linnæan herbarium. This species is certainly allied to the last, but rather smaller, with yellow flowers. The stalk is sometimes divided, or interrupted, as in that. Leaves very small, narrow and obtuse, springing from the fibrous roots, or rather from small

small tuberous offsets. *Stalk* three or four inches high. *Calyx* permanent, membranous, as in the foregoing, but more orbicular, and less evidently striated.

21. *U. biloba*. Two-lobed Bladderwort. Brown n. 17.—“*Stalk* simple, round, with distant close-pressed scales. Cluster of few flowers. *Bractæes* solitary. Upper lip of the corolla emarginate; lower in two blunt lobes. *Spur* straight, defending, obtuse, somewhat flattened.”—Found by Mr. Brown, in the vicinity of Port Jackson, New South Wales.

22. *U. limosa*. Mud Bladderwort. Brown n. 18.—“*Stalk* simple, round. Cluster many-flowered. Upper lip of the corolla undivided; lower in two sharply divaricated lobes. *Spur* prominent, somewhat flattened.”—Gathered by Banks and Solander, in some part of the tropical region of New Holland.

23. *U. pygmaea*. Dwarf Bladderwort. Brown n. 19.—“*Stalk* simple, about two-flowered. Upper lip of the corolla undivided; lower in three deep undivided segments, the lateral ones linear, divaricated. *Spur* conical, prominent.”—Found by the same travellers, along with the preceding species.

24. *U. tenella*. Delicate Bladderwort. Brown n. 20.—“*Stalk* nearly simple, few-flowered. Upper lip of the corolla deeply divided; lower in three undivided lobes, the central one largest. *Leaves* elliptical.”—Found by Mr. Brown in the southern part of New Holland.

25. *U. barbata*. Bearded Bladderwort. Brown n. 21.—“*Stalk* nearly simple, few-flowered. Upper lip of the corolla emarginate; lower three-cleft, the middle segment divided. *Palate* internally bearded. *Spur* awl-shaped, descending.”—Found by Banks and Solander, in the tropical part of New Holland.

26. *U. flava*. Slender Yellow Bladderwort. Brown n. 22.—“*Stalk* thread-shaped. Cluster of many dispersed flowers. Upper lip of the corolla divided; lower in three undivided lobes. *Spur* awl-shaped, defending.”—From the same part of New Holland, gathered by the same botanists.

27. *U. chrysantha*. Branched Golden-flowered Bladderwort. Brown n. 23.—“*Stalk* somewhat branched. Clusters many-flowered. Upper lip of the corolla cleft; lower four-lobed. *Spur* conical-awl-shaped, defending. *Bractæes* three to each partial stalk, coloured like the calyx.”—Gathered by Sir Joseph Banks, in the tropical region of New Holland.

28. *U. multifida*. Many-lobed Bladderwort. Brown n. 24.—“*Stalk* simple, thread-shaped, about two-flowered. Upper lip of the corolla oblong, with two awl-shaped segments; lower in three, nearly equal, divided lobes, with emarginate segments. *Spur* obtuse, compressed. *Leaves* spatulate.—Gathered by Mr. Menzies, at King George’s Sound, on the south-west coast of New Holland. *The roots* are fibrous, beset with small knobs. *Leaves* numerous, collected into a tuft at the crown of the root, spatulate, or obovate, tapering down into slender stalks, about twice their own length, both together scarcely exceeding half an inch. *Stalk* six inches high, straight, smooth and naked, bearing at the summit two crimson flowers, whose large subdivided lower lip makes a very conspicuous appearance, and is thrice as long as the short broad spur.

SECT. 2. *Leaves radical, compound. Stalks whorled with leafy bladder bractæes.*

29. *U. inflexa*. Inflexed Whorled Bladderwort. Fork. Egypt.-Arab. 9. Vahl n. 4.—“*Whorled bractæes* lanceolate, somewhat cylindrical, undivided, slightly bearded at

the end. *Nectary* conical, ascending.”—Found by Forskall plentifully in the ditches of rice-fields at Rosetta. The Arabians name it *Hamul*. The same was observed by Thonning, in stagnant waters on the coast of Guinea. *Vahl*. The radical *roots* are a span long or more. *Leaves* three or four in a whorl, with scattered, very narrow, forked leaflets. *Bractæes* from four to eight towards the base of the flower-stalk, sessile, often an inch long, acute at each end, bearded at the summit with leafy fragments. *Stalk* a finger’s length, thread-shaped, bearing from six to nine flowers, with a dry, lanceolate, sheathing scale, at the base of each partial stalk, and of the same length. The radical leaves are with or without bladders. *Vahl*. Mr. Thonning, quoted by this author, informs us that the inflated cellular bractæes serve to float the upright flower-stalks upon the surface of the water. The corolla is whitish, with purple veins; its upper lip tapering, obtuse, emarginate, concave; lower roundish; mouth closed by the palate. *Spur* nearly the length of the lower lip, conical, obtuse, curved upwards. *Capitate* the size of a pea, globose, very smooth, pointed with the style, bursting all round, its base attached to the fleshy enlarged calyx.

30. *U. stellaris*. Yellow Whorled Bladderwort. Linn. Suppl. 86. Willd. n. 11. Vahl n. 5. Roxb. Coromand. v. 2. 42. t. 180.—“*Whorled bractæes* globose-oblong, undivided, copiously bearded.”—Native of deep ditches in the rice-fields of the East Indies, where it was first noticed by Koenig. Very nearly akin to the last, which was long confounded with it, but Vahl observed truly, that the radical stalks, bearing the leaves, in the true *U. stellaris*, are not so stout, nor, as far as can be ascertained from dried specimens, at all cellular. The flower-stalk also is more slender, bearing its whorl of bractæes above half way up, towards the flowers, not at the base. These bractæes are but a quarter the size of the others, being scarcely three-quarters of an inch long, and are obtuse, much more copiously bearded, though we do not find them, as he says, all over covered with leafy fragments. The flowers, too, are smaller, and yellow, not whitish veined with purple. The spur is thick and blunt, twice the length of the calyx, but shorter than the lower lip of the corolla, as Koenig rightly describes it. Roxburgh’s figure has no beard to the bractæes.

31. *U. ceratophylla*. Horn-leaved Bladderwort. Michaux Boreal.-Amer. v. 1. 12. Vahl n. 6. Pursh n. 1. (U. inflata; Walt. Carol. 64.)—“*Whorled bractæes* cylindrical, bladderly, divided, copiously bearded at the extremity.”—Floating in the ponds and lakes of Virginia and Lower Carolina, flowering in June and July. *Flowers* yellow. *Pursh*. Like the foregoing. The leaves are five or six, an inch and a half long, first deeply divided, then three-cleft, slightly dilated towards the ends. *Stalk* smooth, a span high, or more, bearing from four to six distant racemose flowers, their lower partial stalks an inch in length. The beads of the bractæes are longer, and more branched, than in *U. stellata*. Vahl.

SECT. 3. *Leaves radical, compound. Stalks leafless.*

32. *U. foliolosa*. Fennel-leaved Bladderwort. Linn. Sp. Pl. 26. Willd. n. 2. Vahl n. 7. (U. n. 197; Loeft. It. 281. Linaria palustris, foeniculi folio; Plum. Ic. 158. t. 165. f. 2.)—*Spur* conical, acute. Cluster cylindrical, many-flowered. Fruit drooping. Root creeping. Leaves without bladders.—Native of South America. The floating horizontal thread-shaped roots throw out long fibres, and from the same point alternate, repeatedly compound leaves, two or three inches long, with brittle-shaped, or almost capillary, leaflets, but unattended by the remarkable bladders

of our European species hereafter described. Some leaves are accompanied by an erect racemose *flower-stalk*, from four to eight inches high, bearing from six to twelve erect yellow *flowers*, the size and shape of *U. vulgaris*, but with a more pointed *nectary*, and the *fruit* is bent downwards as it ripens.

33. *U. flexuosa*. Zigzag-stalked Bladderwort. Vahl n. 8. Poiret n. 11.—Stalk zigzag, racemose. Fruit-stalks reflexed. Leaves furnished with bladders.—Native of the East Indies. *Leaves* and *bladders* as in the following, but the *flowers* are smaller, six or seven upon each *stalk*; their scales and *bractææ* similar to that species.

34. *U. vulgaris*. Greater Bladderwort, or Hooded Milfoil. Linn. Sp. Pl. 26. Willd. n. 3. Vahl n. 9. Fl. Brit. n. 1. Engl. Bot. t. 253. Pursh n. 2. Poiret Turpin Paris. t. 30. Fl. Dan. t. 138. (Lentibularia; Riv. Monop. Irr. t. 79.)—Spur conical. Stalk straight. Cluster somewhat corymbose. Upper lip of the corolla the length of the palate, reflexed at the sides.—Native of ditches and deep standing waters, throughout Europe, from Lapland to Greece; also in the western parts of New York and Pennsylvania, according to Mr. Pursh; flowering in July. The trailing or floating perennial *roots*, or *runners*, bear alternate, repeatedly compound, capillary *leaves*, furnished with minute bristles, and bearing numerous little oval compressed curved *bladders*, open and bearded at the tip, each containing a bubble of air, along with a drop of watery fluid. Minute aquatic insects take up their abode in these bladders. *Flower-stalks* solitary, a foot high, though rising but a few inches above the surface of the water, each bearing a corymbose *cluster* of from five to eight large handsome yellow *flowers*, each of whose partial stalks is subtended by an elliptical, blunt, purplish, scaly *bractææ*, similar to what are scattered down the main stalk. *Calyx* purplish; its lower leaf emarginate. *Palate* of the *corolla* tumid, orange-coloured, striped, projecting nearly as far as either of the lips.

It seems best to consider the floating shoots of this herb, and the species of the same section, which bear alternate, repeatedly compound, *leaves*, rather as runners from the *root*, than real *stems*. At least this hypothesis is countenanced by many of the plants in the first, as well as second, section.

35. *U. intermedia*. Intermediate Bladderwort, or Hooded Milfoil. Hayne in Schrad. Journ. for 1800. 18. t. 5. Vahl n. 10. Sm. Compend. ed. 2. 5. Engl. Bot. t. 2489. (*U. vulgaris minor*; Linn. Sp. Pl. 26. Fl. Succ. 9. Millefolium aquaticum, flore luteo galericulato; Lob. Ic. 791. M. palustre galericulatum; Ger. Em. 828.)—Spur conical. Stalk two or three-flowered. Upper lip of the corolla flat, twice as long as the palate. Leaves with deep, forked, flat segments. Bladders radical.—Native of lakes and stagnant waters, in Sweden, Germany, and Ireland, flowering in July. The *runners* seem to originate from an ovate, scaly, hairy, tuberous *root*, or *knob*, and are thickly clothed with much smaller, more simple, *leaves* than the last, whose fringed segments are broader and flatter. These *leaves* scarcely bear any bladders, the latter being found on other parts of the runners, on branching stalks, and more sparingly. *Stalk* slender, bearing but two, or at most three, *flowers*, smaller than those of the *vulgaris*, but in like manner streaked with red; their *palate* less prominent; upper lip flatter.

The wooden cut in Lobel and Gerarde exactly represents the herbage of this species, with its large *knobs*, and no doubt their synonyms are to be transferred hither. The flowering portions may have been, partly at least, delineated from the last, both being, as it seems, nearly equally com-

mon on the continent, and having been generally confounded together, even by Linnaeus himself. We must not, however, omit to observe, that M. Turpin, in his exquisite plates of the *Flora Parisiensis*, represents *knobs*, or as he perhaps more correctly terms them, *buds*, in the *vulgaris*, and even the *minor*, though of a smaller size, in both, than we find them in the *intermedia*. These appear destined to produce plants in the following season.

36. *U. australis*. Southern Bladderwort, or New Holland Hooded Milfoil. Brown n. 1.—“Stalk with few flowers. Lips undivided; the lower twice as broad as long. Spur ascending; flat in front; keeled underneath. Leaves bearing bladders.”—Observed by Mr. Brown, about Port Jackson, New South Wales, as well as in the island of Van Diemen. Very nearly related to *U. vulgaris*. Brown.

37. *U. minor*. Lesser Bladderwort, or Hooded Milfoil. Linn. Sp. Pl. 26. Willd. n. 4. Vahl n. 11. Fl. Brit. n. 2. Engl. Bot. t. 254. Pursh n. 3. Poiret et Turpin. Parif. t. 31. Fl. Dan. t. 128. Schmidel Ic. t. 21. f. 1. (Millefolium palustre, galericulatum minus; Pluk. Phyt. t. 99. f. 6, very bad. Aparine aquae innatas Terevifana, &c.; Bocc. Mus. v. 1. 23. t. 4, without flowers, but otherwise sufficiently correct.)—Stalk with few flowers. Spur short, obtuse, keeled, deflexed. Corolla gaping; palate nearly flat; lips undivided.—Native of ditches, on bogs in moist parts of Europe, but not common in England, flowering in July. Mr. Pursh met with it in swamps and ditches on the “pine-barrens” of New Jersey, flowering in August. This species is not half the size of *U. vulgaris*, with which it agrees in habit, *foliage*, though less compound, and *bladders*. The *stalk* is less straight, more slender. *Flowers* rather fewer, with a much shorter and very blunt spur; lips scarcely divided, or notched; *palate* to little elevated as not to close the mouth.

38. *U. exoleta*. Faded Bladderwort, or Hooded Milfoil. Brown n. 2.—“Stalk with one or two flowers. Lower lip undivided; upper sometimes half three-lobed. Spur ascending, emarginate.”—Found by Mr. Brown, near Port Jackson, New South Wales. It is said to be closely related to the last.

39. *U. fibrosa*. Fibrous Bladderwort. Walt. Carol. 64. Vahl n. 12. Pursh n. 4.—Stalk with one or two flowers, almost capillary. Spur obtuse. Leaves bristle-shaped.—In morasses on the pine-barrens of Carolina, flowering in July. *Stalks* purple. *Flowers* orange. *Pursh*. Vahl terms the *leaves*, as well as *stalk*, peculiarly slender. The former are furnished with roundish-oblong *bladders*; the latter is a finger’s length, compressed, bearing one or two large *flowers*.

Poiret confounds this species with the *setacea* of Michaux; but as Vahl, who appears to have seen both, keeps them distinct, we confide in his opinion. Pursh considers *setacea* as the *subulata* of Linnaeus, sec. n. 45.

40. *U. obtusa*. Abrupt-spurred Bladderwort. Swartz Prodr. 14. Ind. Occ. 41. Willd. n. 5. Vahl n. 13. (U. n. 1; Browne Jam. 119.)—Stalk with two or three flowers. Spur inflexed, somewhat emarginate. Mouth of the corolla closed.—Native of stagnant waters, and boggy rivulets, in Jamaica, flowering throughout the summer. Linnaeus mistook Browne’s plant for his own *foliolosa*, n. 32, which is much larger, and very different in other respects. The *obtusa* is rather smaller than our *minor*, with more capillary *leaflets*, and smaller *bladders*. *Stalk* two to four inches high, slender, without scales, racemose, bearing from two to four small, yellow *flowers*, “in beautiful succession,” as Dr. Browne expresses it. Their upper *lip* is ovate, convex, undivided; lower rather smaller, ovate, its prominent

heart-

heart-shaped *palate* closing the mouth of the *corolla*. *Spur* scarcely longer than the lip, inflexed towards its under side, conical. *Swartz*.

41. *U. gibba*. Tumid-spurred Bladderwort. Linn. Sp. Pl. 26. Willd. n. 7. Vahl n. 30. Pursh n. 9. (*U. florum nectario gibboso, fcapo nunc unifloro, nunc bifloro; Gron. Virg. ed. 1. 129. Fucoides viride non ramiflorum, folia ad genicula diverfa, tenuiffima, fericea, oppofita, veficulis nonnihil compreffis lentibus fimilibus, colore antimonii, obfita, gerens; Clayton n. 759. Herb. Linn.*)—Stalk wavy, almoft capillary, with one or two flowers. *Spur* conical, tumid, bluntish. Lips of the *corolla* rounded.—Native of the boggy foil of New Jerfey and Carolina, flowering in July. *Flowers* yellow. *Pursh*. This has been erroneoufly arranged among the leaflefs fpecies. The *leaflets* are bristle-shaped, accompanied by numerous *bladders*, larger than in the laft, though the *flower-ftalks* are fmall, from two to three inches high, almoft capillary, and fometimes zigzag. *Flowers* about the fame fize. The Linnæan fpecimens, from Gronovius and Clayton, will not allow us clearly to afcertain the fhape of the *corolla*. The *spur* feems ftraight and prominent, rather fhorter than the lips.

42. *U. hydrocarpa*. Reflexed-ftalked Bladderwort. Vahl n. 14.—“Stalk thread-shaped; partial ftalks alternate, remote; reflexed when in fruit. Leaves bristle-shaped.”—Found by M. Richard in Cayenne. *Leaves* very fender, fhort, fcarcely divided, furnifhed with *bladders*. *Stalk* the length of the middle finger, with five partial ftalks, half an inch long. *Bractæas* ovate. *Calyx* of the fruit ovate, fpreading at the fummit. *Corolla* purplifh. *Capsule* globofe, the fize of the calyx, beaked with the *style*. Koenig fent from Ceylon, under the name of *U. major*, what feemed the fame with this in its whole ftructure, and in which the *spur* was conical, obtufe, the length of the upper lip. They could fcarcely be fpecifically diftinguifhed, efpecially as the *spur* of the *U. hydrocarpa* is unknown. *Vahl*.

43. *U. aurea*. Golden Floating Bladderwort. Loureir. Cochinch. 26. Vahl n. 22.—Stalk round, erect. *Flowers* racemofe. *Calyx* lanceolate. *Spur* conical, compreffed. Leaves capillary, with *bladders*.—Native of flow freams in Cochinchina, where this fpecies is known by the name of *Cây raong*. The *runners* are very long, fender, branched, floating. *Leaves* very numerous, capillary, green, fubdivided, furnifhed with *bladders*. *Stalk* three inches high. *Flowers* of a golden yellow. *Calyx* incurved. *Corolla* deeply divided, its *throat* (rather *palate*) convex, emarginate. *Loureiro*. It is evident that what Loureiro calls *flem*, is what we have in fome preceding fpecies termed *runners*, and that his *roots* are real *leaves*. Vahl, therefore, might juftly doubt whether he had done right in placing this among the leaflefs fpecies. He appears by fome accident to have tranfpofed the places of *aurea* and *recurva*; fee n. 51.

44. *U. biflora*. Little Two-flowered Bladderwort. Lamarck Illuftr. v. 1. 50. Vahl n. 16. Pursh n. 5. (*U. pumila; Walt. Carol. 64.*)—Stalk moftly two-flowered, thread-shaped. *Spur* awl-shaped, ftraight, about equal to the upper lip. Leaves bristle-shaped.—On the margins of ponds in Lower Carolina, flowering in July. *Flowers* fmall, yellow. *Pursh*. *Leaves* fhort, furnifhed with *bladders*. *Stalk* fender, four inches high, fometimes zigzag, in a dry ftate angular below, naked. *Partial ftalks* one or two at the top, as long as the nail. *Bractæa* membranous, abrupt, at the bafe of one of the partial ftalks, and on the other towards the *calyx*. Upper lip as long as the nail. *Vahl*. We

are not without a fufpicion of this being the fame plant as *U. gibba*, fee n. 41, but have no means of proving it fo.

45. *U. fubulata*. Awl-shaped Bladderwort. Linn. Sp. Pl. 26. Willd. n. 113. Vahl n. 34. Pursh n. 6. (*U. fetacea; Michaux Boreali-Amer. v. 1. 12. Vahl n. 17. Poiret n. 14, excluding the fibrofa of Walter and Vahl. U. nectario fubulato; Gron. Virg. 6, excluding the abfurd reference to Clayton, of a Pyrola with round ferrated leaves.*)—“Stalk about two-flowered. *Spur* obtufe, fhorter than the upper lip.”—In fandy wet places, near ponds and rivers, from Canada to Carolina, common, flowering in July and Auguft. *Root* annual. *Flowers* fmall, bright yellow. *Pursh*. This author compared his fpecimens with the original ones of Gronovius, the only authority in this cafe. No fpecies has given us more trouble than the prefent. Linnæus, in *Mant.* 2. 317, fays, on the authority of Clayton, that the *leaves* are capillary, and the *flowers* white. This is tranfcribed by Willdenow, but noticed by no other perfon. Linnæus, fubfequently to the publication of *Sp. Pl.*, laid into his herbarium for *U. fubulata*, a totally different plant of Kalm’s, which happens to have an awl-shaped *spur*, and is the *cornuta* of Michaux, Vahl and Pursh. This cannot be the plant of Gronovius. The reader will perceive that, though Vahl has kept *fubulata* and *fetacea* diftinct from each other, his fpecific characters are of little avail, unlefs the latter fpecies be deftitute of *leaves*, in which cafe it ought to have been placed in the next fection.

46. *U. purpurea*. Little Purple Bladderwort. Walt. Carol. 64. Vahl n. 28. Pursh n. 7.—Stalk with two or three flowers. *Spur* keeled, very fhort. Lips of the *corolla* rounded. Leaves capillary.—An annual fpecies, found floating in the lakes and ponds of Carolina; alfo in thofe of Pennfylvania, on the broad mountains; flowering in Auguft. *Flowers* bright purple, fmall. *Pursh*.

Seft. 4. Defitute of leaves.

47. *U. carulea*. Blue Ceylon Bladderwort. Linn. Sp. Pl. 26, excluding the fynonym of Rheede. Willd. n. 10. Vahl n. 20? (*U. fcapo nudo-fquamis alternis vagis fubulatis; Linn. Zeyl. 9.*)—Stalk erect, thread-shaped, with fattered awl-shaped fcales. Spike denfe. *Calyx*-leaves orbicular. *Spur* the length of the lips.—Native of Ceylon. Examined in Hermann’s herbarium, from whence Linnæus defcribed this fpecies, referring to it fynonyms which belong partly to the following. The *flem* is without leaves, about fix inches high, terminating in a fhort denfe *spike*, of nearly feffile *flowers*, whole colour, according to Hermann, is blue. The orbicular *calyx-leaves* clearly diftinguifh this from the following, as well as from our *graminifolia*, n. 19, confounded herewith by Linnæus, in his own herbarium.

48. *U. reticulata*. Reticulated Bladderwort. Sm. Exot. Bot. v. 2. 119. t. 119. (Nelipu; Rheede Hort. Malab. v. 9. 137. t. 70.)—Stalk twining, round, with fattered acute fcales. *Calyx* pointed, as long as the *corolla*. *Spur* awl-shaped. Lips rounded. *Palate* reticulated, two-lobed. Native of inundated rice-grounds, in various parts of the Eaft Indies, which, according to Dr. Buchanan, are covered with its moft elegant blue flowers, in December. *Root* fmall, with whorled fibres, apparently annual. *Leaves* none. *Stalk* from nine to twelve inches high, twining round the rice-items, in the manner of our *fpinalis*, n. 5, fmoother, either fimple or divided, bearing many fmall, alternate, clofe-prefled *fcales*. *Clusters* one or more, terminal, lax. *Flowers* the fize of violets, and nearly of the fame colour; their *palate* closing the mouth, very prominent, divided, white, reticulated with pale blue veins; their *partial ftalks* tapering at the bafe, each accompanied by three fmall permanent

UTRICULARIA.

manent *bractæas*. Spur blueish-white, the length of the lower lip, which is somewhat the largest.

49. *U. juncea*. Rushy Bladderwort. Vahl n. 21.—Stalk straight, racemose, with minute distant scales. Spur awl-shaped, the length of the upper lip.—Native of Cayenne, and Porto Rico. *Roots* fibrous, very short, and nearly simple. *Stalk* a foot high, erect, straight, quite simple, round, smooth. *Scales* ovate, acute. *Flowers* from five to eight, on very short partial stalks, with a minute dry *bractea* at the base of each. Vahl.

50. *U. angulosa*. Angular Bladderwort. Poir. n. 23.—“Stalk thread-shaped, angular, with minute distant scales. Flowers somewhat racemose, nearly sessile. Spur awl-shaped, scarcely so long as the upper lip.”—Native of wet situations in Cayenne. Very nearly related to *U. juncea*. *Roots* composed of short and slender fibres, without leaves. *Stalk* simple, stiff and straight, ten or twelve inches high, quite smooth, compressed and angular, yellowish; cylindrical, and of a brighter yellow, sometimes blueish or purplish at the base. *Scales* short, oval, pointed, scarcely discernible. *Flowers* from four to six, or more, in a straight terminal spike rather than cluster, with a small *bractea* to each. *Calyx-leaves* short and obtuse. *Corolla* middle-sized, deep yellow. *Spur* straight, acute. *Capful* smooth, the size of a pepper-corn, crowned with the style. Poir.

51. *U. recurva*. Recurved Bladderwort. Loureir. Cochinch. 26. Vahl n. 15.—Stalk slender. Flowers spiked. Spur conical, recurved, about the length of the lip.—Found in the river Hòn Mô, not far from the royal city, in Cochinchina.—*Root* short, without bladders. *Leaves* none. *Stalk* four inches high, simple, erect. *Flowers* yellow, in a simple oblong spike. *Calyx* large, round, compressed. *Capful* lenticular. Loureir. It can only have been from some accidental error, that Vahl placed this species in the former section, all his information concerning the plant being derived, like ours, from Loureiro, who is sufficiently clear as to its having no leaves. See n. 43.

52. *U. pusilla*. Little Cayenne Bladderwort. Vahl n. 23.—“Stalk capillary, subdivided; zigzag in the upper part. Flowers racemose, remote.”—Found in Cayenne, by Richard, and Von Rohr. *Root* very short, subdivided. *Stalk* a finger's length, either quite simple, or divided towards the top, with a minute ovate scale. *Partial stalks* from five to eight, half the length of the nail, occupying nearly the upper half of the main stalk, and each having at its base an extremely minute *bractea*. *Capful* very small. Vahl. We have specimens from Sierra Leone, gathered by Smeathman, and others by Afzelius, which fit strikingly answer to every title of this description, that we cannot but consider this as one of the very few species of its genus found in Guinea as well as in South America.

53. *U. pubescens*. Downy-stalked Bladderwort.—Stalk capillary, downy, about two-flowered. Spur obtuse, the length of the upper lip; half the length of the lower, which is divided.—Gathered at Sierra Leone, by Dr. Afzelius. The *root* is a tuft of small fibres, without leaves or bladders. *Stalk* three or four inches high, erect, simple, slender, round, or slightly angular, perhaps from drying, clothed all over with fine prominent pubescence, not visible to the naked eye, but, as far as we can perceive, quite destitute of scales. *Flowers* two, one below the other, smaller than *U. minor*, each with a broad, obtuse, membranous *bractea*. *Lower lip* broad, deflexed, two-lobed.

54. *U. nivea*. Snowy Bladderwort. Vahl n. 26.—“Stalk about four-flowered, with close-pressed scales, separate at the base. Spur conical, obtuse. *Capfuls* drooping, globose.”—Gathered by Koenig, in moist dewy places

in Ceylon. *Stalk* slender, from four to seven inches high, generally bearing four, rarely but three, large white flowers, on short partial stalks. Vahl.

55. *U. humilis*. Humble Bladderwort. Vahl n. 27.—Stalk angular, with few flowers. Spur conical, acute, shorter than the upper lip. *Calyx-leaves* roundish. *Capful* keeled.—Native of the East Indies. *Roots* very short, scarcely branched. *Stalk* hardly above an inch and a half high, often bearing a solitary flower, sometimes two, three or four. *Scales* two or three, remote, ovate as well as the *bractæas*. Vahl.

56. *U. crenata*. Crenate-lipped Bladderwort. Vahl n. 28. (“*U. aphylla*; Fl. Peruv. v. 1. 20. t. 31. f. d.”)—Stalk about three-flowered. *Roots* furnished with bladders. *Bractæas* sheathing. Spur awl-shaped. *Lips* crenate.—Native of moist or inundated ground at Lima. Annual. *Root* of several long fibres, bearing a few bladders, the size of mustard-seed. *Stalk* thread-shaped, from four to six inches high, smooth, naked, terminating in from two to four distant *partial stalks*, each an inch long, spreading, furnished at its base with a sheathing, abrupt, membranous, entire *bractea*. *Corolla* yellow; its upper lip with three or five notches; lower with three.—Our specimen, from the late abbé Cavanilles, though destitute of any evident leaves, or leaflets, yet having bladders attached to a long simple fibre, seems to indicate the propriety of ranging this species in the preceding section. We submit, nevertheless, to the decision of Vahl, and the authors of the *Flora Pedemontana*; more especially as the opinion of Mr. Brown, founded on such wide-extended observation as few botanists have had in their power, seems in favour of there being no *Utricularia* destitute of leaves at every period of its growth. This being the case, the whole genus must require to be distributed afresh. The next species stands in the same predicament.

57. *U. tenuis*. Bristle-stalked Bladderwort. Cavan. Ic. v. 5. 24. t. 440. f. 2. Vahl n. 29.—Stalk single-flowered. *Roots* furnished with bladders. *Bractæas* opposite. Spur awl-shaped, twice the length of the shortest lip.—Gathered by Louis Née, in moist places, near the town of Coquimbo, in Chili, flowering in April. A small annual species, whose roots, consisting of several zigzag fibres, about an inch long, are copiously furnished with small, alternate, sessile bladders. (See our remarks on the last.) The *stalk* is bristle-shaped, an inch and a half or two inches high, quite naked, except two or three opposite *bractæas* near the top, which mark the base of the solitary *partial stalk*. *Flower* solitary, yellow. *Calyx* ovate, bluntnish, permanent. *Lips* of the *corolla* very unequal, undivided, nearly ovate, the larger erect, accompanied by a prominent *pelate* bordered with red; smaller deflexed, as well as the *nectary* behind it. The flower therefore seems to be reversed. The *capful* is globular.

58. *U. micropetala*. Small-lipped Bladderwort.—Stalk about two-flowered. *Partial stalks* club-shaped. *Bractæas* opposite. Spur conical, dependent, thrice as long as the lips.—Gathered by Dr. Afzelius at Sierra Leone. A very distinct and remarkable species. The *root* is small and fibrous, without leaves or bladders. *Stalk* three inches high, bearing a few distant, ovate, white-edged scales. *Flowers* in our specimen two, one above the other, yellow, on stalks of unequal length swelling upwards, and having two opposite, ovate, pointed *bractæas* at the base of each. *Calyx-leaves* ovate, pointed; the lower one emarginate. *Lips* of the *corolla* about the length of the *calyx*, nearly equal, undivided; the lower of a deeper yellow, with a prominent *pelate*, not closing the mouth. *Spur* remarkably large in proportion, making the chief part of the flower, stout, pointed. *Capful* elliptical.

59. *U. ramosa*. Branching Drooping Bladderwort. Vahl n. 31.—“Stalk simple or branched, with few flowers. Spur conical, short. Fruit-stalks drooping.”—Found by Koenig in the East Indies. *Roots* simple, and very short. *Stalk* a finger’s length, angular, sometimes simple, often divided, the branches once or twice subdivided, two or three-flowered. *Scales*, as well as *bractææ*, ovate. *Flowers* small. *Vahl*.

60. *U. capillacea*. Capillary Bladderwort. Willd. n. 9. Vahl n. 32.—“Stalk capillary, with about three drooping flowers. Spur round, bluntish. Capfulæ awl-shaped.”—Gathered by Dr. Rottler, in watery places in the East Indies. *Root* of several naked, somewhat branched, fibres. Vahl found, in one specimen, at the side of the crown of the *root*, an oblong-roundish bulb, the size of a Coriander-seed, clothed with bristles; separate at the summit and base, but attached to the root by a central ring. He justly presumed this to be a bud, by which the plant increases itself. The *stalk* is often hardly an inch high, angular, bearing one, two or three *flowers*, on short, drooping *partial stalks*, each accompanied, at the base, by an extremely minute ovate *bractææ*. *Capfulæ* awl-shaped; covered by the permanent calyx.

61. *U. minutissima*. Little Malacca Bladderwort. Vahl n. 33.—Stalk capillary, two or three-flowered, unbranched. *Scales* and *bractææ* pointed. Spur conical. Lower calyx-leaf broadest, concave, keeled.—Gathered by Koenig, in the neighbourhood of Malacca. *Root* fibrous, small. *Stem* two inches high in our original specimens, Vahl says half an inch, or an inch. It appears to elongate itself, after flowering, by a lateral, upright, simple shoot, as is the case with *graminifolia*, n. 19, and some others. *Scales* one or two, tapering at each end, small. *Flowers* one, two, three or even four, each on a very short *partial stalk*, with several taper-pointed *bractææ* at its base. *Corolla* blue, extremely small, with a prominent *spur* full as long as the *lips*. *Spur* inflated and enlarged considerably as the *fruit* ripens.

62. *U. cornuta*. Great Horned Bladderwort. Michaux Boreal.-Amer. v. 1. 12. Vahl n. 19. Pursh n. 8. (*U. subulata*; Herb. Linn. but not Sp. Pl.)—Stalk erect, slightly scaly, with about two nearly sessile flowers. Spur awl-shaped, acute, rather curved, nearly as long as the very broad lower lip.—Near mountain lakes, from Canada to Virginia, flowering in July. *Pursh*. Our specimens from Mr. Francis Boott, a young botanist of great zeal and activity, have dense alternate tufts of numerous *radical fibres*, without leaves or bladders. *Stalk* a foot high, straight, smooth, bearing a few small, distant, pale, membranous scales, and terminating in two or three crowded large *flowers*, of a bright yellow. *Calyx-leaves* broad, ovate, unequal, coloured; the lowermost not half the length of the *spur*. *Lower lip* very broad, deflexed, cloven. *Palate* downy.—Linneus received this plant from Kalm, and laid it into his herbarium for *U. subulata*, which he had long before described from Gronovius’s herbarium, but had forgotten the appearance of it; see our n. 45. We therefore adopt the name given by Michaux, for what must be considered as not described by Linneus, he having no where adverted to Kalm’s specimens. Vahl erroneously ranges this with the leafy species.

UTRICULUS, (a little bladder,) a term used by Gærtner, for a particular sort of capsule, which he defines as “of one cell, and containing a solitary seed; it is often very thin and semitransparent; constantly destitute of valves, and of a shape approaching to ovate, or somewhat globose.” He adds, that “all naked seeds may, strictly speaking, be said to be inclosed in such a pericarp; but he limits the applica-

tion of the above term to those coverings of seeds, which, in the first place, are capable of being rubbed off by a slight friction between the fingers, as in *Gnephodium*, *Atriplex*, and *Beta*; secondly, to such as are furnished, within their cavity, with an evident umbilical cord, as in *Adonis*, *Thalictrum*, and *Atragene*; thirdly, to those between which and the seed there is a vacant space, or cavity, sufficiently evident, of which *Elaeagne*, *Achyranthes*, *Zueria*, *Illecebrum* and *Polygonum* are examples; and fourthly, to such as contain their seed in an inverted position, so that the radicle of the embryo is turned towards the style, as *Callitriche*, *Zinnichelia*, *Zostera*, &c.; the contrary position being most usual in the greater number of naked seeds, as in the natural orders of *Gramina*, *Compositæ*, *Verticillatæ*, and *Stellatæ*.” See PERICARP and SEED.

UTRUM, *Juris Utrum*. See JURIS, ASSISE, &c.
UTSCHENYA, in *Geography*, a cape on the north coast of Nova Zembla. N. lat. 77° 20'. E. long. 67° 24'.

UTSCHINGI. See VOLGA.

UTSJOKI, a town of Swedish Lapland; 240 miles N. of Tornea. N. lat. 69° 45'. E. long. 26° 54'.

UTTA, a town of the island of Sardinia; 6 miles W.S.W. of Cagliari.—Alfo, a river of Sardinia, which runs into the sea, near Cagliari.

UTTAMA, in *Hindoo Mythology*, is the name of one of the seven holy men bearing the appellation of *Muni*, under which article their names and some notice of them will be found. In some theogonies Uttama is made the son of Pavaka, the regent of fire.

UTTARI, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Hispania, on the route from Bracara to Asturica, between Pons Nevæ and Bergidam. Anton. Itin.

UTTENDORF, in *Geography*, a town of Bavaria, on the Mattig; 7 miles S. of Braunau.

UTTER, BARRISTER, in *Law*. See BARRISTER.

UTTERCUL, in *Geography*, a province of Afiam, north of the Burhampoote.

UTTINGEN, a town of the county of Wertheim; 8 miles E. of Wertheim.

UTTOXETER, an ancient market-town in the fourth division of the hundred of Totmanflow, in the county of Stafford, England, is situated 13 miles N.E. by E. from the county-town, and 136 N.W. by N. from London, on the western bank of the river Dove, over which is a stone bridge, connecting the counties of Stafford and Derby. Great damage has been formerly sustained by this town from fire: but it is now large and well built, having a spacious market-place in the centre, with three streets branching out from it. The market, which is held on Wednesdays, is considered as the greatest in this part of the country, for cattle, sheep, pigs, butter, cheese, corn, and all kinds of provision and agricultural produce. This is attributed to the extensive meadow and pasture lands in this district, which are justly esteemed the most fertile and luxuriant England can boast. Leland says, “Uttok Cestre one paroch church. The menne of the towne usith grasing. For there be wonderfull pastures upon Dove. It longeth to the erldom of Lancaster.” Here are four annual fairs. In the population return of the year 1811, this town is stated to contain 637 houses, occupied by 3155 persons. Of these, the chief source of employment is the manufacture of iron, which is carried on to a great extent, the town being surrounded by forges. A great increase in this trade has taken place, in consequence of the facility of communication the town now enjoys by means of the inland navigation, not only with the metropolis, but directly or indirectly, with every port in the kingdom. The church is an ancient edifice, with a lofty steeple, but no way remarkable

remarkable either for structure or embellishments. Here are several meeting-houses for Dissenters; and a free-school founded and endowed by Thomas Allen, a distinguished antiquary and mathematician of the sixteenth century. The late admiral lord Gardner was born at Uttoxeter, April 12, 1742; he died in 1810, and was buried in the abbey church of Bath.—*Beauties of England and Wales*, vol. xiii. 1813.

UTUGARI, in *Ancient Geography*, the name of a people, who made part of the Huns. Ptolemy.

UTUS, a river, which, according to Pliny, had its source in mount Hæmus, and watered Mœsia.—Allo, a town of Dacia Ripensis. Anton. Itin.

UTZHOF, in *Geography*, a town in the territory of Dantzic; 5 miles E. of Dantzic.

UTZNACH, a town of Switzerland, and capital of a bailiwick, which belongs to the cantons of Glaris and Schwitz, formerly belonging to the counts of Toggeburg. In the year 1469, it was sold to those two cantons, who alternately appoint a bailiff, whose office continues two years. The inhabitants are Roman Catholics; 23 miles S.E. of Zurich. N. lat. 47° 8'. E. long. 8° 59'.

UVA, a lake of Russia, in the government of Tobolsk, about 28 miles in circumference; 68 miles S.E. of Tobolsk.

UVA, *Grape*. See VINE.

UVA Gruina, in the *Materia Medica*, the name of the fruit of the great American *vitis idæa*, or cranberries.

UVA Lupina, wolf-berries, in *Botany*, a name given by some authors to the common water-elder, and by others to the *herba Paris*, or herb true-love.

UVA Marina, Sea-side Grape, Uvette of the French. See EPHEdra.

UVA Passia, in the *Materia Medica*, the dried fruit of the vine, of which two kinds were formerly mentioned in our Pharmacopœias, viz. *uva passia majores* et *minores*, or raisins and currants; the latter is a variety of the former, or the fruit of the *vitis corinthiaca feu apyrena*, of C. B. The manner of preparing them is by immersing them in a solution of alkaline salt, and soap ley made boiling hot, to which is added some olive oil and a small quantity of common salt, and afterwards drying them in the shade. These fruits are used as agreeable lubricating acescent sweets, in pectoral decoctions, and for obtunding the acrimony of other medicines, and rendering them grateful to the palate and stomach. They are directed in the decoctum hordei compositum, tinctura fennæ, and tinctura cardamomi composita.

UVA Quercus, in *Natural History*, a name given to certain accidental productions of the oak, a tree famous for producing many such, besides its common fruit; the best account we have of this in particular is from Mr. Marchant. He observed a vast quantity of this production upon an oak of about twelve feet high; this tree had no acorns, but there hung from almost all the branches a great number of greyish threads, of two inches or more in length, and of a silky flexible matter; to several parts of these there were fixed certain round berries, sometimes two or three, sometimes ten or twelve on a thread; these were of the size of a half-ripe red gooseberry, but they had no umbilicus, nor any appearance of fibres; they were hard and not hollow, but filled with a cottony matter, very closely compacted. The threads on which these berries were produced all grew out of the axæ of the leaves, in the very places where the buds of the rudiments of young branches should have come; and over these filaments there were often a few small leaves, of the regular shape of the oak-leaf.

It is generally asserted, that there are eggs of insects lodged in all these extraordinary productions of the oak, which are supposed to be produced by a wrong derivation of the juices, occasioned by the puncture of the fly which leaves those eggs; but the most accurate search could not discover the least appearance of any animal remains in any part of these productions, neither in the berries, nor in the threads that support them.

There is another species of this remarkable production, differing from the former, by not having the long threads on which the berries of that are supported: this, however, has been confounded by the generality of naturalists under the same name, and of this Mr. Marchant has given an equally accurate description. In the month of October he observed a young oak of about six feet high, in a coppice-wood, in a very flourishing condition, very full of branches and leaves, but without fruit. The young branches of this oak were loaded with clusters of red berries, of the shape and size of common red gooseberries; they stood principally at or near the extremities of the branches, and were of a very polished and shining surface, and of a spongy and tender substance. They stood in clusters of three, four, and five together, and each grew immediately to the branch, without any pedicle; they had some appearance of fibres, but not the least mark of an umbilicus, as in the regular fruits. On opening these berries, they were found full of mucilaginous and viscous juice, of a red colour, tolerably fluid, and having some fibres intermingled with it; the taste of this juice was acrid, and its smell disagreeable, and like that of rotten wood; but there appeared not in these, any more than in the other species, any the least appearance of any thing belonging to an animal, no egg, no worm, no fly, nor indeed any foreign body of any sort whatever.

These berries, though so large and succulent, are but of a very short duration; for Mr. Marchant going three days after he had seen them in the greatest perfection, to gather some of them, with intent to try their juice on different liquors, found they were all become flaccid and withered; and returning again three days after this, they were so entirely perished and gone, that there remained only a few vestiges of thin skins on the places where they had been fixed to the tree, and some few fallen ones among the bushes that grew under the tree; and upon inquiring of the people who lived thereabout, to know whether these berries were a regular annual production of the tree, they told him that they never remembered to have seen any thing of the kind before.

It may not be easy, perhaps, to account regularly for these fortuitous productions, for they seem merely of the nature of monsters among animals; and it may be allowed no improbable conjecture in regard to them, that the roots of these small trees having taken in more nourishment than they could circulate, when it came to load the tender extremities of the young branches, may have made its way through their laxer texture, and being retained yet in some of their membranes, may have swelled out more and more, by the addition of fresh matter, and finally have been matured by the sun's heat into these seemingly regular productions. Mem. Acad. Par. 1692.

UVA Urfs, in *Botany*, the name of a species of arbutus, (see ARBUTUS, n. 9.) with trailing stalks, and entire leaves, called in English *bear's whortleberry*. This plant is found on the snowy hills of Austria and Styria, but more plentifully on the Swedish hills: it is also a native of the Highlands of Scotland, and is now cultivated in some of our gardens. The leaves of this plant have a bitterish astringent taste, without any remarkable smell. Infusions of them in

water strike a deep black colour, with solution of chalybeate vitriol, but soon deposit the black matter, and become clear. For their use in dyeing, see *DYEING of Cloths*, &c.

The leaves of the *uva ursi*, though employed by the ancients in several diseases requiring astringent medicines, had almost entirely fallen into disuse, till about the middle of the last century, when they first drew the attention of physicians as a useful remedy in calculous and nephritic complaints, and other disorders of the urinary organs. See *STONE*.

De Haen relates, after large experience of this medicine in the hospital of Vienna, that suppurations, though obstinate and of long continuance, in the kidneys, ureters, bladder, urethra, scrotum, and perineum, without any venereal taint or evident marks of a calculus, were in general completely cured by it; that of those who had a manifest calculus, several found permanent relief, so that, long after the medicine had been left off, they continued free from pain or inconvenience in making water, though the catheter shewed that the calculus still remained; that others, who seemed to be cured, relapsed on leaving off the medicine, and were again successively relieved on repeating the use of it; while others obtained only temporary and precarious relief. In several cases, pargories were joined to the *uva ursi*, and other mild astringents have been recommended for the same intentions.

Encouraged by his success, and by the practice of the physicians at Montpellier, who had been in the habit of prescribing *uva ursi* in the disease above mentioned for many years before his time, many medical men in this country have been induced to try its effects; and though the use of this plant has been frequently observed to mitigate the pains in calculous cases, yet in no instances do we find that it has produced that essential or permanent relief, which is said to have been experienced by the German physicians.

From the experiments of Dr. Alexander, the leaves of *uva ursi* seem to possess very little diuretic power, and made by Murray shew that they have no material effect upon the urinary calculi: the efficacy they may, therefore, have in relieving the calculous diseases, we are disposed to ascribe to their astringency; and in confirmation of this opinion we may cite the observation of Dr. Cullen, who, in his chapter on Astringents, notices the dissertation of De Heucher, under the title of "*Calculus per adstringentia pellendus*:" and though he does not think, with this author, that astringents are lithontriptics, yet from his own experience, and that of others, he believes they often have a powerful effect in relieving calculous symptoms; and in proof of this he refers to the exhibition of the *uva ursi*. The leaves may be employed either in powder or decoction; the former is most commonly preferred, and given in doses from a scruple to a drachm two or three times a day.

Dr. Lewis observes, that the trials of the *uva ursi*, made in this country, have by no means answered expectation: in all cases within his knowledge, it produced great sickness and uneasiness, without any apparent benefit, though continued for a month. And in a case of incontinence of urine, Dr. Fothergill observes, the *uva ursi*, so much extolled of late in ulcers of the urinary passages, seemed but to aggravate the symptoms. (*Med. Obs. and Inf.* vol. iii. p. 144.) But in the preface to this volume we are told, that the *uva ursi* had been frequently prescribed successfully by many of the members of the Society of Physicians in London. It is observed by Murray, the calculi were macerated in a strong decoction of the *uva ursi*. Dr. Withering, speaking of the effects of this plant, says: Perhaps, upon the whole, we shall find it no better than other vegetable astringents;

some of which have been long used by the country people in gravely complaints, and with very great advantage; though hitherto unnoticed by the regular practitioners. Cullen. Lewis. Woodville.

UVA Vulpis, a name given by some authors to the common nightshade.

UVARIA, in *Botany*, so named by Linnæus, from *uva*, a grape, or bunch of grapes, in allusion to the appearance of its fruit.—Linn. Gen. 279. Schreb. 374. Willd. Sp. Pl. v. 2. 1261. Mart. Mill. Dict. v. 4. Ait. Hort. Kew. v. 3. 333. Juss. 284. Lamarck Illustr. t. 495. De Candolle Syst. v. 1. 481. Gærtn. t. 114.—Clafs and order, *Polyandria Polygynia*. Nat. Ord. *Coadunate*, Linn. *Anona*, Juss. *Anonaceæ*, De Cand.

Gen. Ch. *Cal.* Perianth inferior, of one leaf, flat, in three deep, ovate, acute, permanent segments. *Cor.* Petals fix, lanceolate, sessile, spreading, longer than the calyx. *Stam.* Filaments none; anthers numerous, oblong, abrupt, covering the convex receptacle. *Pist.* Germens numerous, crowded, concealed by the anthers; styles numerous, the length of the anthers; stigmas obtuse. *Peric.* Berries distinct, numerous, somewhat stalked, nearly globular, of several cells. *Seeds* four or more, in two rows.

Eff. Ch. Calyx in three deep segments. Petals fix. Berries numerous, stalked. Seeds several, in two rows.

Linnæus and several following authors have referred to this genus a considerable number of species, with the nature of whose fruits they were not, in every instance, perfectly acquainted; especially without sufficient discrimination between such as were true berries, and others of a capsular nature. The learned professor De Candolle, now happily escaped from public persecution in France, as a Protestant, and settled, with distinction, at Geneva, has just published the first volume of his *Regni Vegetabilis Systema Naturale*, a most profound and elaborate work, where the natural order to which the present genus belongs is illustrated, by a far greater number of species than it had ever before been supposed to contain. This author removes to *UNONA* (see that article) many things hitherto considered as *Uvaria*, making the character of *Unona* to consist in its dry fruits, of an ovate-oblong, or somewhat beaded, shape. Hence the said genus is extended to thirty-six species. We regret that our account of it had been sent to the press, before the work of our learned friend reached us. We can now only profit by his labours, and trace his steps, through the genus *Uvaria*, of which he makes but eight species. These are all natives of the East Indies, or the adjacent islands. They are trees or shrubs, with erect or trailing stems; the flowers either axillary, opposite to the leaves, or lateral, solitary, or two or three together, bearing from one to four flowers, and often furnished with small bractæe, or joined in the middle. Several species referred by various botanists to the genus before us, now help to constitute a new one in professor De Candolle's work, by the name of *Gutteria*, consisting of twenty in all. Its fruits, numerous likewise in each flower, are dry, coriaceous, ovate or globose, single-seeded. *Uvaria japonica* of Linnæus, Thunberg, Willdenow, &c. stands by itself in a genus bearing the barbarous Japanese name of *Kadsura*, which Justiciu, it seems, has unhappily selected, in the *Annales du Muséum*, v. 16. 340. It comes next to *Anona*, having like that an aggregate pulpy fruit, but with two seeds in each cell, instead of the solitary ones of *Anona*.

1. *U. zeylanica*. Ceylon *Uvaria*. Linn. Sp. Pl. 756, excluding the synonyms of Rheede and Rumphius. De Cand. n. 1. Gærtn. f. 1. Lamarck f. 2. (*Uvaria*); Linn. Zeyl. 100. n. 224, not 234. *Uva zeylanica* sylvestris,

(tris, mali armeniaceae sapore; Burm. Zeyl. 231.)—Branches trailing. Leaves ovato-lanceolate, smooth. Berries numerous, ovato-cylindrical, with tapering stalks. Internal processes of the coat of the seed in parallel plates.—Native of Ceylon. Linnaeus and Burmann describe this as a trailing shrub, with smooth, pointed, stalked leaves, and scarlet starry flowers, each producing six or seven small, soft, grey, rather hairy, somewhat cylindrical berries, half an inch long, with a vinous taste, resembling that of an apricot. A specimen communicated, if we mistake not, by Thunberg to the younger Linnaeus, for *Uvaria zeylanica*, has ovate, acute, smooth, entire leaves. The common flower-stalks are axillary, stout, half an inch long, each bearing two or more single-flowered, angular, downy partial stalks, thrice that length. Calyx half an inch in diameter, in three deep, broad, obtuse, coriaceous, downy segments, like Lamarck's fig. 1. d, f, g. Anthers oblong, spreading, yellow. We cannot say this is the true plant of Linnaeus, Burmann, &c. because our specimen wants the fruit, which is almost all that is known of that species, with any precision.

2. *U. Gartneri*. Gartner's Uvaria. De Cand. n. 2. (*U. trifoliata*; Gært. f. 2. Lamarck f. 3.)—"Berries ovate, with tapering stalks. Internal processes of the coat of the seed awl-shaped."—Native probably of Ceylon. Nothing is known of this species but from Gartner's figure of the fruit, which is rather larger, and less cylindrical, or constricted, than the foregoing, and differently constructed within.

3. *U. lutea*. Yellow Uvaria. Roxb. Coromand. v. 1. 32. t. 36. Willd. n. 8. De Cand. n. 3.—Leaves elliptic-oblong, acute, smooth, shining. Stalks solitary, from one to six-flowered. Berries oval, with six seeds.—Native of the hills of Hindoostan, adjoining to the coast of Coromandel, flowering in the hot season. A large evergreen tree, with a smooth brown bark, and alternate branches. Leaves two or three inches long, alternate, two-ranked, on short stalks. Flower-stalks opposite to the leaves, solitary, short and thick, each bearing usually about three dull-greenish flowers, above half an inch broad. Petals five times the size of the calyx. Berries four to six from each flower, spreading in the form of a star, on short stalks, nearly oval, orange-coloured, pulpy, each of them hardly an inch in length. Nothing is recorded of their flavour or qualities, nor of any use to which this tree is put. The Telingas call it *Muoy*.

4. *U. tomentosa*. Downy Uvaria. Roxb. Coromand. v. 1. 31. t. 35. Willd. n. 5. De Cand. n. 4.—Leaves ovate-oblong, acute, downy. Stalks single-flowered, usually solitary. Berries globular, with four seeds.—Native of the Circar mountains of Hindoostan, flowering in the hot season. This is also a large tree, with wide-spreading branches. Leaves soft and downy, on short stalks, their size rather exceeding those of the last species. Flowers solitary or in pairs, of a brownish-green, on stalks above an inch long. Three outer petals small and awl-shaped; three inner ovate, acute, above half an inch long. Berries nearly globular, from ten to fifteen, dull purple, the size of a bullace plum.

5. *U. dulcis*. Sweet Uvaria. "Dunal Monogr. 90. t. 13." De Cand. n. 5—"Leaves oblong-elliptical; tapering and heart-shaped at the base; velvet-like beneath, as well as the branches. Flower-stalks in pairs, axillary, or opposite to the leaves; jointed and bracteated in the middle.—Native of Java, described by De Candolle from the herbarium of M. De Lessert. Branches round; villous and rusty in the upper part. Leaves from two to four inches long, on short villous stalks; sometimes pointed, and occa-

sionally undulated; nearly smooth above; rusty, with a reddish rib, beneath. Calyx villous, rusty, in three broad, ovate segments. Petals villous, slightly wavy; the outer ones rusty at the back; inner broader, but rather smaller. Pistils villous. Dunal.

6. *U. javana*. Java Uvaria. "Dunal Monogr. 91. t. 14." De Cand. n. 6—"Leaves oblong-elliptical; heart-shaped at the base; rusty and downy, like the young branches, beneath. Stalks axillary, or opposite to the leaves, few-flowered: partial ones somewhat umbellate, bracteated in the middle."—Gathered in Java, by M. Lahrie. The branches are round, marked with whitish spots; their young extremities clothed with rusty down. Leaves on very short stalks, sometimes pointed, sometimes blunt, waved at the edges, slightly falcate, with pinnate ribs; shining and nearly smooth on the upper side. Stalks solitary or in pairs, rusty, each bearing a sort of umbel, of from two to four flowers, whose partial stalks are jointed at the base, and furnished about the middle with one large clasping bractea. Segments of the calyx deep, broad, rather acute. Three inner petals reddish, rather larger and more oblong than the three outer. Pistils villous. Dunal.

7. *U. velutina*. Velvet-leaved Uvaria. De Cand. n. 7. (*U. villosa*; Roxb. MSS. Dunal Monogr. 91.)—"Leaves nearly sessile, ovate, pointed, clothed, like the branches, with velvet down; heart-shaped at the base. Stalks lateral, branched, downy; partial ones corymbose, single-flowered."—Sent by Dr. Roxburgh, from the East Indies, to Mr. Lambert. The young branches, both surfaces of the leaves, the footstalks, flower-stalks, and calyx, are clothed with very short, soft, grayish, velvet down. Branches round. Leaves almost perfectly sessile, two or three inches long, an inch and a half or two inches broad, with pinnate ribs, which are prominent and molt downy at the back. Partial flower-stalks three or four, elongated, single-flowered, somewhat corymbose. Calyx small. Petals three, ovate, thick, bluntnish; downy externally; brownish and smooth on the upper side; it is supposed there may be three others, which are deciduous. Anthers very short, nearly sessile. Germens densely crowded, somewhat downy. De Candolle.

8. *U. ? spectabilis*. Handsome-flowered Uvaria. De Cand. n. 8—"Leaves oblong, pointed, almost smooth; clothed, like the branches, with rusty velvet down when young. Stalks lateral, or opposite to the leaves, single-flowered. Petals obovate; inner ones cloven at the end."—Gathered in Guiana by M. Martin. Branches round, clothed when young with rusty-coloured velvet down. Footstalks very short, callous. Leaves six or eight inches long, two broad, entire, abruptly pointed; scarcely tapering at the base; their lateral ribs alternate, all terminating in one which runs parallel to the margin: when young they are clothed beneath with reddish velvet pubescence; as are also the very short flower-stalks. Flowers large. Segments of the calyx three or four lines long, ovate, coriaceous, downy at the outside only. Petals six, obovate, nine or ten lines long, coriaceous, silky on both sides with close-pressed whitish hairs; rather contracted at the base: three outer ones rather the smallest, entire; three inner divided at the point, one segment very rarely again cloven. Outer row of the filaments abortive, coriaceous, oblong, brown, smooth, rather longer than the perfect ones, and lying over them, with two internal furrows at the end. Germens very densely crowded, scarcely distinct. Fruit unknown. The author doubts whether this species ought not to constitute a genus by itself.

VUBARANA, in *Ichthyology*, the name of an harengiform fish, caught in the American seas.

It resembles in figure our river trout. Its body is very nearly of the same thickness all the way, but it is elevated a little on the back, and somewhat slender just near the tail. It grows to a foot in length, and to six inches in thickness. It is a very well-tailed fish, and is generally dressed with the scales on, they being not offensive in eating. Margraave's History of Brazil.

UVEA, in *Anatomy*, the posterior surface of the iris. See *EYE*.

It is called *uvea*, on account of its resembling the figure and colour of a grape, called by the Latins *uva*. For which reason, also, some have given it the name of *acini-formis*, from *acinus*.

UVEDALIA, in *Botany*, received its name from Mr. R. Brown, in memory of — Uvedale, LL.D., the friend and fellow-colleague of PLUKENET (see that article), who resided at Enfield, where he had a botanic garden, on the old walls of which, if we are rightly informed, the *Hieracium murorum*, from the north, is naturalized, and still remains. His herbarium makes a part of the botanical collections in the British Museum, but we have no particulars of his domestic or personal history. We only know by tradition that his name was popularly pronounced *Oodle*. Petiver established, under the appellation of *Uvedalia*, a fungiferous genus, now sunk in *POLYMNIA* (see that article), from which the synonym *Tetragonotheca*, Linn. Gen. 438, should be erased.—Brown Prodr. Nov. Holl. v. 1. 440.—Class and order, *Didymia Angiospermia*. Nat. Ord. *Perfonate*, Linn. *Scrophularia*, Juss. *Scrophularinae*, Brown.

Ess. Ch. Calyx prismatic, five-toothed. Corolla ringent: upper lip two-lobed; lower three-cleft; its middle segment rather dissimilar, with two prominences at the base. Anthers with divaricated lobes. Stigma flattened. Capsule covered by the permanent calyx, of two cells and four valves: the partition from the inflexed margins of the valves, inserted into the central receptacle.

A genus of herbaceous plants, with opposite leaves. Flower-stalks axillary and terminal, single-flowered, without bractæes. Corolla blue. Mr. Brown himself suspects it may be scarcely distinct, in reality, from *MIMULUS*. (See that article.) He mentions no other species than one from New Holland, the rest, whatever they may be, are, we presume, natives of other countries; perhaps of the East Indies.

1. *U. linearis*. Linear Uvedalia. Br. n. 1.—“Leaves linear, several times shorter than the flower-stalks.”—Gathered by Mr. Brown in the tropical part of New Holland.

This genus being confessedly very near *Mimulus*, we have not attempted to draw up its natural characters at full length.

UVELEN, in *Geography*, an island of Russia, in the Frozen sea; 12 miles N. of Cape Tchukotskoi. N. lat. 66° 25'. E. long. 188° 44'.

UVELKA, a river of Russia, which runs into the Tobol.

UVELSKAIA, a fort of Russia, in the government of Upha; 56 miles W.S.W. of Tchelabinsk.

UVELSKAIA, *Niznei*, a fort of Russia, in the government of Upha, on the Uvelka; 28 miles S.S.W. of Tchelabinsk.

VUERTIER, a town of France, in the department of Mont Blanc; 10 miles S.E. of Annecy.

VUESCIKER, a town of Norway, in the province of Christiania; 32 miles E. of Christiania.

VUKA, a river of Slavonia, which runs into the Danube, 8 miles N.W. of Illok.

VUKOLANI, a fortress of China, in Chen-si; 27 miles N. of Han-tchong.

VUKOVITZA, a town of Slavonia; 8 miles W. of Verovitza.

VULCAN, in *Mythology*, the son of Jupiter and Juno, who, on account of his deformity, was cast down from heaven into the island Lemnos, and breaking his leg with the fall, is always represented as lame. At Lemnos he set up the trade of a smith, and taught the Lemnians, in recompence of the succours they afforded him, the manifold uses of fire and iron: he is also represented as the manufacturer of Jupiter's thunder, and the arms of the other gods. The poets describe him as blackened and hardened from the forge; with a face red and fiery, whilst at his work; and tired and heated after it.

This poor god is almost always the subject either of pity or of ridicule. He is the great cuckold of heaven; and his lameness serves to divert the gods. The great celestial deities seem to have admitted Vulcan among them merely to make them laugh, and to be the butt of the whole company. Spence's *Polymetis*, p. 81.

Cicero mentions three other Vulcans: one the son of Cælus; the second the son of the Nile, acknowledged by the Egyptians as their protector, and called Opas; and the other the son of Menalius, who inhabited the Vulcanian isles. Banier mentions another Vulcan, more ancient than either of these, viz. the Tubal-Cain of scripture, who, having applied himself to the forging of iron, as Moïses informs us, became the model and original of all the rest. The Vulcan of the Greeks was the god of blacksmiths, and a blacksmith himself; accordingly Diodorus Siculus (lib. v.) gives this account of him: Vulcan is the first founder of works in iron, brass, gold, and silver; in a word, of all fusible materials. He also taught the uses to which the artists and others can employ fire; and for this reason all those who work in metals, or rather men in general, call fire by the name of Vulcan, and offer sacrifices to that god, in acknowledgment of so useful an invention. The second Vulcan above mentioned, or the son of Nilus, was probably an ancient Egyptian king; or rather he was the most ancient divinity of the Egyptians, since we find him in Herodotus, Syncellus, and other authors, at the head of the divinities of these people, unless we revert backwards to Tubal-Cain, or to some one of the kings of those countries, who signalized himself in the art of forging iron.

Vulcan, the son of Jupiter and Juno, is supposed to have been a Titan prince, the same, according to sir Isaac Newton, with Thoas, king of Lemnos, whose wife had an intrigue with Bacchus, and the husband found discovering it, Bacchus contrived to appease him by causing him to drink wine, and creating him king of Byblos and Cyprus; after which he passed the Hellespont with his army, and conquered Thrace. To these events the poets are thought to allude, when they feign that Vulcan fell from heaven into the island of Lemnos, and that Bacchus, after having pacified his wrath, succeeded in recalling him to heaven. He fell, it is said, from the heaven of the gods of Crete, when he departed from Crete to Lemnos to forge medals; he was reinstated in heaven, when Bacchus made him king of Byblos and Cyprus; for the courts of the princes of those times, in imitation of that of Jupiter, were looked upon as heaven. Newton's *Chronology*.

As the island of Lemnos was very subject to earthquakes and volcanoes, or as the art of forging arms was invented in this island, Vulcan is represented as falling into it. The forges of this god were also established in Mount Ætna for the same reason, and in the Vulcanian islands.

Of all the ancient nations, the Egyptians were the principal worshippers of this god. Accordingly he had at Memphis a magnificent temple, and a colossal statue, seventy-five feet high. His priests were much esteemed by the Egyptians, so that one of them, named Sathos, ascended the throne. This god was also highly honoured by the Romans. Tatius is said, by Dionysius of Halicarnassus, to have erected for him a temple, and Romulus consecrated to him a chariot of brass drawn with four horses. His sacrifices were holocausts: and Tarquin the elder, after the defeat of the Sabines, burned their arms and spoils in honour of this god. The lion was, who seems to dart fire from his mouth, consecrated to Vulcan; and dogs were set apart for guarding his temples. Of these he had several in Rome, but the most ancient one, built by Romulus, was without the bounds of the city; the Augurs being of opinion, that the god of fire ought not to be within the city itself. But the highest token of respect rendered by the Romans to this god, according to Dion. Halic. was their holding in his temple those assemblies, where the most important affairs of the republic were debated; the Romans thinking that they could invoke nothing more sacred, for the confirmation of their decisions and treaties, than the avenging fire of which that god was the symbol. All men in general, sensible of their obligations to this god for the discovery of the various uses which artists and others make of fire, offered sacrifices to him. There were also festivals instituted in honour of Vulcan, of which the principal was that, at which it was the custom to run with lighted torches, that were to be carried to the goal without being extinguished, under pain of disgrace; and Pliny informs us, that he who embraces another had his torch for his reward. Most of the medals of the island of Lemnos represented this god, with the legend, "Deo Vulcano." The Gauls paid adoration to this god 150 years before Julius Cæsar entered into their country.

VULCANALIA, among the *Romans*, a festival in honour of Vulcan, which was kept, as some say, from the 23d to the 29th of August, or, according to others, on the 10th before the calends of May, or the 22d of April. On this occasion the people used to throw animals into the fire.

VULCANI INSULA, in *Ancient Geography*, an island near that of Sicily, consecrated to Vulcan, according to Diodorus Siculus. Strabo calls it the temple of Vulcan, and Virgil denominates it the house and territory of Vulcan. It was under this name that the Lipari islands were described, and they were also named the isles of Æolus. Thus Virgil says, *Æneid*. l. viii. v. 416.

"Infula Sicaniun juxta latus, Æoliumque
Erigitur Liparea fumantibus ardua Saxis.

* * * * *

Vulcani domus, et Vulcania nomine tellus."

VULCANIÆ, the name of the Æolian isle where Vulcan's forges were erected. See **LIPARI**, &c.

VULCANO and **VULCANELLO**, in *Geography*. Vulcan is one of the Æolian isles situated to the south of Lipari. Vulcanello was formerly a small island near Vulcan, but is now joined to it by the matter ejected from a volcano, which has been continually burning in Vulcan since the earliest records of history, though in modern times the violent eruptions are less frequent. Vulcan has been estimated to be twelve miles round; but, according to the account of it given by lieutenant-general Cockburn, the circuit of this island is about nine miles. The side of the island which looks towards Lipari is entirely barren, and does not produce any kind of vegetable; but the other sides, which

front the west and the south, are partly covered with the ilex and the oak, besides quantities of broom and other shrubs. As the whole of the island is composed of volcanic substances, it may be inferred that those parts which support vegetation have been more subject to decomposition than the barren parts. The substances, of which the soil is composed in the fertile parts of the island, are lavas softened to a great depth by atmospheric agency. On removing this soil, Spallanzani found the subjacent lava hard and porphyritic. Mixed with the lava were large pieces of obsidian, similar to that of Lipari. Vulcan is not inhabited, but is visited by sportsmen from Lipari, who go there to shoot rabbits. The first account we have of Vulcano is given by Thucydides, who relates, in his history, that Vulcan threw out flames by night and smoke by day. Aristotle, in his Treatise on Meteors, describes an ancient eruption of Vulcan, a part of the ground swelled and rose with a great noise, forming a hill which burst, and from whence a violent wind issued forth, with flames. At the same time so great a quantity of ashes were thrown out, as entirely to cover the neighbouring city of Lipari. The eruptions of Vulcano were visible in his time.

Polybius, as quoted by Strabo, says there were three volcanoes in this island, two well defined, and one with the crater partly fallen in. The mouth of the larger was five stadia in circuit. The bottom was only fifty feet in diameter, and situated about one stadium above the level of the sea. The form of the other two craters were similar. At a later period, in 1726, there were two burning craters on this island. See **VULCANO**.

From the text of Strabo, it may be inferred, that the volcanoes in this island threw out lava, since he says the burning matter ejected filled up a part of the sea to a considerable extent. Callias, in his life of Agathoches, tyrant of Syracuse, relates that, on a lofty eminence of Vulcan, there are two craters, one of which was three stadia in circumference, casting a great light to a vast distance, and that from this mouth burning stones of great size were thrown out, with so loud a noise that it might be heard to the distance of 500 stadia.

Cluverius and Fazello, in more recent times, describe Vulcano as being in a state of active eruption. The small island of Vulcanello, which now joins Vulcan, rose from the sea about the year of Rome 550. It was separated from Vulcan by a very narrow strait, which was open in the time of Fazello, but afterwards filled up by new eruptions from Vulcan.

At present there is only one burning crater on Vulcan, from which there have been two considerable eruptions in modern times, the one in 1775, the latest in 1786, which threw out an immense quantity of sand mixed with volumes of smoke and fire, accompanied with subterranean noises and thunders. This eruption continued for fifteen days, and appears to have changed the form and depth of the crater. See **VULCANO**.

The present crater of Vulcano nearly equals in size that of Vesuvius, and greatly exceeds it in the variety of productions with which the sides are lined. These present the most beautiful colours, red, orange, deep yellow, and green. They consist of sulphur in various states of combination, and of saline and metallic matter and volcanic glasses. (See **VULCANO** and **VULCANIC PRODUCTS**.) About half way down the crater, a hot spring issues from the side; but the quantity of water which flows is small, and is soon lost among the masses of scorix and lava. Above the spring are pendant stalactites of alum of various forms and sizes. The height of the summit of the crater of Vulcano is not given by any traveller

that we are acquainted with; but from a comparison with Stromboli, it can scarcely be estimated at more than 1500 feet above the level of the sea. The sand on the shore, in some parts of the island, though covered with the sea, preserves a certain degree of heat.

The ancients attached much importance to the appearance of the smoke of Vulcano. They inform us, that before a fourth wind blew, the island was enveloped in so dark a cloud, that Sicily could not be seen from it. When a north wind was to be expected, a pure flame rose above the crater. The various sounds of the explosions likewise, and the different places where the eruptions began, with the appearance of the flames, were all prognostics of the wind which would blow three days afterwards. This account, given by Polybius, does not accord with the present phenomena of Vulcano; and in all probability, it originated not in any accurate observations, but from the prejudices of ancient mariners.

Modern observers have also pretended to predict the state of the weather from the appearance of Vulcano. If it could be established that there was any connection between the state of the atmosphere, and the intensity of the volcanic fire, the fact would be well deserving attention. It is however necessary to observe, that the smoke and vapour from common fires and breweries, &c. assume a very different appearance in different states of the atmosphere, and that this should be the case with the vapour and smoke issuing from volcanoes appears highly probable, without allowing that any real change takes place in the volcano itself. In a book entitled "*Traacts by Sicilian Authors*," printed at Palermo in 1761, there is a dissertation on the manner in which the weather may be foretold twenty-four hours before hand, in which the following account is given by a native of Lipari, who made his observations between the years 1730 and 1740. "The change of weather and winds is indicated by mount Vulcano twenty-four hours before it takes place, by a louder noise than usual, resembling distant thunder, and if we then observe the smoke that issues in a greater quantity than usual, we may discover what kind of wind will succeed. When the wind is about to change to the south-east, the smoke rises so dense and black, and in so great a quantity; and to such a height, and afterwards falls in so black a dust, as to strike the beholder with awe. At the same time a loud roaring is heard, frequently accompanied with tremblings of the earth. When the wind is on the point of changing to the north-north-east, or north-north-west, or north-west, the smoke rises more slowly, is less dense, and the colour is entirely white, as is that of the dust which falls from it. Nor does any loud noise or trembling of the earth take place. When the wind is about to change to the east, or east-north-east, an explosion is heard in the body of the mountain, which soon after throws out a little white smoke, of which colour are likewise the ashes which fall when the smoke is dispersed. The mountain in the mean time explodes, and roars so violently at intervals, that the shock of an earthquake is dreaded. Lastly, previous to a change of wind to the west, the west-south-west, or west-north-west, vast volumes of smoke arise of a dark ash-grey, approaching the colour of lead, and so thick that when they disperse they occasion a continued shower of ashes."

These observations, whether correct or not, indicate a more active state of the volcano than what it presents when it has recently been visited. Spallanzani, who notices the above predictions relative to Vulcano, says, "I should justly incur the imputation of rashness were I absolutely to deny these facts, without having sufficient reason so to do, especially as they are so precise, and are said to have been observed on the spot. Besides, it does not appear credible

that Abbate Rossi, who gives them, would have published his observations in a place where he was liable to be contradicted by all his countrymen. I must, however, with philosophic candour, say, that during my residence of several weeks in Lipari, where I continually saw Vulcano during the blowing of the different winds mentioned in this extract, particularly the south-east, the west, and the south-west, I never observed, either before they began, or while they continued to blow, any tremblings of the earth, subterranean roarings, lofty columns of smoke, or showers of ashes. Once only, when a violent south-west wind was on the decline, the column of smoke which issued from Vulcano increased prodigiously, but when it had risen a little distance above the upper edge of the crater, it grew thinner, and soon after vanished. Though the wind continued to blow, this prodigious cloud of smoke still continued to rise from the crater for several hours. I once observed the smoke to be exceedingly rare when a strong west wind blew; and twice, when the air was perfectly calm, I observed the smoke extremely copious, and rising to a great height. To conclude, after carefully noticing day by day every change that took place in the phenomena exhibited by Vulcano, during my stay in its vicinity, I could perceive none which afforded support to these famous prognostics. The sailors at Lipari also were not agreed respecting them. I am not, however, so positive as to deny the whole of these observations. To know with certainty whether any direct relations exist between the various symptoms of Vulcano, and the changes of the atmosphere, it would be necessary to reside for some years in the island, a place truly wild and desolate; and he who, like Empedocles at Etna, should go to erect his dwelling there, in order to observe the changes of the volcano, would have no other companions than the rabbits which make their burrows in the southern side of the island." Spallanzani's *Travels in the Two Sicilies*, vol. ii.

When M. de Luc visited Vulcano in 1757, it appeared to be in a more quiescent state than at present; for though smoke and vapour issued from the crater, he does not mention being incommoded by the heat when he descended into it. Yet he noticed a fact which we believe has not since been remarked. The sulphureous vapours had a communication with the sea, which was in many places of a yellowish colour, and in others emitted fumes; and in the places where the fumes issued, the heat was intolerable, so that the fish which approached the coast died, and the beach near the level of the sea was covered with dead fish. Pliny states, that when the island of Vulcanello was thrown up, a great number of fish were found dead, and caused the death of those who ate them.

An opinion exists, and has existed for centuries, that the ground under Vulcano is hollow, and that it will some time be swallowed up. This opinion probably originated from the hollow sound occasioned by the throwing of a stone, or any hard substance, on the bottom of the crater. Probably Vulcano, Stromboli, and all the Æolian isles, are only the chimneys of one immense subterranean fire, extending under the whole, and communicating from thence to Etna and Vesuvius. Stromboli threw out unusually dense and suffocating volumes of smoke for some days before the earthquakes which desolated Calabria in 1783; and was uncommonly violent at the time of the great earthquake which destroyed Euphemia. See VOLCANO.

VULDEP, a river of Bavaria, which runs into the Inn, near Ratenburgh in the Tyrolese.

VULGAGO, a name given by some botanical authors to the asafum or asafabacca, whose leaves and root are used in medicine.

VULGAR *Arithmetic, Fractions, and Purgation.* See the substantives.

VULGATE, a very ancient Latin translation of the Bible; and the only one the church of Rome acknowledges to be authentic.

The ancient Vulgate of the Old Testament was translated, almost word for word, from the Greek of the Septuagint. The author of the version is not known, nor so much as guessed at. See **VERSION**, *Italic and Latin*.

It was a long time known by the name of the *Italic*, or old version; as being of very great antiquity in the Latin church. It was the common, or vulgar version, before St. Jerom made a new one from the Hebrew original, with occasional recurrences to the Septuagint; whence it has its name *Vulgate*.

Nobilius, in 1558, and F. Morin, in 1628, gave new editions of it; pretending to have restored, and re-collated it, from the ancients who had cited it. The Vulgate was held, by St. Augustine, to be preferable to all the other Latin versions then extant; as rendering the words and sense of the sacred text more closely and justly than any of the rest. It has since been retouched from the correction of St. Jerom; and it is this mixture of the ancient Italic version, and some corrections of St. Jerom, that is now called the Vulgate, and which the council of Trent has declared to be authentic.

It is this Vulgate alone that is used in the Romish church, excepting for some passages of the ancient Vulgate left in the Missal, and the Psalms; which are still sung according to the old Italic version.

St. Jerom declares that, in his revision of the Italic version, he used great care and circumspection, never varying from that version but when he thought it misrepresented the sense. But as the Greek copies to which he had access were not so ancient as those from which the Italic version had been made, some learned authors have been of opinion that it would have been much better if he had collected all the copies, and by comparing them, have restored that translation to its original purity. It is plain that he never completed this work, and that he even left some faults in it, for fear of varying too much from the ancient version, since he renders in his commentaries some words otherwise than he has done in his translation. This version was not introduced into the church but by degrees, for fear of offending weak persons. Rufinus, notwithstanding his enmity to St. Jerom, and his having exclaimed much against this performance, was one of the first to prefer it to the Vulgar or Italian. This translation gained at last so great an authority, by the approbation of pope Gregory I. and his declared preference of it to every other, that it was subsequently in public use through all the Western churches, although it was not regarded as authentic, except by the council of Trent: it is certainly of considerable use, as it may serve to illustrate several passages both of the Old and New Testament.

The two principal Popish editions of the Vulgate are those of popes Sixtus V. and Clement VIII. The former was printed in 1590, after pope Sixtus had collected the most ancient MSS. and best printed copies, summoned the most learned men out of all the nations of the Christian world, assembled a congregation of cardinals for their assistance and counsel, and presided over the whole himself. This edition was declared to be corrected in the very best manner possible, and published with a tremendous excommunication of every person, who should presume ever afterwards to alter the least particle of the edition thus authentically promulgated by his holiness, sitting in that chair, in *qua Petri vivit potestas*, et

Vol. XXXVII.

excellit auctoritas. The other edition was published in 1592, by pope Clement VIII.; which was so different from that of Sixtus, as to contain two thousand variations, some of whole verses, and many others clearly and designedly contradictory in sense; and yet this edition is also pronounced authentic, and enforced by the same sentence of excommunication with the former. See Kennicott's State of the printed Hebrew Text, &c. vol. ii. p. 198, &c.

VULGATE of the New Testament. This the Romanists generally hold preferable to the common Greek text, because it is this alone, and not the Greek text, that the council of Trent has declared authentic: accordingly that church has, as it were, adopted this edition, and the priests read no other at the altar, the preachers quote no other in the pulpit, nor the divines in the schools.

Yet some of their best authors, F. Bouhours for instance, own, that among the differences that are found between the common Greek and the Vulgate, there are some wherein the Greek reading appears more clear and natural than that of the Latin; so that the second might be corrected from the first, if the holy see should think fit. But those differences, for the generality, only consist in a few syllables, or words; they rarely touch the sense. Besides, in some of the most considerable, the Vulgate is authorized by several ancient manuscripts. Bouhours spent the last years of his life in giving a French translation of the New Testament, according to the Vulgate. In 1675, a new edition of the Greek Testament was published by the university of Oxford; and great care taken therein to compare the common Greek text with all the most ancient manuscripts in England, France, Spain, and Italy; and to note the differences observed therein.

In the preface of this work, the editors, speaking of the divers versions of the Bible in the vulgar tongues, observe of the Vulgate, that there is no version of any language to be compared with it. And this they justify, by comparing passages that occur in the most celebrated Greek manuscripts, with the same passages in the Vulgate, where there is any difference between that and the common printed copy. In effect, it is probable, that at the time the ancient Italic or Vulgate version of the New Testament was made, and at the time it was afterwards compared with the Greek manuscripts by St. Jerom, as they were then nearer the times of the apostles, they had juster Greek copies, and those better kept, than any of those used when printing was first set on foot.

"Highly as the Vulgate is extolled by the church of Rome," says professor Michaelis, "it has been depreciated beyond measure at the beginning of the 16th century by several learned Protestants, whose example has been followed by men of inferior abilities. At the restoration of learning, when the faculty of writing elegant Latin was the highest accomplishment of a scholar, the Vulgate was regarded with contempt, as not written with classical purity. But after the Greek manuscripts were discovered, their readings were preferred to those of the Latin, because the New Testament was written in Greek, and the Latin was only a version; but it was not considered that these Greek manuscripts were modern in comparison of those originals from which the Latin was taken; nor was it known at that time, that the more ancient the Greek MSS. and the other versions were, the closer was their agreement with the Vulgate. This has been already evinced by Simon, who made it a particular object of his attention in his *Hist. Crit. du Texte et des Versions du N. T.*, and has pointed out the real merits of the Latin version. Our ablest writers, such as Mill and Bengel, have been induced by this treatise

to abandon the opinion of their predecessors, and have ascribed to the Vulgate a value perhaps greater than it deserves." Michaelis's Introduction to the New Testament by Marth, vol. ii. part 1. Campbell's Prelim. Dissertation to his Comment on the Four Gospels. A complete account of all the editions of the Vulgate is given in Le Long Bibl. Sacra, ed. Mafsch. part 2. vol. iii. cap. 2.

M. Simon calls the Greek version of the Septuagint, before it was revised and reformed by Origen, the *ancient Vulgate Greek*. Origen's correction was preferred to the ancient Greek, which was consequently disused; so that we have now scarcely any copies of it. See SEPTUAGINT.

VULGIENTES, in *Ancient Geography*, a people of Gallia Narbonensis, N. of the Salgii; to whom Pliny assigns the town of Apta Julia.

VULKAN, in *Geography*, a mountain of Transylvania; 24 miles W. of Weissemburg.

VULNERARY, formed from *vulnus*, wound, in *Medicine*, an epithet given to remedies proper for the cure of wounds and ulcers.

There are divers vulnerary herbs; as aristolochia, or birth-wort; fanicle, or felf-heal; plantain, mouse-ear, veronica, or fluellin; agrimony, vervain, or the holy herb, &c.

There are also vulnerary potions, composed of various simples; vulnerary balsams, unguents, plasters, &c. See BALSAM, &c.

VULNERARY Water. See WATER.

VULPANSER, in *Ornithology*, a name given by some authors to the shell-drake, or borrow-duck, a very beautiful species of duck, common on some of our coasts, and called by the generality of authors *tadorna*. See DUCK.

VULPECULA, in *Ichthyology*, a name given by Belonius and Gelfner to the fish called by the generality of authors *centrine*. See CHIMERA and SQUALUS.

VULPECULA et Anser, Fox and Goose, in *Astronomy*, a constellation made out of uninformed stars by Hevelius, in which he reckons twenty-seven stars; but Flamsteed enumerates thirty-five. See CONSTELLATION.

VULPES, in *Entomology*, a species of SCARABEUS, which see.

VULPES, in *Zoology*. See FOX.

VULPES Bahamensis, in *Ichthyology*, a species of ESOX, with a fin in the middle of the back, and the branchiostegous membrane three-rayed. It is found in America.

VULPES Marina. See SEA-FOX.

VULPES Putoria, in *Zoology*. See DIDELPHIS Opussum.

VULPINALIA, among the Romans, a feast celebrated on the 10th of April, in which they burned foxes.

VULSINIENSIS LACUS, or *Vulsinian Lake*, in *Ancient Geography*, a lake of Italy, in Etruria, nearly S. of the lake of Trasimene. It took its name from that of *Vulsinii*, which see. See also VOLSINIENSIS LACUS.

VULSINII, *Bolsina*, a town of Italy, in Etruria, upon the northern bank of the lake above-mentioned. It was one of the most considerable towns of Etruria; and its inhabitants armed themselves against the Romans in the year of Rome 363. This town afterwards fell under the power of slaves; but when they were introduced into the order of senators, they would not suffer any assembly to be convened without their consent, and they asserted their own impunity for many crimes which entailed dishonour on families. This singular fact occurred in the year 439. According to Florus, these slaves were under the conduct of a person named Fabius Gurges. The Romans established the order in Vulsinii; but they despoiled it of a great number of statues. This town was ravaged at three different times: first by the Romans; then

by a monster, of whom no adequate idea can easily be given; and lastly, by a thunderbolt.

VULSON, MARC DE, *Sieur de la Colombiere*, in *Bio-graphy*, an heraldic writer, lived at Grenoble in 1618, and discovering his wife in the act of adultery, killed her and her gallant, and obtained a pardon at Paris, whither he fled. His work, entitled "La Science Heroique, traitant de la Noblesse, de l'Origine des Armes, &c." 1644, folio, reprinted with additions in 1669, is reckoned the most complete French work on Heraldry. He also published, "Le Theatre d'Honneur et de Cavalerie, ou le Miroir Historique de la Noblesse," 2 vols. folio, 1648, and "Recueil de plusieurs Pièces et Figures d'Armoiries," folio, 1689; and died in 1658. Nouv. Dict. Hist.

VULTONA, *La Boutonne*, in *Ancient Geography*, a river of Aquitania in Gaul; after pursuing the course nearly from E. to W., it discharges itself into the Charante. This river is also denominated "Vultumna."

VULTUR, or VULTURE, in *Ornithology*, a genus of birds belonging to the order of Accipitres, or hawks. The characters of which are, that the bill is straight, and hooked only at the apex, and covered at the base by a cere or skin; that the head has no feathers, and covered in front with a naked skin; that the tongue is fleshy, and generally bifid, the neck retractile, and the feet strong, with moderately crooked claws. Gmelin, in his edition of the Linnæan system, reckons 13 species, besides varieties, which are as follow:

GYPHUS, or Vulture Condor, or largest vulture, or black vulture, with the shorter wing-feathers white; the head furnished with an upright, compressed, fleshy crest or comb; the throat naked and red; and the neck carunculated on each side. We are enabled, by Dr. Shaw, who had an opportunity of examining two birds of this kind in excellent preservation in the Leverian Museum, to give a more correct description of this genus than that which was furnished when the article condor was written. (See CONDOR.) These birds, which are more frequently seen in Peru than in any other parts of South America, were brought from the straits of Magellan. They were supposed to be male and female. The male bird has "a kind of gular pouch, or large dilated skin, of a bluish colour, proceeding from the base of the lower mandible, and reaching to some distance down the neck. On each side of the neck is also situated a row or series of flat, carneo, semicircular, or ear-shaped flaps or appendages, to the number of seven on each side, and which gradually decrease in size as they descend; being so disposed as to lap slightly over each other. The whole neck and breast are of a red colour, and perfectly bare of feathers; being only coated here and there with a few straggling filaments of blackish hair or coarse down. The colour of the lateral wattles or caruncle inclines to bluish. The crest or comb on the head is large, upright, thick at the base, sharpened on its edge, and not entirely even in its outline, but somewhat sinuated, sinking slightly in the middle, and rising higher on the back part: it is smooth, and irregularly convex on the sides, and in its texture or substance not greatly dissimilar to that of the V. papa of Linnæus, or king vulture. At a slight distance behind this, on each side, is situated a much smaller, semi-oval nuchal crest, of a similar substance, and beset with coarse down. The colour of the crest is blackish, slightly inclining to red and blue in some parts. Towards the lower part of the neck is a pendent pear-shaped tubercle: the lower part of the neck is surrounded by a collar of milk-white down or fine plumes, representing exactly a tippet of white fur. The extent of the bird, from wing's end to wing's end, was said

to be more than twelve feet when measured immediately after it was shot."

The back of the bird has been erroneously described as white, whereas it is coal-black; an error evidently owing to the bird's having been seen with the wings closed over the back, so that the white secondaries covered it from view. Gmelin copied this error from Molina, and thus Mr. Latham was misled. In their descriptions, the tail is said to be small, which, on the contrary, is rather large in proportion to the bird. The supposed female had not the least appearance of a comb on the head, which, with some other particulars, inclined Dr. Shaw to conclude that it was either a young bird or a female. The extent of its wings from tip to tip was not far short of 10 feet. Another of these birds, mentioned in the 18th volume of the Phil. Trans. and shot in Chili, had wings which extended more than 16 feet. The back of the fore-mentioned female was of a dark lead colour, becoming gradually whitish towards the tip. The head and neck were destitute of feathers, but covered with a short straggling sort of hairy down; the top of the head inclined to a dark colour, but the rest of the neck was paler, and probably in the living bird of a reddish colour. Towards the lower part of the neck, where it joins to the shoulders, was a ruff or circle of white downy feathers; and beneath the breast a considerable bare space: the rest of the bird was black, except the shorter or secondary wing-feathers, which were white with black tips: the legs and feet were blackish, very strong, but the claws not much incurved: the tail even at the end, and very slightly rounded at the sides. On comparing the remiges or wing-feathers of this bird with some of those which were brought over by Mr. Byron as those of the real condor, Dr. Shaw found them to be exactly similar, except in size. From an examination of these specimens, Dr. S. concluded that the physiognomy of this bold and formidable vulture is not of a ferocious cast, but rather exhibiting an appearance almost bordering on mildness. M. Humboldt makes some deduction for the alleged size of this bird, as he had seen none which exceeded 3 feet 3 inches in length, and 8 feet 9 inches in extent from the end of one wing to that of the other. He admits, however, that the condor may sometimes be supposed to arrive at a much greater magnitude, and to measure in extent of wings 11 or 12 feet. Its usual residence, as he informs us, is among lofty rocks in the region of the Andes, just below the boundaries of perpetual snow, and it may be considered as a co-inhabitant with the guanaco.

Nothing can exceed the sagacity with which the condor perceives the scent of its prey at a distance, or the boldness with which it flies down to seize it. It preys both on dead and living animals, and two birds will seize on a heifer, and begin their work of destruction by picking the eyes and tearing the tongue out.

A method of taking condors alive is often practised in Peru and Quito, and is as follows:—A cow or horse is killed; and in a little time the scent of the carcase attracts the condors, which are suddenly seen in numbers in places where no one would suppose they existed. They always begin with the eyes and tongue, and then proceed to devour the intestines, &c. When they are well fated, they are too heavy and indolent to fly, and the Indians take them easily with nooses. When thus taken alive, the condor is dull and timid for the first hour, and then becomes extremely ferocious. M. Humboldt had one in his possession for some days, which it was dangerous to approach. The condor is extremely tenacious of life, and will survive for a long time such wounds as might be supposed to prove immediately fatal; and such is the fulness of its plumage, that it has the

power of refitting or repelling the force of a ball fired at it from a gun. This indeed is not peculiar to the condor, but has been observed in some other well-feathered and thick-skinned birds, particularly those of the order *Anseres*.

BENGALENSIS, the Brown Vulture. With the head and neck naked before, and faintly chestnut-colour; the bill lead colour, with black tip; or brown vulture, paler beneath, with the head and neck covered by fulvous down; the lower part encircled by a brown ruff. This is the Bengal vulture of Latham, two feet six inches in length; bill and legs dusky black, and crop hanging over the breast, as is the case in many others of the vulture tribe. It is a native of Bengal.

PAPA, Vulture. With carunculated nostrils, and naked crown and neck; or whitish-rufescent vulture, with naked variegated head and neck; nostrils furnished with a loose orange-coloured caruncle, and neck with a grey ruff. This is the *cozcaquauhli* of Hernand. Mex., king of the vultures of Edwards, and exceeds every other species in the elegance of its appearance, about the size of a hen turkey, and of a light-reddish brown or buff colour, with black wings and tail, accompanied with a gloss of green, the edges of the wing-feathers being of a whitish cast; the under parts of the body are white, with a slight cast of yellow; the legs and feet pale flesh-colour; but what constitutes the peculiar ornament of the bird is the vivid colouring of the head and neck, which are bare of feathers. This beautiful species is a native of many parts of South America, and is also found in the West Indies: it feeds on carrion, like the rest of the tribe, and occasionally preys on several of the smaller animals, as lizards, &c.

MONACHUS, Monk Vulture. With gibbous crown, and black body; or brown vulture, with lengthened ruff, and downy occipital crest. This is the crested black vulture of Edwards; the cinereous or Arabian vulture of Latham; and vautour, or grand vautour of Buffon. This bird is an inhabitant of the deserts of Arabia, and is said to be not uncommon in the Pyrenean mountains.

AURA, the Brown-greyish Vulture. With black wing-feathers, and white bill; or blackish vulture, with purple and green reflexions, and red, naked, papillated and wrinkled head and neck. This is the tzepliot of Hernandez; the *uruba*, &c. of Willughby and Marcgrave; the *gallinazo* of Ulloa; the turkey-buzzard of Catelby; and the carrion-crow of Sloane; the carrion-vulture of Pennant and Latham; and vautour de Brasil of Buffon. Some say that there are two distinct species, *viz.* the *V. aura*, which is of a blackish-brown, and the *V. uruba*, which is entirely black, the bill, head, and neck excepted, which latter is most prevalent in South America. Gmelin mentions a variety, black, with brown wing-feathers, and cinereous bill. This species, with some variations, appears to be generally diffused over the whole continent of South America, but mostly in the warmer regions. In some parts of British America it is popularly called the turkey-buzzard, and in other parts carrion-crow. It is somewhat smaller than a turkey; it feeds on every kind of animal matter, and is highly esteemed in the West Indies on account of its activity in clearing away substances that might otherwise render the air noxious in those warm climates. In consequence of this mode of life, the birds themselves have always a very offensive odour. According to Mr. Pennant, these birds are common from Nova Scotia to Terra del Fuego, and though they are mischievous in attacking and destroying cattle in a weak or diseased state, they are beneficial in lessening the number of alligators, which would otherwise become intolerable by their multitudes.

VULTUR.

CINEREUS, the Brown-blackish Vulture. With wing and tail-feathers verging towards cinereous, and legs covered with brown feathers. This is referred by Shaw to the *V. monachus*. It is the *V. cinereus* of Ray; the cinereous or ash-coloured *V.* of Willughby and Latham. It inhabits high mountains of Europe. Gmelin suggests it to be a variety of *percnopterus*.

FUSCUS, the Brown Vulture. With wing-feathers brown or blackish, the primary white at the apex spotted with brown, and tail-feathers grey-brown, and naked legs. This is the *vautour de Malte* of Buffon, and found in Europe, chiefly in the island of Malta. Gmelin questions whether it be different from the *percnopterus*?

NIGER, Black Vulture. With wing and tail-feathers brown, and legs covered with black feathers. This is described as larger than the golden vulture, of a black colour, and is said to be common in Egypt and Sardinia. Gmelin suggests that it is a variety of *percnopterus*, and Dr. Shaw also inclines to think that it is a variety.

LEUCOCEPHALUS, Vulture. With snowy feathers, wing and tail black, with a white ruff. This is the white or cinereous vulture of Willughby, and the *vautour de Norvege* of Buffon; found in Sardinia and Norway; and suggested to be a variety.

FULVUS, Vulture. From grey to reddish above, head, neck, and ruff white, wing and tail-feathers black; or fulvous-chestnut vulture, with black wing and tail-feathers, downy whitish head and neck, and white ruff. This is the *V. fulvus* of Brisson, the fulvous *V.* and golden *V.* of Willughby, and the griffon of Buffon. This is one of the largest of the genus, exceeding the size of the golden eagle. The general colour of the plumage, when the bird is in its best state, is a full rufous or tawny chestnut; the legs and feet are ash-coloured. This bird, often confounded with others, is found in the mountains of Persia.

PERCNOPTERUS, Vulture. With black wing-feathers, the exterior margin, that of the outmost excepted, greyish or hoary; or white *V.* (the female brownish) with lengthened narrow beak, naked face, and black wing-feathers with grey edges. This is the *V. (percnopterus)* with naked head and plump throat, or Egyptian mountain-falcon of Haffelquist; the *aquiline V.* of Albin; the vulture eagle of Aldrovand; and the *rachamah* of Bruce's Travels. Its size, according to Gesner, is that of a stork. Shaw thinks it probable, that the *rachamah* of Bruce, the Angola vulture of Pennant, the ash-coloured vulture of Latham, and the *petit vautour* or *vautour de Norvege* of Buffon, are in reality the same species, and constitute the male *V. percnopterus* of Linnaeus. He also inclines to believe that the *Maltese V.* of Latham, or *vautour de Malte* of Buffon, is merely the female of this species. If this be the case, the *V. percnopterus* seems to be a pretty general inhabitant of the old continent, being found not only in many of the temperate and warmer parts of Europe, but in various parts of Asia and Africa. It is plentiful in Egypt, where it is esteemed for its beneficial services in destroying various putrid substances in the vicinity of towns and cities. Its general size is that of a female turkey, but in this respect it varies in different countries. The male also varies in the cast of its colour, which is sometimes nearly white, and sometimes a dirty pale rufous-white; the quills are black, but the secondaries are externally of the same colour with the rest of the plumage. The female is said to exceed the male in size. Bruce informs us, that it is a very great violator of order, or police, to kill any of these birds near Cairo.

CRISTATUS, the Crested Vulture. From reddish to blackish, the breast more inclining to red, the legs naked.

This is the brown vulture of Willughby and Latham. It is found in thick and desert forests.

BARBARUS, or **BARBATUS**. The vulture brown to black, underneath white inclining to brown, woolly legs, lead-coloured toes, and brown nails; or blackish-brown *V.*, fulvous beneath, with the head and neck covered by lanceolate whitish plumes, and the bill bearded beneath. This is the bearded *V.* of Edwards and Latham. It is one of the largest of the European vultures, and is principally observed among the Alps of Switzerland, where it is called *lammer-geyer*, or *lamb-vulture*. It is described and figured in the works of Gesner, under the title of *V. aureus*. It exceeds the golden eagle in size. This species seems to be a native of the wilder regions both of Asia and Africa, and seems to be recorded by Mr. Bruce under the name of "niffer-werk." Mr. Bruce's description, for which we refer to the Appendix to his Travels, affords a striking instance of the boldness and voracity of this bird. This vulture is said to build in the inaccessible cavities of lofty rocks, and they sometimes assemble in small flocks about the mountainous regions of the countries which they inhabit.

Dr. Shaw mentions some other species, besides those that are above enumerated.

CALIFORNIANUS, Black Vulture. With whitish beak; head and neck unfeathered, and of a pale colour; the plumes of the collar and breast lanceolate. This bird is one of the largest of the genus, and approaches to the size of the condor. It was brought over from the coast of California, and is now in the British Museum.

AURICULATUS, Brown Vulture. With naked neck, skin of the ears lengthened, and pale ruff. This is the *oricou* of Levaillant, and it is a very large bird, measuring ten feet from one wing's end to the other; its general colour is brown, the throat being black, and covered with coarse hairs. These birds inhabit the southern parts of Africa, and are of a gregarious nature, assembling in large flocks about the caverns of the rocky mountains, where they breed. This bird is very voracious, and when attacked or wounded defends itself with surprising strength and resolution; but it is naturally of an indolent and sluggish character.

PONTICERIANUS, Black Vulture. With nearly naked flesh-coloured head and neck, and a fleshy red caruncle down each side of the neck. It is the *vautour royal* de Pondicherry of Sonnerat, whence its name. Its size is that of a very large goose, with black bill and yellow legs; and is a native of India, particularly about Pondicherry.

INDICUS, Brown Vulture. With naked, rufous head and neck, and black wing and tail-feathers. It is the Indian *V.* of Latham, and the *grand vautour des Indes* of Sonnerat. It is of the size of the preceding, and native of India; extremely voracious, principally frequenting the sea-banks, and preying upon dead fish and other putrid substances; and, like other birds of this genus, sometimes assembling in vast numbers on a field of battle.

CASTANEUS, Chestnut Vulture. With whitish downy head and neck, brownish ruff, and black wing and tail-feathers. This is the *percnoptere* of Buffon, and differs little from the fulvous vulture, so that it might be thought to be a mere variety of that species. This bird is remarkable for a brown spot shaped like a heart, and edged with a straight white line, situated on the breast under the ruff. It is deformed in figure, and disgusting in appearance, from a continual flux of rheum from its nostrils, and of saliva from two other holes in the bill. According to Buffon, it is of the size of an eagle, and an inhabitant of the Alps and Pyrenees, and of the mountains of Greece.

GINGINIANUS, White Vulture. With black wing-feathers,

feathers, and grey beak and legs. The vautour gingi of Sonnerat, who says it is of the size of a turkey, and is found about the coasts of Comorandel. Its flight is strong and rapid, and its voracity insatiable: it lives on carrion and reptiles; is generally seen single and in marshy places.

PLANCUS, Whitish Vulture. With transverse blackish lines, brown wings, and slightly crested black crown. This is the *V. plancus* of Latham, the *falco plancus* of Linnaeus and Gmelin, the plaintive eagle and plaintive vulture of Latham. It is a native of Terra del Fuego.

CHERIWAY, Vulture. With rose-coloured cere, yellow legs, ferruginous body, and whitish head with ferruginous crest. This is a kind of doubtful species, which may be considered either as a vulture or an eagle. Jacquin first described it, after having observed it in the island of Aruba, near the coast of Venezuela in South America.

The following species are denominated by Dr. Shaw doubtful: *viz.*

Tawny Vulture of Latham, said to be a native of Falkland islands, with very short bill, large cere, and chin slightly bearded.

Hare Vulture, probably a species of eagle rather than vulture.

Armed Vulture. Mentioned by Brown in his African travels, and said to be very frequent in the country of Darfur, flying about by thousands, and devouring all kinds of carrion, &c.

Bold Vulture of Latham, so bold as to attack the natives in New Holland, where it is called "Boora Morang."

It is said that there are no vultures in Great Britain, nor any north of the Baltic; but the various species are found in the southern parts of Europe, Asia, Africa, and America, as low as Terra del Fuego. They are a sluggish ungenerous race, preying oftener on dead animals, and even on putrid carcases, than on living creatures: their sense of smelling is most exquisite: they collect in flocks from great distances; and are directed to their prey by the sagacity of their nostrils: they fly slowly and heavily; are very greedy and voracious to a proverb; and they are bold and fearless, preying in the midst of cities, undaunted by mankind. Pennant's Genera of Birds, p. 2.

The vulture was a bird consecrated to Mars and Juno; and used among the Romans in the exercise of augury.

VULTUR, *Mont*, (*Mount Vulturno*), in *Ancient Geography*, a mountain of Italy, in Apulia, forming a chain which extends from the S.W. to the N.E. south of Venetia. We learn from Livy, that the inhabitants of the country called the wind which proceeded from this mountain Vulturinus; which wind is said to have blown in the faces of the Romans during the battle of Cannæ. But Polybius does not mention this circumstance; and it appears that the Romans were to the S., and the Carthaginians to the N., so that the faces of the former were turned towards the N. or the E. Accordingly, the wind of which Hannibal speaks, was one of the collateral winds, which the ancients called Vulturinus, and which was E.S.E.

Horace speaks of this mountain in one of his Odes (lib. iii. od. 4.); and Lucan also mentions it (lib. ix. v. 183.)

VULTURIA, or **VULTURINA**, a fortified place in Gallia Cisalpina, S.E. of Cremona; which surrendered to the Lombards.

VULTURIUS, among the Romans, a throw of the *tali*, otherwise called *canis*. See **TALARIUS Ludus**.

Also, an epithet given to Apollo, from a whimsical circumstance, which was that of releasing a poor shepherd, who had been deserted with stolen treasure by his companion, and left in the cavern of a rock, from which he had no

means of ascending. Apollo advised him to wound his body with a flint, upon which a number of vultures, allured by the scent of blood, flocked round him, and planting their bills in his wounds and cloaths, mounted upwards with him, and delivered him from the cave. The fable further reports, that the other shepherd was sentenced to death by the Ephesian magistrates, and the survivor having received by their award half the gold which was found in the cave, and which his companion had purloined, built with it, upon the mountain where the adventure had occurred, a temple in honour of his deliverer, under the name of Apollo Vulturius.

VULTURIUS Lapis, a name given by many to the stone called *quandros*.

VULTURNALIA. See **VOLTURNALIA**.

VULTURNIA, in *Ancient Geography*, an island situated between Sicily and the coast of Africa, according to the Itin. of Anton.

VULTURNUM, a town of Italy, at the mouth of the *Vulturinus*.

VULTURNUS, (*Le Vulture*), a river of Italy, in Campania. It commenced towards the north, in Samnium, among the Caraceni, and for a long interval separated Samnium from Campania. At Benevento, it turned to the W., and discharged itself into the sea. Towards the sea, on the right of the river, was the territory of Falerna, on this side of mount Maflicus, which was celebrated for its excellent wine; but in the time of Pliny it was neglected, and began to decline in reputation: that of the vineyard of Fauftinus being more esteemed. Livy informs us, that in the second Punic war, a fort was erected at the mouth of this river, which afterwards became a town, in which was established a Roman colony. Varro gives this town the name of a colony.

VULTUS de *Luca*, the fame with *veronica*.

VULVA, *quasi Vulva, doors*, a name which some physicians give to the vagina, and others to the uterus, or womb.

VULVA is sometimes also used for the cunnus, or whole pudendum muliebre.

VUNENA, a name given by the people of Guinea to a kind of catch-fly, or lychnis, common in that part of the world, and much used by them in a decoction to cure swellings of the legs. Petiver has called it *lychnis Guineensis fructu caryophylloide foliis roris marini, hirsutis, angustioribus*. Phil. Trans. N° 232.

VOUD, in *Mythology, a god of the Arabians.*

VURNWEY, in *Geography*, a river of North Wales, in the county of Montgomery, which runs into the Severn, on the borders of Shropshire.

VUSHOUG, a town of Persia, in the province of Irak; 60 miles N. of Ispahan.

UVSKOI, a town of Russia, in the government of Tobolsk, on the Irtysh; 68 miles N. of Tobolsk.

VUTSHIM, a town of Sclavonia; 18 miles N. of Pefoega.

UVULA, in *Anatomy*, the small conical body, projecting from the middle of the soft palate. See **DEGLUTITION**.

UVULA, *Disease and Amputation of*. When the uvula is permanently elongated, so as to interrupt swallowing, and occasion uneasiness in the throat, coughing, vomiting, &c. it is proper to remove the redundant part.

Slight relaxations of the uvula may generally be cured by astringent gargles, composed of the infusion of roses, alum, tincture of bark, &c. When, however, the inconvenience cannot be removed by such means, the superfluous portion of the uvula may be cut off with a pair of sharp scissors.

The

The fear of hemorrhage, and the recommendation of the ligature, in these cases, are almost absurd, notwithstanding the contrary statements of a few modern writers.

UVULARIA, in *Botany*, a genus established and named by Linnaeus, is recorded, *Philos. Bot.* 168, to owe this appellation to the resemblance of its inflorescence to the *uvula*, "*figura inflorescentie uvulae*." Now this not being the case with the genus in question, though Linnaeus says, in *Hort. Cliff.* 121, "*fructificatio uvula inflat dependet*," we might have wandered far in search of a meaning, or, like our predecessors, been content with little or no enquiry, had we not stumbled, at the outset, upon *Uvularia* as an old synonym for *Ruscus Hypoglossum*, to which the first explanation is obviously applicable, on account of the diminutive leaf, not unlike the *uvula* of the human throat, lying over the inflorescence. Perhaps, therefore, Linnaeus, finding this name unoccupied, was the more induced to adopt it for his new genus, on account of the affinity, and resemblance in general habit, of the latter to *Ruscus*. We cannot justify the measure, but it is, at any rate, preferable to deriving the name, as a diminutive, from UVARIA, (see that article), according to the explanation of De Theis. This indeed would be even less intelligible, the *Uvaria* and *Uvularia* having no characters in common; it would also be totally inadmissible, no generic names being more contrary to rule, or good sense, than diminutives of others already established. (See VALENTIANELLA and FEDIA.)—Linn. Gen. 164. Schreb. 219. Willd. Sp. Pl. v. 2. 93. Mart. Mill. Dict. v. 4. Ait. Hort. Kew. v. 2. 246. Pursh 231. Juss. 48. Lamarck Illustr. t. 247. f. 2.—Clas and order, *Hexandria Monogynia*. Nat. Ord. *Sarmentaceae*, Linn. *Liliæ*, Juss.

Gen. Ch. Cal. none. Cor. Petals six, inferior, oblong-lanceolate, acute, erect, straight, very long. Nectary an oblong groove in the base of each petal internally. Stam. Filaments fix, short, rather broad; anthers vertical, longer than the filaments, erect, oblong, about half the length of the corolla. Pist. Germen superior, roundish; style one, divided half way down into three parts, thread-shaped, longer than the stamens; stigmas simple, reflexed, longitudinally downy. Peric. Capsule ovate-oblong, triangular, of three cells and three valves, each with a central partition. Seeds several, nearly globular, with a tunicated scar.

Efl. Ch. Corolla of six upright petals, inferior. Nectary a chink in the base of each. Stamens shorter than the corolla. Stigmas reflexed. Capsule triangular, of three valves, with central partitions. Seeds several, globose, with a tunicated scar.

Obf. From this genus is now separated the *U. amplexifolia* of Linnaeus. (See STREPTOPUS.) The genuine species are perennial herbaceous plants, with alternate, simple, undivided, entire, simple-ribbed leaves. Flowers axillary or terminal, solitary or umbellate, drooping, yellow, whitish, or brown. They are all strangers to Europe, inhabiting rather mountainous umbrageous situations, in temperate climates, and flowering early in the year. They are obviously allied to *Fritillaria*, but have not flat seeds, nor are the stamens equal in length to the corolla.

1. *U. perfoliata*. Pale Perfoliate Uvularia. Linn. Sp. Pl. 437. Willd. n. 4. Ait. n. 3. Pursh n. 1. Sm. Exot. Bot. v. 1. 95. t. 49. (*U. perfoliata* minor; Michaux Boreal-Amer. v. 1. 199.)—Leaves perfoliate, elliptical, obtuse with a small point. Corolla bell-shaped, rough on the inside. Anthers pointed.—Native of North America; in shady woods, among rocks, in rich vegetable mould, from Canada to Carolina, flowering in May and June. *Pursh*. Root of several spreading, tapering, fleshy, pale fibres. Stem solitary, annual, erect, twelve or

fifteen inches high, round, smooth, leafy; often a little branched, or subdivided, in an alternate manner. Leaves perfoliate at near half an inch from their base, where they are quite flat, not undulated; they are two inches long, smooth on both sides; paler, and rather glaucous, beneath. Flowers terminal, solitary, pendulous, on short stalks. Petals three-quarters of an inch, or an inch, long, of a pale greenish buff-colour; their inner surface rough with yellowish protuberances. Nectariferous furrow linear, and very small. Stamens full half as long as the petals. Anther about the length of its filament, bursting longitudinally at the inner side of each cell, and tipped with an awl-shaped point.

The synonyms collected under this species belong to various others, which Linnaeus, in his early acquaintance with the genus, considered as all the same, nor have they hitherto been reduced entirely to order, though much has been done to that effect in the *Exotic Botany*, as well as by Mr. Pursh. *Polygonatum latifolium perfoliatum Brasiliense*, Bauh. Prodr. 136, described as "two cubits high, with perfoliate leaves, two inches broad, and four long, and a large white flower, whose narrow petals, five in number, are two inches long," cannot be clearly referred to any known species. The specimen is reported to have been obtained by Burser from Toupinambault, in Brasil, and Linnaeus, by a mark in his copy of Bauhin's *Prodromus*, appears to have seen it. He hints, by a note in the Sp. Plant., that Burser's supposed Brazilian plants all seemed to have really come from Canada. However this may be, Linnaeus's own herbarium shews that he confounded specimens of different species, as well as their synonyms, under *U. perfoliata*, and therefore we dare not confide in him for the above reference, which possibly appertains to some plant unknown to modern botanists. See n. 3.

2. *U. flava*. Small Yellow Uvularia. Sm. Exot. Bot. v. 1. 97. t. 50. Pursh n. 2. Ait. Epit. 376. (*U. perfoliata* α; Ker, late Gawler, in Curt. Mag. t. 955. *U. caule perfoliato*; Gron. Virg. 51, according to Clayton's description. Anonymus pudica; Walt. Carol. 123.)—Leaves perfoliate, elliptic-oblong, bluntish; waved at the bottom. Corolla tapering at the base; rough on the inside. Anthers pointed.—In shady woods, on a sandy soil, from New Jersey to Lower Carolina, flowering in May and June. *Pursh*. We have no doubt of this being a very distinct species from the former. The leaves are more oblong, and more revolute; angular or wavy at the base. Flower larger, more taper and elongated, with narrower, sharper petals, one inch and a quarter long, yellow, with orange-coloured granulations on the inner surface. Point of the anthers longer and more conspicuous.

3. *U. grandiflora*. Large Yellow Uvularia. Sm. Exot. Bot. v. 1. 99. t. 51. Ait. n. 4. Pursh n. 3. Curt. Mag. t. 1112. (*U. perfoliata*; Redout. Liliac. t. 184, with many erroneous synonyms. *U. perfoliata* major; Michaux Boreal-Amer. v. 1. 199. *U. lanceolata*; Ait. n. 2. Willd. n. 3. *Polygonatum ramulosum*, fere luteo majus; Cornut. Canad. 38. t. 39. Barrel. Ic. t. 723. *Sigillum indicum* fere luteo; Stap. in Theophr. 1067. f. 3.)—Leaves perfoliate, oblong, acute; wavy at the base. Petals smooth on both sides. Anthers almost pointless. Nectary roundish.—On shady hills, in a fertile soil, and amongst rocks, from Canada to Carolina, flowering in June. *Pursh*. Nearly twice the size of the last; the leaves more oblong and taper-pointed, as well as more wavy, and in some degree peltate, at the base. Flowers of a brighter yellow; their petals full an inch and a half long, more conspicuously ribbed, destitute of internal granulations, and furnished with a green roundish nectariferous depression, more like that of a *Fritillaria*,

UVULARIA.

aria, at the base. *Anthers* longer, and quite linear, with but a slight membranous rudiment of a point, not always discernible. This flowers in our gardens nearly a month earlier than either of the last. We humbly presume that if any two species of any genus be distinct, this and the *perfoliata*, to say nothing of *flava*, must be so, or botany will prove a most uncertain study. The truth is, that no competent botanist had, till lately, seen them together, in a sufficiently perfect state for discrimination. Baubin's *Polygonatum*, mentioned under our first species, may possibly be the *grandiflora*, the petals being supple white, from their appearance when dry, and being commonly no more than five in the lowermost flower of our plant. Mr. Pursh has verified the *lanceolata* of Mr. Aiton, by an authentic specimen. Indeed the synonym of Cornuti sufficiently determines that point.

4. *U. sessilifolia*. Sessile-leaved *Uvularia*. Linn. Sp. Pl. 437. Willd. n. 5. Ait. n. 5. Pursh n. 4. Sm. Exot. Bot. v. 1. 101. t. 52. Curt. Mag. t. 1402.—Stem smooth. Leaves sessile, elliptic-lanceolate; glaucous beneath. Petals smooth on both sides. Nectary oblong. Capsule stalked.—In shady woods, from Canada to Carolina, flowering in May and June. The size of this species, and the pale colour of its flowers, most accord with *U. perfoliata*, but its essential difference from all the preceding consists in the leaves being sessile, not in any manner perfoliate. They are sometimes very finely downy beneath, or rather at the edges. Petals rather spatulate, with a greenish oblong nectary, and no roughness. *Anthers* very slightly pointed. Stem smooth, purplish. All these species thrive in moist shady borders of bog-earth, with a portion of loam, and as the herbage dies down to the root, survive our ordinary winters without injury. *U. sessilis*, Thunb. Jap. 135, is probably distinct from our *sessilifolia*, but the author furnishes no discriminating characters.

5. *U. puberula*. Downy *Uvularia*. Michaux Boreal. Amer. v. 1. 199. Pursh n. 5.—Stem rather downy. Leaves sessile, ovate; rounded at the base. Petals smooth on both sides.—Found by Michaux, on the loftiest mountains of Carolina. He describes it as related to the last, but distinct in its petals, being rather larger, though in like manner smooth on the inside, tapering at the upper part into an acute point. The leaves are green on both sides, partly embracing the stem. We have a specimen gathered by Mr. Menzies on the west coast of North America, which answers exactly to this description. The leaves are truly ovate, pointed, having strong ribs, connected by conspicuous transverse veins, and are nearly twice the size of the last. The stem is reddish, besprinkled with loose hairs. Flower-stalks hairy, as is likewise the style. *Anthers* linear, pointlike, like those of the *grandiflora*. This specimen answers in foliage and inflorescence to *U. lanuginosa*, Curt. Mag. t. 1490, our *Streptopus*, n. 3; but the flower-stalks and style are there represented smooth.

6. *U. hirta*. Hairy *Uvularia*. Thunb. Jap. 136. Willd. n. 2.—"Stem shaggy. Leaves hairy, clasping the stem."—Gathered by Thunberg, near Jedo, in Japan. The stem is round, a foot high, erect, the thickness of a quill, and clothed with long dense hairs. Leaves alternate, spreading, heart-shaped, oblong, pointed, seven-ribbed, two inches long, clothed with very short hairs. Flowers not observed. Thunberg.

7. *U. cirrhopa*. Tendril-leaved *Uvularia*. Thunb. Jap. 136. Willd. n. 6.—Leaves sessile, linear, each ending in a tendril.—Found by Thunberg, in Japan. "Stem round, jointed, striated, smooth, simple, erect. Leaves two from the same bud, smooth, a finger's length. Flowers from the

same bud as the leaves, stalked, drooping. Footstalk reflexed, single-flowered, the length of the nail. Petals six, oblong, yellow, nearly an inch long. Filaments half that length, white. *Anthers* oblong, two-lobed, within the flower. Style one, rather shorter than the corolla, but longer than the filaments. Stigmas three, reflexed." Thunberg. This description does not leave any doubt respecting the generic character, but it does not express whether the flowers are solitary, as in all the American genuine *Uvularia*, or aggregate, as in the following oriental doubtful ones. There being two leaves from one bud with the flowers, is remarkable, but the author has not clearly expressed whether there are all the leaves borne by one stem, of which his description excites some suspicion.

Mr. Gawler (Ker) has described in Curt. Mag. t. 916, an *U. chinensis*, of which we were favoured, in May 1811, with an authentic specimen from the stove at Kew. This may be defined—flowers in an umbel, sessile on the footstalk of a leaf. It is reported to be a native of China. The stem is herbaceous, about eighteen inches high, angular, smooth, leafy, a little zigzag, branched alternately in the upper part. Leaves alternate, on short stalks, ovato-lanceolate, pointed, many-ribbed, smooth, two or three inches long; three of their ribs stronger than the rest. Umbel of three or four drooping flowers, sessile on the footstalk of one of the leaves; its partial stalks about half an inch long, with several roughish angles. Petals pointed, brown, twice as long as the stalks; smooth within, all elongated and gibbous, almost spurred, at the base. Filaments two or three times the length of their anthers, both together nearly equal to the petals. Germen turbinate, triangular. Style nearly as long as the filaments, with three recurved stigmas. Nothing is known of the fruit. The close affinity of this plant to one we shall now describe, which is certainly no *Uvularia*, will not allow us to admit either into our list of species. We allude to a specimen gathered by Dr. Buchanan, on the moist banks of rivers at Chitlong, in Upper Nepal, in April 1802. This bears its flowers in a stalked umbel, from the footstalk of a leaf.—The stem and leaves closely accord with the Chinese species just described; but the umbels, consisting of seven or eight green flowers, are each supported by a common deflexed stalk, almost as long as the partial ones, and like them, rough-edged. Petals but half the length of the stalks, gibbous, and almost tubular at the base; the three outermost a little the broadest and shortest. Filaments thrice the length of the anthers, which are linear, cloven at each end. Stigmas three, recurved, deeply separated. Berry, according to Dr. Buchanan, three-lobed, of three cells, with solitary seeds. Such a fruit cannot belong to *Uvularia*. These two species must therefore, in the present state of our knowledge, be referred to *Streptopus*, (see that article,) to which we would make the following additions.

2. *S. roseus*. (*Uvularia rosea*; Curt. Mag. t. 1489).—Flowered in Kew-garden, in May 1812. The flowers are bigger than those of *S. amplexifolius*, and are elegantly spotted with red.

3. *S. lanuginosus*. (*Uvularia lanuginosa*; Curt. Mag. t. 1490).—Brought from North America by Mr. Lyon, with whom it flowered in May 1812. The flowers stand in pairs, their stalks slightly combined at the base. Stamens but half the length of the narrow green petals.

4. *S. chinensis*. Brown Chinese *Streptopus*. (*Uvularia chinensis*; Curt. Mag. t. 916. Ait. n. 6.)—Leaves on short stalks. Umbels sessile. See its description above.

5. *S. peduncularis*. Long-stalked *Streptopus*. (*Uvularia Pitsutu*; Buch. MSS.)—Leaves on short stalks. Umbels

bels on general stalks, nearly as long as the partial ones. Of this also we have just given a description. We know nothing of the shape of the *seeds* in this species, nor whether they are furnished with any appendage, or tunic, at their base. If they should prove to want this character, that circumstance, added to the gibbous, almost tubular, nectariferous bases of their *petals*, and the great comparative length of their *filaments*, with respect to the *anthers*, might almost lead to their establishment as a new genus. Before this could be done, however, we ought to be well acquainted with the *fruit*, *seeds*, and their *pear*. In *Streptopus lanuginosus*, whose twin *flowers* connect these two umbellate species with the solitary inflorescence of the *S. amplexifolius* and *roseus*.

The concluding paragraph of our article STREPTOPUS should now be erased.

UVULARIA, in the *Materia Medica*, the name given by authors to the plant called *hypoglossum*, or double tongue.

UZZEDERINA, in *Geography*, a town of Bulgaria, on the Danube; 50 miles W. of Nicopolis.

UXCHLAND, a township of Pennsylvania, in Chester county, containing 1178 inhabitants.

UXACONA, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Great Britain, in Antonine's second Itin., marked between Uriconium (Wroxeter) and Pannocrucium (at or near the river Penk, and town of Penkridge). Dr. Gale and Mr. Camden place Uxacona at Okenyale, and Mr. Baxter at Newport; but Mr. Horsley, following the tract of the military way, and observing the distance, fixes it at the banks of a rivulet near Sherif-Hales.

UXAHVER, Ox-SPRING, a boiling fountain of water, about a mile from a place called Hufavik, in the north of Iceland, not far from Skalholt, more regular, and nearly equal to the Geyser in the magnificence of its operations. It is said that this name was given to it from the circumstance of an ox having fallen into it by accident, and having been boiled alive.

We shall here add, that the Geysers are celebrated fountains, about 16 miles N. of Skalholt, situated in a country indicating many traces of volcanic eruptions. They lie on the side of a hill, which does not exceed 300 feet in height, and which is separated from the mountain towards the W. by a narrow stripe of flat boggy ground, connected with that which extends over the whole valley. On the E. side of the hill there are several banks of clay, from some of which steam arises in different places, and in others there are cavities in which the water boils briskly. Below these banks there is a gentle slope, composed of matter, which, at some distant period, has been deposited by springs that no longer exist. The strata or beds thus formed seem to have been broken by the shocks of earthquakes, particularly near the Great Geyser. Within the space of about a mile there are numerous orifices in the old incrustations, from which boiling water and steam issue, with different degrees of force; and at the northern extremity is the Great Geyser, sufficiently distinguishable from the others by every circumstance connected with it. Amidst the depositions of matter is a mound about seven feet high, lying on the W. side, where a disruption has taken place. On the top of this mound is a basin, extending 56 feet in one direction, and 46 in another. The basin was full of hot water, a little of which was running over. Above the Great Geyser, and near it, is a large irregular opening, the beauties of which it is hardly possible to describe. The water which filled it was as clear as crystal, and perfectly still, though nearly at the boiling point. Through it were seen white incrustations, forming a variety of figures and cavities; to a great depth; and below was perceived a vast and dark abyss, over which the

crust that supported the observers formed a dome of no great thickness; a circumstance which contributed much to the effect of this awful scene. Near this spot are several holes, from which vapour continually rises; and from one of which a rumbling noise proceeded. One of the most remarkable of these springs threw out a great quantity of water; and from its continual noise it was called the Roaring Geyser. The eruptions of this fountain were incessant. The water dashed out with fury every four or five minutes, and covered a great space of ground with the matter it deposited. The jets were from thirty to forty feet high. They were shivered into the finest particles of spray, and surrounded by great clouds of steam. The situation of this spring was eighty yards distant from the Geyser, on the side of a hill. It is probable that an earthquake has damaged the mechanism of this spring, or the production of heat, at the particular spot where it is situated, has ceased to be sufficient to produce the phenomena which it formerly exhibited. In collecting incrustations near the basin, and striking on its brink many blows with a hammer, a sound was heard like the distant discharge of a piece of ordnance, and the ground shook. The sound was irregularly and rapidly repeated; and then the water, after having several times suddenly risen in a large column, accompanied by clouds of steam, from the middle of the basin to the height of ten or twelve feet, the column seemed as if it burst, and sinking down, it produced a wave which caused the water to overflow the basin in considerable quantity. After the first propulsion, the water was thrown up again to the height of about 15 feet; and there was a succession of jets, to the number of eighteen, none of which appeared to exceed fifty feet in height, and they lasted about five minutes. After the last jet, which was the most furious, the water suddenly left the basin, and sunk into a pipe in the centre. The heat of the basin soon made it dry, and the wind blew aside the vapour almost immediately after the spouting ceased. The pipe, into which the water had sunk about ten feet, was immediately examined, and it appeared to be rising slowly. The diameter of the pipe, or rather pit, is 10 feet, widening near the top to 16 feet. The perpendicular depth of the basin is three feet, that of the pipe is somewhat more than 60 feet. When the water was still, stones were thrown into the pipe, and a violent ebullition followed. The temperature of the water within reach, when the pipe was full, was found to be 230°. At repeated intervals fresh jets occurred, none of which exceeded 30 feet in height. But we have not room to enlarge in the detail of various other circumstances observed by those who examined these extraordinary fountains. The depositions of the present and former springs are visible to a great extent, about half a mile in every direction, and they probably extend themselves under the surface, now covered with grass and water to a very considerable distance.

Although hot springs occur in every part of the country, the Geysers are the most remarkable, and must have existed for a long time; but as they are situated on the verge of that vast district of uninhabited and desolate country which forms the interior of Iceland, they have not been particularly noticed by the early Icelandic authors; nor are they now much visited by the natives. In order to account for the phenomena exhibited by the operations of these springs, it is supposed that they are occasioned by sudden productions of heat, whatever may be the causes of that heat. A column of water is suspended in a pipe by the expansive force of steam confined in cavities under the surface. An additional quantity of steam can only be produced by more heat being evolved. The heat is suddenly evolved, and

elastic

elastic vapour suddenly produced, we may account for the explosions accompanied by noises. The accumulation of steam will cause agitation in the column of water, and a farther production of vapour. The pressure of the column will be overcome; and the steam escaping, will force the water upwards along with it. For a further account of these springs, and of the causes that produce them, illustrated by appropriate engravings, we refer to Mackenzie's *Travels in Iceland*, p. 211, &c. See *Boiling Springs*.

UXAMA, (*Ojma*), in *Ancient Geography*, a town in the interior of Hispania Citerior, belonging to the Arevací, S.E. of Clonia.

UXAMABAREA, a town of Hispania Citerior, belonging to the Autrigones. Ptolemy.

UXBRIDGE, in *Geography*, a market-town in the hundred of Elthorne, and county of Middlesex, England, is situated 18 miles W. by N. from St. Paul's cathedral, London. Though the most considerable town in the county, it is only a hamlet to the parish of Hillingdon. The name of this place was anciently written *Oxebruge*, and in subsequent records *Woxebruge* or *Woxebrugge*: the mode of orthography in present use appears, however, to have been adopted for several centuries. The compound term of which this appellation was formed, appears easy of explanation: the place was noted, in remote ages, for the passage of oxen from the adjacent rich pasture lands of Buckinghamshire, and a bridge was constructed over the river Colne at a very early period. Leland says of this town—"In it is but one long street, but that, for timber, well builded. There is a celebrate market once a week, and a great fayre on the feast-day of St. Michael. There be two wooden bridges at the west end of the towne, and under the more weste goeth the great arme of Colne river. The lesser arme goeth under the other bridge, and each of them serve there a greate mille." Uxbridge, at present, consists principally of one long and wide street: the greater part of the houses are old; but there are several of modern construction, which are at once commodious and ornamental. The main stream of the Colne, and several of its diverging branches, water the town on the Buckinghamshire side, where the principal channel is crossed by a substantial bridge of brick. Over the Grand Junction Canal, which passes the same division of the town in its progress along the western border of Middlesex, is likewise a bridge of a similar description. The difference, as to the appearance and character of the place, between the 16th century and the present period, thus seems to consist chiefly in the substitution of brick for timber, in the houses and bridges. The most memorable historical event connected with Uxbridge, is the unsuccessful treaty which here took place between commissioners appointed, by the king on one side, and by the parliament on the other, during the civil disturbances of the 17th century. These commissioners, sixteen on the part of the king, and twelve for the parliament, met in January 1645; all of them distinguished noblemen or persons of great eminence on each side: commissioners from the parliament of Scotland likewise attended the meeting. It was soon found that no rational discussion could be expected: the demands of the parliament were exorbitant, and their commissioners were not inclined to accommodation: after twenty days passed in debate, in which the result appeared to be predetermined, the commission was dissolved, and the decision unhappily left to the sword. The mansion in which the commissioners met is still remaining, and is situated at the western extremity of the town. It has been recently converted into an inn, bearing the sign of the Crown, and has undergone considerable alterations. Two principal rooms

remain in their original state; one of which, from tradition, and from its capacious dimensions, appears to be that used by the commissioners. To the present day, the building is termed the Treaty House. This mansion, with the ceremonial and procedure of the commission, is particularly described by lord Clarendon in his "History of the Great Rebellion." Uxbridge does not afford any public buildings peculiarly interesting. Its chapel is an irregular edifice, chiefly composed of flint and brick: it is in the pointed style of architecture, but quite destitute of the imposing beauty which that mode of building is capable of producing: its interior comprises a chancel, a nave, and two aisles, divided by pointed arches. It is believed that a chapel existed here so early as the year 1281; but it is not mentioned in the records of Hillingdon till 1469: yet, that Uxbridge did possess a chapel prior to the latter date is evident; for, in 1447, Robert Oliver and other inhabitants founded a guild "in the chapel of St. Margaret at Woxbridge;" and in 1459 a chantry in this chapel was founded and endowed by sir Walter Shirleyngton. In 1682, George Townsend, esq. taking into consideration that in such a populous town the place of worship was destitute of a suitable endowment, bequeathed certain tenements in London for the maintenance of a minister to reside in or near Uxbridge: and in 1706, a house was built by the inhabitants for the use of the resident minister, on condition of his instructing six poor boys in reading and writing, or otherwise paying *6*l.* per annum* to the churchwardens. This house is let by the present minister, and six boys are instructed at his cost in the parochial school. Here are meeting-houses for Quakers, Presbyterians, and Methodists. In 1695, George Pitt, esq. conveyed the manor of Uxbridge, with its tithes and appurtenances, to certain inhabitants of the town, in trust, that the profits should be applied to charitable purposes. This liberal grant is immediately connected with the schools for gratuitous education, of which there are two in the town, both much enlarged in 1809. The school for boys is assisted with fifty guineas annually from the fund; and the girls' school with twenty guineas; and both are further aided by voluntary contributions. Two hundred boys and sixty girls are thus educated; and the girls are clothed and further qualified to become valuable servants. The Lancaster system is adopted in each school; and both establishments are accommodated with convenient school-rooms in the upper part of the market-house, which is an extensive brick edifice, erected in 1789. Beneath it is a spacious area for pitching corn, and for the resort of the farmers and dealers. Henry de Lacy, earl of Lincoln, obtained, in 1294, the grant of a weekly market on Mondays, and an annual fair on the feast of St. Michael. The market is now held on Thursdays, and is one of the most considerable marts for corn in this part of the kingdom. A fair is still held on Michaelmas day for hiring servants, &c., and here are three other fairs for cattle. The internal police of the town is regulated by two bailiffs, two constables, and four tything-men or headboroughs. In the survey of the year 1811, the population of Uxbridge was returned as 2411, occupying 450 houses. No manufactures of importance are cultivated; but here are several corn-mills on a large scale, and meal may be said to form the chief trading pursuit of the town. Great advantages in trade arise from the market, and from the numerous fairs in the vicinity. This town gives the title of earl to the Paget family. Henry lord Paget was created earl of Uxbridge in 1744: by the death of his grandson, the title became extinct in 1769; but was revived in 1784, in the person of Henry Bailey, a cousin and heir of the deceased, who had assumed

the name and acceded to the barony of Paget: the son of this nobleman is now earl of Uxbridge, and has recently been created marquis of Anglesey, in consequence of his military achievements on the continent.

At a short distance from the town, on the eastern side of the road leading towards London, is the seat of Richard Henry Cox, esq. This mansion was erected in 1717 by the last duke of Schomberg, who had resided several years in an ancient house on the estate. It was afterwards the property and residence of the Chetwynd family, and about 1785 was purchased by the late marchioness of Rockingham, who passed the remainder of her life here. It was afterwards purchased by Josiah Du Pre Porcher, esq. who sold it to Mr. Cox, the present proprietor.

On the border of Uxbridge Common, in the immediate vicinity of the town, is the residence of Thomas Harris, esq. joint patentee of Covent Garden theatre. This is a spacious brick dwelling, with extensive gardens, on which the proprietor has been lavish in embellishments. One portion of this domain requires particular notice—a mimic hermitage, decked with sculpture, spars, &c. opens to a spacious room, in which are preserved portraits of the principal theatrical performers, from the date of Garrick to the present period.

About one mile N.E. from Uxbridge, in the parish of Ickenham, is Swakeley or Swateley House, the property and residence of Thomas Clarke, esq. It was erected in 1638, by sir Edmond Wright, who, in 1641, was appointed lord mayor of London by the parliament, after the removal of sir William Acton from that office. The mansion was afterwards successively the property of sir William Harrington, one of the judges of king Charles I., and of sir Robert Vyner, the facetious lord mayor of London, who entertained Charles II. at Guildhall. It was subsequently the seat of Benjamin Lethieullier, esq. of whom it was purchased in 1750, by the father of the present proprietor. The house, which is a square substantial structure, with two slightly projecting wings, is composed of brick, with stone coignes, window-cases, and finishings. The entrance is through a porch in a square central turret, which opens into a hall paved with black and white stone. Here is a carved screen, surmounted by a bust of Charles I. A staircase of oak, with the sides and ceiling painted, leads to a suite of apartments, in which capacious and well-proportioned dimensions are pleasingly blended with an air of domestic comfort.

Within two miles of Uxbridge, on the south-west, is Delaford-Park, the seat of Charles Clowes, esq. The ancient mansion of Delaford, which stood in a low and unfavourable spot, was taken down about the year 1790, and the park attached to it was added to the adjacent grounds belonging to Mr. Clowes, whose dwelling occupies a more elevated site, and was partly built by the late viscount Kilkeny, but has been considerably enlarged by the present owner.

The village of Hillingdon, in which parish Uxbridge is comprised, is one mile distant from the town, to the south-east, and contains many substantial and commodious houses. The parish church, which stands on the side of the high road, is an ancient structure, chiefly composed of flint and stone, having a square tower at the west end, with an embattled parapet, and a bell-case of wooden frame-work: the interior is divided into a nave, chancel, and two aisles, separated by octangular pillars and pointed arches. Monuments and other sepulchral memorials are unusually numerous, both in the church and cemetery, in consequence of the parochial connection of this place with Uxbridge. In the church-yard is the tomb of John Rich, esq. formerly a patentee of

Covent Garden theatre, well-known as the inventor of the English harlequin, and for his excellent performance of that character, under the assumed name of Lun. On the north side of the church is an ancient mansion, commonly called the Cedar-house, from the celebrated cedar-tree which grew in the garden. This tree was planted by Samuel Reynardson, esq., who appears to have resided in this house from 1678 till his death in 1721. The first introduction of the cedar into England was in 1683; and it is probable, as Mr. Reynardson was a naturalist, and had a curious garden of exotics, that this was one of the earliest planted. It was accurately measured in 1779, when its dimensions were in perpendicular height fifty-three feet; diameter of the horizontal extent of the branches, from east to west, ninety-six feet; from north to south, eighty-nine; girth of the trunk, close to the ground, fifteen feet six inches, and at the height of fourteen feet and a half, just under the division of the principal branches, fifteen feet eight inches. The girth of the larger branch, at a foot and a half from its division, was twelve feet; it then divided into two secondary branches; one of which was eight feet six inches in girth, the other seven feet ten inches; the other principal branch, at its division, measured ten feet in girth, and soon dividing, formed two secondary branches, each five feet six inches in girth. In September 1789, one of the largest branches was broken off by a high wind, in consequence of which the tree was cut down. Above eighty years' growth were discernible beyond the centre-piece. The tree produced 450 feet of timber, six loads and three-quarters of stack-wood, and one hundred and a quarter of faggots. Mr. Lovett, a carpenter of Denham, purchased the tree for 10*l.*, and retailed it for 22*l.* 17*s.* After the death of Mr. Reynardson, the Cedar-house was the seat of general Rich Russell, who died in 1735. It is now the property of Richard Heming, esq., and in the occupation of Lacey Primatt, esq. At a short distance from the church, to the south, is the rectory-house, a spacious building, erected in 1604. It appears that a mansion on this site was formerly held by the bishops of Worcester as an inn, or resting-place, in their journeys to London.

On Hillingdon Heath, a considerable tract of land to the south-east of the village, are several respectable villas, chiefly of a modern date. One of these, an old mansion, formerly occupied by the duke of Buccleuch, is now the residence of Thomas Bent, esq. by whom it has been greatly improved, and who has been at a very considerable expence in ameliorating part of the heath. In this vicinity is Hillingdon-Place, a seat erected by the late admiral Drake, and now in the occupation of the Miss Fullers. On the south side of the heath is a spacious dwelling, built by the late Peter de Salis, count of the Roman empire, who resided here several years. This house stands on an estate called Coomes, alias Little London, and sometimes termed Hillingdon Park. The parish of Hillingdon, exclusive of Uxbridge, was, in the year 1811, stated to contain 419 houses, and 2250 inhabitants.—*Beauties of England and Wales*, vol. x. Middlesex. By J. N. Brewer, 1816. *Lyons' Middlesex Parishes*, 4to. 1800.

UXBRIDGE, a town of the state of Massachusetts, in the county of Worcester, containing 1404 inhabitants; 35 miles W. of Boston.

UXELA, or UXELLA, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Britain, belonging to the Damnonii, the ancient inhabitants of Devonshire and Cornwall; supposed by Mr. Camden to have been situated at Loftwithiel; by Mr. Baxter, at Salsita; and by Mr. Horley, at Exeter. Others have placed it on the river Parret, near Bridgewater. See DAMNONII.

UXELLO-

UXELLODUNUM, a place which was the last which Cæsar held in Gaul; but its situation has been much disputed. Sanfon refers it to the territory of the Cadurci, or Cahors; others have fixed it at Cadenac, upon the confines of Kouergue; and others again at Luzeto, upon the Olt, but below Cahors. But the position of Uxellodunum, and which unites the greatest number of suffrages, is that of Pucach d'Iffola. "Podium Uxelli" is the northern part of Querci, towards the frontier of Limosin.

UXELUM, a town of the Selgove, placed both by Horfley and Baxter at Caerlaveroch near Dumfries; and this opinion is the more probable, because the two names, Uxelum and Caerlaveroch, seem to be derived from British words, which signify a town near the sea-coast. Carbantorium, placed by Camden at Caerlaveroch, below Dumfries, was probably situated where Dumfries now stands, or near it.

UXENA, a town of Hispania, in Bætica.

UXENTUM, a town of Italy, in the interior of Messapia, belonging to the Sulentini; situated S.W. of Hyaruntum. Ptol.

UXENTUS, a mountain of India, on this side of the Ganges. Ptol.

UXIA, a town of Asia, in the Perfide, at a small distance from the sea. Ptol.

UXII, a people of Asia, in the Elymaide. They inhabited a territory on the other side of the town of Suze, beyond the Pafitigris, and on the confines of proper Perfide, according to Quintus Curtius and Arrian. The river Pafitigris had its source in the mountains of the Uxians, according to Diodorus Siculus. These people were divided into two nations: those who inhabited the plain were subject to the Persians, and of these Diod. Sic. speaks (l. xvii. c. 67.) Those who inhabited the mountains before the Perfide maintained their liberty, and of them Strabo speaks (l. xv.) This author calls the country of the Uxians by the name of Uxia, and he says that they were great robbers; and Pliny gives them the same character. See **UTII**.

UXITICO, in *Geography*, a town on the south coast of the island of Rhodes. N. lat. 36° 9'. E. long. 27° 34'.

UXOR, in the *Language of the Chemists*, the mercury of metals. This is the wife they say, and sulphur is the husband. See **MARITUS**.

UXORIUM, in *Antiquity*, a fine, or forfeit, paid by the Romans for not marrying.

UXUMI, or **OOSUMI**, in *Geography*, a town of Japan, on the island of Ximo. N. lat. 32°. E. long. 133°.

UYA, a small island near the west coast of Shetland. N. lat. 60° 43'. W. long. 1° 54'.

VYAGRAYAH, in *Mythology*, a name of the Hindoo goddess Parvati, consort of Siva. The name means *tiger-mounted*; this goddess, like Cybele, being seen riding in a car drawn by lions or tigers, and turret-crowned.

VYAHRTIS, mystical words used by enthusiastic Hindoos in their abstracted modes of worship called *Jap*, which see. Every thing ternary being mysterious with the Hindoos, the Vyahrtis are of course three; viz. *bhur, bhuwah, swah*, or earth, sky, heaven. This triterbal phrase is profoundly mystical.

VYASA, in *Biography*, a personage of great celebrity and sanctity in the history of the Hindoos, as arranger or compiler of their sacred books called the Veda. His real name is supposed to have been Dwapayana, or Krishna Dwapayana; and his surname of Vyasa, or *Divider*, to have been given him from his great work. An incarnation of the god Vishnu is sometimes mentioned as the arranger of the Hindoo scriptures in their present form. In the eighteenth Purana, called Sri-Bhagavata, twenty-two incarnations of Vishnu,

there called Krishna, the Preserver, are enumerated; the seventeenth is thus noticed: "As Vyasa he divided the Veda for the instruction of mankind." See **KRISHNA**, **PURANA**, and **SRI-BHAGAVAT**. But this probably means that he acted under the influence of immediate inspiration; an idea fully concurred in by the numerous believers in the divine origin of the Vedas.

It is usual with the Hindoos to ascribe to Vyasa the Puranas and Mahabarat, as well as the Vedas. (See **MAHABARAT** and **PURANA**.) But it is not credible that the talent and industry of any human being, and we are not, in this instance, required to believe in any superhuman aid, could effect so much. Nor, from internal evidence, is it possible that they could have originated in the same age.

To Vyasa is likewise ascribed a celebrated and popular system of philosophy, grounded wholly on the doctrines of the Veda, and thence named *Vedanta*; which see. It is written in a very dogmatical, sententious style, and is very obscure. A commentary by the learned Sankaracharya (see his article) explains, however, in a very admirable manner, almost every sentence and difficult word.

The doctrines of Vyasa were expounded and supported also by a disciple named Jaimini, who appears to have been cotemporary with his master. His school is called *Minmansa*, which see, and **JAIMINI**.

It is not necessary to inquire into the time in which an author flourished, who connects himself with works stated to be thousands of years old; and on which considerable differences of opinion exist among the best informed. Nor is it very profitable to inquire after the family of a person believed to have been an incarnation of a deity. It may, however, be noticed, that some books mention a son of Vyasa named Sucha; Parafara his father, grandson of Vasishta, is mentioned in the Veda as an author of some portions of the work; but this is explained to mean that he was one of the Rishis, or sages, to or through whom such portions were revealed by Brahma. See **RISHI** and **VASISHTA**.

The encomiums on Vyasa scattered through the poetical works on all subjects, since his embrace all throughout the East, are endless. See an instance of this in our article **TRIVENI**.

UZAN, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Africa Propria, of the number of those which Ptolemy places between the river Bagradas and the river Tabraca.

UZBEKS, or **USBEKS**, in *Geography*, a tribe of Tartars, who inhabit Kharasm, (which see,) and Great Bucharia, and who, according to Abulgasi, consist of four main stocks, of which the Naimanes and Igures are known from the history of Jenghis, Tchingis or Zingis khan. Those two hordes formerly dwelt, the former on the western side of the native territories of Tchingis, and the latter in Turfan. Of their settlement in Great Bucharia, and other circumstances relating to them, we have already given an account under that article. They are said to have derived their name from Uzbek, khan of Kipjak.

UZEZIA, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Africa Propria, S. of Adrumetum, and at a small distance from Thydrus.

UZEDA, or **UCEDA**, in *Geography*, a town of Spain, in New Castile, on the Xarama; 30 miles N. of Madrid.

UZEL, a town of France, in the department of the North Coasts; 6 miles N.N.W. of Loudeac.

UZERCHE, a town of France, and principal place of a district, in the department of the Correze; 13 miles N.W. of Tulle. N. lat. 45° 25'. E. long. 1° 39'.

UZE/S, a town of France, and principal place of a district, in the department of the Gard. Before the Revolution, the

the fee of a bishop; near it is a medicinal spring, and a little below the bishop's palace is a spring which supplies the aqueduct of Nîmes; 12 miles N. of Nîmes. N. lat. 44° 1'. E. long. 4° 30'.

UZES, called also KUMANIANS or POLOOTZES, in *Ancient Geography*, are mentioned both by Herodotus and Strabo. At the period when history records their activity as a nation, (A.D. 883,) that is, when, in conjunction with the Khazars, they drove the Petfchenegrans from their homesteads, they had already extended themselves from Alhava toward the mountains of Kitzig-tag, as far as the nether Volga. They now took the countries of the expelled Petfchenegrans into possession, and one of their stems seized the occupancy of the original abodes of the Khazars (see KHAZARES), on the western side of the Volga and the Caspian as far as Derbent. In the eleventh century, they spread into the eastern parts of Europe. They wrested from the Petfchenegrans almost all which they had hitherto possessed in that quarter of the globe, particularly the Krim, the countries between the Don and the Dnieper, with Moldavia and Walachia. After they had continued their ravages for a long time in Bulgaria, Thrace, Transylvania, and Hungary, and were in a great measure brought to ruin, they at last settled in Hungary. Towards the end of the eleventh century, they captured the north-eastern part of the Kuban from the Russians, who were at that time torn to pieces by intestine dissensions. In the former half of the thirteenth century, they lost by the Tshingises, Moldavia, Valachia, and the Krim. In the year 1392, the Kumanians were numbered among the nations which belong to the state of Hungary; but from

that time they cease to be an historical nation. The Petfchenegrans above mentioned, named by themselves Kengar or Kengli, were a powerful wandering nation on the rivers Volga and Ural. They became first known in Europe by their marches into the Khazarian empire in 839, and by their wars in 867 with the Slavonians, a little time before made tributary to the Khazars. Driven from their seats by the Uzès and Khazars, they made themselves masters of the country between the Don and the Dniester, and expelled thence the Hungarians subject to the Khazars. In the eleventh century, they migrated towards Moravia, Bulgaria, and Thrace, and established themselves, after committing frequent ravages, in the countries of the East Romans in Dardania and the lesser Scythia. At the close of the twelfth century, they possessed a part of Transylvania, and about that time they gradually vanished out of history. Tooke's Russia, vol. i.

UZETTE, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Gironde; 6 miles W. of Bazas.

UZIFIR, UZUFAR, or UZIFUR, in *Chemistry*, a name which some authors give to cinnabar.

UZITA, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Africa Propria, S. of Adrumetum. Ptolemy.

UZKUND, in *Geography*. See URKEND.

UZMEY, a district of Daghestan, situated between two small rivers, extending about 60 versts along the Caspian, and about the same distance in breadth. See DAGESTAN.

UZNEK, a town of Persia, in the province of Adirbeizan; 10 miles S. of Selmas.

W.

W

W, A letter peculiar to the northern languages and people; as the English, Dutch, Polish, and others of Teutonic and Slavonic original.

The form and the sound of *w* are excluded from all the languages derived from the Latin; though it is not improbable, says Dr. Johnson, that by our *w* is expressed the sound of the Roman *v*, and Eolic *f*. However, the *w* is sometimes admitted into the French, Italian, &c. in proper names, and other terms borrowed from the languages in which it is originally used.

In English, the *w* is usually a consonant; and as such, may go before all the vowels, except *u*; as in *want*, *weapon*, *winter*, *world*, &c.

If it be a consonant, its sound is uniform. Some grammarians have doubted whether *w* ever be a consonant; and not rather, as it is called, a double *u* or *ou*, as *water* may be resolved into *ouater*: but letters of the same sound are always reckoned consonants in other alphabets; and it may be observed, says Dr. Johnson, that *w* follows a vowel

W A A

without any hiatus or difficulty of utterance, as *frosty winter*.

It is sometimes also a vowel; and, as such, follows any of the vowels *a*, *e*, *o*; and unites with them into a kind of double vowel, or diphthong; as in *law*, *ewe*, *few*, &c. The English *w* is sounded as in Latin *u*, in *quantum*, *suadeo*, *lingua*. Its sound is commonly like the gross, or full *u*, rapidly pronounced. In French, the sound of the *w* does not differ from that of the single *u*, or rather *ou*. See *U*.

WA, or WAHE, in *Geography*, a town of Sweden, in the province of Schonen; 4 miles N. of Christianstad.

WAACKHAUSEN, a town of the duchy of Bremen, on a moor, near the river Hamme; the houses of which are built of stone, sand, and turf. On the Hamme's overflowing its banks, whole districts on this moor, with the oaks growing thereon, (though, to speak more properly, their roots only run along the surface,) the firs, elders, barns, and ovens, are raised by the water to the height of ten or twelve feet.

feet. The trees, however, subside again with the foil, but on the water's ebbing suddenly, frequently fall down; 12 miles N. of Bremen.

WAAG, or VAG, a river of Hungary, which rises in the N. part, and runs into the Danube, 6 miles below Comorn.

WAAL. See WAHAL.

WAALIA, in *Ornithology*, a pigeon, so called by Bruce, which frequents the low parts of Abyssinia, perching upon the highest trees, and sitting quietly in the shade during the heat of the day. These birds fly to a great height, in large flocks, and seem to select a species of the beech-tree for their customary abode, on the mast or fruit of which they chiefly depend for their food. They are rarely seen in the high country, which is supposed to be too cold for them. They are very fat, and the best, without exception, of all pigeons. The Abyssinians, however, do not eat this bird; and dread being defiled by touching it, when it is dead. The waalia is less than the common blue pigeon, but larger than the turtle-dove. Its whole back, and some of the short feathers of its wings, are of a beautiful unvarnished green, more light and lively than an olive; its head and neck are of a duller green, with less lustre; its beak is of a blueish-white, with large nostrils; the eye black, with an iris of dark orange; the pinion, or top of its wing, is a beautiful pompadour; the large feathers of the wing are black; the outer edge of the wing narrowly marked with white; the tail a pale dirty blue; below the tail it is spotted with brown and white; its thighs are white, with small spots of brown; its belly a lively yellow; its legs and feet are a yellowish-brown; its feet stronger and larger than those of birds of this kind. Bruce's Travels, Appendix.

WAALWYK, in *Geography*, a town of Brabant; 10 miles W. of Bois le Duc.

WAAREN. See WAHREN.

WABASH, a beautiful river of America, with high and fertile banks, which waters the Indiana territory, and discharges itself into the Ohio, about N. lat. $37^{\circ} 33'$. W. long. $80^{\circ} 30'$, by a mouth 270 yards, 1020 miles below Fort Pitt. In the spring, summer, and autumn, it is passable with bateaux, drawing three feet water, 412 miles to Ouiatanou, a small French settlement on the W. side of the river, and for large canoes 197 miles farther, to the Miami carrying place or portage, 9 miles from Miami village. The communication between Detroit and the Illinois and Ohio countries is up Miami river to Miami village, thence by land 9 miles, when the rivers are high, and from 18 to 20 when they are low, through a level country to the Wabash, and by the various branches of the Wabash to the respective places of destination. A silver mine has been lately discovered about 28 miles above Ouiatanou, on the N. side of the Wabash; salt-springs, lime, sand-stone, blue, yellow, and white clay, are found plentifully on this river.

WABASH, *Little*, a river of America, which runs into the Wabash, N. lat. $37^{\circ} 40'$. W. long. $88^{\circ} 35'$.

WABASH, a township of Indiana, in Knox county.

WABEN, a town of France, in the department of the fraits of Calais; 7 miles S.W. of Montreuil.

WABUSKAGAMA, a river of Canada, which runs into the Saguenay, N. lat. $48^{\circ} 20'$. W. long. $70^{\circ} 18'$.

WACHBRUN, a town of the county of Henneberg; 9 miles S.E. of Meinungen.

WACHEIN, a river of Carniola, which rises in the lake of Wacheiner, and runs into the river Save, near Retmausdorf.

WACHEINER, a lake of Carniola; 10 miles W. of Feldes.

WACHENBUCHEN, a town of Germany, in the county of Hanau Munzenberg; 1 mile N.W. of Hanau.

WACHENDORFIA, in *Botany*, was so named by Burmann, in honour of his countryman Everard James van Wachendorff, professor of physics, as well as of botany, at Utrecht, who died in 1758, aged fifty-six. He published, in 1743, an oration on the infinite wisdom of God, as displayed in the Vegetable Creation; and in 1747, *Horti Ultradani Index*, an 8vo. of 394 pages.—Linn. Gen. 27. Schreb. 38. Willd. Sp. Pl. v. 1. 248. Mart. Mill. Dict. v. 4. Vahl Enum. v. 2. 163. Burm. Monogr. Amlt. 1757. Ait. Hort. Kew. v. 1. 106. Ker in Sims and Kon. Ann. of Bot. v. 1. 234. Juss. 59. Lamarck Illustr. t. 34. Gærtn. t. 15.—Class and order, *Triandria Monogynia*. Nat. Ord. *Enfale*, Linn. *Irides*, Juss.

Gen. Ch. Cal. none. Cor. inferior, permanent, withering, irregular, of six obovate-oblong petals; three upper ones most erect, of which the two lateral ones have each a spur at their base; three lowermost widely spreading. Nectary in the spur of each lateral petal, accompanied by a bristle. Stam. Filaments three, thread-shaped, divaricated, declining, curved upward, shorter than the corolla; anthers oblong, incumbent. Pist. Germen superior, roundish, with three furrows; style thread-shaped, declining; stigma simple, tubular. Peric. Capsule three-lobed, triangular, obtuse, of three compressed cells, and three valves, enveloped in the faded corolla; partitions from the centre of each valve, Seeds solitary, rough or hairy, compressed.

Ess. Ch. Corolla inferior, irregular, of six petals; two of them spurred at the base. Capsule of three cells. Seeds solitary, rough.

1. *W. thyrsiflora*. Tall-flowering Wachendorfia. Linn. Sp. Pl. 59. Willd. n. 1. Vahl n. 1. Ait. n. 1. Thunb. Prodr. 12. Burm. Monogr. 2. t. 1. f. 2. Curt. Mag. t. 1060. Redout. Lilicæ. t. 93.—Leaves perennial, smooth. Panicle oblong, close.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope; thriving in our green-houses with little care, and indeed almost hardy, flowering in May and June. The root is perennial, fleshy, saffron-coloured or red, with long simple fibres. Stem solitary, simple, erect, leafy, round, or a little compressed, downy, slightly zigzag, about a yard high. Leaves numerous, two-ranked, plaited, many-ribbed, tapering at each end, sheathing, permanent. Panicle racemose, erect, a span or more in length, compound, downy, composed of numerous large and handsome, but inodorous and short-lived flowers, of a fine golden yellow; externally downy, with an orange or tawny hue. The lobes of the capsule are much compressed, and sharp-edged. Seeds clothed with shaggy chaffy pubescence.

2. *W. paniculata*. Spreading Panicked Wachendorfia. Linn. Sp. Pl. 59. Willd. n. 2. Vahl n. 2. Ait. n. 2. Thunb. Prodr. 12. Burm. Monogr. 4. t. 1. f. 1. Sm. Ic. Pic. t. 5. Curt. Mag. t. 616. (Aphodelus latifolius, floribus patulis flavescentibus, rubicundis intus maculis notatis; Breyne. Prodr. 3. 22. t. 9. f. 1.)—Leaves annual, smooth. Panicle spreading.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope, in sandy ground. It seems from Plukenet's Mant. 70, where it is called Red-bulb, to have been cultivated by Dr. Uvedale. (See UVEDALIA.) This species however is more tender than the preceding, and rarely flowers in the English collections. The knobs of the root are browner, oblong, and nearly vertical. Stem but a foot high. Leaves fewer, entirely deciduous. Flowers larger and handsomer of a deeper orange at the outside; their three upper petals marked

marked with a transverse green or brownish line, and all nearly equally spreading, though the central one is rather smaller than the other two.

3. *W. hirsuta*. Narrow-leaved Hairy Wachendorfia. Thunb. Prodr. 12. Willd. n. 3. Vahl n. 3. Ait. n. 3. (*W. villosa*; Andr. Repof. t. 398.)—Leaves linear-sword-shaped, hairy. Panicle rather oblong.—Gathered at the Cape by Thunberg, from whom we have a specimen. It flowers in our green-houses in June, but is not common. Mr. Andrews received his specimen from Mr. Vere's garden at Kenington-gore, where the plant flourished abundantly under the care of Mr. W. Anderson, now curator of the Chelsea garden. This species is well distinguished by the narrowness, and remarkable long shaggy white hairs, of its leaves. The stem and panicle also are rather more hairy than in the preceding, and the form of the latter is more elongated, less corymbose. Flowers large and handsome, bright yellow; externally tawny; their central uppermost petal concealed in front by the two next, which meet before it: they are all broadly-obovate, shaggy at the back.

4. *W. brevifolia*. Short-leaved Hairy Wachendorfia. Ait. n. 4. Ker in Curt. Mag. t. 1166. (*W. hirsuta*; Ker in Curt. Mag. t. 614? *Silyrinchium ramosum* æthiopicum, foliis plicatis nervosis et incanis, radice tuberosa phoenicæ; Brey. Cent. t. 37. Rudb. Elyf. v. 2. 13. f. 10.)—Leaves elliptic-sword-shaped, hairy. Panicle spreading.—Native of the Cape, from whence, according to Mr. Aiton, it was introduced into the English green-houses, in 1795. It flowers in March or April. We have seen no specimen, and therefore can only presume, not assert, that the dingy-flowered plant, figured in t. 1166 of the Botanical Magazine, and the brighter yellow one in t. 614 of the same work, are varieties of each other. The shortness of the leaves, compared with their great breadth, distinguishes the present species. The two lateral upper petals nearly conceal the central one, seen in front, according to Mr. Ker's just remark, by which the flowers obviously differ from those of *W. paniculata*.

5. *W. tenella*. Linear Smooth-leaved Wachendorfia. Thunb. Prodr. 12. Willd. n. 4. Vahl n. 4.—“Leaves linear, three-ribbed, smooth. Panicle spreading, somewhat compound.”—Gathered at the Cape by Thunberg, whose specific character is all we know of this species.

6. *W. graminea*. Grass-leaved Wachendorfia. Thunb. Prodr. 12. Willd. n. 5. Vahl n. 5. (*W. graminifolia*; Linn. Suppl. 101.)—Leaves sword-shaped, channelled, smooth. Panicle spreading, compound.—From the same country. Thunberg considers this as the rarest Cape plant of its tribe. He has favoured us with a specimen of the panicle only, not having a duplicate leaf. The inflorescence is hairy, as in all the species we have seen; the branches of the panicle racemose, somewhat zigzag. Flowers yellow; externally tawny. *German* very hairy, but this seems to be more or less the case with the whole genus, the species of which differ less in their parts of fructification than usual.

WACHENDORFIA, in *Gardening*, furnishes plants of the exotic flowering perennial kind, for the green-house, in which the species cultivated are, the simple-stalked wachendorfia (*W. thyrsiflora*); the panicked wachendorfia (*W. paniculata*); and the hairy wachendorfia (*W. hirsuta*).

The first is a red thick tuberous-rooted plant of the flowering kind.

The second sort has a creeping tuberculated root, and is single-flowered.

The last chiefly differs from the above in the hairiness of its leaves, and its long reddish-brown stem.

Method of Culture.—These plants may be increased by offsets, taken from the heads of the roots, in the beginning of autumn, planting them in pots filled with soft loamy earth, mixed with a little sea-sand; and when the season proves dry, placing them so as to have only the morning fur, until the offsets have taken new roots, when they must be placed in a sheltered situation, so as to have the full sun. On the approach of frosts, they should be placed in frames, and managed as plants of the tender kind. They are also sometimes capable of being propagated by root-suckers and feeds.

The second sort is very impatient of cold, and seldom flowers in this climate.

They produce variety among other potted plants of the green-house kind, in collections of that sort.

WACHENHEIM, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of Mont Tonnere; 15 miles W. of Mannheim. N. lat. 49° 25'. E. long. 8° 12'.

WACHENROTH, a town of Bavaria; 11 miles S.S.W. of Bamberg.

WACHINELLORE, a town of Hindoostan, in Madura; 20 miles W. of Coipetta.

WACHOVIA, or *Dobbs Parish*, a tract of land so called in North Carolina, consisting of 100,000 acres, purchased of lord Granville, in 1751, by the Moravians, who named it Wachovia after an estate belonging to count Zinzendorf, in Germany. In 1755, it was made a separate parish, and named Dobbs by the legislature. Salem is the principal town.

WACHOWICZE, a town of Poland, in Volhynia; 40 miles S.E. of Lucko.

WACHQUATNACH, a Moravian settlement in Connecticut; 20 miles N. of Stratford.

WACHTENDONK, a town of France, in the department of the Roer, situated in a marshy country, on the river Niers, whose waters fill the ditches; 22 miles N.W. of Duffeldorf.

WACHTERSACH, or WÆTERSACH, a town of Germany, which gives name to a branch of the counts of Iffenburg, with a château, in which the counts of Iffenburg Wachtersbach reside; 15 miles E.N.E. of Hanau. N. lat. 51° 25'. E. long. 6° 14'.

WACHUSET MOUNTAIN, a mountain of Massachusetts, 2900 feet above the level of the sea.

WACKE, or WACKEN, in *Mineralogy* and *Geology*, a name given to a rock nearly allied to basalt, and which may properly be regarded as a more soft and earthy variety of the latter rock: it passes both into basalt and green-stone. See TRAP.

Its colour generally inclines to greenish-grey, brown, or black; it is opaque and dull, yields easily to the knife, and has rather a greasy feel. It occurs with basalt and greenstone in beds, or mountain masses, and graduates into the above-named rocks. Wacke is sometimes compact, and sometimes vesicular or amygdaloidal. At Calton-hill, near Edinburgh, it is porphyritic, containing distinct crystals of augite and feldspar.

The wacke which is said to occur in mineral veins, was supposed to be indurated green earth. The specific gravity of wacke varies from 2.617 to 2.887.

Wacke is classed with simple minerals by Werner, but is considered by Cordier as a compound rock of volcanic origin, and composed of minute crystals and particles of augite, feldspar, and the other minerals which are found in the different varieties of lava. (See *Volcanic Products* at the end of the article VOLCANO.) In compound rocks, no two chemical

mical analyses can be expected to agree, as they must vary with the proportions of the prevailing ingredient. A specimen of amygdaloidal wacke analysed by Withering gave

Silex	-	-	63
Alumine	-	-	13
Lime	-	-	7
Iron	-	-	17

Wacke, is fusible, melting into a vitreous slag, the colour of which will vary according to the prevailing ingredient which composes this rock. This mineral must not be confounded with another rock called grey wacke or grau wacke.

WACKE, *Grey*, or *Grey Wacke*, or *Wacke*, a name given by later geologists to a very extensive series of rocks, the members of which differ greatly from each other in composition, structure, and appearance: indeed the name has been applied so indefinitely, that it has occasioned much confusion and obscurity in geological descriptions, and we consider the introduction of the term as having tended greatly to retard the progress of practical geology. A great variety of very different rocks, the nature of which was not precisely known, have been classed with grey wacke, which served as a name to conceal ignorance under the veil of scientific arrangement. Some geologists restrict the term to those rocks which have a basis of clay-slate; others extend it to all the coarse grit stones which contain rounded and angular fragments united by a cement of any kind; and the French, under the name of *plasmite* (which they have recently introduced), comprise along with grey wacke all the coarse sand-stones of the coal formation. In all extensive formations of clay-slate, the upper beds will frequently contain particles of quartz, flinty slate, and other minerals, which sometimes give them a coarse and sometimes a granular appearance; and even in the midst of beds of pure slate, beds of this coarse slate frequently occur, which, when they have a schistose structure, are the grey wacke slates of the German geologists. Mr. Jameson defines grey wacke to be a kind of sand-stone very different from any of those that occur in the flint rocks. It is composed of grains of sand, which are of various sizes, and sometimes even approach in magnitude to rolled masses. These are connected together by a basis of clay-slate, and hence this rock derives its grey colour and solidity. These fragments are quartz, a kind of indurated clay-slate, or flinty slate.

When the sandy particles of grey wacke become so small as scarcely to be perceptible by the eye, it acquires a slaty structure, and then forms grey wacke-slate, which, he adds, bears a striking similarity to clay-slate. "This slate has seldom a greenish or yellowish colour, as is the case with primitive slate, but is usually bluish, ash and smoke grey. It does not shew the silvery continuous lustre of primitive clay-slate, but is rather glimmering, which originates from scales of mica. Quartz scarcely occurs in it in layers, but usually traverses it in the form of veins. It does not contain crystals of felspar, schorl, tourmaline, garnet, or horn-blende, nor beds of garnet, talc, chlorite-slate, or magnetic iron-stone. Grey wacke-slate contains petrifications, particularly three varieties that border on grey wacke.

"Grey wacke and grey wacke-slate alternate, and are distinctly stratified; but the stratification of the former is more distinct than that of the latter. They sometimes alternate with beds of transition lime-stone, trap, flinty slate and coal-blende. This rock is uncommonly productive of metals, not only in beds but in veins, which latter are frequently of great magnitude. Almost all the mines of the Hartz are situated in grey wacke. The whole of the lead veins of Lead Hills and Wanlockhead, in Scotland, are situated in grey wacke."

It was for a long time contended, that the killas or slate of Cornwall was grey wacke: it is now considered as a true clay-slate, resting immediately on the granite of that district. Grey wacke was, by the Wernerian geologists, regarded as partly of chemical and partly of mechanical formation; the fragments which it contained were supposed to be the debris of older rocks; but on this hypothesis it must appear extraordinary that these fragments should be so limited in their kind, and that granite, lyeinite, gneiss, and the other primitive rocks, should rarely, if ever, occur in it.

The hypothesis of the mechanical formation of grey wacke is now abandoned by its former supporters; and it is even contended, that the rounded masses in many conglomerated rocks and in sand-stones have been formed chemically, and that plum-pudding stones are in many instances chemical formations, as these stones sometimes graduate into the adjoining rocks, and the nodules themselves not unfrequently also graduate into the rock in which they are imbedded.

The occurrence of grey wacke, imbedded in what has been called primitive slate, offers a further proof that the origin of this rock, in such instances, is not derived from the debris of pre-existing rocks, but is more analogous to the formation of porphyries, though the process by which it has been solidified did not allow the imbedded particles or nodules to take a regular crystalline form. From what has been stated, it will appear, that under the name of grey wacke may be classed a great variety of rocks, some approaching to the nature of porphyry, others to plum-pudding stone; others again, where the fragments are imbedded in a paste, resemble coarse grit-stones, whilst many rocks of clay-slate, which are not perfectly homogeneous, may be also classed with grey wacke, though they nearly resemble primitive slate. Whilst such latitude is allowed to the application of the term, it is obvious that no geological description can convey accurate information where it is introduced, unless it be accompanied with a definite account of the composition of the rock to which this name is given; and geologists would do well to restrict its use, or to banish it altogether from the nomenclature of rocks.

WACKENITZ, in *Geography*, a river which runs from Ratzeburg lake into the Trave at Lubeck.

WACKMOYJUST, a town of Birmah; 12 miles S. of Raynangong.

WACSAW, a town of America, on the line which divides North from South Carolina, where, in the year 1781, 700 British troops, under the command of lieutenant-colonel Tarleton, came up with a party of Virginian troops, under colonel Burford, amounting to 300 men; the latter being summoned to surrender refused, and a most bloody engagement ensued, when few of the Americans escaped; 53 prisoners only were taken, except the wounded.

WADAN, or ZALA, a town of Fezzan, in the road from Tripoli to Mourzouk; 160 miles N. of Mourzouk. N. lat. 29° 59'. E. long. 15° 12'.

WADD, or WADDING, in *Gunnery*, a stopple of paper, hay, straw, old rope-yarns, or tow, rolled firmly into the form of a ball, and forced into a gun upon the powder, to keep it close in the chamber; or put up close to the shot, to keep it from rolling out, as well as to prevent the powder, when fired, from dilating round the sides of the ball, by its windage, as it passes through the chase, which would considerably diminish the effort of the powder. From some experiments recited in the *Military Dictionary*, it is inferred, that the judicious ramming of a little wadding over the powder adds about one-fourth part of the whole effect.

WADD, or *Wad*, in *Mineralogy*, a name given to a species of

of manganese ore, of which there are four kinds: fibrous wad, ochrey wad, pulverulent ochrey wad, and dendritic wad. See MANGANESE.

The wad of Derbyshire is composed of nearly equal proportions of the oxys of manganese and iron.

The plumbago of Borrowdale, in Cumberland, is provincially called wad. See PLUMBAGO.

WAD is also sometimes applied to the light tufts of hay which are shaken together; and, in which case, the hay is then said to be wadded. It is likewise occasionally used in some places, to signify the plant woad or would, which is used in dyeing. See WOAD.

WADD, *Pea and Bean*, in *Agriculture*, the small handfuls or portions of these crops which are set up together in a slanting manner, after being cut or pulled, for the purpose of drying, and which are sometimes afterwards tied.

WADD-HOOK. See WORM.

WADD-MILL is a hollow form of wood, to make the wadds of a proper size.

WADDEL, in *Geography*, a town of North Carolina; 30 miles W. of Exeter.

WADDEN, a channel of the German sea, between the island of Ameland and the coast of Friesland.

WADDLE, in *Agriculture*, a name applied in some places to the flatted hurdle of the split-wood kind. It is a very preferable sort of hurdle for many different purposes on farms. See HURDLE.

WADDO, in *Geography*, a town of Sweden, in the province of Upland, on a narrow creek, which communicates with Aland's Haff; 15 miles N. of Nortelge. N. lat. 60°. E. long. 18° 40'.

WADE'S POINT, a cape on the coast of North Carolina. N. lat. 36° 7'. W. long. 76° 20'.

WADEBRIDGE, an inconsiderable market-town in the hundred of Trigg, and county of Cornwall, England, is situated partly in the parish of St. Breock, and partly in that of Egloshaile, at the distance of 25 miles W.S.W. from Launceston, and 239 in the same bearing from London. A weekly market on Fridays, and two annual fairs, were granted by king Edward II., in the year 1312, to Walter Stapleton, bishop of Exeter, then lord of the manor. The market is still held, though on a very small scale, for butchers' meat and other commodities; and here are now three fairs. The only object of notice in the town is the bridge over the river Alan, about 320 feet in length, and consisting of 17 arches, which connects the two parishes wherein the town stands. It was built in the reign of Edward IV. by public contributions, and begun by John Lovibond, then vicar of Egloshaile. Hals says, that an indulgence was granted to the contributors in the year 1485; but no record of this appears in the registers of the see of Exeter. The same author adds, that Lovibond gave lands, then worth 2*ol.* *per annum*, for the support of the bridge: these lands are not now let for quite so much. This bridge was made a county-bridge in the reign of James I. Padstow-Haven is navigable to Wadebridge, whither vessels of about 40 or 50 tons carry coals, salt, lime, &c.—Lysons's *Magna Britannia*, vol. iii. Cornwall, 4*to.* 1814.

WADEIJ, a town of Arabia, in the province of Yemen; 80 miles S.S.W. of Saade.

WADELS, a river which rises in Radnorshire, and runs into the Lug, in Shropshire, about 3 miles E. of Preteign.

WADENSCHWEIL, a town of Switzerland, in the canton of Zurich; 9 miles S. of Zurich.

WADERO, an island near the west coast of Sweden, in the North sea. N. lat. 56° 24'. E. long. 12° 30'.

WADESBOROUGH, a town of North Carolina; 76 miles S.W. of Fayetteville.

WADEY, a country of Africa, situated to the west of Darfur. It formerly consisted of several states, but being conquered by the Arabs, they were all united into one. The Arabic is the principal language, though many others are said to be spoken.

WADHAM ISLANDS, a cluster of small islands, near the north-east of Newfoundland. N. lat. 49° 57'. W. long. 53° 37'.

WADI ABASSI, a river of Arabia, which runs into the Red sea, 10 miles S.S.E. of Hodeida.

WADI el Medina, a small river of Arabia, which waters the city of Medina.

WADI Elmahab, a river of Arabia, which in rainy seasons runs into the Red sea, 25 miles S.S.E. of Hodeida; at other times loses itself in the sands.

WADI Faran, a river of Arabia, which runs into the Red sea, 25 miles N.W. of Tor.

WADI Fatima, a small river of Arabia, which runs north-west of Mecca.

WADI Gamus, or *Valley of Buffaloes*, a valley of Egypt, on the east side of the Nile; 5 miles S. of Esfeneh.

WADI el Kbir, a river of Arabia, which in rainy seasons runs into the sea near Mocha.

WADI Meidam, a river of Arabia, which runs into the sea, 8 miles W. of Aden.

WADI Schab, a river of Arabia, which loses itself in the sands, about 18 miles N. of Hodeida.

WADI Schan, a river of Arabia, which in rainy seasons runs into the Red sea, 6 miles N.N.W. of Hodeida; in dry seasons it loses itself in the sands.

WADI Suradaj, a river of Arabia, which in rainy seasons runs into the Red sea, about 18 miles S.W. from Zebid.

WADI Zebid, a river of Arabia, which passes by Zebid. This river, at a particular season of the year, overflows and fertilizes the soil; it afterwards spreads itself into a shallow lake, and is lost among the sands.

WADING, LUKE, in *Biography*, an Irish ecclesiastic, more distinguished for probity and piety than for discrimination of judgment, resided at Rome, where he died in the year 1655. His works, in which he has occasionally intermixed fabulous relations, are "*Annals of his Order*," which was that of St. Francis, in 8 vols. folio, continued by other authors till they amounted to 17 vols. folio; and a "*Bibliotheca of Writers of the Franciscan Order*," 1630, folio, held in considerable estimation. Moreri.

WADMELAW, in *Geography*, a river of South Carolina, which separates the island of St. John from the continent.—Also, a small island on the coast of South Carolina, which communicates with St. John's island by means of a bridge.

WADREAG, a district of Africa, in the country of Sahara.

WADSAOS, a town of Norway, in the diocese of Drontheim; 120 miles N. of Drontheim.

WADSETT, in *Agriculture*, a term applied to an ancient sort of tenure or lease of land, in the Highland parts of Scotland. The writer of the account of the agriculture of the county of Inverness has remarked, that wadsetts were, at a former period, frequent and numerous there; but that they have now been mostly resumed, the price being paid up so soon as the term of redemption arrived. These wadsetts were commonly, it is said, granted to the younger sons and near relations of the great barons, and for these

these reasons: 1st, Being more attached to the head of the tribe than any other description of men, they were appointed the officers of the clan, when an expedition was undertaken; 2d, The scarcity of money made it more convenient for the needy nobility or chieftains to borrow or raise money in this way than in any other, or to give their children a patrimony, when about to settle in life; and 3d, When every man's occupation was war, or farming and grazing, before the spirit of adventure in going abroad to acquire wealth was known, the youth remained at home, on wadsetts or leases of ground at a moderate rent. In this manner, it is said, a clan, during the patriarchal no less than the feudal system or state, were in fact a battalion of armed men, living closely together, and united by the most powerful ties of consanguinity and interest. Accordingly, it is said, we find the Highland tribes settled in clusters, in the same valley or strath, unmixed with any other people; nor was it at one period, it is thought, very safe for a stranger to attempt settling amongst them. A few, and but very few, of these redeemable rights now exist, it is asserted, in any part of the Highlands; and that if the wadsetter continue in the same possession, the right of wadsett is changed into an ordinary lease. See TENURE.

WADSOË, in *Geography*, an island in the Frozen ocean, N. lat. 70° 6', with a copious hot spring, the heat of which is about 36½° of Fahrenheit.

WADSTENA, a town of Sweden, in East Gothland, on the Wetter lake, with a castle, built by Gustavus Vasa in the year 1544, and defended at its four corners by round towers, covered with small domes. In the year 1567, this town was burned by the Danes; 20 miles W. of Linköping. N. lat. 58° 25'. E. long. 14° 59'.

WADSWORTH, a town of New York, on the Genesee river; 90 miles W.N.W. of Chenango.

WADSWORTH, a township in the West Riding of Yorkshire; 5 miles N.W. of Halifax.

WÆLHEIM, a town of France, in the department of the Two Nethes; 3 miles N.W. of Malines.

WÆLWYK, a town of Brabant; 10 miles W.N.W. of Bois-le-Duc.

WAER, a town of Hindoostan, in the country of Agra; 20 miles S.S.W. of Fattipour.

WAERDER, a town of Holland; 5 miles N.E. of Gouda.

WAERFLIET, a town of Germany, in the county of Delmenhorst; 8 miles N. of Delmenhorst.

WAERTH, a town of France, in the department of the Lower Rhine; 9 miles S.S.W. of Wissemburg.

WAES, a district of Flanders so called, situated on the bank of the Scheldt, between Ghent and Yfendick.

WAFE. See WAF.

WAFERS for sealing letters are made by mixing fine flour with glair of eggs, isinglass, and a little yeast, and beating the mass into a paste; then spreading it when thinned with gum-water, on even tin-plates, and drying it in a stove, and cutting it for use. The different colours may be given by tinging the paste with brazil or vermilion for red; indigo, or verditer, &c. for blue; saffron, turmeric, or gamboge, &c. for yellow, &c.

WAF, in *Sea Language*, a signal displayed from the stern of a ship for some particular purpose, by hoisting the ensign, furled up together into a long roll, to the head of its staff. It is particularly used to summon the boats off from the shore to the ship to which they belong; or as a signal for a pilot to repair aboard. Falconer.

To *wast a ship*, is to convoy her safe, as men of war do by merchants' ships.

VOL. XXXVII.

WAFTERS, WAFTORES, conductors of vessels at sea.

King Edward IV. constituted a triumvirate of officers with naval power, whom the patent styles *custodes, conductores, and wafstores*; their business chiefly was to guard our fishermen on the coasts of Norfolk and Suffolk.

WAGA, or VAGA. See WEIGH.

WAGA, in *Botany*, H. M. a filigulous Indian tree, with a tetrapetalous stellated flower, and flat pods, three inches in length. It is very like the intsia, but without spines, and climbs about high trees. The pods are two inches in breadth, thin, and very flat; when dried, of a reddish colour, and have a cortex of a snow-white colour on the inside. The beans are astringent, bitter, round, and smooth, a little flattish, lying in a transverse position with respect to the pod, and of a green, inclining to a chestnut colour. It is evergreen, and grows in Malabar.

The juice of this tree, together with lemons and green turmeric, boiled for a considerable time in cocoa-nut oil, is a good ointment for the leprosy, and of great use in inveterate ulcers. Raii Hist. Plant. 1766.

WAGEERAH, in *Geography*, a town of Hindoostan, in Balana; 20 miles W.N.W. of Nafuck.

WAGENAAR, JOHN, in *Biography*, a Dutch writer, distinguished by his moral qualities as well as literary acquirements, was born in 1709 at Amsterdam, of which he was appointed historiographer in 1758. He died in 1773. His principal work, which is reckoned one of the chief ornaments of Dutch literature for depth of research and purity of style, is a "History of Holland from the earliest Period till 1751," in 21 vols. 8vo.; of which a second edition with engravings, both maps and portraits, was printed at Amsterdam in 1752—1759. Among his other performances are enumerated, "An Historical Description of the City of Amsterdam," Amst. 1760, 3 vols. folio; "The Character of John De Witt placed in its true Light;" and "Historical and Political Miscellanies," Amst. 8vo. 1776. Gen. Biog.

WAGENDRISL, in *Geography*, a town of Hungary; 5 miles S. of Kapfidorf.

WAGENINGEN, a town of Holland, in the department of Guelderland, situated in a marshy country, on the north side of the river Leek, supposed to be the Vada of Tacitus, which was so stoutly defended by Julius Brigranticus against his uncle Civilis, the famous Batavian general. On one side there is a large barren heath, and on the other are pleasant meadows and arable lands. It is tolerably well built, and reckoned the third town of that part of Guelderland called the "Veluwe." Its inhabitants have a pretty good trade in cattle and tobacco; 7 miles W. of Arnhem.

WAGENIZ, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Koniggratz; 12 miles E. of Koniggratz.

WAGENSEIL, JOHN CHRISTOPHER, in *Biography*, was born at Nuremberg in 1633, and having studied at several universities, he became tutor to the son of a nobleman at Altdorf, and accompanied him in his travels through a great part of Europe. At Turin he discovered in the cabinet of the duke of Savoy the famous Ifac Table, which had been lost ever since the pillage of the duke of Mantua's cabinet. In the progress of his life he acquired a high degree of reputation, and was distinguished among other foreign literary persons by the munificence of Lewis XIV. Having been honoured with the degree of LL.D. at Orleans, he became professor of law and history in the university of Altdorf in 1667, and afterwards was advanced to the chair of Oriental languages, and the station of public librarian. He was also a member of the academies at Turin and Padua; and died at Altdorf, at the age of 72, in the

year 1705. The most distinguished of his writings are, "A Dissertation on a supposed Fragment of Petronius;" "Fasciculus Opusculorum variorum Historicorum et Philologicorum;" "Tela ignea Satanae," 2 vols. 4to. being a collection, with a refutation, of some of the principal Jewish works against Christianity; "Dissertatio de Monetali veterum Romanorum;" "Commentatio de Civitate Norimburgensi;" and "Dissertatio de Academicis." He had a daughter, named *Helen-Sibilla*, celebrated for her knowledge of the Latin, Greek, and Hebrew languages. Moreri.

WAGENSEIL, GEORGE CHRISTOPHER, a harpsichord master and composer at Vienna, a disciple of the learned Fouchi, first maestro di capella to the emperor: Till Emanuel Bach changed the style of playing on keyed instruments throughout Germany, Wagenseil's compositions for the harpsichord were in favour throughout Europe, and justly admired for their spirit and originality; as he had quitted the dry, laboured, and crowded style of his predecessors, and given way to fancy, with no unsuccessful attempts at new effects in his accompaniments.

Wagenseil was many years harpsichord master to the archduchess Maria Theresia, afterwards empress-queen, on which account he enjoyed a pension of 1500 florins a year. But in 1772, when we saw and heard him at Vienna, he had been confined to his room several years by a lameness, which came on by degrees in a very uncommon manner. The sinews of his right thigh were contracted, and the circulation stopt, so that it was become incurably withered and useless. Besides this calamity, which constantly confined him to his couch, his left hand had been so ill treated by the gout, that he was hardly able to move two of his fingers. However, at our urgent request, he had a harpsichord wheeled to him, and played several capricios, and pieces of his own composition, in a very spirited and masterly manner; and though we could certainly believe that he had been a much greater player, yet he had sufficient fire and fancy remaining to please and entertain, though not to surprise us very much.

He was at this time nominal master to the archduchesses, for which he had a small pension. Though utterly unable to quit his room, he had scholars who attended him there; and he continued to compose for foreign countries, where his fame was established by his early compositions.

In a second visit which we made this worthy and ingenious man, he had with him a little girl, his scholar, about eleven or twelve years old, with whom he played duets on two harpsichords, which had a very good effect. The child's performance was very neat and steady. There was a young count with him at this time, another of his scholars, who had a very rapid finger, and executed some very difficult harpsichord lessons with great precision.

Wagenseil, with all his corporeal complaints and infirmities, was allowed very extraordinary longevity; as, according to Gerber (*Hist. and Biogr. Lexicon*), he lived till 1777, when he had arrived at his 92d year.

We never heard of more than three vocal compositions by this composer, which were an oratorio, "Gloas Re di Gruda," written by Metastasio, and two cantatas for the imperial court, by the same author; but for the harpsichord, nine different works of his composition were published in different capitals of Europe, some with and some without accompaniments; which, like their author, were allowed to live longer than usual.

WAGER, WAGING, in *Law, vadari*, signifies the giving of security for the performance of any thing.

Thus, to wage law, is to put in security, that you will

make law at the day assigned, *i. e.* take the benefit which the law has allowed you.

Our ancestors considered, that there were many cases in which an innocent man, of good credit, might be overcome by a multitude of false witnesses; and, therefore, established this species of trial, by the oath of the defendant himself. This method of trial is not only to be found in the codes of almost all the northern nations that broke in upon the Roman empire, and established petty kingdoms upon its ruins, but its original may be traced back as far as the Mosaic law. *Exod. xxii. 10.*

A manifest resemblance may also be discerned between this species of trial, and the *canonical purgation* of the Popish clergy, when accused of any capital crime. Similar to this is also the *sacramentum deisionis* of the civil law. But, though a custom somewhat like this prevailed formerly in the city of London, yet in general the English law does not thus, like the civil, reduce the defendant, in case he is in the wrong, to the dilemma of either confession or perjury.

The manner of waging and making law is this. He that has waged, or given security, to make his law, brings with him into court eleven of his neighbours; a custom which is particularly described so early as the league between Alfred and Guthrun the Dane. The defendant then, standing at the end of the bar, is admonished by the judges of the nature and danger of a false oath; and if he still persists, he is to repeat this or the like oath: "Hear this, ye justices, that I do not owe unto Richard Jones the sum of ten pounds, nor any penny thereof, in manner and form as the said R. hath declared against me. So help me God." And thereupon his eleven neighbours, or compurgators, shall avow upon their oaths, that they believe in their consciences that he says the truth; so that himself must be sworn *de fidelitate*, and the eleven *de credulitate*. Some have maintained, that fewer than eleven compurgators will suffice; but Sir Edward Coke is positive, that there must be this number; and his opinion is approved and supported by Judge Blackstone, who observes, that as wager of law is equivalent to a verdict in the defendant's favour, it ought to be established by the same or equal testimony, namely, by the oath of twelve men.

In the old Swedish or Gothic constitution, wager of law was not only permitted, as it still is in criminal cases, unless the fact be extremely clear against the prisoner, but was also absolutely required in many civil cases. But with us in England, wager of law is never required; and is then only admitted, where an action is brought upon such matters as may be supposed to be privately transacted between the parties, and in which the defendant may be presumed to have made satisfaction without being able to prove it; as in actions of debt upon simple contract, or for an abatement in actions of detinue and of account, where the debt may have been paid, the goods restored, or the account balanced, without any evidence of either; and not, when there is any specialty, as a bond or deed to charge the defendant, but when the debt groweth by word only. Nor doth it lie in an action of debt, for arrears of an account, settled by auditors in a former action. By such wager of law, when admitted, the plaintiff is perpetually barred; for the law, in the simplicity of ancient times, presumed, that no one would forswear himself, for any worldly consideration. Wager of law, however, lieth in a real action, where the tenant alleges he was not legally summoned to appear, as well as in mere personal contracts. A man outlawed, attainted for false verdict, or for conspiracy or perjury, or otherwise become infamous, shall not be permitted to wage his law. Neither shall an infant under the age of twenty-one,

one, for he cannot be admitted to his oath; nor shall the defendant, where the plaintiff is an infant, wage his law. But a feme-covert, when joined with her husband, may be allowed to wage her law; and an alien shall do it in his own language. It is, moreover, a rule, that where a man is compellable by law to do any thing, by which he becomes creditor to another, the defendant in that case shall not be admitted to wage his law; for then it would be in the power of any bad man to run in debt first, against the inclinations of his creditor, and afterwards to swear it away. But where the plaintiff hath given voluntary credit to the defendant, there he may wage his law. In no case where a contempt, trespass, deceit, or any injury with force is alleged against the defendant, is he permitted to wage his law. Executors and administrators, when charged for the debt of the deceased, shall not be admitted to wage their law. The king also has his prerogative; for, as all wagers of law import a reflection on the plaintiff for dishonesty, therefore there shall be no such wager on actions brought by him; and this prerogative extends and is communicated to his debtor and accountant; for, on a writ of *quo minus*, in the exchequer for a debt on simple contract, the defendant is not allowed to wage his law.

Notwithstanding all the restrictions to which wagers of law were subject, it was at length considered, that it threw too great a temptation in the way of indigent or profligate men; and, therefore, by degrees new remedies were devised, and new forms of action were introduced, in which no defendant is at liberty to wage his law; so that wager of law is quite out of use, being avoided by the mode of bringing the action; but still it is not out of force. And, therefore, when a new statute inflicts a penalty, and gives an action of debt for recovering it, it is usual to add, in which no wager of law shall be allowed: otherwise a hardy delinquent might escape any penalty of the law, by swearing he had never incurred, or else had discharged it. Blackf. Comm. book iii.

WAGER of Battle. See BATTLE and DUEL, &c.

WAGER's Straits, or River, in Geography, a river of North America, which empties itself into Hudon's bay, N. lat. 65° 8'. W. long. 87°.

WAGES, the plural of the obsolete singular *wage*, denote the pay or recompence given, according to custom, stipulation, and enactment of law, for any kind of work or service. (See LABOUR, LABOURER, and SERVANT.) As disputes have often occurred between masters and servants, the law has interposed to fix the wages of those that are employed in various departments of service. Accordingly by 5 Eliz. c. 4. the justices of every shire, riding, and liberty, or the major part of them, the sheriff, and every mayor, and other head officer within any city or town corporate, in which is any justice of the peace within the limits of the said city or town corporate, and of the said corporation, shall yearly in Easter sessions, or within six weeks afterward, assemble such discreet persons as they shall think meet, and having respect to the plenty or scarcity of the time, and other circumstances, shall have authority to limit, rate, and appoint the wages as well of such artificers, handicraftsmen, husbandmen, or any other labourer, servant, or workman, whose wages in any past have been by any law rated and appointed, as also the wages of all other labourers, artificers, workmen, or apprentices of husbandry, which have not been rated, as they shall think meet by their discretions, to be rated, limited, or appointed, by the year, or by the day, week, month, or otherwise, with or without meat and drink, and what wages every workman or labourer shall take by the great for mowing, reaping, or thrashing of corn and grain, or for

mowing and making of hay, or for ditching, paving, railing, or hedging, by the rod, perch, lugg, yard, pole, rope, or foot, and for any other kind of reasonable labour or service. Also, by 1 Jac. c. 6. the justices, or major part of them, resident in any riding, liberty, or division, where the sessions are severally kept, shall have power to rate the wages within such divisions, as if the same were done in the general sessions of the county; and by the said statute, the said act of 5 Eliz. shall extend to the rating of wages of all labourers, weavers, spinsters, and workmen or workwomen, whatsoever, either working by the day, week, month, or year, or taking any work by the great or otherwise.

If any justice resident within the county, or mayor, shall be absent at the rating of wages, and not hindered by sickness or other lawful cause to be allowed by the justices then assembled for rating of wages, upon the oath and affidavit of some credible person, he shall forfeit to the king 10*l.* to be recovered in the sessions or other court of record, by indictment or otherwise.

And the justices shall yearly, between September 29. and December 25, and between March 25 and June 24, make special and diligent enquiry of the good execution of this statute, and punish defaulters; and shall have for every day that they sit about the execution thereof (not exceeding three days at a time) 5*l.* each out of the forfeitures due to the king.

By the aforesaid act of 5 Eliz. the rates were to be certified into the chancery; but by the 1 Jac. c. 6. they need not to be certified into the chancery, but shall be kept amongst the records of the county or town corporate.

And after the said rates are made and engrossed in parchment under the hands and seals of the persons having authority to rate the same, the sheriff or mayor may cause proclamation thereof to be made in so many places as to them shall seem convenient, and every person shall be bound to observe the same.

If any person upon the proclamation published shall directly or indirectly retain or keep any servant, workman, or labourer, or shall give any more or greater wages, or other commodity, than shall be so appointed in the said proclamation; he shall on conviction before any of the justices or other head officers above mentioned be imprisoned for ten days without bail, and shall forfeit 5*l.*; half to the king, and half to him that shall sue before the said justices in their sessions.

But yet masters may reward a well-deserving servant over and above his wages, according as he shall deserve, so it be not by way of promise or agreement with his retainer.

And every person that shall be so retained and take wages contrary to the said statute of the 5 Eliz. or to the said proclamation, and shall be thereof convicted before the justices aforesaid, or any two of them, or before the mayor or other head officers aforesaid, shall be imprisoned for 21 days without bail.

Every retainer, promise, gift, or payment of wages, or other thing contrary to the said act, and every writing and bond to be made for that purpose, shall be void.

If any clothier, or other, shall refuse to pay so much wages to their weavers, spinsters, workmen, or workwomen, as shall be rated, and be convicted thereof by confession, or oath of two witnesses, at the assizes, or sessions, or before any two justices (1 *Q.*); he shall forfeit 10*l.* to the party grieved, to be levied by distress and sale.

All artificers and labourers, being hired for wages by the day or week, shall, betwixt the midst of March and midst of September, be and continue at their work from five in the morning till after seven at night (except in the time of break-

fast, dinner, or drinking, which shall not exceed two hours and an half in a day, that is to say, at every drinking, one half hour, for his dinner one hour, and for his sleep, when he is allowed to sleep, that is, from the midlt of May to the midlt of Auguft, half an hour at the moft, and at every breakfast one half hour :) and all the artificers and labourers between the midlt of September and the midlt of March shall be and continue at their work, from the fpring of the day in the morning until night, except it be in the time before appointed for breakfast and dinner; on pain to forfeit 1*d.* for every hour's abfence, to be deducted out of their wages.

And every artificer and labourer lawfully retained in building or repairing any church, houfe, fhip, mill, or other piece of work taken in great, in talk, or in grofs, or who fhall take upon him to make or finifh any fuch thing or work, fhall continue and not depart therefrom (unlefs for non-payment of the wages or hire agreed on, or appointed to ferve the king, or other lawful caufe, or without licence from the matter or owner of the work, or of him that hath the charge thereof,) before the finifhing thereof, on pain of imprisonment by one month, without bail, and forfeiture of 5*s.* to the party from whom he fhall fo depart, recoverable by action of debt in any court of record; befides fuch ordinary cofts and damages as may be recovered by the common laws for any fuch offence.

We fhall here obferve, that the firft ftatute, regulating the wages of labour in England, paffed in the reign of Edward III.; and in the fame year (1351) the earlieft law in Spain on the fame fubject was publifhed by Peter the Cruel. At an earlier period, labourers were ferfs, and confequently no laws were required to regulate their wages. The immediate caufe of the laws paffed in both countries, in the middle of the 14th century, was the plague which laid wafte Europe from 1347 to 1349, and carried off a great portion of its inhabitants. The confequence of this devaftation was a fcarcity of labourers, and a rife in the price of labour; which alarmed the employers of labourers both in Spain and in England, and induced them, in their legiflative capacity, to enact laws, which reduced the price of labour to its former ftandard, and impofed heavy penalties on all who gave or accepted more. A few years probably reftored Europe to its former population, and rendered thefe laws fuperfluous; but they ferved as examples to future times, and encouraged governments to interfere and regulate the wages of their fubjects. In England, the ftatute of labourers was frequently renewed, with fuch alterations as the change of circumftances required; and, by an equitable provision, the juftices of every county were empowered, by the ftatute 13 Richard II. c. 8. to meet once a year between Eafter and Michaelmas; and after taking into confideration the price of provifions, to regulate, by proclamation, the wages that fhould be received in the enfuing year. But though this power was confirmed to the juftices by the ftatute 5 Eliz. c. 4. they feem to have exercifed it fparingly; and, when they acted, to have been guided by a fteady bias in favour of the matters.

By the ftatute 11 Henry VII. c. 22. a common labourer was allowed 4*d.* a day, without diet, from Eafter to Michaelmas. In the 35th of Elizabeth the juftices in the Eaft Riding of Yorkfhire, determined that the wages of the common labourer, without meat or drink, fhould be limited to 5*d.* a day, from the 1st of March to the feaft of All Saints. At the former period, a labourer who had 4*d.* a day could earn a quarter of wheat (at 6*s.* 8*d.* its price) by 20 days labour, a quarter of rye (at 4*s.*) by 12 days labour, and a quarter of barley (at 3*s.*) by 9 days labour. At the

latter period, or in the latter part of the reign of queen Elizabeth, a common labourer could not earn a quarter of wheat (at 20*s.*) by lefs than 48 days labour, nor a quarter of rye (at 13*s.* 4*d.*) in lefs than 32 days, nor a quarter of barley (at 12*s.*) in lefs than 28½ days. In other words, a common labourer could earn a greater quantity of wheat in 1495, than he could of barley in 1593. If, therefore, barley was his common futeenance, he could earn more than three times as much in 1495 as in 1593; if rye, 2½ as much; and if wheat, 2½. Confequently, as far as the neceffaries of life are concerned, the fiteuation of the labourer was not one-half fo advantageous in 1593 as it had been in 1495. In the interval, America had been difcovered, the precious metals depreciated throughout Europe, and the currency of England deteriorated by the operations of the government.

A change in the value of money, fimilar to what happened in the 16th century, has taken place in our own times. The precious metals have been depreciated throughout Europe, in confequence of the increafed productivenefs of the American mines during the laft 40 years; and in our own country, the rife of prices, which this neceffarily produced, has been aggravated by a depreciation of our currency, occafioned by the exceffive ifTue of paper not convertible into fpecie. What have been the confequences? The price of labour has not rifen in proportion to the rife of commodities. But the labourer has the difference made up to him in the fhape of poor's rate. An unmarried man can fill fupport himfelf by his nominal wages. But a married man, who has two children to maintain, receives as a matter of courfe affiftance from his parifh. A calculation is made of his wages, and of the price of bread. So much bread is allowed to him, according to the number of his family. What his wages will not furnifh, the parifh provides. This beneficent fystem, as it has been called, turns out to be an engine in the hands of matters, to keep wages as low as will fuffice for the maintenance of the labourer and his wife, with a provision in the fhape of charity for the fupport of his children. It cannot be doubted, that if fuch a provision had never exifted, the wages of the labourer would have been higher—that what he now receives as charity, he would then have received as his own—and that the operation of this fcheme of benevolence is to increafe the gains of the rich, and to deprive the poor of that fhare in the good things of this life, which the provifions of nature, and their own induftry, might otherwife have given them. In thus keeping down the wages of labour, the poor-laws have accomplifhed, under the mask of charity, what the old ftatute of labourers had vainly attempted by the infliction of pains and penalties.

WAGES, in Agriculture, a term employed to fignify the price or hire which is paid to fervants or labourers for the performance of different kinds of farm-work. It is noticed in the Report on the Agriculture of the County of Peebles, in Scotland, that the demand for labour, as for every other marketable article, neceffarily varies according to circumftances; and that the price muft, of neceffity, be regulated by the proportion between the exifting quantity of the article and the demand. That where capital, and profitable employment for capital, abound in proportion to the population, the demand for, and confequent reward of labour, will neceffarily rife to the higheft rate; but that the reverfe muft as neceffarily enfue upon the oppofite fuppofition. That if, in the former cafe, it fhould be attempted to lower the wages of labour below what the demand can afford, the competition of employers, poffeffed of capital, would lead them to break through, or evade, all fuch regulations. If, in the latter cafe, it fhould be attempted to raife wages

above

above what the demand can allow, the competition of labourers for employment would beat them down, avowedly or secretly, to their natural market price. And that the only effect of such nugatory regulations, must issue in the occasioning of more or less embarrassment, in the contrivance of evasions to escape the penalties of their contravention.

Indeed, in the above way alone, it is said, could the existing capital in employment be equally diffused among the labourers of a country, so as that each should receive his proper share of it, in proportion to his willingness and ability to work: if it were possible to carry into effect any regulations for raising wages to an higher rate, the infallible consequence must be, it is thought, that the distribution of the above noticed capital would be confined to a smaller number of labourers, and that the remainder could get no work or employment, and must therefore subsist on charity. But that if the charity comes exclusively from the pockets of those possessed of capital, the capital, thus shortened, is able to employ still fewer at the regulated rate: if it comes, in part, from the employed labourers, it is to them, it is said, all one whether this diminution of wages arises from their giving it in charity to the idle, or from its being taken from them through the competition of the indolent.

The writer of the corrected account of the Agriculture of Middlesex, too, states, that the high value of the landed estates of this country depends very much upon the low price of labour: that if the farmers could have their work executed for one moiety of the present cost, other things remaining the same, it would enable them to pay a much higher rent for the land which they hold. Supposing the labour of land, it is said, to be twenty shillings an acre, in case this could be reduced to ten shillings, proprietors might then add fifty *per cent.*, it is thought, to their rentals, and that the farmers could pay such increased rent, with more convenience to themselves, than they can pay their present rents at the present price of labour. The rent of land is, it is said, about fourteen shillings an acre; if the price of labour could be lowered ten shillings, the farmer, by adding fifty *per cent.* to his rent, would pay his landlord seven shillings, it is said, and increase his own profits three shillings. That, on the other hand, if, by any means, the price of labour should be increased from twenty to twenty-four shillings *per acre*, the rent would, it is said, be absorbed in the price of the labour, in which state of things the landlord would be unable to procure any rent. The then (1807) price of labour, and rent of land, being as much as the farmer can afford to pay; increasing the labour at once, so much as to be equal to the present labour and rent, would, it is supposed, reduce the rent to nothing. It would seem to be evident, it is thought, that an addition to the then price of labour of about seventy *per cent.* would annihilate the rental of land. It is consequently asked, if the advocates for increasing the price of labour or rate of wages, are aware of the evil tendency of their arguments and opinions? have they, it is enquired, contemplated the distress which would take place, if the land should not produce any rent?

Advancing the hire of labour, without, at the same time, increasing the price of the produce of land, would create, it is supposed, a struggle of short duration between the landlords and the farmers, which would reduce the former to farmers, and the latter to labourers. The labouring class would be inordinately increased in number, and the work to be done greatly reduced in quantity. The former would be employed two or three days in a week; this would create a competition among the labourers to obtain constant work, which could only be done by working for less money than usual; the price of labour would fall greatly below what it

was at this time; the land would be imperfectly cultivated, and the agricultural part of the nation would be thrown, it is said, some hundred years back.

Every advance in the cost of agricultural labour must, it is said, be paid either by the community or the landlords. If grain and animal food are made to advance in price, in order to enable the farmers to pay additional wages to their labourers, it becomes a tax, it is said, on the community, and to which those identical labourers contribute. If the price of grain and animal food should continue stationary, and labour should increase in price, it will infallibly, it is thought, occasion an equivalent deduction in the rents of the land. It is of high importance, it is contended, to the landed interest, that the labourers in agriculture should be fed at a very low rate of expence. Any material increase of the wages of labour can only be made, without doing great injustice to the landlords, by a proportionate advance, it is said, in the prices of grain and cattle.

The writer would feel much satisfaction at measures being taken to increase the price of labour, and ameliorate the condition of the workmen of the country, if it could be accomplished without greatly injuring the nation, and particularly if it could be effected without any material interruption to the progress of science, of arts, and of commerce. But the success of agriculture, manufactures, and commerce, all depend upon the price of labour being low, even very low: in order that our arts and our commerce should be highly successful, the price of labour, it is maintained, should be low as possible.

It is further remarked, that the circumstances of the country have of late, until within this little while, made greater calls than usual on the labouring class; the consequence of which has been, what under similar causes always will be the case, an advance in the wages of labour. At the former price of corn, that would have lowered the rent of land, which would, it is said, have fallen exclusively on the landed interest; therefore, to prevent so considerable an inconvenience, the corn laws and regulations have been altered in such a manner as to allow the price to rise. The same able writer, in speaking of the bad effects of public-houses on labourers, remarks it as almost a general rule, that the higher their wages are, the less they carry home, and consequently, the greater is the wretchedness of themselves and their families. Comforts in a cottage are mostly found, it is said, where the man's wages are low, at least so low as to require him to labour six days in every week. For instance, a good workman, at nine shillings *per week*, if advanced to twelve, will spend a day in the week at the ale-house, which reduces his labour to five days, or ten shillings; and as he will spend two shillings in the public-house, it leaves but eight shillings for his family, which is one less than they had when he earned only nine shillings. And that if by any means he be put into a situation of earning eighteen shillings in six days, he will get drunk, it is said, on Sunday and Monday, and go to his work in a stupid state on the Tuesday; and should he be a mechanical journeyman of some genius, who by constant labour could earn twenty-four shillings or thirty shillings *per week*, as some of them can, he will be intoxicated half the week, insolent to his employer and every one about him. Further, too, should his master have business in hand that requires particular dispatch, he will then, more than at any other time, be absent from his work, and his wife and children will experience the extreme of hunger, rags, and cold.

It has also been suggested by Mr. Ruggles in another situation, that if greater wages are given, they will be given for expences in articles widely different from the necessities of life

life—they will be given for the encouragement of idleness, and for the increase of the excise revenue. Idleness is the root of all evil, it is said;—articles of excise are the moisture which nourishes that root.

The increasing number of public-houses is consequently to be greatly deplored as it operates in this way. As there the poor and thoughtless labourers are irresistibly, it is said, tempted to squander their money, in bad beer and spirits, to the manifest injury of their constitutions; whereas, it is thought, a substantial meal at home, with a little good ale, would ensure that health and vigour so essential to those who must earn their bread by the sweat of their brows. It cannot but be noticed, it is said, that the *increase* of these sorts of houses is *more* ruinous to the lowest orders of society than *all* other evils put together. The depravity of morals, and the frequent distresses of the poor labourers' families, if traced to their true source, would, it is thought, be generally found to originate in the public-house. That, on the contrary, where there is not such a house in the parish, and some such parishes there still are, though in distant situations, the wife and children of the labourer, generally speaking, it is said, enjoy happiness, compared with those where many public-houses are seen. They are also, it is thought, less disposed to deceive and pilfer; are better clothed, more cleanly in their persons, and agreeable in their manners.

In all cases, a great deal more, probably, depends upon the manner of training and bringing up the working class than is commonly supposed; as where they are taught and accustomed from infancy to depend upon themselves and their own industry, exertion, hard labour, and honesty, they will form much better and more orderly servants and labourers than where they are made to place their dependance, from such an early period, on the bounty or charity of others, as is too much the case, without having the example of such habits of honest industry, exertion, and independence before them. A better, more industrious, and suitable mode of educating and bringing up the children of the labouring poor, is indeed a matter which is much to be desired.

The wages of servants and labourers differ greatly, in different districts and situations, as the nature of them may be, and according to the goodness or indifference of the workmen they may contain, but in all they have considerably increased for the last fifteen or twenty years, except very lately. They may, perhaps, be stated, as varying under different circumstances, from eight or nine to sixteen or eighteen shillings by the week, and from eight or nine pounds to fourteen or fifteen by the year. This is nearly the case in the two great arable districts of Essex and Norfolk.

However, in addition to the stipulated wages, the labourers have often other advantages from their employers, such as corn or meal at a reduced price, pieces of potatoe grounds or gardens, cow grounds, or cows kept, small houses, and many others, which increase the real, though not the nominal wages.

A plan and form of book for regulating and keeping an account of the time and wages of all sorts of work-people employed by the day, or in other ways, have lately been prepared and printed at Liverpool, by which, it is said, the trouble of arranging and managing such accounts will not be a tenth of what it is in the usual modes of proceeding in such business. If these means should be found capable of lessening the difficulty and trouble of this sort of accounts on a full trial, they will certainly be of great utility in many departments of labour, as something of this sort has long been wanting.

WAGGAMAW, in *Geography*, a lake of North Caro-

lina; 30 miles S.W. of Exeter.—Alfo, a river of North Carolina, which runs into the Great Pedee, 15 miles S. of Kingston, in South Carolina.

WAGGEL, in *Ornithology*, a name given by the people of Cornwall to a species of the *larus*, or sea-gull, known among authors by the name of *martinazzo*.

WAGGON, in *Agriculture and Rural Economy*, a kind of vehicle or carriage in common use. There are divers forms of waggon, accommodated to the divers uses they are intended for. The common waggon consists of the *shafts*, or *raids*, which are the two pieces the hind horse bears up; the *wheels*; the *flates*, which are the cross pieces that hold the shafts together; the *bolster*, being that part on which the fore-wheels and axle-tree turn, in wheeling the waggon across the road; the *chess*, or body of the waggon, having the flaves or rails fixed thereon; the *bales*, or hoops, which compose the top; the *tilt*, the cloth thrown over the hoops; besides the *wheels*, *axle-tree*, &c.

Waggons are too frequently constructed without that proper attention to the nature of the roads, or the sorts of articles which are to be conveyed by them, which is necessary, being in general heavy, clumsy, and inconvenient conveyances. There is, however, a waggon of this kind, which is much employed in the county of Berks, that is formed and built on a more simple and convenient principle than those commonly met with in most other southern parts of the country, and which has not either the height or weight of them, while it possesses sufficient strength, and is easy in the draught. The writer of the first account of the agriculture of that district has, however, suggested an improvement to be made in it, which is that of leaving the space sufficiently deep in the body or bed for the fore-wheels to lock round in the shortest possible curve, as in the present manner of its construction, a great deal of time is necessarily lost in the turning at the ends of the swaths and plats in carrying hay or corn, as well as on some other occasions, as in this way the inconvenience may be removed without doing the smallest injury, it is said, to the symmetry or strength of the carriage or waggon.

In the corrected report on the agriculture of that district, which has been more lately drawn up, it is however noticed, that some farmers of the forest part remark on the above, that the waggon would be much weakened by the proposed alteration; and add, that an improvement has lately been made on the waggons of this county, which is found to answer the purpose of the above suggested alteration, which is the locking chain, as it is called; which is a chain from the pillar of the waggon, to about six inches before the middle bed itay, which is made of such a length, as effectually to prevent the waggon catching on the lock. Where the beds of the waggons are straight, as is common, it is said, in the southern parts of the same county, the improvement first proposed would probably, it is thought, be useful; but that in the vale and middle parts, the beds are otherwise constructed, and scarcely admit of alteration for the better.

A waggon, too, which is peculiar to Cornwall, is said to be light and elegant, being used there for carrying corn and hay in harvest time, and faggot-wood, as well as for many other purposes. The body is open, which with a lade of five bars fixed before and behind gives it great length, while an arch put over the hind wheels gives it breadth; the fore-wheels turn clear under the body, so that it can sweep round in a very narrow compals; the load is secured by two ropes tightened by a sort of winch fixed behind the waggon; it carries about three hundred sheaves of corn at a time. A tongue tree, sometimes called a middle tree, or shafts, are occa-

WAGGON.

occasionally fixed to the axle of the fore wheels, according as it is intended to be drawn by an ox or a horse-team. This light waggon is thought to be deserving of a place on almost every large farm in the kingdom.

But the writer of the rural economies of the different counties of the kingdom, who has attended much to the subject, thinks that those which are employed in the county of Gloucester are to be preferred to any others in the country; as by means of crooked side rails, bending archwise over the hind wheels, the bodies or frames of them are kept low, without the diameter of the wheels being much lessened. The bodies are likewise, it is said, made wide in proportion to their shallowness, and the wheels run six inches wider than those of most other waggons, whereby advantages in carrying top-loads are, it is said, evidently obtained. Mr. Rudge, too, in his account of the agriculture of the same district, has remarked that, in many parts of it, waggons are the principal carriages employed in getting in the hay and corn, and are either full-bedded or with three-quarter beds. That the former have the advantage of a greater length of bed, but are not so convenient for turning; and that the latter, though diminished in size, have the convenience of locking the fore wheels, and turning in almost as narrow a compass as a chaise, in consequence of the bed being hollowed out on each side near the middle, to admit the exterior part, or felloes of the fore wheels. Both these sorts of waggons are capable of carrying nearly, it is said, the same weight, though the former, as being deeper in the bed, is somewhat better adapted, it is thought, for the carriage of heavy articles, such as bags of corn, and other such materials. For the purpose of carrying hay and straw, or of harrowing, their length and width are, it is said, increased by light ladders before and behind, and of similar contrivances, called "rathes," the whole length of the fides. The ladders are put on and taken off at pleasure in both kinds, but the fide additions are generally fixed; except in the straight-headed sort, which are in use, it is said, on the western side of the Severn, in this county; in these they are made removeable, so as to leave the bed quite naked.

Another sort of waggon, which partakes, in some measure, of the properties of both the waggon and cart, on which account it has been appropriately denominated the *hermaphrodite*, is, it is said, frequently made use of in the county of Norfolk, when the pair of fore wheels and shafts are occasionally attached to a common cart by a pole connected with the axle, to which are added the ladders. This is, it is said, a light, cheap, and convenient sort of waggon, which is capable of carrying nearly as much hay or straw as that of the Berkshire.

As it has been observed, that from its having been long a complaint among large farmers, and others, whose business requires the constant use of carts, and only the occasional use of waggons, that the waggon, however well preserved by a shed or other such building, is daily decaying and getting worse while out of use, particularly the iron work of it, which is shortly destroyed by rust; and that, in like manner too, with those whose concerns require the almost constant use of waggons, and but the occasional use of carts; the latter, while unemployed, bear a very considerable proportion to the wear and tear of carts which are in constant use: these circumstances and effects have led and induced a Mr. Rood to devise and bring to perfection, at a very considerable expence, a contrivance of this particular kind, by which the same carriage may, in a few minutes, be made by the carter into two complete tip carts of the common dimensions, and applicable to all the uses of carts in general, or into one waggon, so complete, that a narrow inspection is, it

is said, necessary to distinguish it from a common waggon. And that there is no complication of parts in this waggon, the whole being so contrived, that none of its parts are ever out of use, consequently not liable to be mislaid or lost. The carts, too, when it is formed into them, have a contrivance by which to render them more safe and easy to the horse in going down a hill, and have moveable fide ladders, which will, it is said, be found of great use in carrying corn, bark, and other such materials. It is noticed, that it may be constructed by the wheelwrights of any county or district with perfect ease and facility, and that its shape and particular dimensions are capable of being suited to the wishes of the owner, or to the local fashion of the neighbourhood in which he lives. That the result of considerable experience and enquiries enables the inventor to state that it may be completed, in any county or district, for about five pounds more than the cost of two common carts. It is admitted, however, that it is somewhat more clumsy than a common waggon.

It is united and held together by four strong pins, which are to be removed when it is disunited and used in the separated state.

A representation of it may be seen in the second volume of the "General Dictionary of Agriculture and Husbandry."

In the county of Norfolk, Mr. Doughton, of Brandon, according to the writer of the corrected report on the agriculture of that district, has found a considerable saving by the use of light caravan waggons for two horses abreast, with which he carries, it is said, a chaldron and half of coals, and other loads in proportion; and that, it is thought by him, every man, who reduces the teams of any county or district, will be sure to do this until he arrives at perfection in a one-horse carriage.

In most counties, however, still much too heavy carriages of the waggon kind are in use for the business of farming as well as road purposes. In Kent, the carriages of this sort employed in conveying the corn to market and other places are large, and called hutches, being drawn by four horses; and generally loaded with not more than from seven to twelve quarters of corn, according to its weight, and the distance it is to be carried. They are thirteen feet long, are made crooked at the fides, the width cannot however be positively ascertained; but they are generally three feet wide before, and four behind at the bottom; and about six or eight inches wider at the top, being twenty inches deep: they are boarded at the fides and ends close enough to carry sand. If made with wooden axle-trees, they cost, it is said, about twenty guineas: if with iron, twenty-five. Such waggons are, however, quite unfit for many farm uses.

In Staffordshire, it has been observed by Mr. Pitt, that the reduction of the weight of waggons, in most cases, but particularly to those who are common carriers, is highly beneficial, being a gain of not less than fifty pounds a year by each team constantly employed on the road; and that if it be made with good materials a light waggon will last as long as a heavy one. The cost of a narrow-wheeled waggon there is twenty-six pounds; six inch, thirty-six; the axle-tree is most commonly of wood.

The author of the "Present State of Agriculture and Husbandry in Great Britain," remarks that waggons are chiefly used in getting in the hay and corn harvests, carrying the hay and grain to market, and bringing manure and coals from a distance. That they are generally drawn by the whole team on the farm, where one only is kept, whatever number of animals it may consist of, and that two men

and a boy are mostly necessary to attend them. That in performing distant carriages, when the roads are level and substantially made, and the waggons at all times fully loaded, one of them may probably be as advantageously used as two or more carts of less dimensions. But that where the labour is required to be performed with expedition, as in the hay and corn harvests, these unwieldy machines and contrivances are without doubt ill calculated for the purpose; and that on every occasion, when they return half or a third loaded, it is evident the farmer sustains a considerable loss. Instances have occurred to the writer, it is said, in more than one open-field parish in this part of the country, where a waggon, with three or four persons and as many horses, has been dispatched to collect and carry home scattered parcels of hay from the ends of ridges, which, after going over a great extent of the parish or district, returned only partly loaded. Considering the very high rate of labour, and the shamefully extravagant manner in which, in hay or corn harvest, labourers and farm servants are maintained in this part of the kingdom, it is surprising, it is thought, that every farmer does not exert himself to devise and find out means by which he may perform his work with greater expedition, and at less expence. There are some, however, who think that this sort of carriage or conveyance, however well formed and constructed, from its necessary great weight and unwieldiness, as well as its expence, is mostly far from being advantageous to the interest of the farmer; as while it is highly destructive to the roads, it requires great power to draw it, which must be procured at much cost, without affording an adequate compensation in the increased quantity of materials which it carries.

Waggons unquestionably require much more power in the draught in proportion than carts, which is certainly a material objection against them, though they are capable of conveying a much greater load; but, besides, they are far from being so handy and convenient for many sorts of farm-work; and some too are of opinion that more business may be done in any particular space of time, with the same number of horses, by carts than by waggons, in the general run of husbandry work, especially where the distance is small between the places of loading and unloading. That where waggons are used for farm-work, they should be made wide and low, as the most suitable in different intentions. Manures may be carried in these sorts of waggons almost as well, it is supposed, as in carts. Broad wheels are improper for passing and repassing upon tillage lands; as if in fallow they press the land too much, making it so hard as to prevent its being ploughed until wet comes; but on grass-land, wheels of the broad kind are proper and suitable for all purposes. In Berkshire, Mr. Loveden is said to put narrow fore-wheels to his waggons, and broad ones behind, in order to prevent injury to tender grass-land. The hind-wheels in this way roll over the tracks made by the fore, and remove the mischief they have done. The method is thought to be excellent, and of very easy application.

On the whole, waggons are probably the most proper and suitable sort of conveyances for different kinds of heavy loads that are to be carried to a distance; but that for home uses, especially field and other work, which requires to be executed in a speedy manner, carts with proper shelvings and other conveniences are to be preferred, as more ready and economical. See CART.

In the work of reducing the weight of waggons for farm uses, as well as for road and other purposes, it should always be done with much care and attention, in order that it may be taken from such parts of them as have not great force of draught or pressure upon them, and that those parts which

are much exposed in these ways may be left sufficiently strong. In the weight and shape of the wheels some reduction and alteration may likewise take place, as may be seen in speaking of wheels. See WHEEL.

WAGGON, in the *Military Economy*, is a four-wheeled carriage, drawn by four horses, and applied to various purposes.

WAGGON, *Ammunition*, in *Military Language*, is a waggon used in carrying all kinds of stores, and also bread; for which purpose it is lined on the inside with basket-work.

WAGGON-Master-General is he who has the ordering and marching of the baggage of the army. On a day of march he meets the baggage at the place appointed in the orders, and marshals it according to the rank of the brigade or regiment each waggon belongs to, which is sometimes in one column, sometimes in two; sometimes after the artillery; and sometimes the baggage of each column follows their respective column.

WAGGON-Way, the same with RAIL-Way; which see.

WAGGONER, in *Astronomy*, a kind of constellation, called also Charles's wain.

WAGGONER is also used for a routier, or book of charts, describing the seas, their coasts, &c.

WAGGONER, in farm work, the person or labourer who has the care and management of the waggon teams in driving, feeding, and other ways. It is of considerable advantage to the farmer to have good and careful waggoners, in saving time, waste, and labour. A waggoner is also a term applied to the man who drives and directs waggons on the public roads. See ROAD.

WAGGONERS, *Royal*, or *Royal Waggon Train*, a corps of waggoners lately established, consisting of nine troops, each troop being 60 rank and file: but since its first establishment reduced.

WAGHKUNK, in *Geography*, a town of New York; 7 miles N.W. of Kingston.

WAGING, a town of the archbishopric of Salzburg; 17 miles N.W. of Salzburg.

WAGIOL, one of the smaller Papuan islands. See *New Guinea*.

WAGNA, a town of the duchy of Stiria, on the Salm; 17 miles S. of Gratz.

WAGNAGUR, a town of Hindoostan, in Guzerat, on the gulf of Cambay; 45 miles S.S.W. of Gogo.

WAGNER, JOACHIM, in *Biography*, a celebrated German organ-builder, who erected a large organ, in the garison church at Berlin, in 1725, which is remarkable for compass, &c. having 50 keys in the manuals, and for its number of pipes, amounting to 3220; but still more so for the ornaments and machinery of the case, which are in the old Teutonic taste, and extremely curious.

At each wing is a kettle-drum, which is beat by an angel placed behind it, whose motion the organist regulates by a pedal; at the top of the pyramid, or middle column of pipes, there are two figures, representing Fame, spreading their wings when the drums are beat, and raising them as high as the top of the pyramid; each of these figures sounds a trumpet, and then takes its flight.

There are likewise two fons, which move to the sound of cymbals, and the wind obliges them to cross the clouds; during which time two eagles take their flight, as naturally as if they were alive.

The name of Wagner occurs twelve times in Gerber's continuation of Walther's Musical Dictionary. Seven of the number have distinguished themselves in music, some way or other

other by their talents. The other five have been organ-builders and makers of keyed instruments.

WAGOE, in *Geography*, one of the Faroer islands, west of Stromoe.

WAGOLY, a town of Hindoostan, in Dowlatabad; 15 miles N.E. of Poonah.

WAGON, a small island on the west side of the gulf of Bothnia. N. lat. $63^{\circ} 12'$. E. long. $13^{\circ} 38'$.

WAGRA, a town of Austria; 6 miles S.E. of Mautern.

WAGRAIN, a town of the archbishopric of Salzburg, near the Gros Arl; 6 miles W. of Radtadt.

WAGRAM, a town of Austria; 2 miles N.E. of Voglabruck.

WAGRAM, or *Deutsch Wagram*, a town of Austria; 8 miles E. of Korn Neuburg.

WAGRIA, a district of Holstein, situated in the N.E. part, between the Baltic and the Trave.

WAGSTADT, or BILOWES, a town of Silesia, in the principality of Troppau; 24 miles W. of Teschen. N. lat. $49^{\circ} 28'$. E. long. 18° .

WAGTAIL, in *Ornithology*. See MOTACILLA.

WATER, NORD, in *Geography*, a small island in the gulf of Tonquin, near the coast of China. N. lat. $21^{\circ} 13'$. E. long. $109^{\circ} 30'$.

WATER, Zuyd, a small island in the Chinese sea, near the coast of Cochinchina. N. lat. $17^{\circ} 18'$. E. long. $106^{\circ} 34'$.

WAGUOIT BAY, a bay of the Atlantic, on the S. coast of Massachusetts. N. lat. $41^{\circ} 30'$. W. long. $70^{\circ} 28'$.

WAGUR, LITTLE, a district of Hindoostan, on the coast of the gulf of Cutch.

WAHABEES, WAHABIES, or *Wehhabis*, appellations that distinguish a formidable body of warlike sectaries, who sprung up in Arabia about a century ago, commenced their career as reformers of the Mahometan religion, and extended their migrations and conquests. According to Niebuhr, the founder of this sect was one Abd ul Wehhab, (Abdoulwehhah, or Ubdoool Wahab), a native of Aijene (Ujuna), a town in El Ared (Ool Urud), one of the two districts of Nedsjed in Arabia. This man, in his youth, is said to have studied at home (or at Medina) those sciences which are chiefly cultivated in Arabia; he afterwards spent some time at Bosra, and made several journeys to Bagdad, and through Persia. After his return to his native place, says Niebuhr, he began to propagate his opinions among his countrymen, and succeeded in converting several independent sheicks, whose subjects became followers of this new prophet. Those sheicks, who had before been in a state of hostility against one another, were reconciled by the mediation of Abd ul Wehhab, and agreed for the future to undertake no enterprise without the advice of their apostle. In process of time, Abd ul Wehhab reduced great part of El Ared; and being afterwards joined by sheick Mecrami, of Nedsjeran, who was also the head of a particular sect, he, or rather his son Mahomet, as he succeeded his father, was enabled to reduce the Sunnite sheicks, and as they acted in concert to subdue many of their neighbours. After the death of Abd ul Wehhab, his son retained the same authority, and professed his father's views, of course he sustained the supreme ecclesiastical character in El Ared; and though the hereditary sheicks, which were more independent, still retain a nominal authority, yet Mahomet is in fact the sovereign of the whole, and exacts a tribute, under the name of "fikka," or aid, for the purpose of carrying on the war against the infidels. The Sunnites complain of his per-

secution; but, more probably, as Niebuhr says, this bigotted and superstitious sect hate and calumniate Mahomet for his innovations in religion. However this be, the inhabitants of Nedsjed, who demur against embracing the new religion, are retiring to other parts of the country. Zobaner, the ancient Basra, which had decayed to a condition little better than a hamlet, has been peopled by these refugees, and is now a large town.

As to the religious doctrine taught by Abd ul Wehhab, and adopted by his followers, Niebuhr states, that he believed God to be the only object of worship and invocation, and the creator and governor of this world. He forbade the invocation of saints, and so much as the mention of Mahomet, or any other prophet, in prayer, as practices favouring of idolatry. He considered Mahomet, Jesus Christ, Moses, and many others, respected by the Sunnites, under the character of prophets, as merely great men, whose history might be perused with improvement; at the same time denying that any book had ever been written by divine inspiration, or brought down from heaven by the angel Gabriel. He also forbade, as a crime against Providence, the making of vows, in the manner of the Sunnites, with a view of obtaining deliverance from danger. This new religion of Abd ul Wehhab, according to the account given of it by the sheicks, which, however, in some respects, differs from the statement of the Sunnites, may be regarded as a reformation of Mahometanism, proposing to reduce it to its original simplicity. Experience must decide whether a religion, so stripped of every thing that might serve to strike the senses, can long maintain its ground among a people so rude and ignorant as the Arabs. Abd ul Wehhab has also thought it necessary to impose some religious observances on his followers; and has interdicted the use of tobacco, opium, and coffee; and he has enacted a variety of civil regulations, with regard to the collection and distribution of the revenues.

Of these Wahabees other travellers have more recently detailed a variety of particulars, and we shall here avail ourselves of the information concerning them, communicated in the travels of Ali Bey, whose residence in Arabia, and pilgrimage to Mecca, afforded him an opportunity of acquainting himself with the history and religious usages of this tribe of sectaries. Of their founder we have already given a brief account. He commenced his career among the wandering Bedouin Arabs of the desert; and his first proselyte of any importance is said to have been Ibn Saaoud, a prince of certain tribes inhabiting the country to the east of Medina; and this prince took occasion, in the dissemination of his new doctrine, to attack and subjugate the neighbouring tribes. His successor, or, as some say, his coadjutor, was Abdelaziz (Ubdoool Uzeez), who prosecuting his system, carried in one hand his creed of reform, and his sword in the other; and having made himself master of the interior of Arabia, extended his military excursions as far as the vicinity of Bagdad; and in the year 1801, totally destroyed by fire the town of Imam Hossien, near this capital. The men and male children were all put to the sword; while a Wehhabite doctor, from the top of a tower, excited the massacre, by calling on the soldiers to kill "all the infidels who gave companions to God." In 1802, Mecca was taken after a trifling opposition by Saaoud, the son of Abdelaziz, who razed to the ground all the mosques and chapels consecrated to the prophet or his family. This young warrior succeeded to the command of the Wehhabis the following year, on the assassination of his father; and, in 1804, made himself master of Medina, which had before resisted his arms. The conquest of Arabia was now nearly completed; and

the sultan Saaoud became a formidable neighbour to the surrounding pachas of Bagdad, Damafcus, and Egypt.

The constitution of this new sovereignty was singular in its kind. The town of Draaiya, among the deserts, 390 miles to the east of Medina, formed a fort of capital, or centre, of the governments of the Wehhabis. The various tribes of Arabs, scattered widely in tents and barracks over this vast extent of country, yielded obedience, both civil and military, to the sultan Saaoud. The tenth of their flocks and fruits was paid in tribute; an order from the sultan rapidly assembled a multitude of armed men, subsisting themselves at their own expence, totally unorganized as soldiers, but deriving force from their numbers—from their active spirit as sectaries—and from the large plunder they obtained in their military expeditions. Descending frequently from their desert recesses upon the coast of the Red sea, they arrested the caravans, and levied contributions upon the pilgrims journeying to Mecca and Medina. In the year 1807, when Ali Bey visited Mecca, the Wehhabis were in their greatest power. Their army, which he saw encamped in the vicinity of the sacred mount of Arafat, he estimates at 45,000 men,—a large proportion of the number mounted on camels and dromedaries, and with a train of a thousand camels attached to the different chiefs of the army. He describes with some spirit the appearance of another body of Wehhabis, whom he saw entering Mecca, to take possession of the city, and fulfil the duties of their own pilgrimage:—a multitude of copper-coloured men, who rushed impetuously into the place, their only covering a narrow girdle round their waist, to which was hung a *khanjear*, or large knife, each one carrying besides a firelock on his shoulder. Their devotions were of the most tumultuous kind; the lamps surrounding the sacred kaaba were broken by their guns; and the ropes and buckets of the well of Zemzem destroyed in their eagerness to reach the holy water. All the other pilgrims quitted their more decorous ceremonies, till the Wehhabis, having satisfied their zeal, and paid their alms to the well in gunpowder and coffee, betook themselves to the streets, where, in conformity with the law of Abd ul Wehhab, their heads were all closely shaved by the barbers of Mecca. The sultan Saaoud, whom Ali Bey saw at Arafat, was almost as naked as his subjects, distinguished chiefly by the green standard carried before him, with the characters, "*La illabá illa Allah*,"—"there is no other God but God," embroidered upon it.

With respect to their religious tenets, the Wehhabis may be described, generally, as the Socinians of the Mohammedan church. Abd ul Wehhab, while acknowledging fully the authority of the koran, professed obedience only to the literal text of this book; rejecting all the additions of the imams and doctors of law, and condemning various superstitions which had sullied the purity of the faith. He forbade all devotion to the person of the prophet, and pilgrimage to his tomb at Medina; regarding him simply as a man charged with a divine mission; which being completed, he became again an ordinary mortal. The story of Mahomet's ascent to Paradise on El Borak, the horse of the angel Gabriel, he wholly denied; together with a host of other miraculous events, with which history has celebrated the life of the prophet. The Wehhabis simply say "Mohammed," instead of "Our Lord Mohammed," according to the usage of other Mussulmen. They have equally rejected the indirect worship of certain faints, who had been gradually insinuated into the Mussulman calendar, destroying the chapels and tombs which had been consecrated to them. The grand doctrine of the sect, and what they regard as the basis of true Islamism, is the unity of God. This forms their cry

when they go to war, and justifies to themselves the violence they commit upon the corrupters of the faith. The Mussulmen who deviate from this simple principle of belief they call Mouschrikins, or schismatics; making a distinction between this term and that of Collar, or idolaters.

As it was the general custom of Mussulmen to shave the head, with the exception of one tuft of hair, the law of the Wehhabis forbade the tuft, and enjoined the shaving of the whole head. Their founder also prohibited not only the use of tobacco, but that of silk and the precious metals. Their religious services are performed underneath the open sky, and not below the roofing of a mosque. Notwithstanding these changes, however, and the general spirit of their doctrine, they still retain certain superstitions, common to other Mussulmen. While forbidden to make some pilgrimages, others are permitted to them. They kiss the stone of the Kaaba, drink of the water of Zemzem, and throw stones against the pillar said to have been built by the devil at Mina.

The pacha of Egypt, with a view of employing his troops, amounting, at this time, to 15,000 men, and in order to gain favour with the Porte, and reputation among true Mussulmen, determined to liberate the holy city and shrine from the power of these heretics, and declared war against them. In the vigorous prosecution of it, his army was transported to the Arabian coasts; and the men and horses composing it, were supplied with provisions, carried up the Nile as far as Kenneh, thence transported across the desert on camels to Cossair, and shipped for Jambo, or some other port on the eastern coast of the Red sea. Several armed vessels also were built at Alexandria, taken to pieces, and conveyed on the backs of camels to Suez, where they found a small fleet, which greatly aided his military operations on the Arabian coast. The pacha, it is said, received some arms from the English; but permission was refused, as we are told by Mr. Legh, to his request that his vessels might go round the Cape of Good Hope, to enter into the Red sea. The Wehhabis, on the other hand, are reported to have received assistance from the French government, conveyed through the Isle of France, and with the policy of creating a French interest in Arabia, which might be subservient to their pretensions in the East.

The campaign of the pacha of Egypt against the Wehhabis, in 1812, had been unsuccessful; and his army suffered very greatly in an engagement at Jedda, the port of Mecca on the adjoining coast. He redoubled, however, his exertions; organized new troops; and, early in the spring of 1813, brought the war to a triumphant termination. The Wehhabis were driven with loss from the coast; Mecca, Medina, and Jedda, were all retaken, and restored again to the authority of the Porte, and to the worship of the true believers. Mohammed Ali sent his youngest son, Ismael-Pacha, to Constantinople, to lay the keys of Mecca at the feet of the grand signior. The acquisition was rendered of the utmost importance, by the peculiar feeling of all Mussulmen towards the actual possessor of the holy city.

The progress of this sect, says Mr. Kinneir, appears to be now at a stand; few proselytes have been made for a number of years past; and the most paltry fortifications have been found sufficient to arrest the career of their conquests.

It does not appear certain, however, that this success is complete, or that its consequences will be permanent. The Wehhabis retired from the coast to their desert recesses in the interior of Arabia; where their losses may easily be repaired, if the spirit of the sect is maintained in its former vigour.

vigour. We have very recently heard, from what we believe to be good authority, that they are again becoming more active; and, though the military talents of the pacha of Egypt may refrain them at the present moment, we shall not be at all surpris'd, amidst the many revolutions of the East, if they should re-establish their power in Arabia; and concur, with other causes, to overthrow the tottering fabric of Turkish empire in this part of the world. Niebuhr's *Travels*, vol. ii. Waring's *Tour to Sheeraz*. Legh's *Narrative of a Journey in Egypt, and the Country beyond the Cataracts*. Ali Bey's *Travels in Morocco*, &c. 2 vols. 1816. Kinneir's *Geog. Mem. of Persia*. Edinb. Rev. No. liv.

WAHAL, a river which branches off from the Rhine at Schencken Schans, joins the Meuse first at the small island of Voorn, separates from that river, and washes the north side of the island of Bommelwaert, and joins the Meuse again at Worcum, when both rivers form one stream, sometimes called Merwe, and sometimes Meuse. See SAHALIS.

WAHE. See WA.

WAHLBO, a town of Sweden, in Gestrícia; 4 miles S.W. of Gefle.

WAHLBOMIA, in *Botany*, named by Thunberg, in honour of his countryman, Dr. John Gustavus Wahlbom, of whom he speaks as an ardent botanist, and celebrated physician.—Thunb. *Act. Holm.* for 1790. 215. t. 9. Willd. *Sp. Pl.* v. 2. 1244. Lamarck *Illustr.* t. 485. Poir. in *Lam. Dict.* v. 8. 782.—Clafs and order, *Polyandria Tetragynia*. Nat. Ord. *Senticosz*, Linn. *Rafaece*, Juss. *Dilleniacee*, De Candolle.

Eff. Ch. Calyx of four leaves. Petals four. Fruit oblong. Styles permanent. *Willdenow*.

1. *W. indica*. Thunb. as above. Willd. n. 1.—The only species, found by Thunberg in the island of Java, near Batavia, flowering in January. *A shrub*, with round alternate branches, covered with hoary pubescence. *Leaves* alternate, stalked, elliptic-lanceolate, acute, serrated, three or four inches long; entire at the base; paler, but scarcely downy, beneath. *Flowers* somewhat umbellate, or cymose, near the ends of the branches, on downy stalks. *Calyx* externally downy. *Petals* yellowish, deciduous. *Stamens* brown, with yellow anthers. *Pericarp*s four, beaked with the permanent styles.

We have mentioned already that Willdenow was inclined to sink this genus in *TETRACERA*; see the end of that article. Professor De Candolle has actually done so, in his *Syst. Nat.* v. 1. 403, where the plant in question stands under the following name and character.

T. Wahlbomia. "Leaves elliptical, pointed, serrated towards the end; downy beneath, like the footstalks; furnished with stipulas at the base? Panicle of four or five flowers. Segments of the calyx four, externally downy."—The author doubts whether this plant be even specifically distinct from his *T. Affa*, described in the same place, the *Affa indica* of Houttuyn, of which we have already spoken likewise at the conclusion of *TETRACERA*.

WAHLIS, in *Geography*, a town of Germany, in the county of Henneberg; 5 miles N.W. of Smalkalden.

WAHLSTADT, i. e. *The Field of Battle*, a town of Silesia, in the principality of Lignitz; near which, in the year 1241, a most bloody battle was fought between duke Henry II. and the Tartars, wherein the latter were victorious, and the duke slain. In memory of this event the place was built; and the narrative of this engagement is annually read to the people from the pulpit, in the Lutheran church; 5 miles S.E. of Lignitz.

WAHLWINKEL, a town of Saxony, in the principality of Gotha; 4 miles S.W. of Gotha.

WAHOE, one of the Sandwich islands, 37 leagues to the N. of Morotai, and about 30 from Owwhyee, nearly 40 miles long, from N.W. to S.E., and about half that extent in breadth. It is the most important island in the group, on account of its superior fertility, and because it possesses the only secure harbour in these islands. The capital of the island is Hanaroora, the residence of the king. Pearls and mother-of-pearl shells are found here in great abundance.

WAHR, a river of Germany, which rises near Frankena, in the principality of Hesse, and runs into the Lahn near Kirchhayn.

WAHREN, or WAAREN, a town of the duchy of Mecklenburg, situated near the lake of Calpin; 22 miles S.E. of Gultrow. N. lat. 53° 30'. E. long. 12° 39'.

WAHREN See, a lake of the Ucker Mark of Brandenburg; 11 miles W.N.W. of Prenzlau.

WAHRENBURCK, a town of Saxony; 2 miles N.N.W. of Liebenwerda.

WAHRIEN, a town of Mecklenburg, in the principality of Schwerin; 14 miles N.E. of Schwerin. N. lat. 53° 50'. E. long. 11° 38'.

WAHTO, a town of Sweden, in the government of Abo; 10 miles N. of Abo.

WAIBLINGEN, a town of Wurtemberg. This town was almost destroyed in the thirty years' war; 7 miles E.N.E. of Stuttgart. N. lat. 48° 50'. E. long. 9° 25'.

WAICHMAR. See WECHMAR.

WAIDENHOLZ, a town of Austria; 5 miles W.N.W. of Efferding.

WAIDERSFELDEN, a town of Austria; 12 miles E. of Freystatt.

WAIDGUNGE, a town of Hindoostan, in Oude; 30 miles E. of Allahabad.

WAIDHAUSEN, a town of Bavaria; 16 miles N.N.E. of Nabburg.

WAIDHOVEN, or *Bavarian Waidhoven*, a town of Austria, on the river Ips; 26 miles S.S.W. of Ips. N. lat. 47° 54'. E. long. 14° 43'.

WAIDHOVEN, or *Böhmisch Waidhoven*, a town of Austria, on the river Taya; 40 miles W. of Laab. N. lat. 48° 48'. E. long. 15°.

WAIDPOUR, a town of Bengal; 25 miles N.N.W. of Islamabad.

WAIF, or WAFE, a term primarily applied to stolen goods, which a thief, being either pursued, or overburdened, flies, and waives or throws away in his flight.

The king's officer, or the bailiff of the lord within whose jurisdiction such waifs or waif goods were left (having by grant, or prescription, the franchise of waif), may seize the goods to his lord's use; except the owner come with fresh suit after the felon, and sue an appeal of robbery within a year and a day, or give in evidence against him, and he be attainted. In which cases, the owner shall have his goods again.

Waived goods do also not belong to the king, till seized by somebody for his use; for if the party robbed can seize them first, though at the distance of twenty years, the king shall never have them. If the goods are hid by the thief, or left any where by him, so that he had them not about him when he fled, and therefore did not throw them away in his flight; these also are not *bona waivata*, but the owner may have them again when he

pleases. The goods of a foreign merchant, though stolen and thrown away in flight, shall never be waifs.

Waifs, things lost, and estrays, are said to be *pecus vagrans*, and are *nullius in bonis ubi non apparet dominus*. And therefore they belong to the lord of the franchise where they are found; who must cause them to be cried, and published in the markets and churches near about: else the year and day do not run to the prejudice of him that lost them. See ESTRAY.

Though waif be properly spoken of things stolen, yet it may also be understood of goods not stolen. As, if a man be pursued with huc and cry, as a felon, and he flies, and leaves his own goods, these shall be forfeited as goods stolen; and they are properly called *fugitive goods*.

WAJIDA, in *Geography*, a town of Algiers; 25 miles S.W. of Tremecen.

WAJOO, or WADJOO, one of the most considerable of the Papuan islands, situated at the N.W. extremity of Papua, or New GUINEA; which see. This island is said to contain 100,000 inhabitants. The land is high, with lofty mountains, and on the N. side are two excellent harbours, Papis and Oflak. This island is called by the natives Ouarido; it is covered with very large trees, and abounds with mountains of a considerable height, even at a small distance from the shore. Cottages of bamboo wood are seen, elevated on stakes about 12 feet above the ground; and covered with leaves of the macaw tree. The natives are wholly naked, except the parts generally concealed, which are covered with a coarse cloth. Their chiefs are dressed in very large pantaloons, and waistcoats of cloth, which they buy of the Chinese, whose language they speak, and like them they wear conical hats made of the leaves of a tree. They have thick and long curly hair; their skin is not very dark, and some of them let their whiskers grow. They subsist upon hogs, tortoises, fowls, Siam oranges, cocoa, papays, pompions, rice, sugar-canes, potatoes, lemons, allspice, and ears of maize, which they boil when green. Labillardiere found in this island the beautiful promeropis of New Guinea, of Buffon, the large cockatoo, quite black (*pittacus aterrimus*), and a new species of hydrocorax. The wild cock and ground-pheasant of the Indies are very common in the woods.

WAIL, a town of France, in the department of the straits of Calais; 5 miles S.E. of Hesdin.

WAIN, in *Agriculture*, a term sometimes applied to an ox or horse-cart of a particular form, and which, in some districts and places, is without any side-rails, or ladders; but which in others has shelvings added to it, the body being large and open. The Cornish wain, the writer of the account of the agriculture of that county represents as a light useful carriage for conveying corn and hay: it consists of a light open long body, borne upon two wheels; a railed arch put over the wheels prevents the load bearing upon them: it will carry from two hundred to two hundred and fifty sheaves of corn, they being secured by ropes, as in the waggon. Mr. J. Dayman, of that district, considers it also as an admirable contrivance for clearing hay or corn-fields; and that when well constructed, it is thought the best invention for that purpose yet contrived. That it is likewise cheap, as the shafts and wheels of a common cart may be used with it, and, of course, the only additional expence is the body. Besides the railed wings, which prevent the load from choking the wheels, it has a roller behind, with a hole in it, in which is fastened the rope which crosses the load, and which, after taking a turn round a crook put for the purpose, returns again to the back of the carriage,

and then forward to the other side, where it is fastened; the whole is then drawn tight by the roller, which is wrought by two iron handles, in the manner of a smith's vice. These wains are made either with tongue-trees, or shafts, as they may be designed for oxen or horses.

In the county of Gloucester, too, they adapt their wains to harvelt-work, it is said, by fixing ladders and rathes on them. In the lower part of the vale of that district, they are called, it is asserted, dung-pots; but in the forest part, where drawn by oxen, wains.

They are a sort of carriage which is not very commonly met with at present in many farming districts. See CART.

WAIN, in *Astronomy*. See CHARLES'S Wain.

WAIN-HOUSE, in *Rural Economy*, a term made use of in some districts to signify a waggon and cart house, or lodge.

WAINFLEET, or WAYNFLETE, in *Geography*, a market-town in the wapentake of Candlehoe, in Lindsey division of the county of Lincoln, England, is situated in a marsh, on a small creek through which the river Limb flows into Boston deeps, at the distance of 17 miles N.E. from Boston, and 132 miles N. by E. from London. Dr. Stukeley affirms it to be the *Vainona* of Ravennas; whence he supposes the name to be evidently derived. He observes that Salter's Road, which crosses the fen, was probably the Roman road between *Banovallum* and *Lindum*. Leland describes Wainfleet as "a praty market standing on a creeke neare to the fe." To this town long small vessels. It hath bene a very godde toune, and yn it 2 paroch churches. The schole, that Wainflete bishop of Winchestre made and endowid with xli. lande, is the most notable thing. Shippeletes cam in hominum memoria up to the schole. The haven now decayith." The neglect of the haven was in consequence of the waters of the fens being diverted more southerly towards Boston, by which that place became the port town: Wainfleet haven, however, affords security to vessels driven on the coast in tempestuous weather. It is probable that the town, previous to the decay of the harbour, stood higher up the creek, for the church of All Saints stands at a place called High Wainfleet. This church is a respectable edifice, but apparently not older than the time of bishop Waynflete: it has a brick tower of modern date, and is rapidly decaying. In the fourth aisle is an alabaster monument, which was erected by the pious bishop to the memory of his father. St. Mary's church, in Low Wainfleet, has nothing worthy of note. The school-house, founded in 1459, is yet standing, and has a handsome window, also two octagonal turrets. Four annual fairs are held, and a small weekly market on Saturdays. In the return to the population act of the year 1811, the number of houses in Wainfleet is stated to be 229, inhabited by 1165 persons. This town is memorable as the birth-place of that celebrated prelate above-named, who was lord chancellor, and founder of Magdalen college, Oxford. He died August 11, 1486.—*Beauties of England and Wales*, vol. ix., Lincolnshire: by J. Britton, F.S.A. See Chandler's Life, &c. of Waynflete.

WAINSCOT, in *Building*, the timber-work serving to line the walls of a room; being usually made in panels, and painted, to serve in lieu of hangings.

Even in halls, it is common to have wainscot breast-high, by reason of the natural humidity of walls.

It was formerly the custom to wainscot rooms up to the ceiling, and to terminate it by a cornice; but it is now commonly raised only chair high, or from two to three feet; the rest of the wall is either covered with paper, which

which is often pasted on thin cloth, and fixed in frames, to prevent its being spoiled by the dampness of the wall, or else it is finished with stucco. Walls should be thoroughly dry before they are waincotted, and the stuff of which the waincot is made should be dry and well seasoned.

Some joiners put charcoal behind the panels of the waincot, to prevent the sweat of stone and brick-walls from ungluing the joints of the panels. Others use wool for the same purpose. But neither the one nor the other is sufficient for some houses: the only sure way, is by priming over the backfides of the joints with white lead, or Spanish brown and linseed oil.

Waincotting is measured by the square yard of nine feet; and in taking dimensions, they use a string, which they press into all the mouldings; it being a rule, that they are to be paid for all where the plane goes.

The cornice is measured and paid by the foot in length.

WAIORA, in *Geography*, a town of Africa, in Kaarta. N. lat. $14^{\circ} 48'$. W. long. $6^{\circ} 10'$.

WASCHOWIZ, a town of Moravia, in the circle of Olmutz; 3 miles S.E. of Profnitz.

WAIST, in *Ship-building*, a name given to that part of the topside of a ship, above the upper-deck, between the main and fore drifts: or it is that part which is contained between the quarter-deck and fore-castle, being usually a hollow space, with an ascent of several steps to either of those places. When the waist of a merchant-ship has only one or two steps of descent from the quarter-deck and fore-castle, she is said to be galley-built; but when it is considerably deeper, as with six or seven steps, she is called frigate-built. Falconer.

WAIT'S RIVER, in *Geography*, a river of Vermont, which runs into the Connecticut, N. lat. $43^{\circ} 58'$. W. long. $72^{\circ} 5'$.

WAITS, in *Musie*, attendant musicians on great personages, mayors, and bodies corporate, generally furnished with superb dresses, or splendid cloaks. We have an account in Rymer's *Fœdera*, (tom. ix. "De Ministris propter Solutum Regis providendis,") and in the "Liber niger Domus Regis," of the establishment of the minstrels and waits, in the service of the court during the reign of Edward IV. The account of the allowances to the waits at this early period is curious.

"A wayte, that nightelye from Mychelmas to Shreve Thorstdaye pipethe the watche within this courte fower tymes; in the somere nyghtes iij tymes, and makethe bon gayte at every chambere-doare and offyce, as well for feare of pyckeres and pillers. He eateth in the halle with mynstrielles, and takethe lyverey at nighte a loffe, a galone of ale, and for somere nightes ij candles pich, a bushel of coles; and for wintere nightes half aloafe of bredd, a galone of ale, iij candles piche, a bushel of coles; daylye whilste he is presente in courte for his wages in cheque roale allowed iij d. ob. or else iij d. by the discrecion of the stewart and treforere, and that, after his cominge and disferuinge; also cloathing with the houshold yeomen or mynstrielles lyke to the wages that he takethe; and he by syke he taketh twoe loves, ij messe of great meate, one gallon of ale. Also he partethe with the housholde of general gyfts, and hathe his beddinge carried by the comptrollers assygnment; and under this yeoman to be a groome watere. Yf he can excuse the yeoman in his absence, then he takethe rewarde, clotheinge, meat, and all other things lyke to other grooms of houshold. Also this yeoman-waighte, at the makinge of knyghtes of the bathe, for his attendance upon them by nighte-tyme, in

watchinge in the chappelle, hathe to his fee all the watchinge-clothing that the knyght shall wear upon him."

WAITSFIELD, in *Geography*, a town of America, in the state of Vermont, and county of Chittenden; containing 647 inhabitants.

WAITZEN, or VAITZ, a town of Hungary, situated on the Danube; the see of a bishop, founded in the year 1074. This town chiefly owes its prosperity to a large annual fair, and a good market for cattle. The number of inhabitants is about 8000; 72 miles E.S.E. of Presburg. N. lat. $47^{\circ} 20'$. E. long. $18^{\circ} 38'$.

WAITZENKIRCH, a town of Austria; 4 miles W.N.W. of Efferding.

WAIVE, in *Law*, a woman that is put out of the protection of the law.

She is called *waive*, as being forsaken of the law; and not *outlaw*, as a man is; by reason women cannot be of the decenna, and are not sworn in leets to the king, nor to the law, as men are; who are therefore within the law; whereas women are not, and so cannot be outlawed, since they never were within it.

In this sense we meet with *convivaria mulieris*, as of the same import with *utlagatio viri*.

WAIWODE, or WAYWODE, the appellation that distinguishes, in the Ottoman empire, the governor of a small province, or of a town, which not forming part of a pachalik, is sometimes the appendage of a sultana, of the grand vizir, of the captain-pacha, or of any other great officer of the empire. He enjoys all the prerogatives of a pacha with two tails, but occupies an inferior rank. When he is required to march at the head of the armed force of his department, he joins his colours to those of the pacha with three tails. Both the one and the other are charged with carrying into execution, in their provinces, the sentences pronounced by the judges.

In the islands of the Archipelago, the Mussulmen or Greeks simply charged by the Porte with the gathering of the tax, and with the police of the place, are likewise distinguished by the name of waiwode.

The palatines, or governors of provinces in Poland, also bear the quality of *waywodes*, or *waiwodes*. See PALATINE.

The Poles likewise call the princes of Walachia and Moldavia *waywodes*; as esteeming them no other than on the foot of governors; pretending that Walachia and Moldavia are provinces of Poland, which have withdrawn themselves from the obedience of the republic. Every where else these are called *hopodars*.

Du Cange says, that the name *waywode* is used in Dalmatia, Croatia, and Hungary, for a general of an army; and Leunclavius, in his *Pandects of Turkey*, tells us, it usually signifies *captain or commander*.

WAKARI, in *Geography*, a small island on the east side of the gulf of Bothnia. N. lat. $60^{\circ} 51'$. E. long. $20^{\circ} 47'$.

WAKAYGAGH, or FORT, a river of America, which runs into lake Michigan. N. lat. $42^{\circ} 58'$. W. long. $87^{\circ} 9'$.

WAKE, WILLIAM, in *Biography*, a famous English prelate, was born at Blandford, in the county of Dorset, in 1657, and admitted at Christchurch college, at Oxford, in 1672, where he took his degrees in arts, and entered into holy orders. He afterwards accompanied his fellow-collegian, lord viscount Preston, to France, as his chaplain, and returning from thence to England after the accession of James II. was elected preacher to the society of Gray's Inn. In 1686 he published "An Exposition of the Doctrine of the Church of

of England," upon the plan of Bossuet's "Exposition of the Doctrine of the Catholic Church;" and he also published two defences of his treatise against the replies of Bossuet and his coadjutor. In the popish controversy, which at that time occupied the public attention, he wrote other pieces, and closed the dispute with his "State of the Controversy." In 1685, having abandoned his patron lord Preston, who was attached to king James, he arrived in 1688, took a degree of D.D. at Oxford, became canon of Christchurch, and in 1689, deputy-clerk of the closet to king William and queen Mary. In 1693 he published "An English Version of the genuine Epistles of the Apostolical Fathers, with a preliminary Discourse concerning the right Use of the Fathers." In this work, of which an enlarged edition was published in 1710, he ascribes an "authority to the fathers in matters of doctrine next to infallible." In 1694 he was presented to the rectory of St. James's; and in 1697 he published his "Defence of the Power of Christian Princes over their Ecclesiastical Synods, with particular respect to the Convocations of the Clergy and Church of England." By this and some subsequent publications of a similar kind, such as his "Vindication of the King's Supremacy against both popish and fanatical Opposers of it," and "The State of the Church and Clergy of England," 1703, fol. he recommended himself to the crown; so that in 1702 he obtained the deanery of Exeter, and in 1705 the bishopric of Lincoln. During the prevalence of whig principles, which were then fashionable, the bishop recommended a comprehension with the Dissenters, and zealously concurred in the censure and punishment of Dr. Sacheverel. He maintained his moderation in the reign of queen Anne, and opposed the intolerant measure of the schism-bill. Soon after the accession of George I. he was advanced, January 1715-16, to the see of Canterbury. This elevation gave a new turn to his sentiments and temper, so that in 1718 he opposed the repeal of the schism and conformity bill, and also of the test and corporation acts, alleging that "the Dissenters were never to be gained by indulgence;" and expressing much displeasure against Hoadly's celebrated sermon, "Christ's Kingdom not of this World;" and concurring in a bill for imposing a new test against the opinions of the Arians. These measures, which did no credit to the consistency of his character, were justified under a pretence of zeal for the church. By his earnest endeavours to effect an union between the English and Gallican churches, on the condition that each should retain the greatest part of its peculiar doctrines, he incurred a considerable degree of censure, particularly on the part of the author of the "Confessional;" but his character and intentions were vindicated by Dr. MacLaine, in an appendix to his Translation of Mosheim's Ecclesiastical History, to which, as well as to the Biographia Britannica, we refer for a statement of this business. After all, his discretion and sagacity as to the object and conduct of this transaction did not escape just animadversion. Such, however, was his conciliatory disposition, and his disposition to promote concord and union, that he acknowledged the foreign Protestant churches to be true members of the Christian community, and recommended forbearance and toleration with regard to theological doctrines. It is, however, a matter of regret, that his treatment of separatists at home did not manifest, to the degree that might have been wished, a similar spirit of toleration. His conduct towards father Courayer, an eminently liberal Catholic, redounded greatly to his honour. In the latter period of his life, his increasing infirmities rendered it necessary for him to transfer the exercise of his ecclesiastical duties to Dr. Gibson, bishop of London; and at length he closed his life and labours, January 1736-7, in

his 80th year, leaving six daughters, who were all married, and bequeathing his library, MSS., and coins, to the college in which he was educated. Four editions of a treatise, intitled "A Preparation for Death," &c. and 3 volumes of his Sermons, Charges, &c. were published.—Biog. Brit. Mosh. E. H. Appendix, N° iv. vol. vi. ed. 8vo. 1811.

WAKE, in *Geography*, a county of North Carolina, containing 17,086 inhabitants, including 5878 slaves.

WAKE of a *Ship* denotes the print or track impressed by the course of a ship on the surface of the water. It is formed by the reunion of the body of water, which was separated by the ship's bottom whilst moving through it, and may be seen to a considerable distance behind the item, as smoother than the rest of the sea. Hence it is usually observed by the compass, to discover the angle of lee-way.

By this, a guess also may be made of the speed she makes.

When, in a ship's staying, she is so quick, that she does not fall to leeward, upon a tack, but that, when tacked, her wake is to the leeward, they say, *she stays to the weather of her wake*; which is a sign she feels her helm well, and is nimble of steerage.

Also, when one ship, pursuing another, is got as far into the wind as she, and sails directly after her, on the same tack, or on a line supposed to be formed on the continuation of her keel, they say, *she is got into her wake*.

Two distinct objects observed at sea are said to be in the wake of each other, when the view of the farthest is intercepted by the nearest; so that the observer's eye, and the two objects, are all placed upon the same right line.

WAKE-Robin, or CUCKOW-Pint, in *Botany*. See ARUM. The root of arum, dried and powdered, is used by the French for washing their skin, and is sold at a high price under the name of Cyprès powder; it is both a good and an innocent cosmetic.

Thefe roots are said to possess a saponaceous quality, and have been used in washing linen instead of soap. In their dry state, when they have been deprived of their acrimony, they have been made into bread, and also prepared as starch.

The leaves and flowers of *arifarum aqualis*, broad-leaved friar's cowl, are detergent and vulnerary; and applied either in the form of ointment or decoction to malignant ulcers. Its root taken in powder is esteemed against the plague, the dose being from a scruple to a drachm. Of the root also are made collyria, which are used in curing fistulas of the eyes. Vide Lemery, des Drog. in voc.

WAKEFIELD, GILBERT, in *Biography*, an eminent classical scholar, was the son of the Rev. George Wakefield, rector of St. Nicholas, Nottingham, and born in that town in the year 1756. After a previous grammatical education, he was admitted, in 1772, into Jesus college, in the university of Cambridge. Here he pursued his studies with an assiduity which established his reputation; and having taken his degree of B.A. in 1776, he was soon afterwards elected a fellow of his college. At this early period, he published a small collection of Latin poems, and a few critical notes on Homer. Having directed his particular attention to theological inquiries, he began betimes to entertain doubts concerning the articles of the church, and though he took deacon's orders in 1778, he reproached himself for complying with the previous forms. He commenced his ministerial labours as a curate at Stockport, and thence he removed to Liverpool, discharging the duties of his office with a suitable sense of their importance. Dissatisfied, however, with the doctrines and liturgy of the church, he determined to surrender his connection with it; and having married in 1779, he accepted

an invitation to be classical tutor at the dissenting academy of Warrington, without avowing himself as a Dissenter.

Having in 1781 published his plan of a new version of the New Testament, with a specimen of the proposed work, he presented to the public, in 1782, "A New Translation of the Gospel of St. Matthew, with Notes critical, philological, and explanatory," &c., which was well received. Upon the dissolution of the academy at Warrington, he removed to Bramcote in Nottinghamshire, where he received private pupils; and here he published in 1784 the first volume of an "Enquiry into the Opinions of the Christian Writers of the first Three Centuries concerning the Person of Jesus Christ," 8vo., which was received in a manner that discouraged him from pursuing his plan. Being disabled by the attack of a disorder in one arm to undertake any literary performance that required any considerable exertion, he intermitted his constant occupations; till at length in 1789 he commenced his "Silva Critica, five in Auctores sacros prophanosque Commentarius Philologicus;" of which three parts appeared successively to the year 1795, the three first being issued from the Cambridge press. Mr. Wakefield, in 1790, removed from Nottingham to Hackney, in order to assume the office of classical tutor in the dissenting college of that place, where his services were highly acceptable, till the publication of his "Enquiry into the Expediency and Propriety of public or social Worship," in 1791; which being intended to justify the disuse of the public exercises of devotion, occasioned a termination of his connection with that institution. From this time he employed himself in attention to the instruction of his own family, and to several literary works; the principal of which were his "Translation of the New Testament, with Notes critical and explanatory," 3 vols. 8vo. 1792, of which a second edition appeared in 1795, 2 vols. 8vo.; and "Memoirs of his own Life," published in the same year. His other productions were "Evidences of Christianity," and "Replies to the Two Parts of Thomas Paine's Age of Reason;" a volume of Pope's Works, a volume of "Notes on Pope," and an edition of his version of the Iliad and Odyssey of Homer. His "Silva Critica" was also enlarged to the 5th volume; and he presented to the public editions of select "Greek Tragedies," of "Homer," "Bion and Moschus," "Virgil," and "Lucretius;" in 3 vols. 4to., a work highly esteemed.

Avowing himself an enemy to war in general, and to the war against France in particular, he published a pamphlet in 1798, entitled "A Reply to some Parts of the Bishop of Landaff's Address to the People of Great Britain," which subjected him to a prosecution: this terminated in a trial and conviction in February 1799. His sentence was imprisonment for two years in the county gaol of Dorchester. Many concurring circumstances contributed to render this punishment singularly grievous to him; but it was in a considerable degree alleviated by the sympathy and respect of his friends, and by a liberal subscription towards the support of himself and his family. His course of study was thus unfortunately interrupted, so that he could only prepare for the press "Select Essays of Dio Chrysostom, translated into English from the Greek, with Notes," 1800, 8vo., and "Notæ Carcerarie, five de Legibus Metricis Poetarum Græcorum, qui Veribus Hexametris scripserunt, Disputatio," 1801, 12mo.; and make collections for his proposed Lexicon, Greek and English. In May 1801 he was liberated from his confinement; but on September the 9th of the same year, a typhus fever terminated his life, in his 46th year, to the grief of his family and the regret of numerous friends, by whom he was highly esteemed.

The assiduity of his literary application, and the singular

temperance of his habits, though they occasioned a seclusion from much of that social intercourse which was interesting to his family, and a degree of reserve in his own temper, enabled him, however, to acquire great reputation as a philological writer and critic during comparatively a short life. Under this character, he resembled Bentley and Markland, being, like them, in his conjectural criticism, "always learned, sometimes bold, and frequently happy." Possessing a very retentive memory, his extensive reading furnished him with an ample store of passages for illustration or parallel, of which he could avail himself as occasions occurred. With regard to his moral disposition and character, they were marked, as a biographer who knew him well has delineated them, "by an openness, a simplicity, a good faith, an affectionate ardour, a noble elevation of mind, which made way to the hearts of all who nearly approached him, and rendered him the object of their warmest attachment." The second edition of his "Memoirs," published after his death, contains a catalogue of all his works, several of which have been omitted in this concise account of his life and labours. A collection of letters between him and Mr. Fox, by whom he was highly esteemed, chiefly on subjects of Greek literature, has also been published. *Memoirs. Gen. Biog.*

WAKEFIELD, in *Geography*, a large market-town in the lower division of the hundred of Agbrigg, in the West Riding of the county of York, is situated on the side of an eminence, gently sloping southward to the river Calder, at the distance of 9 miles S. from Leeds, 32 miles S.W. by S. from York, and 182 miles N.N.W. from London. It consists of nine streets, of which three are very large and commodious; and many of the houses are spacious and lofty. The market-place is small, but has been recently rendered much more convenient by the removal of the corn-market into West-gate, an adjacent street of great extent. Here is a neat building called the Market-cross, formed of an open colonnade of the Doric order, supporting a dome, with an ascent of a circular flight of stairs leading to a large room, which receives its light from a lantern at the top: in this chamber most of the business of the town is transacted. The market is held on Fridays, which is well attended, particularly for the sale of wool, which is sent from various parts of England to the factors in Wakefield, who dispose of it among the manufacturers in the adjacent districts. Here are two annual fairs, each of which continues two days, for horses, horned cattle, pedlary ware, &c. A fair is also held every fortnight, on the alternate Wednesdays, for cattle and sheep, which affords a constant supply of butchers' meat to almost the whole of this riding, and the borders of Lancashire. The parish church of Wakefield is a spacious and lofty edifice; and the spire is one of the highest in the county. By the Domelday record there appears to have been a church here at the time of the Conquest, but no part of the present structure can be referred to a more early period than the reign of Henry III., and it has undergone many modern repairs and improvements. In 1724 the south side was entirely rebuilt; and the greatest part of the north side, together with the east end, towards the close of that century: a vestry-room has likewise been erected. About half a mile to the north is the new church, built about the end of the eighteenth century. The ground on which it stands was bequeathed for that purpose by Mrs. Newstead, a widow lady, together with 1000*l.* towards the support of a minister. But the will being litigated, the matter lay dormant for some years, till the whole property of the testatrix was purchased by Messrs. Maude and Lee, who, in concurrence with some other opulent persons, procured an
act

act of parliament for building the church and enlarging the town. The church was accordingly erected, and a great number of houses, disposed in streets and squares, forming a district, which, as well as the church, is denominated St. John's. In the town are three meeting-houses for Dissenters of the Presbyterian, Calvinistic, and Methodist denominations. Here is also a free grammar-school, founded and endowed by queen Elizabeth, but much improved by private benefactions: the school-house is a spacious structure, erected by the Savilles, ancestors of the earl of Mexborough. A charity-school is also established here for the instruction and clothing of 106 boys and girls. Charitable donations to this town are very considerable, amounting to 1000*l.* per annum, under the direction of fourteen trustees, called governors: this money is applied to the maintenance of several exhibitions in both universities, to the apprenticing of poor boys to various trades, to the support of aged and infirm persons, and to other benevolent purposes at the discretion of the governors. At the end of West-gate, the principal street in the town, is the house of correction for the whole riding: this prison is a spacious stone building, surrounded by an outer wall, and contains above 150 cells. A commodious sessions-house has been recently erected; and great improvements are consequently taking place in the adjacent streets. The quarter sessions for the West Riding are held here in January; and private sessions every fortnight by the justices in the vicinity. At the fourth-east entrance into Wakefield is a stone bridge, of nine large arches, over the Calder: it exhibits a fine specimen of the masonry of Edward III.'s reign, in which period it was built. In the centre of this bridge, projecting from the eastern side, and partly resting on the starlings, is an ancient chapel, formed in the richest style of ecclesiastical architecture, about ten yards in length and eight in breadth. The east window, overhanging the river, is adorned with tracery, and the parapets are perforated; the windows on the north and south are equally rich; but the west front facing the passage over the bridge exceeds all the rest in profusion of ornament, being divided by buttresses into compartments forming recesses with lofty pediments and pointed arches, with spandrels richly flowered, and above is an entablature supporting five basso relievos, the whole being crowned with battlements. This chapel was built by Edward IV. in memory of his father, Richard duke of York, and those of his party who fell in the battle of Wakefield. This superb relic of antiquity has of late years been used as a warehouse, and its embellishments have received considerable damage.

Wakefield was noted in Camden's time for its extent, buildings, cloth trade, and markets, as well as for the chapel above described. Since that period, the improvements in the woolen-cloth manufacture, with the introduction of those of tammies, camblets, and fancy articles, have greatly increased its wealth and population. A handsome hall has recently been erected by subscription for the sale of the stuffs: it is two stories high, extending in length about seventy yards, and ten in breadth; through the middle, in each story, is a row of repositories, in all about two hundred, facing each way, and properly labelled, so that the stand of any manufacturer may be readily found. Wakefield being situated on the edge of the manufacturing district, of which the Calder forms the eastern boundary, scarcely a single manufacturer is seen to the eastward. The navigation of the Calder has greatly promoted the trade of this town, to which the river was rendered navigable in 1698. Great quantities of coals are carried hence by water for the supply of York, Hull, and the adjacent parts. In the population return of the year 1811, Wakefield is stated to contain 1959 houses,

and 8593 inhabitants. The manor of Wakefield is very extensive, including that of Halifax, and stretching from Normanton westward to the confines of Lancashire: it is more than thirty miles in length, from east to west, and comprises 118 towns, villages, and hamlets. By the Domesday-book it appears to have been part of the royal demesnes of Edward the Confessor, and at the time of the survey it belonged to the crown. During the four subsequent centuries, it was granted to various branches of the royal families, and other distinguished nobles. In 1461 it reverted to the crown in the person of Edward IV., and remained in the possession of the kings of England till 1554, when it was united to the duchy of Lancaster. In the reign of Charles I. it was granted to Henry earl of Holland, who was beheaded in 1649, by the sentence of the high court of justice. Being afterwards granted to Robert earl of Warwick, the manor went, by the marriage of his daughter, to sir Gervase Clifton, who, in 1663, sold it to sir Christopher Clapham, from whose heirs it was purchased in 1700 by the duke of Leeds, in whose family it still continues.

About a mile and a half to the east of Wakefield is the village of Heath, which, for situation, variety of seats, and beautiful lawns, is justly esteemed the finest in the kingdom. Here is an elegant seat of W. Farquier, esq.; and at this place was also the seat of the late right honourable John Smyth, member for Pontefract, and a lord of the admiralty.

Two miles south of Wakefield is Sandal, a small village chiefly remarkable for its ancient castle, built in the reign of Edward II. by John earl of Warren, and afterwards the property of Richard Plantagenet, duke of York, who, aspiring to the crown, was slain before its walls, December 31, 1460, in the memorable "battle of Wakefield," so called from Wakefield Green being the scene of action. The place where he fell was inclosed with a wall, and on it was erected a cross of stone, which was destroyed in the civil war of Charles I., in whose behalf the castle was garrisoned; but it surrendered after a siege of three weeks in October 1645, and in the following year the castle was demolished by order of parliament. At present scarcely a vestige is left of its former strength and magnificence; the principal remaining part is occupied as a farm-house.—*Beauties of England and Wales*, vol. xvi. Yorkshire. By J. Bigland.

WAKEFIELD, a town of America, in the state of New Hampshire, and county of Strafford; containing 1166 inhabitants; 30 miles E. of Concord.

WAKEFIELD, *Upper*, a township of Pennsylvania, in the county of Bucks, containing 1271 inhabitants.

WAKEFIELD, *Lower*, a township of Pennsylvania, in the county of Bucks, containing 1089 inhabitants.

WAKEFULNESS, or WATCHING, *insomnia*. See WATCHING.

WAKES, formed from the Saxon *wacce*, *vigilia*, *ex-cubie*, *watch*, *vigils*, or *country-wakes*, are certain ancient anniversary feasts, in several parishes; wherein the people were to be awake at the several vigils, or hours to go to prayer. See VIGIL.

They are usually observed, in the country, on the Sunday next before the faint's day to whom the parish-church is dedicated.

The learned Mr. Whitaker, in his History of Manchester, hath given a particular account of the origin of wakes and fairs. He observes, that every church at its consecration received the name of some particular faint: this custom was practised among the Roman Britons, and continued among the Saxons; and in the council of Cealchythe, in 816, the name of the denominating faint was expressly required to be inscribed

on the altars, and also on the walls of the church, or a tablet within it. The feast of this saint became of course the festival of the church. Thus Christian festivals, in the room of the primitive *αγαιες*, or love-feasts, were substituted for the idolatrous anniversaries of heathenism: accordingly at the first introduction of Christianity among the Jutes of Kent, pope Gregory the Great advised what had been previously done among the Britons, *viz.* Christian festivals to be instituted in the room of the idolatrous, and the suffering-day of the martyr whose relics were reposit in the church, or the day on which the building was actually dedicated, to be the established feast of the parish. Both were appointed and observed; and they were clearly distinguished at first among the Saxons, as appears from the laws of the Confessor, where the *dies dedicationis*, or *dedicatio*, is repeatedly discriminated from the *propria festivitatis sancti*, or *celebratio sancti*. They remained equally distinct till the Reformation; the dedication-day in 1536 being ordered for the future to be kept on the first Sunday in October, and the festival of the patron saint to be celebrated no longer. The latter was, by way of pre-eminence, denominated the church's holiday, or its peculiar festival; and while this remains in many parishes at present, the other is so utterly annihilated in all, that bishop Kennet, says Mr. Whitaker, knew nothing of its distinct existence, and has attributed to the day of dedication what is true only concerning the saint's day. Thus instituted at first, the day of the tutelar saint was observed, most probably by the Britons, and certainly by the Saxons, with great devotion. And the evening before every saint's day, in the Saxon-Jewish method of reckoning the hours, being an actual part of the day, and therefore like that appropriated to the duties of public religion, as they reckoned Sunday from the first to commence at the sun-set of Saturday; the evening preceding the church's holiday would be observed with all the devotion of the festival. The people actually repaired to the church, and joined in the services of it; and they thus spent the evening of their greater festivities in the monasteries of the North, as early as the conclusion of the seventh century.

These services were naturally denominated from their late hours *waccan* or wakes, and vigils or eves. That of the anniversary at Rippon, as early as the commencement of the eighth century, is expressly denominated the vigil. But that of the church's holiday was named *cyric waccan*, or church-wake, the church-vigil, or church-eve. And it was this commencement of both with a wake, which has now caused the days to be generally preceded with vigils, and the church-holiday particularly to be denominated the church-wake. So religiously were the eve and festival of the patron saint observed for many ages by the Saxons, even as late as the reign of Edgar, the former being spent in the church, and employed in prayer. And the wakes, and all the other holidays in the year, were put upon the same footing with the octaves of Christmas, Easter, and of Pentecost. When Gregory recommended the festival of the patron saint, he advised the people to erect booths of branches about the church on the day of the festival, and to feast and be merry in them with innocence. Accordingly, in every parish, on the returning anniversary of the saint, little pavilions were constructed of boughs, and the people indulged in them to hospitality and mirth. The feasting of the saint's day, however, was soon abused; and even in the body of the church, when the people were assembled for devotion, they began to mind diversions, and to introduce drinking. The growing intemperance gradually stained the service of the vigil, till the festivity of it was converted, as it now is, into the rigour of a fast. At length they too justly scandalized the Puri-

Vol. XXXVII.

tans of the seventeenth century, and numbers of the wakes were diffused entirely, especially in the east and some western parts of England; though the order for abolishing them was reversed by the influence of Laud: but they are commonly observed in the north, and in the midland counties.

This custom of celebrity in the neighbourhood of the church, on the days of particular fairs, was introduced into England from the continent, and must have been familiar equally to the Britons and Saxons; being observed among the churches of Asia in the sixth century, and by those of the west of Europe in the seventh. And equally in Asia and Europe, on the continent, and in the islands, these celebrities were the causes of those commercial marts which we denominate *fairs*; which see. The people resorted in crowds to the festival, and a considerable provision would be wanted for their entertainment. The prospect of interest invited the little traders of the country to come and offer their wares; and thus, among the many pavilions for hospitality in the neighbourhood of the church, various booths were erected for the sale of different commodities. In larger towns, surrounded with populous districts, the resort of the people to the wakes would be great, and the attendance of traders numerous; and this resort and attendance constitute a fair. Bafil expressly mentions the numerous appearance of traders at these festivals in Asia, and Gregory notes the same customs to be common in Europe. And as the festival was observed on a feria or holiday, it naturally assumed to itself, and as naturally communicated to the mart, the appellation of feria or fair. Indeed, several of our most ancient fairs appear to have been usually held, and have been continued to our time, on the original church-holidays of the places: besides, it is observable, that fairs were generally kept in church-yards, and even in the churches, and also on Sundays, till the indecency and scandal were so great as to need reformation. See Burn's Eccl. Law, art. *Churches*.

WAKI, in *Geography*, a town of Japan, in the island of Nippon; 60 miles W. of Meaco.

WAKKAMAW, a lake of North Carolina, which communicates, by means of a river of the same name, with Winyah Harbour, after a course of about seventy or eighty miles.

WAKOW. See WIGSTADEL.

WAKUA, a small island on the E. side of the gulf of Bothnia. N. lat. 60° 45'. E. long. 21° 15'.

WALA, a town of Sweden, in the province of Westmanland; 26 miles N. of Stromholm.

WALACHIA, a province of European Turkey, bounded on the north by Moldavia and Transylvania, on the east by Bessarabia, on the south by Bulgaria, and on the west by the bannat of Temesvar and Transylvania; about 280 miles from E. to W., and 150 from N. to S., where widest; but in some places hardly 60: by the inhabitants it is called "Romulia," and by the Hungarians "Havaföldgye." The air is temperate, the soil very fruitful, particularly in grain, wine, and melons; graziers here, too, is very considerable; but its principal reputation is for excellent horses. The country is watered by a considerable number of large and small rivers, most of which run from N. to S., discharging themselves immediately into the Danube, or in conjunction with other rivers. The principal of these are the Alaut, which rises in the mountains of Transylvania, and divides Walachia into two unequal parts, namely, the West and East; the Jalonitza, which has also its source in the borders of Transylvania; and the Sireth, or Sirech, the boundary on the side of Moldavia. Their bridges are all built with wood, which is plentiful in the country. The Walachians, considered as

Inhabitants of the country, are descended from the old Roman colony settled here by the emperor Trajan. They profess the Eastern Greek religion; and as in writing they use the same letters with the Russians, so they agree with them in all their religious ceremonies. According to the account given of them by Jackson (Journey from India), they seem to be very superstitious. They erect crucifixes, some of stone and others of wood, near the roads; all of them are painted; some having Jesus Christ, some the Virgin Mary, others the twelve apostles, some the ten commandments, prayers, &c. depicted upon them. These crucifixes are very numerous, and most of the country-people pay respect to them as they pass. The commonalty are most wretchedly ignorant; and even the highest attainments which the ecclesiastics themselves aim at, seldom go beyond reading and fingling well. Bucharest is a kind of university to them, whither they go to learn a polite deportment, the elegancies of the Walachian language, and ceremonies of the church. The persons of rank among the Walachians are so fond of the Italian language, that they apply themselves to it more than their mother-tongue, and generally fend their sons to study at the university of Padua. Great numbers of Mahometans live also intermixed with the Walachians; some Jews, and also Germans. The Romans, after their decisive victory over Deccebalus, king of Dacia, made themselves masters of his kingdom. Trajan sent hither several Roman colonies, who not only cultivated the land, but built them towns, which they embellished with fine edifices. His successor, however, in the empire, transplanted the greatest part of them into Mæsia and Thracia, where, mingling with the Bulgarians, Thracians, Servians, and Ligurians, they came to speak a new language or jargon. These kingdoms, which lie on the Danube, afterwards constituted part of the dominions of the emperors of the East. In process of time, the Walachians moved farther north, to the borders of Podolia and Russia, where they applied themselves to agriculture and the breeding of cattle. The conversion of the Bulgarians and their neighbours to Christianity was followed, in the ninth century, by that of the Walachians, who embraced the Grecian doctrines. Towards the beginning of the twelfth century, a numerous colony of Walachians, under the conduct of one Nigers, or Negrovot, for the sake of pasturage, religion, and other motives, passed on towards the south, and settled in the modern Walachia, founding the towns of Tergovitsa, Bucharest, and Pitesti. They choose their own princes, whom they style waywodes, or despots. The kings of Hungary, becoming powerful, made several attempts on the Walachians; and, in the fourteenth century, obliged them to pay tribute. But in the year 1391, and 1394, they were greatly harassed by the Turks, who, in the year 1415, also laid the whole country waste with fire and sword, compelling Dan, the waywode, to pay them an annual tribute. It was in the year 1608, before the Walachians could rid themselves of this burthen, when they put themselves under the protection of the emperor of Germany. But the treaty of Carlowitz resigned them up again to the Turkish dominion. In the beginning of the seventeenth century, they suffered various calamities by the plague, war, and the many revolutions among their princes. At the treaty of Passarowitz, in 1718, the western part of Walachia, as far as the river Alaut, was ceded to the emperor, but lost again in the year 1739. Walachia is governed by a waywode, or prince, styled also the hospodar, who is a vassal of the Ottoman Porte, and whose yearly tribute generally amounts to 58 or 60,000 ducats.

WALADIA, EL, a town of Morocco, situated in an extensive plain, 35 miles S. of Mazagan. Annexed to it is

a spacious harbour, capable of containing 500 sail of the line, but the entrance is obstructed by a rock or two, which might, it is said, be easily blown up; otherwise this would be one of the finest harbours for shipping in the world. The coast of El Waladia is lined with rocks, at the bottom of which, and between them and the ocean, is a table land, almost even with the surface of the water, abounding with springs, where every necessary and luxury of life abound. The view of the land from the plains above the rocks is extremely beautiful and picturesque. The town of El Waladia is small, and encompassed by a square wall, and contains but few inhabitants. Its name seems to indicate that it was built by Muley El Walad, towards the middle of the seventeenth century. Jackson's Morocco.

WALÆUS, JOHN, in *Biography*, a celebrated anatomist, was born in 1604, near Middleburg, in Zealand, and studied physic at Leyden, where he graduated in 1631. In 1632 he was nominated a medical professor extraordinary, and in 1648 he obtained a chair in ordinary. His practice was extensive, and his academical duties numerous; and yet he employed himself much in the dissection of living animals, and was enabled to illustrate the functions of digestion, the distribution of the chyle, and the action of the heart. He first taught publicly the Harveian doctrine of the circulation of the blood; though from jealousy of the honour of the inventor, he was disposed to announce vestiges of the fact which he discovered in the writings of the ancients. He died at Leyden in 1649. His Anatomical Observations, which are reckoned excellent, are contained in "Epistolæ duæ de Motu Chyli et Sanguinis ad T. Bartholinum," Lugd. B. 1641. Haller. Eloy.

WALAFRIDUS, surnamed *Strabo*, or *Strabus*, from a squint in his eyes, was born in Swabia in 807, and educated in the monastery of Reichenau, whence he proceeded to Fulda, to receive further instruction from Rabanus. After his return to his monastery he became director of its school, and very much contributed to its reputation. Being sent on an embassy by king Louis to his brother Charles the Bald, he died in the year 849. Of his works, which are numerous, those most worthy of notice are his "Glossa ordinaria," or short observations on the whole text of the Bible, chiefly derived from the exposition of Rabanus, and annexed to many editions of the Vulgate, printed in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries; "De Exordiis et Incrementis Rerum Ecclesiasticarum;" "De Vita beati Galli Confessoris, lib. ii.;" "Vita Otmarii Abbatis S. Galli;" "Poemata," among which are, "Hortulus," or a description of the garden which he cultivated, with its herbs and flowers, and their medical use. Gen. Biog.

WALAJABAD, in *Geography*, a town of Hindoostan, in the Carnatic; 10 miles E. of Conjeeveram.

WALAKA, a low, insalubrious, but fertile, province of Abyssinia, situated between the two rivers Gefsen and Samba, having to the S. of it Upper Skoa. This province is surrendered by the reigning prince to the Galla, who, at his desire, have surrounded Skoa on every side. But as it is full of the bravest and best horsemen, and best accoutred of any in Abyssinia, they can, whenever they please, dispossess the Galla.

WALAN, in *Botany*, Rumph. Amboin. v. 3. 214. t. 139. Poirlet in Lamarck Dict. v. 8. 783, the Amboyana name of a tree, which Rumphius also calls *Ichthyodonas montana*, from its use in killing fish, but of whose botanical characters little or nothing is known.

This tree has a straight lofty trunk, whose bark is thick, dry, brittle, reddish, of a bright fiery red towards the root; the wood white, and of little value, except the heart

heart of old trees, which is brown and compact. The roots are red and copious. *Leaves* scattered, stalked, obovate, pointed, entire, eight or ten inches long, three or four wide, smooth, rather fleshy, having a mid-rib, with several slight transverse veins. Of the *flowers* no description is given, but they are represented on simple lateral stalks, solitary or in pairs, and seem formed of four round petals. The fruit is said to be as large as an orange, and of the same colour, drooping, making a beautiful appearance, intermixed with the green leaves, in October. Its shape, however, is more ovate, with a point, and the base is embraced by a cup-shaped, five-angled, permanent calyx, not unlike that of an acorn. This fruit after a while turns red, and finally blackish. The pulp is infipid, dry, and fungous, containing four or five seeds, or nuts, attached to the point of the fruit by four cords. Each seed is near two inches long, and one broad, compressed, roughish, of a fine brown colour. Sometimes there is but a solitary seed.

The Walan-tree grows, not very frequently, in the mountainous woods of Amboyna, where the soil is rich, and of a red colour. The only use made of it is to catch fish. For this purpose the roots are collected and prepared, with many foolish ceremonies. An entire root, with its bark, is beaten to pieces upon a stone, and when this is nearly accomplished, one person, of the party assembled on the occasion, commands all the rest to lie down at once in a circle, while he stands in the centre. They are to remain thus in perfect stillness, till one of them crows three times, like a cock, upon which they start up all together. While the bruising of the root goes on, they are forbidden to speak, cough, or spit, or to make any noise whatever. The powder of the root thus prepared is collected into baskets, and taken very early in the morning, about the crowing of the cock, to the river side. It is there thrown, by a handful at a time, into the water, and stirred about till a foam is raised to the height of several inches. This being accomplished, the whole party prefer to lie down as if dead, but if any one of them crows, they all start up. While the powder is mixing with the water, no one may go within sight of the river, except with some cutting instrument, for fear of defeating the whole intention. At some distance, lower down in the stream, a net is placed across, which in the course of an hour becomes filled with fish, floating, half dead, upon the surface of the water; the acrimony of this root causing such an irritation in their eyes, as they cannot endure. If thrown into fresh water, they recover. Fish thus caught are wholesome for immediate eating, but will not keep for any time. Rumphius employed his servants successfully to catch fish in this manner, omitting, as may be supposed, the above-mentioned peculiar ceremonies. Persons who bathe in the water thus impregnated, feel only a slight itching of the skin; but the same water is not good for drinking. The natives of Amboyna restrain the exercise of this kind of fishing, to persons of particular families; and endeavour to promote a belief that others, who should attempt it, would be afflicted with incurable ulcers, or malignant cutaneous disorders.

WALBACH, in *Geography*, a town of France, in the department of the Upper Rhine; 4 miles S.W. of Colmar.

WALBECK, a town of Germany, belonging to the principality of Halberstadt, insulated in the duchy of Mecklenburg; 24 miles S. of Halberstadt.

WALBY, a town of Sweden, in the province of Uppland; 23 miles S.S.W. of Upfal.

WALCA, a town of the duchy of Warsaw, on a lake; 56 miles N. of Posen.

WALCHEN SEE, a town of Austria, on the Atter See; 4 miles S.W. of Voglabruck.

WALCHEREN, the most westerly and most considerable island of the Rate of Zealand, about thirteen miles from north to south, and eight from east to west; situated in the German sea, at the mouth of the Scheld. Middleburg is the capital. N. lat. $51^{\circ} 34'$. E. long. $3^{\circ} 29'$.

WALCHEREN or *White Carrot*, in *Agriculture*, a sort of that root, which is said to be cultivated there with much success and advantage, as some sorts of the parsnip are in the island of Guernsey. See a paper on the latter subject in the first volume of the "Memoirs of the Caledonian Horticultural Society."

WALCKENSTEIN, in *Geography*, a town of Austria; 2 miles N.W. of Eggenburg.

WALCKERSBRUN, a town of the territory of Nuremberg; 3 miles W. of Grafenberg.

WALCOUR, a town of France, in the department of Gempape, on the Heure. It was surrounded with walls in the year 910; 21 miles W.S.W. of Namur.

WALD, a town of the duchy of Berg. Here is a manufacture of knives; 4 miles N.W. of Solingen.—Also, a town of Austria; 3 miles S.S.E. of St. Polten.

WALDACH, a river of Wurtemberg, which rises 3 miles E.S.E. of Dornstett, and runs into the Nagold, about two miles S. from Nagold.

WALDAU, a town of Silesia, in the principality of Lignitz; 3 miles N.W. of Lignitz.

WALDAW, a town of Prussia, in the province of Samland; 8 miles E. of Königsberg.

WALDBECK. See WOLDBECK.

WALDBURG, a town and castle of Germany, which gives name to a county, situated between the Iller and the Danube; 7 miles N. of Wangen.

WALDEBA, a town of Abyssinia; 5 miles S.W. of Siré.

WALDECK, a county of Germany, bounded on the north by the bishopric of Paderborn, on the east by Hesse, and prefecture of Fritzlar, in the electorate of Mentz, on the south by Hesse, and on the west by the duchy of Westphalia. The length is computed at twenty-four miles, and its breadth twenty. The county abounds in grain and cattle, having also large woods, and the mountains in it contain lead, iron, and copper, and even some gold, which is esteemed equal in value to that of Hungary. Of the gold which is gathered out of the Eder, the princes have caused medals to be struck, and a magnificent sideboard to be made. Some parts also afford marble, alabaster, slate, and turf. This county contains thirteen towns and a market village. The greater part of the inhabitants are Lutherans, and the rest Calvinists, with some Roman Catholics intermixed. The manufactures are, coarse cloth, barragon, callimanco, dimity, rataan, and other stuffs; as also paper, and great quantities of iron-ware, for exportation. The county of Waldeck is thought to bring in above 100,000 rix-dollars per annum to the prince, and that not improbably, it being one of the most considerable counties in the whole empire, and preferable even to not a few principalities. The prince's circular contingency was two companies of foot, but he generally maintained three more.

WALDECK, a town of Germany, capital of a county of the same name, so called from an ancient castle, which has been repaired within the last century, and fitted up to receive a garrison; part of the records of the principality are kept here, and it is likewise used as a prison; 18 miles W.S.W. of Cassel. N. lat. $51^{\circ} 13'$. E. long. $9^{\circ} 2'$.

WALDECK, *Hohen*, a town of Bavaria, and capital of a lordship, formerly belonging to the princes of Waldeck, but which, in the year 1734, fell to the elector of Bavaria; 30 miles S.E. of Munich.

WALDEN, *SAFFRON*. See *SAFFRON-WALDEN*.

WALDEN, a town of America, in the state of Vermont and county of Caledonia, containing 455 inhabitants; 40 miles N. of Rutland.

WALDEN's Island, a small island in the North sea. N. lat. 80° 37'. E. long. 18° 10'.

WALDENBERG, a town of Westphalia, in the bishopric of Hildesheim; 13 miles S.E. of Hildesheim.

WALDENBRUCK, a town of Wurtemberg; 8 miles S. of Stuttgart.

WALDENBURG, a town of Germany, in the principality of Hohenlohe; 6 miles E. of Ohringen.—Also, a town of Saxony, in the lordship of Schonburg, on the Mulda. The old town of Waldenburg, which lies directly fronting Waldenburg, on the other side of the Mulda, is famous for its brown and white earthen-ware, which consists of vessels for laboratories and apothecaries' shops, together with pots of several kinds, such as pitchers, drinking vessels, &c. Here is likewise a considerable linen manufacture. It is a lordship, invested in the house of Schonburg, called Schonburg-Waldenburg; 44 miles W. of Dresden. N. lat. 50° 48'. E. long. 12° 21'.—Also, a town of Switzerland, and capital of a bailiwick, in the canton of Bale; 15 miles S. of Bale.—Also, a town and citadel of the duchy of Westphalia; 6 miles N. of Olpe.

WALDENBURG, or *Wallenburg*, a town of Silesia, in the principality of Schweidnitz; 8 miles S.W. of Schweidnitz. N. lat. 50° 35'. E. long. 16° 5'.

WALDENFELS, a town of Austria; 3 miles N.W. of Freystatt.

WALDENFELS, or *Wallenfels*, a town of Bavaria, in the bishopric of Bamberg; 34 miles N.E. of Bamberg.

WALDENGELCH, a town of Wurtemberg; 5 miles N.N.E. of Gochheim.

WALDENSES. See *VAUDOS*.

WALDERSDORF, a town of Saxony, in the circle of Erzgebirg; 1 mile N.N.W. of Freyberg.

WALDHAUSEN, a town of Austria; 4 miles E.S.E. of Zwettl.

WALDHAUSER, a town of Saxony, in the Vogtland; 1 mile N.W. of Plauen.

WALDHEIM, a town of Saxony, in the circle of Leipzig, on the Zschopau; 25 miles S.E. of Leipzig. N. lat. 51° 4'. E. long. 12° 51'.

WALDKAPPEL. See *CAPPEL*.

WALDKIRCH, a town of the Brisgau, on the Elz; 6 miles N. of Friburg. N. lat. 48° 7'. E. long. 8°.

WALDKIRCHEN, a town of Bavaria, in the bishopric of Passau; 10 miles N.N.E. of Passau.—Also, a town of Austria; 7 miles N.W. of Efferding.

WALDMICHELBAACH, a town of Hesse Darmstadt; 8 miles N.E. of Heidelberg.

WALDMUNCHEN, a town of Bavaria; 30 miles N.E. of Ratibon.

WALDNEUKIRCHEN, a town of Austria; 6 miles S.W. of Steyr.

WALDOBOROUGH, a sea-port town of America, in the district of Maine, and county of Lincoln, containing 2160 inhabitants; 50 miles N.E. of Portland. N. lat. 44° 2'. W. long. 60° 16'.

WALDRAN, a town of Austria; 8 miles S.W. of Aigen.

WALDRAPP, in *Ornithology*, a name given by some to the wood-raven, or *corvus sylvaticus* of Gmelin, a bird of the size of a hen, of a glossy black, and adorned with a crest on its head.

WALDREICHS, in *Geography*, a town of Austria, near the Kamp; 10 miles E. of Zwettl.

WALDSAXEN, or *WALDSACH*, a town of Bavaria, formerly imperial, but pillaged and almost destroyed in the wars of the Hufites and the Palatinate; since which it has never recovered itself. Near it is a rich Cistercian abbey, founded in the year 1133, the abbots of which were formerly princes of the empire. In 1802, this abbey was given to the king of Bavaria; 4 miles S.S.W. of Egra.

WALDSCHACH, a town of the duchy of Stiria; 14 miles S. of Gratz.

WALDSCHMIDIA, in *Botany*, a name given to the *Mengyanthes nymphoides* of Linnaeus, by Wiggers, in his *Primitia Flora Holistica*, 20; which, like Gmelin and a few other botanists, he considered as a distinct genus from *MENYANTHES*; see that article and *VILLARSA*. If, however, this opinion were correct, the name is forestalled by *Limnanthemum*, given to the same supposed genus by Gmelin, near twenty years before, and liable to no exception. *Waldschmidia* was intended to commemorate William Ulrick Waldschmidt, formerly professor at Kiel, who wrote a treatise on the sexes of plants, in which he is said to have well explained the use and phylogeny of the anthers.

WALDSEE, in *Geography*, a town of the duchy of Baden; 12 miles N.N.E. of Ravensperg.—Also, a lake of Stiria; 6 miles E. of Schlaming.

WALDSHUT, a town of the duchy of Baden, on the Rhine; 19 miles W. of Schaffhausen.

WALDSICH, a town of the county of Henneberg; 4 miles N.N.E. of Salzungen.

WALDSTADT, i. e. *The Forest Towns*, a name given in Switzerland to the cantons of Lucern, Uri, Schwitz, and Undervalden, probably on account of the quantity of forests found in them.

WALDSTADTER SEE, or *Lake of Lucern*, or *Lake of the Four Cantons*, one of the largest lakes of Switzerland, extending from Lucern to Altdorf, 20 miles in length. Its figure is very irregular, and it is for the most part surrounded with high mountains. The river Reufs passes through it. See *Lake of Lucern* and *LAKE*.

WALDSTEIN, a town of the duchy of Stiria; 12 miles N.W. of Gratz.

WALDSTEINIA, in *Botany*, was so named by the late professor Willdenow, in compliment to a botanist of great eminence, Francis von Waldstein, author of the *Flora Hungarica*.—"Willd. Nov. Act. Soc. Nat. Scrut. Berlin. v. 2. 105." Sp. Pl. v. 2. 1007. Ait. v. 3. 204.—Clas and order, *Icosandria Dignia*. Nat. Ord. *Senticosia*, Linn. *Rojacea*, Juss.

Eff. Cal. Calyx in ten segments, the alternate ones smaller. Petals five. Styles club-shaped, deciduous. Seeds two, obovate, without awns.

1. *W. geoides*. Avena-like *Waldsteinia*. Willd. as above, v. 2. 106. t. 4. f. 1. Sp. Pl. n. 1. Ait. n. 1. "Waldst. et Kitaib. Hung. v. 1. 79. t. 77."—Native of umbrageous forests in Hungary, from whence it was introduced into Britain, by the late Mr. George Don, in 1804. A hardy perennial, flowering in June and July. *Aiton*. Stem ascending, round, striated, rather hairy, the length of the radical leaves, which are stalked, five-lobed, ribbed, some-

what hairy; their lobes obtuse, slightly three-cleft, toothed. *Stem-leaves* three-lobed, deeply toothed. *Stipulas* oblong, acute, entire. *Flower-stalks* two or three, terminal, thread-shaped, very long. *Flowers* yellow. This plant is allied to GRUM, (see that article,) but is distinguished by the small number of *pistils*, and the club-shaped deciduous *styles*. From POTENTILLA, (see that article and TORMENTILLA,) it differs widely in habit, number of *pistils*, and form of the *styles*. Willdenow.

WALDSTETTEN, in *Geography*, a town of Germany, in the marquise of Burgau; 7 miles S.W. of Burgau. —Also, a town of the county of Wertheim, in the Speckhart; 11 miles E. of Alchaffenburg.

WALDT, a town of Upper Bavaria; 8 miles S. of Neu Oetting.

WALDT Aue, a river of Austria, which rises on the borders of Bohemia, and runs into the Danube, 8 miles below Steyregg.

WALDTHURN, a town of Germany, in the county of Sternberg; 21 miles N.E. of Amberg.

WALDTNIEL, or NIEL, a town of France, in the department of the Roer; 2 miles E. of Ruremond.

WALDUBBA, a small province of Abyssinia, situated between the rivers Guague and Angrab. Waldubba, signifying "the valley of the hyæna," is a territory entirely inhabited by monks, who have retired to this unwholesome, hot, and dangerous country voluntarily, to spend their lives in penitence, meditation, and prayer. This too is the only retreat of great men in disgrace or disgust. These first shave their hair, and put on a cowl like the monks, renouncing the world for solitude, and taking vows which they resolve to keep no longer than exigencies require; after which they return to the world again, leaving their cowl and sanctity in Waldubba. These monks, however, are held in great veneration, and are believed to have the gift of prophecy, and to work miracles; and they are very active instruments to stir up the people in the time of trouble. There are also women, who should be called nuns, that occasionally go to Waldubba, though not constantly resident there, and live in familiarity with these faints, not altogether consistent with their sanctity. A hermit and a nun sometimes sequester themselves for months, to eat herbs together in private upon the top of the mountains. These, on their return, are exhibited as wonderful patterns of holiness, lean, enervated, and exhausted. Mr. Bruce (*Travels*, vol. iii.) does not presume to decide, whether this change is to be wholly ascribed to the herbs, as he never was at these retirements of Waldubba. Those who inhabit this district are perpetually subject to fevers, and their colour is that of a corpse: many of them are destroyed by their neighbours the Shangalla; though it is said that they have been lately stopped by the prayers of the monks: but Mr. Bruce ascribes the discontinuance of the inroads of the Shangalla to the ravages of the small-pox, by which their strength and number are reduced, and whole tribes of them extinguished.

WALE, SAMUEL, in *Biography*, an artist of some celebrity in his day, was born in London, and was one of the founders of the Royal Academy. He was first engaged as an engraver on plate, but having studied drawing in the Academy in St. Martin's-lane, he applied himself to painting, imitating the manner of Francis Hayman. He executed several decorative pieces for ceilings, but was chiefly employed in making drawings of historical designs for the bookellers, the greater part of which was engraved by Mr. Grignon. He assisted Gwynn the architect in his drawings, and as he had made himself acquainted with perspective, he was appointed the first professor in that science

in the Academy. Upon the death of Wilfon he was appointed librarian, and held both places till his own death, which happened in 1786.

WALE-KNOT, or WALL-Knot, *Single*, is made by untwisting the ends of a rope, and making a bight with the first strand; then passing the second over the end of the first, and the third strand over the end of the second, and through the bight of the first, and haul the ends tight. (See *Plate I. Rigging*, figs. 4, 5.)

WALE-Knot, *Double*, is made by passing the ends, singly, close underneath the first wale, and thrusting them upwards through the middle, only the last end comes up under two bights. *Fig. 6.*

WALE-Reared, an obsolete phrase, implying *wall-fided*.

WALEN, EL, in *Geography*, a town of Africa, in the country of Twat; 115 miles W. of Gadamis. N. lat. 22° 15'. E. long. 3° 30'.

WALENBURG, a town of the county of Henneberg; 5 miles N.W. of Smalkalden.

WALES, a large district or portion of Great Britain, situated at the north-western extremity of the island, and bounded on the north and west by the Irish sea, on the south and south-east by the Bristol channel, and limited on the east by the English counties of Monmouth, Hereford, Salop, and Chester. The length from north to south is, on an average, 150 miles; and the width from east to west 65 miles. This area comprises about 8125 square miles, or 5,206,900 acres of land: of which, it appears, by the reports to the board of agriculture, 900,000 acres are arable, and 2,500,000 under pasture; leaving 1,700,000 acres in a state of waste, of which 700,000 acres are reported as capable of being brought into cultivation. Wales was formerly of greater extent, having for its boundaries the rivers Severn and Dee, as natural lines of demarcation. The ancient dimensions were, however, at various periods, contracted, by severing from it portions of the several counties, situated westward of those rivers; and taking out of it the whole county of Monmouth. The limits of the various districts of Wales, with the above exception, and their names, have been retained from a very remote period to the present time, independently of the modern arrangement of them into shires, as imposed by the English government. The division made in the time of Llewelyn ap Gruffydd, the last prince of North Wales, was into the three provinces of Aberfraw, Mathraul, and Dinewyr. In the distribution of these into cantrefs or hundreds, Aberfraw comprised fifteen, which were again subdivided into thirty-eight comots, or smaller districts; Mathraul, fourteen cantrefs, subdivided into fourteen comots; and Dinewyr, twenty-four, further divided into seventy-eight comots. Nearly similar to this, is the present civil division of the principality into twelve counties, six included in North Wales; viz. Anglesea, Caernarvon, Denbigh, Flint, Montgomery, and Merioneth; and six in South Wales, viz. Cardigan, Radnor, Brecknock, Glamorgan, Caermarthen, and Pembroke. The centurial divisions remain nearly the same as in Llewelyn's time. The whole contains 58 market-towns, and 751 parishes; and according to the enumeration made under the population act of 1811, the number of houses amounted to 123,512, inhabited by 611,788 persons; viz. 291,633 males, and 320,155 females: 36,044 families were returned as employed in trade, manufactures, or handicraft; and 72,846 in agriculture: and the average scale of mortality, according to registered burials, for a period of ten years, appears to have been in the proportion of 1 to 60 of the existing population. For the administration of justice, Wales is divided into four circuits,

cuits, viz. the Chester circuit, including the counties of Chester, Flint, Denbigh, and Montgomery: the northern circuit, for those of Anglesea, Caernarvon, and Merioneth: the south-eastern, for those of Radnor, Brecknock, and Glamorgan: and the south-western, comprising the three shires of Cardigan, Caermarthen, and Pembroke. By a statute, passed in the reign of Elizabeth, the king was empowered to appoint two persons learned in the law to be judges in each of the Welsh circuits, which before had but one justice. And by another statute of George II., it was enacted, that where the kingdom of England is mentioned in any act of parliament, the same shall be understood as comprehending the dominion of Wales, and the town of Berwick-upon-Tweed. Wales sends twenty-four members to the British senate, one knight for each shire, and one burgess for each county-town, except that of Merioneth; in lieu of which, two towns in Pembrokeshire return a member each, viz. Pembroke and Haverford-west. The eldest son of the kings of England has, ever since the time of Edward I., been invested with the title of prince of Wales: and several branches of the peerage derive their titles from various places in the principality.

Ancient History, Roman Stations, and Roads.—Cambria, the ancient name of this portion of the island, is deduced by historians from the original inhabitants having been a tribe of the Celtae, or Gauls, known under the denomination of *Cimbri*, or *Cyniri*; and the Romans called the country inhabited by such people Cambria. Wales appears to have been the acknowledged name of this region in the poetry of a Welsh bard, so early as the sixth century. The derivation of the Britons from the Gauls, both Cæsar and Tacitus deduce from the vicinity of the two countries, and the similarity of the manners and character of the people: but a stronger argument is found in the national appellation of Gael and Gaul, equally attached to both countries. It appears that the inhabitants of Wales were part of the aboriginal possessors of the island, whose numbers must have been greatly increased by those Britons, who, retreating before the victorious Romans, fled to this district, as a dernier resort, to preserve their independence. After the invaders had secured the central part of Britain, by forming stations, and appointing garrisons, and had given to it the name of *Britannia Prima*, they turned their attention to the reduction of the unconquered country lying west of the Severn. When Ostorius, the Roman general, surveyed this country, which he was sent with an army to subdue, he found it possessed by three tribes of people, denominated from their respective districts, Ordovices, Silures, and Dimetae. The *Ordovices* possessed all the country comprised in the present North Wales: the *Silures* occupied the district now comprehended in the counties of Hereford, Radnor, Brecknock, Monmouth, and Glamorgan, and the small portion of Gloucestershire now west of the Severn; and had for their capital *Caer-Gwent*, in Monmouthshire: the *Dimetae* were situated west of the *Silures*, and possessed the country at present including the counties of Cardigan, Pembroke, and Caermarthen. Such were the inhabitants of Wales, when the Romans first entered it with an hostile army. Respecting the condition or state of these Britons, at the period in question, a great difference of opinion prevails among our historians. Some, in despite of unexceptionable authorities, treat these people as illiterate savages, destitute of cloaths, dwellings, and arts: while others, following the British history, describe them as a martial, learned, and flourishing nation, possessing foreign trade, and at home erecting stately edifices. Both these accounts are probably much exaggerated. The best historians state that

the Britons had a religion remarkable for its numerous ceremonies; they possessed an established government; and had regular and well-disciplined troops, divided into charioteers, cavalry, and infantry. With respect to any great naval power, though attempted to be proved by the learned Selden, well-founded objections may be urged; but as to smaller vessels, Cæsar bears ample testimony to the ingenuity of their construction, and their great convenience: the facility with which these vehicles were made, and their peculiar portability, has occasioned a continuance of their use, and *corracles* still form the fishing-boats employed on some of the rivers of Wales. They had sufficient corn for their support, and their pastures were abundantly stocked with cattle, sheep, and hogs. In their dealing with each other, for money they used rings, or small plates of iron strung together, which passed among them by weight, as well as tale: supposing they possessed no minted coins, this circumstance alone would be a sufficient evidence of their civilization; since it is deducible from history, that no nation in a state of barbarism ever adopted a circulating medium in buying and selling. From the earliest periods, the Britons breathed a spirit of genuine freedom, and always studied to procure and preserve their liberty. Stimulated by a noble ambition, never to be satisfied but by victory, nor extinguished but by death, they fought with a degree of bravery that astonished the legionary troops; and disputed every acre of ground with a tenacity and obstinacy that extorted from their conquerors the tribute of admiration. Suetonius Paulinus overcame the *Ordovices*, and extirpated the remainder of the Druids, and their followers, who had fled to the island of Mona, or Anglesea. Notwithstanding this, the heroic *Silures* for years continued their struggle for liberty, till at length Julius Agricola was sent with a powerful army by the emperor Vespasian; and having entirely defeated the Britons under their intrepid leader Caradocus, in a decisive battle near *Caer-Caradoc*, on the borders of Salop, he completely reduced that part of the island to the Roman yoke. The assiduity of Agricola gained the affections of the people, and disposed them to imitate the Roman manners: he bestowed on them the privileges of citizens; received them into his armies; provided for the education of their youth; and lived amongst them in a style of great hospitality. Thus, securing by policy what he had gained by force, Cambria was dignified with the name of *Britannia Secunda*: and the conquerors, as they had previously done in *Britannia Prima*, began to establish jurisdictions, and adopt measures for the due administration of the laws. Towns were built, stations appointed, and roads formed for communication between them. So speedily and successfully did they proceed in their settlement of this country, that in a few years Wales assumed all the appearance of a Roman colony. The following stations were then formed. *Caer Gybi*, Holyhead, in Anglesea;—*Segontium*, *Caer-Sciout*, *Caernarvon*;—*Varis*, Bodvay, in Flintshire, near Denbigh;—*Caer-gwle* and *Holt*, also in Flintshire, appear to be sites of stations;—*Banborium*, Bangor-Iscoed, on the banks of the Dee;—*Heriri Mons*, placed by Stukeley near Balla, in Merionethshire; but, with greater probability, at Tommen-y-mur, near Ffestiniog;—*Caer Gai*, in the vicinity of the former place, seems also to have been a station;—*Mediolanum*, Meivod, or Myfod, in Montgomeryshire; three other places in this county seem to lay claim to such honourable distinction, viz. *Penalet*, near Machynlleth; *Caer-Saas*, in the vicinity of Newtown; and the *Caer*, near Montgomery;—*Magna*, Gale and Stukeley place at Old Radnor, but Horsley has removed it to Kenchester, near Hereford;—*Loventium*, Llanio-isa, in Cardiganshire;

digaushire;—*Adwighum*, mentioned only in the Itinerary of Richard of Cirencester, is supposed by some to have been situated at Calet Fleming, and by others near Narberth, in Pembrokeshire;—*Menapia*, the port for Ireland, near the present St. David's;—*Maridunum*, Caermarthen;—*Llanvar ar y Bryn*, in Caermarthenshire, is evidently the site of a station;—*Leucarum*, Louchar, or Lougher, in Glamorganshire;—*Bonium*, Boverton, near Ewenny;—*Nidum*, Neath;—*Tibia Amnis*, Caerdiff;—*Gobannium*, Abergavenny, in Monmouthshire;—*Blestium*, Monmouth;—*Burrium*, Ulk;—*Iscia Silurum*, the capital of the colony, and residence of a prætor;—*Venta Silurum*, Caerwent;—*Ad Sabrinum*, on the Severn, near the new or old passage.

"Of the Roman Roads, though more distinct traces might be supposed to exist in Wales than in England, from their vestiges not having been equally liable to obliteration from cultivation; yet for want of due investigation, few of them have been traced in a satisfactory manner.—*Via Julia Maritima*, which received the name of Julia, from Julia Frontinus, who successfully conducted the Roman arms against the Silures, is supposed to have connected the stations contained in the eleventh Iter of Richard of Cirencester. This road was a continuation of the Akeman-street from *Aqua-Solis*, Bath; and directing its course westward across the Severn, passed through Glamorganshire, Caermarthenshire, and Pembrokeshire, to Ad Menapium, near St. David's: few traces of this road have been discovered.—*Via Julia Montana* was an upper road, forming a communication from the more central parts of the island, by the Ryknild-street, coming from Glevum, Gloucester, and passing through part of Monmouthshire, entered the county of Brecknock, proceeded over the mountains to Llanvar ar y Bryn, and thence along the vale to Caermarthen, where it coalesced with the maritime or lower road above mentioned, and both terminated at St. David's.—*Via Occidentalis* appears to have extended along the western coast of Wales, from Ad Menapium to Segontium, and formed connecting links between the intermediate stations.—*Via Devana* takes a direction through the centre of the principality from the southern coast about Nidus, Neath, to Deva, Chester.—*Via Orientalis* took a north-easterly direction from Isca Silurum, to Uriconium in Staffordshire.—A branch of the *Northern Watling-street* entered Wales at Chester, and inclining to the west, passed the station Varis, to Conovium, near Conway.—A branch of the *Southern Watling-street*, extending from Uriconium to Segontium, enters Wales near the village of Llandrinio, and proceeding to Mediolanum, is there met by the *Via Devana*; it afterwards joins the *Via Occidentalis*, and continues with it to Segontium. Numerous vicinal roads also traversed the country from station to station, vestiges of which are traceable in various places. A road of communication branched off from the *Via Occidentalis* at Penallt, and proceeded easterly to Caer Sws. Another road extended north-easterly from Llanvar ar y Bryn towards the station on the river Ython, between which places it is discoverable on the extensive wastes in the vicinity of Llanrindod Wells. From Maridunum, a road leads to Lovenium; the construction is evidently Roman, being formed of various stratifications; is about thirty feet wide, and edged with stone. Another may be traced from Llanio, running easterly by Llanvar mountain, and passing through Caio, it goes to Llanvar ar y Bryn, thence to the Gaer near Brecknock, and so to the grand station Glevum, Gloucester. In several places, having the denomination of Sarn, traces of vicinal roads are distinguishable; and wherever this British word occurs, it is probable a Roman road passed near; as Talfarn, Penfarn, and Sarnau

in Cardiganshire. Numerous villas, fudatories, aqueducts, walls, millaria, or mile-stones, statues, votive altars, inscribed stones, tessellated pavements, urns, pottery, bricks, tiles, medals, coins, and various other remains, have been discovered, which evidently point out the vestiges of Roman residence, and by which the occupation of the country by the Romans may be clearly deduced.

Civil History of Wales.—After domineering over Britain above four centuries, the Romans bade a final adieu to the island; which was soon exposed to the inroads of numerous enemies. Assailed on the north by the Picts and Scots, it was equally infested by the Irish on the west. The native strength of the country had been exhausted by war; the number of its inhabitants further diminished by famine and pestilence; and the navy was fallen into decay. Under these disadvantages, the people were also in want of that unanimity so essential in times of emergency. They had recourse to their ancient form of government, and elected for their governors certain reguli, or chieftains; but these, instead of combining to oppose the common enemy by well-concerted plans of co-operation, were principally occupied in securing their separate interests. In this sad situation, without union, order, or discipline, and attacked on all sides by inveterate foes, the Britons adopted the most impolitic of all expedients for national safety,—that of calling in the assistance of one barbarous nation to drive out another; which subjected them to a new and heavier yoke. At this period, besides the many chieftains under whom the island was divided, a personal competition existed between one who tyrannized over the rest and held the sovereign authority, named Gwtheyrn, or (as called by most English writers) Vortigern, and a chief of Roman parentage, called Ambrosius, but by the Welsh, Emrys Wledig. During this contest, Gwtheyrn, to repel the incursions of the Scots and Picts, called in the assistance of the Saxons, an army of whom arrived under the command of Hengist and Horsa, descendants of Woden, the founder of their nation. The Saxon generals having driven back the enemy, and discovered the pusillanimity of the British monarch, turned their attention towards establishing their troops, and securing to themselves a portion of the territories they had defended: this plan, through the treachery or incapacity of Gwtheyrn, they were enabled to accomplish. The enraged Britons deposed Gwtheyrn, and placed Emrys on the throne: he for a time prevailed against the Saxons, but fresh troops arriving under the command of Ella, they became victorious, and extended their territory. On the death of Emrys, his brother Uther, commonly called, from his office, Pendragon, was elected to the sovereign dignity. The intestine warfare was carried on with varied success between the Britons and Saxons; but numerous hordes continually arriving from the north, the latter became formidable in several parts of the island. Arthur, the celebrated son and successor of Uther, for a series of years conducted the war against the invaders; and in many desperately-fought battles led on the Britons to decisive victory. During the reigns of Uther and Arthur, the ancient Britons had attained the meridian of their glory; but it was now drawing to a close: the death of Arthur decided the fate of Britain. Civil dissensions prevailed among the Britons, which were promoted by their crafty adversaries. During these troubles, many of the people submitted to the Saxons and Scots; others, to preserve their freedom, fled to Armorica, which, from the number of the refugees, acquired the name of Bretagne; some retired into the wilds of Devonshire and Cornwall; some took shelter in the mountainous parts of the north of England; but by far the
greatest

greatest number found an asylum in the fastnesses of Wales, where they defended and preserved their independence long after the expiration of the Saxon dynasty.

At the period when the Saxons had conquered the greater part of Britain, and made their approaches to the borders of Wales, this country appears to have been divided into six principalities, over which Maelgwyn, king of North Wales, was invested with the sovereign dignity, about the year 552. The contest was continued under several succeeding monarchs, till the death of Cadwallader, in the year 703, closed the imperial dignity, which for many centuries had been annexed to the British government; during which time the paramount princes chiefly resided at Diganwy, on the water of Conway, and at Caer Segont near Caernarvon. Roderic Moelwynoc nominally succeeded to the sovereignty in 720; but by continual and unhappy divisions, the strength of the country was so diminished, as to be unable successfully to resist the incursions of the Saxons. The Mercians, under king Offa, frequently laid waste the country, and at length wrested a portion from the Welsh princes; and to prevent the new occupants from the retaliating vengeance of the Welsh, Offa caused that famous boundary to be made, from the mouth of the river Dee to the Wye, which still goes under the appellation of Clawdd Offa, or Offa's Dyke. By this the region was considerably narrowed, and nearly reduced to its present limits. Though the Saxons made frequent inroads, yet they do not appear to have had any permanent footing in the country; so that though the pages of history record many sanguinary conflicts between them and the Welsh, yet scarcely any vestiges remain to mark the incursions of the invaders. The Danes called off the attention of the Saxons from Wales, which from this circumstance was left for many years in unusual tranquillity, and furnishes but few subjects of historical record during the Danish dynasty. The Danes made some incursions on the coast, but effected no permanent conquest of the country. On the accession of William I. to the throne of England, the Welsh having refused the annual tribute, which had been extorted from them as a mark of submission by king Edgar, the conqueror invaded their country with a powerful army, quickly awed them into submission, and obliged them to do homage, and take an oath of fealty, as due from vassals to their superior lord. From this period the English monarchs preferred a claim to Wales, as their heritable property. On the death of William, the Welsh, feeling the galling yoke of their humbled condition, attempted to recover their lost independence; and joining in revolt with some refractory English barons, entered England, and by fire and sword carried their devastation to the banks of the Severn. These outrages determined William Rufus to attempt the subjugation of the country; and for this purpose he excited his barons to conquer, at their own charge, under homage and fealty to him, the territories of the Welsh. These barons, who were denominated lords marchers, endeavoured to secure their conquests, by peopling them with English, and erecting strong fortresses to defend them from the inroads of the Welsh. Thus was the last asylum of the Britons broken into on every side, and invested by their enemies. South Wales was subdued; while North Wales, now greatly reduced, alone preserved the national character, and supported its independence; and the inhabitants, aided by the valour of their princes, still upheld the struggle; and acquiring vigour from union, dictated by necessity, not only prevented the marchers from achieving further conquests, but rendered their existing acquisitions of precarious tenure. For a long period the Welsh, favoured by the mountainous nature of the country, supported an unequal but spirited

contest with their unjust invaders. The death of David, who had succeeded his unfortunate brother Llewelyn, in the reign of Edward I., closed the only sovereignty that remained of the ancient British empire. Edward having at length obtained the object of his ambition, by the entire conquest of Wales, annexed it to the crown of England. He did not, however, for some time, enjoy a tranquil possession; for three insurrections broke out at one time in different places. To such a height did these commotions arrive, that Edward was constrained to conduct the war in person, when he shortly compelled the insurgents to lay down their arms, and make an unqualified submission. These disturbances, the subsequent revolt of sir Gryffydd Lludd, and the rebellion of Owen Glendower, were the last efforts the Welsh made to recover their independence. From that period the concerns of the country, till the time of Henry VII., are little interesting; for the inhabitants were reduced to a state of the severest bondage. Henry VII., from the assistance the Welsh had afforded him in obtaining the crown, was more favourably inclined towards them than preceding monarchs, and granted the principality considerable immunities. Several ameliorating statutes were passed in the reign of Henry VIII., to exonerate them from the tyrannical oppressions of the lords marchers; and at length the people, awake to their true interest, solicited the king to give his liberal designs a more salutary effect, by extending to them all the privileges of the English jurisprudence. The prayer of their petition was granted, and Wales was formally united and incorporated with England.

Wales abounds with the remains of encampments, hill-fortresses, castles, and castellated mansions: specimens of military architecture, therefore, in the diversified styles of different and distant periods, constitute some of its most prominent and interesting features. While the Romans generally chose for the site of their camps, or forts, a rising ground near some river, or a lingua formed by the confluence of two; the Britons selected the most lofty, insulated, and inaccessible mountains, the summits of which they fortified by excavating deep trenches in the solid rock, adding valla, by heaping up the loose stones dug out of the fosses; and in succeeding times, by adding rising walls, and erecting massy circular towers. The Normans introduced a new style of military fortification; and to secure their unjustifiable seizures, and proceed in their aggressions, they erected castles, more formidable both in number and extent, so that what are termed the marches of Wales consist of a series of fortresses from the mouth of the Dee to the embouchure of the Wye. Flint, Denbigh, Montgomery, Powys, Brecknock, Caerphilly, and Caerdiff, furnish bold examples of the style of those people. More were erected by the Anglo-Normans, as they progressively encroached on the country; for, to secure the conquered possessions from the retaliating vengeance of the expelled owners, they were necessitated to repair and strengthen the fortresses they took, or build others. Thus did these buildings so far increase, that Mr. Pennant enumerates 143 castles in the principality; and that number is probably short of the actual amount. On the conquest of Wales by Edward I., that monarch, who had been crusading in the holy land, and had there imbibed a spirit of eastern magnificence, for the purpose of overawing his new but refractory subjects, constructed three castles in a style, which for strength and grandeur have never yet been surpassed in this country. Harlech, Caernarvon, and Conway, remain the proud monuments of that monarch's age and times.

Ancient Constitution, Government, and Laws.—From the accounts given by the Roman writers, a monarchical form of

of government was prevalent among the early Britons. The island was divided into several petty sovereignties, each subject to a separate prince; but in time of emergency and danger, they were united in one, under an officer, similar to a dictator among the Romans, called a pendragon. To him, by joint consent, was committed the whole military government of the independent states. Nor was this dignity temporary, like the power; for though the latter appears to have ceased with the necessity that demanded it, yet the former continued for life, and was hereditary to the male heir. But the right of succession to the separate governments does not seem to be strictly indefeasible; for, in some instances, the lineal succession was violated by the rule of tanistry. By this the king's son, brother, or nephew, became the customary inheritor of the crown; the particular person being selected by the reigning monarch, with the advice of his nobles. This sovereign elect was denominated by the law the *tanist*, or second in dignity. The Britons were not unacquainted with that rational restraint on monarchical despotism, parliamentary suffrage; for a decisive argument in favour of the existence of British parliaments is found in the preface or introduction to the laws of the great Cambrian legislator, Howel Dda. Six of the most intelligent and powerful persons were summoned out of every cantref, or hundred, to assist the king in the great work of legislation. This parliament being assembled, proceeded to examine the ancient laws, cancelled some, reformed others, enacted new ones, and digested all into one regular code of jurisprudence. This revision they presented to good king Howel, who having approved it, gave the ratifying sanction of royal authority. Both the monarch and parliament then imprecated the power of the state and the wrath of heaven upon any persons who should violate, or attempt to abrogate, any of these institutes, unless they should be constitutionally annulled in a national council, similar to the one in which they had been recently decreed. From the circumstances of this revision, many of those in the code of Howel Dda were pre-existent statutes, by which the early Britons had been regulated in previous times. From these it appears, that immediately below the sovereign ranked the *Uchelwyr*, or great men holding their lands from the crown, and each residing as lord over his particular domain. As immediate tenants of the king, they were obliged to perform certain services. Inferior to these, and holding from them as feudatory lords, were the general mass of the community, being in a state of villinage, but divided into two classes: first, such as might retain or relinquish their lands at discretion, possessed the power of buying and selling, and whose seigniorial service was the least degrading of the menial kind; the other, denominated *Caeths*, were considered the property of the lord, attached to the soil, and saleable with the estate. These were bound to services the most servile, to build or repair houses for the *Uchelwyr*, and perform all the drudgeries of husbandry. Both were subject, like the chiefs, to military attendance in time of war, and to contributions in money or kind. Such were the tenures of lands in Wales, prior to the introduction of English customs, as appears by the laws of Howel Dda, not formed by him, but referable to previous institutes, ascribed to the early Britons. And as they were evidently feudal in their essence, and military in their design, the opinion of antiquaries, who deduced the introduction of a system of feuds into this island from the Normans, must be erroneous; for the laws in which it is found to have existed in Wales were collected into a digest, in the early part of the tenth century. The most prominent feature in the Howellian code is the law of inheritance, denominated *gavel kind*, by which the property

was divided among the sons; the females of every degree being excluded till the utter extinction of the males, among whom no distinction was made between the legitimate and the spurious. While the Welsh preserved their independence, this law of descent universally prevailed; but on the conquest of the country by king Edward I., he directed certain commissioners to inquire upon oath into all the former laws and usages of the principality; and the first law promulgated by that monarch for the use of Wales was the celebrated statute of *Rhyddlan*. By this he permitted the ancient item to continue, but lopped off two of its principal branches, *viz.* the admission of spurious offspring to the inheritance, and the preclusion of females. But in the 34th year of Henry VIII., the venerable trunk was for ever levelled with the ground, all the lands in Wales having been required "to be holden as English tenures to all intents." Since which period the laws of England, with the exception of a few formal peculiarities, have continued to form the jurisprudence of Wales.

Ecclesiastical History, Religion, &c.—The religion of the Britons, when Caesar first visited the island, was of a kind peculiar to them, and to the kindred tribes of Gaul. It abounded with singular tenets, and the mode of worship comprised numerous superstitious rites, the remaining vestiges of which form some of the most interesting antiquities in the country. *Bardism*, or the Druidical system as it is generally called, has been variously represented; and the term *bard*, given to the Welsh poets who were not of the Bardic order, has tended to increase the confusion on the subject. What may be considered as the foundation of the order was the principle of universal benevolence, so that a bard was prohibited by his tenets from bearing arms; and being recognised as the herald of peace, he could pass, when clad in his azure robe, unmolested from one hostile country to another. The bards were divided into three classes, the *bard brain*, *ovydd*, and *derwydd*. To the bards brain belonged the perpetuation of the customs and privileges of the system, and of its moral and civil institutes; the *ovyddon*, or oviates, particularly attended to the cultivation of the arts and sciences; the *derwyddon*, or *druids*, were the priests who officiated in religion: from which circumstance, and from the great influence they consequently obtained over society, this class was most conspicuous, and became the general denomination of the whole.

Their origin, learning, religion, authority, revenues, decline, and extinction, have been fully detailed in this work under the article DRUIDS.

In the sixth century, the archiepiscopal seat of Wales was removed from Caerleon to Menevia, which was subsequently known by the appellation of St. David's. At that time the archbishop had under him three suffragans, the bishops of St. Asaph, Bangor, and Landaff. In the tenth century, St. David's lost its archiepiscopal honours; and in 1101, it became subject to the metropolitan see of Canterbury; to which, on the subjugation of the country by Edward I., the whole of Wales, as to ecclesiastical affairs, submitted; and at the dissolution of monasteries, the Welsh having been subjected to the English laws, the clergy in Wales were brought under the same regulations as those in England. And from the close incorporation of the two countries, the history of the church, after that time, is nearly similar in both. In Wales are many seats of what are considered regular Protestant dissenters from the established church, which had their rise in the reigns of James I. and Charles I., and more especially during the protectorate of Oliver Cromwell. But the greatest number of seceders from the established church are the different descriptions of Methodists, whose places of

assembling, multiplied over the face of the country, receive the appellation of chapels. Of this increasing dissent, one reason is assigned to be the generally illiterate state of the regular clergy: for most of the livings in Wales are so small, and the stipends of curates so scanty, that no inducement is held out for youth being properly instructed for the ministry, and consequently the churches must be served by incompetent ministers. But this evil is likely soon to be remedied; for by the zealous endeavours of the present worthy bishop of St. David's, two seminaries are instituted for the education of youth designed for holy orders, who are provided with tutors. Most places in Wales have the benefit of a free-school; and in the year 1749, for the instruction of the children of the lower orders, 142 itinerant schoolmasters were appointed by the society for promoting Christian knowledge. Those among Protestant dissenters have been provided for in this respect by the pious bequest of Dr. Daniel Williams, many years the respectable pastor of a congregation in London, who left a large sum of money for establishing charity-schools, where such institutions were wanted; by virtue of which the trustees have erected many in the principality.

The lovers of *ecclesiastical, monastic, and sepulchral architecture*, will find ample scope for amusement and admiration, in the remains of religious edifices, both in an integral and dilapidated state, still visible in various parts of the principality.

Mountains, Lakes, Rivers, and Climate.—Wales exhibits all the features of a detached district from England, consisting of almost continued ranges of lofty mountains, and impending crags, intersected by numerous deep ravines with extensive valleys, and affording endless views of bold, wild, or romantic scenery. To enumerate the mountains which are nominally known to the natives, and form very striking objects to the traveller, would be superfluous; but a general view of them, as they are grouped with multifarious ramifications, may be useful. The chains generally extend in a direction from south-east to north-west, having their escarpment, or most abrupt declivity, on the latter bearing. Numerous projecting ridges laterally expand on various parts of the compass, in countless ramifications, many of which are surmounted by lofty eminences, that are formed into so many distinct mountains, so that, like the Alps, they seem to be mountain piled upon mountain, and hills conglomerated upon hills. The principal range in North Wales is that denominated the *Snowdonian* chain, from the lofty mountain Snowdon occupying its centre. Commencing at Bardsey island, in the south-west extremity of Caernarvonshire, the line, varied at irregular intervals by conical peaks, extends in a north-easterly direction to the promontory of Penmaen-bach, in the bay of Conway. The intermediate parts consist of the loftiest mountains in Wales. The *Ferwyn* chain occupies the eastern part of Merionethshire, and branches out into Denbighshire. Its length is about sixteen miles, and the breadth varies from five to ten: Cader Ferwyn, Cader Frowen, and the Syllatyn, are the most elevated points. Another line branches off into Montgomeryshire, and joins the Breddin chain, extending into Shropshire. Another chain, or rather a continuance of the same, extends in a south-west direction from Pennant, near the vale of Tanad, in Montgomeryshire, to the sea-coast near Langyllin in Merionethshire. In this extensive ridge are conspicuous several lofty mountains, known under the appellation of the Arrans and the Arrenigs; the most eminent of which are Arran-ben-llyn and Arran-fowddy, and the extremity of the line is grandly marked by the triple head of the lofty Cadr Idris. The celebrated *Plinlimmon*

proudly elevates his crest above a range of table land, extending from the vicinity of Llanvair in the north-east, till they decline in the south-west, and end in the abrupt cliffs, which bound part of the bay of Cardigan, near Aberystwith. Among particular elevations in this line, after the sovereign of the group, the Carno mountains stand the most pre-eminent. South Wales, though not equally mountainous with the northern part of the principality, nor so distinguishable for its Alpine heights, is yet far from being deficient in elevations and depressions. An extensive chain of mountains stretches from Bledva forest, north-east of Llandrindod Wells, in Radnorshire, crosses the northern part of Brecknockshire, continues in a south-westerly direction through Caermarthenshire, and terminates in the conspicuous ridge of the Presfely or Presfelau mountain in the county of Pembroke. The Fothoc hills, on the eastern side of Brecknockshire, commence another line, principally known under the general appellation of the *Black Mountains*, from the appearance given to them by the dark vegetable covering of heath and ling. Among individual elevations, remarkable for their height, are Tre-beddw mountain, Pen Mallard hills, the black mountains strictly so denominated, and the high table land which in the fourth part of Caermarthenshire is clofed by the isolated mountain, called *Pembre hill*. In this mountainous region, *lakes* are exceedingly abundant; an attempt to describe, or even to enumerate them, would be endless: Mr. Gough reckoned from fifty to sixty in Caernarvonshire only. The most distinguished for extent, or the beauty of the surrounding scenery, are, in North Wales, Llynian Nantle, Llyn Cywellin, Llynian Llanberis, and Llyn Conway, in Caernarvonshire; with Pimble-meer, and Tallyllyn, in Merionethshire. In South Wales, Llyn Bichlyn, in Radnorshire, and Llyn Savathan, or Llangor's pool, in the county of Brecknock.

Rivers.—Wales, though a mountainous country, is equally remarkable with England for its numerous streams, which issuing from considerable lakes, or aided by their waters, meander through the country, and form excellent harbours at their confluence with the sea. The principal rivers are the Severn, the Wye, and the Towy, in South Wales; the Conwy, the Clwydd, and the Dee, in North Wales: these have not only attained pre-eminence in fame for the utility of their navigation; but, by poets, have been celebrated in song. The former constitutes the eastern, and the latter the north-eastern boundary of the country, between the embouchures of which many others, though less distinguished in a commercial point of view, are highly valuable for their fisheries and other properties. These, tracing their sources in the order in which they unite their waters with the ocean, are, in North Wales, the Ogwen, Sciont, Gwynedd, Drwydd, Avon, and Dovey; in South Wales, the Rheidiol, Ystwith, Eiron, Tivy, Newn, Gwyn, Cleddy, Itrog, Taf or Tave, Loughor, Tawy, Nedd, Avon, Taf or Tasse, Rhymny, and Usk. A particular description of the most considerable, will be found under their respective names.

The *climate* of Wales differs materially from that of the portion of England, lying in the same parallel of latitude; and assimilates more with the northern parts of the island. In a general view the air is sharp; in the mountainous parts bleak; moderately mild in the vales, and those parts adjacent to the ocean, especially on the southern coast, and particularly in the celebrated vale of Glamorgan. From the greater degrees of cold prevalent in the Cambrian atmosphere, snow is more frequent in Wales than in England, lies much deeper, and is seen covering the tops of the highest mountains, for many months in the year. The wet season in this country is not usually confined to the winter months; for

for rains are frequent at all times of the year. The gaged quantity of rain which annually falls in England, according to the experiments of Dr. Hales, is about twenty-two inches; while the average that descends in Wales may be estimated at thirty-four. From numerous observations respecting this subject, the result has uniformly been, that more falls on the western than on the eastern side of the kingdom, and most in the mountainous districts; consequently Wales must participate largely in such an excess of humidity. In the year 1802, the quantity of rain which fell in London was fifteen inches, and in Brecon twenty-six inches. Moist as the climate of Wales must consequently be from this vaporous state of its atmosphere, yet the air is in general highly salubrious, and the country healthy. Scarcely a cemetery in the principality, but bears some testimony to the longevity of the inhabitants, even to the protracted age of a century, and in some instances even to a greater extent.

Natural Productions and Minerals.—Few countries can vie with Wales in the multifarious variety of its productions, while none perhaps have been so long and undeservedly neglected. Some animals, rarely to be met with, frequent the wilds of this diversified country. The goat is here found in its ferine state, and is far superior in size, and in the length and fineness of his hair, to that of most other mountainous countries. Though this useful animal has been long domesticated, yet many of the inhabitants of North Wales suffer the goats to run in a wild state, and bound from crag to crag. These they are accustomed to kill during autumn for the sake of the fat and skins: thus goat-shooting and goat-hunting are still practised by the people in Wales. Roebucks were anciently numerous, but are now confined to the most intricate parts of the country, and they are rarely to be seen. Of the feathered tribes, many species, not found in other parts of the island, are to be met with here. The golden eagle is an inhabitant of the Snowdonian mountains, which thence are supposed to have derived their appellation of the Eagle rocks. The peregrine falcon, supposed to be the bird which furnished the amusement of falconry to our ancestors, and formed a sort of criterion for nobility, breeds abundantly among the rocks of Llandidno, in Caernarvonshire. The merlin, used in hawking, migrates from Wales to England generally in September. The water rail is found in Anglesea, early in the spring; and immense flocks of puffins visit the island of Prielholme about the same time. The guillemot, and the black-backed gull, frequent the Welsh coast during the winter. Among the numerous fish, which abound in the rivers of Wales, in addition to those generally known in England, may be noticed the crooked perch found in Llyn Raithlyn, Merionethshire, and the deformed trout, said to be peculiar to a brook, called Syrcian, in Cardiganshire: (these two species are described by Daines Barrington, in a communication to the Royal Society 1767): also the famlet is frequent in the upper part of the Severn and the Wye; the sewin, the red char, the silver char, and the gwyniad. Some of these, however, are not exclusively peculiar to the principality, but are found in some of the rivers of Scotland, and in the lakes of Westmoreland and Cumberland.

The mineral productions of Wales form the most interesting part of the subject, and furnish an inexhaustible source of profitable investigation to individuals, and of national wealth. The mountains and hills may be separated into three distinct classes, *viz.* primitive, secondary, and derivative, which in a general view may also be distinguished by the peculiarities of their form, as well as their relative situation. Primitive granite mountains consist of craggy

steep rocks, tending in the ascent more or less towards an acute or slender pointed summit, the loftiest mountains are centrally situated in the chain, which commencing and terminating in abrupt precipices, with the insulated peaks that interrupt the general outline, form a striking and distinctive character. Secondary mountains, chiefly composed of schistose substances, range next in the scale, and are distinguishable from the former by their inferior height, the evenness and squareness of the individual links which compose the chain, and by the easy waving though varied line of the general contour: instances of which are conspicuous in the Ferwyn and Breddin mountains previously noticed. Derivative, or calcareous and siliceous hills, range considerably lower than the secondary or slate mountains, usually rising by a gradual ascent at one extremity, and terminating abruptly at the other. The lime-stone hills frequently assume a pyramidal shape, while the ridges of the sand rocks, and banks, are broader and rounder than those of lime. These, however, often trap into each other, and then little dissimilarity is discoverable in their form. The primitive mountains in mass contain no metals; copper is however found in several of the horn-stone stratified mountains, of which the Parys mine, and those at Llanberis and Pont-Aberglawlyn, are examples. In these mines, the ore is for the most part yellow, sulphuret of copper, the green and blue malachites or carbonates of copper, are found in lime-stone, as at Ormes-head and Llanymynech hill, where copper is not produced in any other state but that of carbonate, which is also found in the calcareous cement of sand rocks. The strata generally most productive of the metallic ores are lime-stone; and most species of whin-stones, or the argillaceous mountain rocks, of which there are many varieties appearing in thick, thin, and mediate strata; some of these rocks are moderately and others exceedingly hard. They assume various colours, though principally one or other of the numerous shades of grey. Several rich and valuable mines are discovered in granite or moor-stone mountains. These three orders or classes of rocks, with their concomitant strata, are usually intersected by mineral fissures, and contain the largest quantity of mineral substances, and metallic ores. But of all classified strata, in which the richest mineral veins have been discovered, the indurated argillaceous mountain rocks are the most prolific and extensive. Many of the mines in North Wales, nearly the whole of the numerous valuable lead mines in the county of Cardigan, and most of the mines in other parts of South Wales, are found in this kind of matrix or strata. The principal subterraneous substances produced in Wales, may be divided into three classes, metalline, mineral, and lapideous; and the places where they are dug receive the distinctive appellations of mines, pits, or quarries. Silver is obtained in considerable quantities, though not at present found in what may be exclusively denominated silver mines. Cwmfymlog mine in Cardiganshire consists of silver ore, lead ore, and quartz; which, from the rich produce of the more precious metal, received the appellation of the Welsh Potosi. Daren vawr, Daren vach, Goginan Cwm Eryn, and Mynydd bach, contain similar substances to those of Cwmfymlog, though not equally productive of silver. Llanvair is at present the richest mine worked in the principality; comprising silver, lead, quartz, spar with a small portion of copper, and yields about one-sixth of lead ore. About sixty to eighty ounces of silver are extracted from a ton of ore, and twelve hundred and a half weight of lead. Copper, which was known and appreciated by the Romans while in possession of Britain, is abundant through different parts of the island, but was not an object of commercial investigation till within

about two centuries past; nor in Wales to any considerable purpose till the middle of the last. The copper works of the Romans lay for ages neglected; and to the public and enterprising spirit of Nicolas Bailey, the country owes the revival of research for this valuable metal. Parys mountain in Anglesea consists wholly of copper, either in a state of native copper, sulphate, black ore, or malachite: the matrix is a dark grey chert, and the superstratum aluminous slate. The copper ore found at Llanberris in Caernarvonshire, is of a very superior quality to that of Parys mountain, yielding from eight to ten *per cent.* weight of metal. This ore subsists in the primitive stratified rocks, and generally in a matrix of schistose hornblende, or quartz. The same mountainous ridge, consisting principally of whin and horn-stone, divided by the immense chasm over which is thrown the bridge called Pont-aber-glaslyn, contains another copper mine producing ore similar in quality to that of Llanberris; and it is highly probable the whole of this district is pregnant with copper. Efcair vraith mine in Cardiganshire consists of copper ore, spar, quartz, and a substance, termed by the miners gozin, which forms an envelope to the quartz. Lead, for which this island was always famous, is found in a variety of places through Wales, but particularly in the counties of Flint, Caernarvon, Montgomery, Caermarthen, and Cardigan; indeed the latter may be considered as the most extensive and richest mining field in Britain. A mineral tract stretches from Pen-yr-allt, or Bryndigri, in a line to the western borders of the parish of Holywell in Flintshire, and is known under the name of Whiteford rake. The ores differ in quality; the lamellated, or common kind, usually named potter's ore, yields from fourteen hundred to sixteen hundred and a quarter of lead, out of twenty hundred of the ore: but the last produce is rare. The veins are found either in chert or lime-stone rocks, and some of the best ore has been dug at the depth of ninety yards. In this tract several levels have been driven and shafts sunk, and lead continues to be obtained in very considerable quantities. Between Gwydir and Capel Cerrig in Caernarvonshire, within an extensive dip between lofty mountains, are very extensive lead works. The surrounding rocks consist of slate, bituminous shale, and trap or whin; the matrix of the ore is quartz, and calcareous spar; they produce lead and calamine, mixed with iron ochre, and a small quantity of copper pyrites. These different substances are so blended, that in the same specimen a variety of them may be found. But Cardiganshire may be peculiarly denominated the region of lead mines, the whole country apparently having its rocks cemented together with veins of this metal. For a vast extent the land is excavated, and the surface covered with the opening of mines already worked, or the vestiges of numerous others that have furnished their subterranean treasures to remote generations. The principal lead mines in this county are Cwm-ytwyth, Llewerneg, Inys Cynvelin, Penybanch, Bron-y-goch, Llwynnawch, Grogwnion, Gellan Erin, and Nant-y-Crier. The ore found in most of the Cardiganshire mines is nearly of a similar nature, consisting chiefly of lead, mixed with quartz and spar, accompanied frequently with quantities of an ore of zinc, denominated by the miners, from its dark appearance, black jack. This, which formerly was appropriated to the repair of the roads, has lately been discovered to be a valuable article, constituting an excellent flux for brass; and, mixed in due proportions with copper, makes a hard metal, similar to the orichalcum of the ancient Romans. Iron, the most useful, and through the wise distribution of Providence, the most common of all metals, is plentifully dispersed over the British isles; and Wales is not deficient in this particular. Yet, notwithstanding

the mountains of this country are full of iron-stone, it was not till within about half a century, that the public attention was turned to this inexhaustible source of internal wealth. Iron is most abundant in South Wales, though evident marks of its existence may be traced in North Wales; and it has lately been procured, and works erected in the vicinity of Ruabon in Denbighshire. The several species of iron which have been discovered are hematites, kidney ore, or compact brown iron-stone; grey ore, or black iron-stone; bog ore swampy iron-stone; and a variety of sulphurated and arsenical ores, which class under the general denomination of pyrites; but the kidney and grey ores are the most frequently found. The principal iron works are Merthyr Tydvil, Aberdare, and Cyfartha, in Glamorganshire; and the Union, Llanelly, Beaufort, and Hirwan, in Brecknockshire. Coal is found in every county of Wales except Cardigan, Merioneth, and Caernarvon. The coal sometimes underlays the calcareous strata, or, in the miner's phrase, has a lime-stone roof; but more frequently it is found on the northern or southern side of a lime-stone ridge; and when a tract of low land is included between two such ridges, it may be inferred, that coal lies beneath. Two parallel lines of calcareous strata extend through South Wales in an easterly direction, from St. George's Channel across the whole country. These are accompanied by two lines of coal. Upon the upper line, coal has been found at Johnstown, Picton, Jefferston, and Begeley, in Pembrokehire. Thence keeping on the southern side of the lime-stone ridge, it crosses the Towy, forming the bar at the mouth of that river; and passing through the upper part of Caermarthenhire, Brecknockshire, and Monmouthshire, crosses the Severn to the collieries of Kingwood near Bristol. The different species of coal in Wales are the newcastle, the rock, the stone, or splent, the cannel, or parrot, and the culm, or blind coal, denominated in England Welsh coal, because almost peculiarly the produce of Wales. Some varieties of the cannel coal are so fine and solid in the contexture, and so susceptible of a high polish, as to be capable of being turned in the lathe, and formed into various utensils, toys, and trinkets. The schistose mountains of Wales afford another substance, if not of equal importance, yet of general utility. Slates, customarily called Cornish tile, because originally procured from Cornwall, constitute an elegant and useful roofing to houses much cheaper than lead, for which it is latterly become a very common substitute. Slate quarries are numerous scattered over the country, but the principal are those of the Rheidiol near Aberydrith, Cardiganshire; Llangynnog, Montgomeryshire; and the extensive ones in Snowdonia, Caernarvonshire. Those of the former place produce specimens of the large and coarsest kind of slate, which lie in compact masses, resembling flag-stone, of a rough texture, but separating easily into large plates. Llangynnog slate also divides into large plates, is not of quite so coarse a quality, and forms a very profitable building article. These quarries, Mr. Pennant observes, yielded from November 1775 to the same month in the following year 904,000 slates, which were sold from six to twenty shillings per thousand. The Snowdonian slates are generally of a very fine grain, a beautiful blue colour, and when quarried separate into exceedingly thin laminae; properties, which render them particularly eligible for handsome roofing, and manufacturing into writing slates. So great have been the quantities of late years procured from this district, that a small insignificant creek has been dignified with the name of Port-Penhryn, from the export trade of this article only. On viewing the different apertures of the schistose mountains,

tains, a striking geological fact will result, correspondent with the principle of uniform though unequal declivity. It is observable that the slates are always coarsest in their texture on the northern or north-western sides of the ridge, and less so on the south and south-western sides; becoming gradually finer as they approximate the lime-stone hills. Wales affords numerous quarries of other valuable stones; viz. different kinds of marble fit for monuments, columns, chimney-pieces, and other ornamental sculpture; serpentine and other species of horn-stone; chert or petri-folix, and pure quartz, for the use of the potteries. Nor should that rare and curious substance be omitted, which furnishes the asbestos, indestructible by fire, found on the shores of Anglesea. The mona marble, from the isle of Anglesea, is now much used in chimney-pieces and fancy furniture. (See *MARBLE, Britisb.*) The Britons, as already observed, understood the use of metals, and were further instructed in the arts of mining by the intelligent Romans; but after the departure of the latter, self-preservation occupied the attention of the natives, and peaceful science sunk under the devastating hand of war. Yet their mines were not wholly neglected, for it was probably by means of this subterraneous wealth, that the Welsh were enabled to support against the English an unequal warfare for so long a time. During centuries after the conquest, in England the crown asserted its exclusive right to all mines and minerals; and no person could search for ore unless empowered by a royal grant, under conditions imposed at the discretion of the monarch. Edward I., on his conquest of Wales, extended his mining authority over that country; and it does not appear that the proprietor of the land, on which a mine was opened, had any share in the profits, till the reign of Henry VI., when the duke of Bedford having obtained a lease of all mines containing any gold or silver, a reservation was made of a twentieth part of the proceeds to the owner of the land. Queen Elizabeth, however, adopted a sound policy: she sent over for some experienced Germans, and granted letters patent to them and their heirs for ever, to search for and conduct the business of mines, through several specified English counties, and the whole principality of Wales. The patentees divided part of their tenure into shares for sale; and with the purchasers of such shares, they were incorporated by the style of the "governor, assistants, and commonalty of the mines royal." But though the foundation was thus laid for the present success in mining, yet little of importance was effected till the reign of Charles I. According to the testimony of Schlutter, the lead mines in Flintshire were not worked before the year 1698, when Dr. Wright and his associated adventurers established a smelting-house at Halkin. The subsequent extension of mining concerns was encouraged by the repeal of former restrictive statutes, and by the enactment in the first year of William and Mary, that persons having mines shall enjoy the same, although claimed as royal mines; the king having the right of pre-emption in the ore at certain regulated prices.

Agriculture, Bridges, Roads, and Canals. Wales in a general view may be considered a century, at least, behind England in its state of agriculture. The mode of ploughing, the course of crops, the deficiency of manure, the want of draining, and the rude implements of husbandry, are all calculated for making a progress in agricultural amelioration. Many of the errors evidently arise from the ignorance, prejudice, indolence, and poverty of the tenants; but other causes are attributable to the proprietors of estates. One is, not granting proper leases, the lands for the most part being let from year to year: a still more injudicious custom is the

letting farms by auction. But though this is the general state of agriculture, yet striking and honourable instances occur, in divers places, of more rational conduct. Many gentlemen are setting the example of the most improved practice; and almost in every county, associations of intelligent agriculturists have been formed for the introduction and encouragement of a better system of husbandry. From the nature, as well as number of the rivers in Wales, the erection of bridges must have excited, at an early period, the attention of the Welsh. Infirmountable barriers must have been opposed to the traveller, without the aid of what may be termed pendent bridges; that is, such as are thrown from crag to crag, at a prodigious height above the water. Of this kind is the bridge, or rather two bridges, called Pont-ar-Mynach, near Hafod, in Cardiganshire, forming a pass over an awful yawning chasm, through which the river rolls its waters to the Rheidiol. Another, called Pont-aber-glas-lyn, forms a communication over a narrow defile in the mountainous ridge separating the counties of Caernarvon and Merioneth. Numerous bridges, of a single arch, are scattered over the country; of this class is the celebrated Pont-y-Prydd, crossing the boisterous Taffe in Glamorganshire. Among those bridges composed of more than one arch, the triangular-arched bridge over the river Dee at Llangollen, is curious for its mode of construction, and great antiquity: the bridge across the Conwy, near Llanrwst, is an elegant structure, and does honour to the skill of its architect, Inigo Jones. the bridge of five arches at Bangor-foed, in Flintshire, is a fine specimen of architecture. The town of Caernarthen is entered by a long ancient bridge; but the stupendous aqueduct, by which the continuation of the Ellesmere canal is carried over the Dee, at Pont Cyffyllte, between Llangollen and Chirk, in Denbighshire, is the chef d'œuvre of this species of architecture; and can only be exceeded in grandeur or utility, by the projected bridge over the Menai straits, by which it is proposed to form a land communication between the county of Caernarvon and the island of Anglesea. Wales, though long famed for its bridges, was, till of late years, nearly a stranger to good roads. Except the two great mail-roads, forming the communication with the north and south of Ireland, by the way of Milford and Holyhead, whence the packets sail for that country, scarcely a road could be found, calculated for the passing of carriages. But to this essential point for profit and convenience, the land proprietors have recently directed their attention with the most beneficial effects; and the country may now be traversed in almost every direction. Under the auspices of that public-spirited nobleman, the late lord Penrhyn, a grand road has been cut through the immense range of lofty mountains, denominated Snowdonia, by which an extensive communication has been opened between the internal parts of North Wales and the coast; and the great thoroughfare from London to Dublin by way of Holyhead diminished in length, compared with the former one by way of Shrewsbury and Conway, twenty-five miles. Numerous roads have been widened, shortened, and otherwise improved, by the addition of drains, arches, bridges, &c. to the great accommodation of travellers, and general benefit of the inhabitants. Already has the country begun to experience the advantages by new communications having been opened for the produce of the interior, in the reduction of the rate of carriage, and in the easy access thus afforded for the conveyance of ponderous articles to the sea-coast, or to the inter-communications with the navigable rivers by inland canals.

Improvement by internal navigation was long neglected in this country, though equally capable of such advantages

as England. In North Wales, the first project which engaged the attention of the landed interest, was the junction of the navigation on the rivers Severn and Dee, by opening an aquatic communication through the counties of Denbigh and Flint, with various ramifications into the mining and manufacturing districts in the adjacent counties. This is called the Ellesmere canal, connected with which is the Montgomery canal. Those in South Wales are the Kidwelly, Cardiff and Merthyr Tydvil, Aberdare, Neath, Brecknock, and Swansea canals. For a particular description of each, see their respective names under the article CANAL.

Manufactures, till within these few years, were not very extensively diffused, nor could be considered of much account in the general scale of productive industry. Wales, however, has for centuries been celebrated for its flannels, and may be considered as standing unrivalled in this useful article. The woollen substances manufactured are webs, flannels, stockings, wigs, gloves, and socks. Webs are distinguished by the trade into two sorts; the strong or high country cloth, and the small or low country cloth. Strong cloth is made in Merionethshire, and principally in the vicinity of Dolgelly and Machynlleth: at the latter place is a manufactory upon a small scale, a circumstance only worthy of notice, as forming the commencement of a change in preparing the wool, which will probably soon become general. The standard width of this cloth is seven-eighths of a yard; the length of a piece, or what is emphatically styled a web, is about 200 yards; the quality is of various degrees. Small cloth is the produce of Denbighshire; it is chiefly manufactured within the parish of the Glynn, a large tract of country including Llangollen and Corwen. This article is about one-eighth of a yard narrower than strong cloth; the length is the same. Flannel constitutes the most important of the Welsh manufactures; it is chiefly the produce of Montgomeryshire; but by no means confined to that county, being made in various places within a circle of about twenty miles round Welfpool. A manufactory of note has been established a considerable time at Dolobran; and two on a large scale have been recently erected near Llanydloes, where the various machines, used in the woollen trade by the English, are applied to the purposes of manual labour. The principal markets for webs and flannels are Welfpool and Shrewsbury; the quantity made is not easily ascertained. Mr. Pennant, in his *Snowdonia*, published in 1781, mentions, that there were brought "annually to Salop 700,000 yards of webs; and to Welfpool annually between 7 and 800,000 yards of flannel." Stockings, wigs, socks, gloves, and other small knit articles, are sold chiefly at Bala, Merionethshire, being made in that town and neighbourhood. Stockings, to the amount of from two to five hundred pounds worth, are sold each weekly market-day. Very considerable manufactories of cottons and cotton twill have been established in the counties of Flint and Denbigh, the principal of which are Northop, Greenfield, Seeving, Newmarket, and Denbigh. In some of these factories cotton yarn is spun of so fine a texture, that 130 hanks, each being 830 yards in length, make but a pound weight. Numerous manufactures of copper, iron, lead, tinplates, &c. have also been recently set up in various towns both in North and South Wales. Commerce may justly be considered at present in its infancy, being chiefly confined to the coasting trade. Except Caernarvon and Swansea, which have lately extended their views to Spain, Portugal, and the West Indies, few of the Welsh ports possess vessels of very considerable tonnage; though no part of the island contains a greater proportion of harbours and roads, some

of which are safe and good, and more might soon be made so, by the building of piers and other improvements, which are obvious at the respective places.

Peculiar Customs, Superstitions, &c.—Among a variety of Welsh customs, those in courtship, marriage, and at funerals, excite particular attention. Hymenal negotiations are frequently carried on by the Welsh peasantry in bed: the young swain goes sometimes several miles to visit the object of his choice at her residence; the lovers retire to a bed-chamber, and between the blankets converse on those subjects which the occasion suggests. This usage is confined to the labouring classes of the community; and is scarcely ever productive of those improprieties which might naturally be expected. Previous to the celebration of a wedding, a friend undertakes the office of a bidder; who goes round the neighbourhood to invite all persons of nearly the same situation of life as the contracting parties: in consequence, the friends and neighbours for a great extent make a point of attending the wedding, laden with presents of money, butter, cheese, and other provisions; these are carefully recorded by the clerk of the wedding, opposite to each respective name, and are to be repaid in the same public manner, on similar occasions, whenever demanded. This custom is called *parws a gwregys*; and making the presents is termed paying *prwyddion*. As an ancient usage, it is considered as recoverable by law; but a sense of the reciprocal duty generally prevents litigation. Funerals in Wales are attended by greater crowds of people than even their weddings. When the procession sets out, every person kneels, and the minister repeats the Lord's prayer. At every cross-way, the same ceremony is repeated, till they arrive at the church; the intervals of time being filled up by singing psalms and hymns. A remarkable custom prevails, in some parts of Wales, of planting the graves of departed friends with various evergreens and flowers. Box-thrift, and other plants fit for edging, are planted round in the shape of the grave for a border, and the flowers are placed within, so that the taste of the living may be known by the manner of embellishing these mansions of the dead. The snow-drop, violet, and primrose, denote the infant dust; the rocket, rose, and woodbine, shew maturer years; while tansey, rue, and star-wort, mark declining life. Each has its little evergreen, fond emblem of that perennial state where change is known no more. It has been observed, that mountainous scenery is peculiarly friendly to those aerial and imaginary existences which constitute the objects of superstition. This is exemplified in Wales. The belief of witchcraft is still strong, and many are the fatal effects supposed to be produced by supernatural agents: at every house may be seen a horse-shoe, a cross, or some charm of defence. Many old women, on account of their age, and perhaps deformity, bear the odium of preventing the cows from yielding milk, and of inflicting disorders on men and cattle. The supposed witches find it their interest to deny nothing that is alleged to them; and thus become held in superstitious fear by the people, and obtain a livelihood from their imagined extent of power. The belief of those elvish beings called fairies appears to have been ancient and general, and is not yet wholly eradicated. In some degree connected with fairies, is another species of supposed aerial beings, called knockers: these, the Welsh miners say, are not to be seen, but are heard under ground, in or near mines, and by their noises, which represent the different stages in the progress of mining, generally point out to the workmen a rich vein of ore. An opinion is prevalent within the diocese of St. David's, that previous to the death of a person, a light is sometimes seen to proceed from the house, and pursue its way

way to the church, precisely in the track that the funeral will afterwards follow. This is traditionally attributed to the special prayer of St. David, that no one in his diocese should die without this intimation of departure, which is called *Canywll corph*, or the corpse candle.

Language, &c.—The Welsh language, has an undeniable claim to very high antiquity, as a dialect of the Hebrew, spoken by the descendants of Japhet: in its formation, as well as grammatical construction, it has a near resemblance to the original tongue; and is, perhaps, without exception, the most primitive and uncorrupt living language in the western world. It abounds with original words, more especially technical terms, which other languages borrow from the Greek, or express by circumlocution, and is said to be peculiarly fitted for poetry. The orthography of the Welsh is very different from that of the English. In the language of Cambria are forty-three letters; sixteen of which are radicals, expressive of the primary sounds; and the rest may be considered as serviles, because used as inflexions or mutations of the former; for each of these there is an appropriate character. But the language is gradually getting into disuse, especially in the southern part of the principality. The gentry of the country are principally educated in England, and consequently few of them speak it, and many with for its extermination. The example of the higher classes extends, and ere long the language and manners of Cambria may coalesce with those of the inhabitants to the east of the Severn. See grammar attached to Owen's Dictionary of the Welsh Language, which contains an ample critical dissertation, &c. 2 vols. 4to. 1803.

Poetry was in high estimation among the ancient Britons: Wales, as their place of refuge, was early the seat of the poetic muse, and modern effusions of original genius evince that she has not deserted her favourite mountains. In no nation, except the Hebrew, was genealogy considered of so much importance, or carried to an equal extent, as in Wales. Family distinction is pursued so far, that perhaps it induces the Cambrian to think more highly of himself than is rational. Pride of ancestry was a delicate and essential point among the ancient Britons, and consequently they were more desirous of noble than of rich connections. So deeply was this principle rooted, that even the lowest classes of the people carefully preserved the descents of their families, and were in general able from memory not only to recite the names of their proximate progenitors, but to trace their various relations back through numerous generations.

Whoever reads the history of the most ancient inhabitants of this island, the Cambro Britons, will find innumerable instances of the reverence which they paid to their poet-musicians, the bards, both of Pagan and Christian times; and songs of very high antiquity have been preserved in the Welsh language, though not all the tunes to which they were sung. The harp, with which these songs used to be accompanied, was in such general favour in Wales, as to be regarded among the possessions necessary to constitute a gentleman. (*Leges Wallicæ*.) The most ancient Welsh poetry that is now intelligible was written about the year 1100, and some of the tunes that are preserved in the late Mr. Morris's MS., which were transcribed from the music-book of William Penllin, the harper in queen Elizabeth's time, are supposed by Dr. Davies (*In Præf. ad Gram. Brit.*) to be coeval with the verses to which they were sung, when he composed his grammar and catalogue of ancient Cambro-British songs. Unluckily the notation, or tablature, in which these tunes have been written, is so uncommon and difficult to reduce to modern characters, that

though the gravity or acuteness of the several notes can be ascertained, yet their lengths, or duration, cannot be established with any degree of certainty, by any rule which we have been yet able to devise.

The northern annals abound with pompous accounts of the honours conferred on music by princes who were themselves proficient in the art, and the Cambro-British institutions, with laws and privileges in favour of its professors. As the first musician, or bard, was the eighth officer in dignity, at the court of the Welsh kings, and had a place in the royal hall next to the steward of the household, so the respect and dignity with which bards in general were treated about this time, in all the courts of Europe, were equal to those which Homer tells us their predecessors Demodocus and Phemius enjoyed in Greece. Music was now a regal accomplishment, as we find by all the ancient metrical romances and heroic narrations in the new-formed languages of the times; and to sing to the harp was necessary to a perfect prince and complete hero.

The first Greek musicians were gods; the second heroes; the third bards; the fourth beggars! During the early times of music, in every country, the wonder and affections of the people have been gained by surprise; but when musicians became numerous, and the art was regarded of easier acquirement, they lost their favour, and from being seated at the tables of kings, and helped to the first cut, they were reduced to the most abject state, and ranked among rogues and vagabonds.

For more particular accounts of different parts of Wales, the reader is referred to the names of the twelve counties: viz. ANGLESEA, BRECKNOCKSHIRE, CAERNARVONSHIRE, CAERMARTHENSHIRE, CARDIGANSHIRE, DENBIGHSHIRE, FLINTSHIRE, GLAMORGANSHIRE, MERIONETHSHIRE, MONTGOMERYSHIRE, PEMBROKESHIRE, and RADNORSHIRE.—Hoare's *Giraldu Cambrensis*, 2 vols. 4to. 1806. *Beauties of England and Wales*, vol. xvii. North Wales, by Rev. J. Evans, 1812. Ditto, vol. xviii. by Rev. T. Rees, 1815. *Warrington's History of Wales*, 2 vols. 8vo. 1788. *Malkin's Scenery and Antiquities of South Wales*, 2 vols. 8vo. 1807. *Aikin's Journal of a Tour through North Wales*, 12mo. 1797. *Evans's Tour through North Wales*, 8vo. 1802. Ditto through South Wales, 8vo. 1804.

WALES, a town of America, in the district of Maine, and county of Lincoln, containing 471 inhabitants; 55 miles N.E. of Portland.

WALES, *New*, a name given to a part of North America, situated to the south-east and south-west of Hudon's bay, and divided into north and south: the former name is lost in the more general term of Labrador. New South Wales is situated to the north-west of Canada, and extends along the south borders of Hudon's bay 450 miles, from N. lat. 54° to 58°. W. long. 85° to 95°.

WALES, *New South*, a name given to the eastern part of New HOLLAND; which see.

WALES, in a *Ship*, an assemblage of strong planks extending along a ship's side, throughout her whole length, at different heights, and serving to reinforce the decks, and form the curves by which the vessel appears light and graceful on the water. As the wales are framed of planks broader and thicker than the rest, they resemble ranges of hoops encircling the sides and bows. They are usually distinguished into the main-wale, and the channel-wale. The situation of the wales, being ascertained by no invariable rule, is generally submitted to the fancy and judgment of the builder. The position of the gun-ports and scuppers ought, however, to be particularly considered on this occasion,

fion, that the wales may not be wounded by too many breaches. Falconer.

Those flakes of thick stuff that are wrought on the outside of the ship upon the main-breadth, or broadest part of the body, are called the *main-wales*. Those that are wrought between the ports, which are the *channel-wales* in two-deck ships, and the *channel-wales* and *middle or sheer-wales* in three-deck ships. See *SHIP-BUILDING*.

WALET, in *Geography*, a city of Africa, and capital of Beeroo, or Biroo; 250 miles W. of Tombuctou. N. lat. $15^{\circ} 45'$. W. long. $2^{\circ} 45'$.

WALGOM, a town of the island of Ceylon; 10 miles N.W. of Candi.

WALGRUND, an island in the gulf of Bothnia, and one of the cluster called the Quarken Islands, about ten miles long, but of unequal breadth, in some places three miles, in others not half a mile. The figure is very irregular. N. lat. $63^{\circ} 13'$. E. long. $20^{\circ} 58'$.

WALHAUSEN, a town of Saxony, in Thuringia; formerly an imperial palatine town; 3 miles W.S.W. of Sangerhausen.—Also, a town of Switzerland, in the canton of Lucerne; 10 miles W. of Lucerne.

WALHEIM, a town of France, in the department of the Sambre and Meuse; 4 miles N. of Gembours.

WALHOF, a town of the duchy of Courland; 34 miles E. of Mittaw.

WALHORN, a town of France, in the department of the Ourthe; 9 miles S. of Aix-la-Chapelle.

WALI, or WALLA, the title of an officer of the police in various parts of the Ottoman empire; who is the deputy of the pacha, and patrols night and day, keeping a watchful eye on the seditious, apprehending robbers, and, like the pacha, judging and condemning without appeal. This officer has a multitude of spies, most of whom are thieves, and by their means knows every thing that passes. It is not, therefore, astonishing, says Volney, that cities like Cairo, Aleppo, and Damascus, should be safer than Genoa, Rome, or Naples; but how dearly is this safety purchased! and how many innocent lives are sacrificed to the partiality and injustice of the wali and his agents! The wali likewise presides over the police of the markets, inspecting the weights and measures, and punishing delinquents with extreme severity. For the smallest deficiency in the weight of bread, meat, dates, or confectionary, he inflicts 500 strokes of the bastinado, and sometimes even death. However, the office of wali does not comprehend various objects of utility that ought to be under the regulation of the police, such as the cleanliness of the streets, and the salubrity of the cities. They are never paved, swept, or watered, neither in Syria, nor in Egypt.

WALILABO, in *Geography*, a river of the island of St. Vincent, which runs into the sea, one mile north from Prince's bay.

WALINCOURT, a town of France, in the department of the north; 6 miles S.S.E. of Cambray.

WALINGHURU, in *Botany*, a name by which some authors have called the plant, of which the medicinal zerum-beth is the root.

WALK, in *Gardening*, a dry firm track in the garden or pleasure-ground, which is formed of different sorts of materials, as gravel, sand, &c.; but where these cannot be procured, it is sometimes laid with powdered coal, sea-coal ashes, and powdered brick: these are, however, rarely used, when either gravel or sand can be procured. Where sea-coal ashes can be had they are preferable to powdered coal or bricks, as they bind very hard, and never flick to the

feet in frosty weather. And for wilderness-walks they are better than most other substances. There are likewise walks sometimes formed of turf, or what are called grafs-walks.

In forming the first sort of walks, when they have been marked out, the earth should be taken away to a certain depth, that the bottoms may be filled with lime-rubbish, coarse gravel, flint-stones, or other rocky materials, to prevent weeds from growing through the gravel, as well as to keep away worm-casts. It should be laid ten inches or a foot thick, over which the coat of gravel should be six or eight inches, which should be very fine, but not screened, the large stones only being taken out. When the gravel has been laid to this thickness, they must be exactly levelled, and raked true from all great drips, as well as little holes: by this means, most of the stones will be raked under the feet, which may either be evenly sprinkled back over the last length that is raked, or buried in the bottom. Walks are frequently laid too round, so as scarcely to be walked upon with pleasure, and so as to lessen the effect of their breadths. The usual allowance for a gravel-walk of five feet breadth, is about an inch rise in the crown: consequently, if twenty feet wide, it will be four inches higher in the middle than on each side; and for twenty-five feet, five inches; for thirty feet, six inches; and so on in the same proportion. When the walk has been carefully laid, trodden down, and raked, either in lengths, or the whole together, it should be rolled well, both in length and cross-ways; the person who rolls wearing shoes with flat heels, that he may not make holes; as, when these are once made in a new walk, they are not easy to roll out again. In order to lay them firm, it will be necessary to give them three or four rollings, after good waterings or heavy rains, as this will cause the gravel to bind, so that when they become dry they will be as hard as terrace. Iron-mould gravel is said to be the best for binding, or such as has a little binding loam amongst it; which latter, though it be apt to tick to the heels of shoes in wet weather, binds better than any thing else in dry weather; and when the gravel is over-sandy or sharp, clay is frequently mixed with it, which, when cast together in heaps and well mixed, binds like a rock: loose gravel is very uncomfortable and uneasy to walk on.

Walks of this sort are not only necessary near the house, but one should always be carried quite round the garden, as being soon dry after rain, and proper for walking on in all seasons and times.

Those about the house should be larger than the others, and laid out according to the particular nature and situation of the grounds in which they are to be formed.

And the walks laid with sand or other materials, in the other different parts of gardens or pleasure-grounds, should be formed in the same manner, having regard to the nature of the soil, so as to render them as dry as possible at all seasons. The breadth in these walks should be in some measure according to the nature of the ground. Where this is small, five or six feet may be sufficient; but in large grounds much wider, as ten or twelve. In modern grounds of this sort, they are mostly laid out in winding or serpentine directions, according to the nature of the scites, so as to have them concealed, and rendered as private as possible, by the trees and plants on their sides; the turns being contrived in as easy and natural a way as can be effected. See *GARDEN, GRAVEL, &c.*

In forming grafs-walks, different methods are had recourse to; but previous to any of which, it is constantly necessary

to have the ground properly prepared by fuitable levelling, treading, and raking, as well as other means, in the view of making the surfaces perfectly firm and even for the purpose. In making walks of small and moderate extents, the common practice is then to have them laid with turf cut from some neighbouring waste-ground, or other place, beating it well down at the time, so as to form a close, smooth, even surface. But where the extents of them are very considerable, it is mostly found more convenient and proper to have the sward formed by the sowing of them with proper grass-seeds at fuitable seasons, in doing which, they should be sown in rather a thick and regular manner, and the seed be raked into the earth in an even way, the surfaces being afterwards, when quite dry, rolled regularly with a moderately heavy roller, in order to render their upper parts level, and to close the earth or mould well over the seeds. See TURNING.

The walks of pleasure-grounds and gardens have a relation to utility as well as ornament. In the former, they are for the most part more spacious and extensive than the necessary ones in those of the common latter kinds, being usually made in conformity with the other decorative compartments, so as to form and constitute variety in the composition of the general plan and design, and for connecting with them, and the pleasure of walking through them, to enjoy the view and beauty of their differently varied arrangements, and the diversified growths of their respective plants, trees, shrubs, flowers, and fruits, as well as any thing else that may be curious.

In the latter, or gardens, they are necessary as forming the communication between the different parts, and for dividing the ground into fuitable portions, as may be needful in any sort of culture, as well as for the purpose of occasional walking on for pleasure, and by way of ornament.

In general, all those walks of the garden, whether of the kitchen or other kinds, may be said to be useful, which are required for the separation of the ground into quarters, beds, and borders, as well as other similar parts; and which serve to connect and lead to the different parts, or from one to another cross-wise; and which extend round them at the distance of a proper border from the boundary fence. And where kitchen-gardens and pleasure-grounds are connected, the principal walks should be of a more capacious nature, having handsome borders on the sides, such borders being destined for small esculent plants, as well as those of the flower and ornamental kind.

Walks which are very much wheeled and wrought upon in kitchen-gardens should always be made of such firm solid materials as the above; but where they cannot be had, good road-stuff, that is, the scrapings of them, may be employed. Grass-walks are never to be had recourse to in these cases.

The walks in the principal divisions, or more conspicuous parts of pleasure-grounds, should in general be of larger dimensions, and more elegantly formed, than those of the ordinary kitchen-garden, those near the residence being often of very considerable width, as already noticed. They should mostly be laid with some of the above sorts of hard materials, though, in some cases, large turf-walks are in use in particular parts.

The walks in pleasure-grounds are usually varied as much as possible, running in winding irregular directions, and occasional varying straight lines, as may be most fuitable to the nature, plan, and quality of the grounds; and the same is the case in large gardens; but in those of the smaller sort, they are commonly made in somewhat straight and cross directions. In most large pleasure-grounds a large walk is

run somewhat parallel to the main residence, extending to the interior of them and the gardens and other parts, having other walks connecting with it, with shrubberies, clumps, and flower-borders; but in some others, the chief walks go off to the right and left towards the sides, leaving the middle parts in lawns with shrubberies, flower-borders, and plantations of other kinds, or lead to some side plantation of a shady nature, as private walks, or are carried forward in an easy, winding, natural manner through the whole extent of the grounds and plantations in different turnings to other more extensive grounds of the nature of parks, &c. at a greater distance; there being other similar smaller walks within the confines of the pleasure-grounds, branching off and diverging in a varied irregular manner to other internal parts of the shady kind, as those of groves, thickets, and shrubberies, as well as to those of the more open and airy sort, as large grass divisions, detached planted clumps, and other kinds, in various bendings for the purpose of exhibiting various views of the different shrubby compartments, trees, plantations, flower-borders, grass lawns, plots of water, and other curious and interesting rural ornaments. However, on the whole, the best and most modern modes of laying out the walks of pleasure-grounds and gardens, are those which most perfectly accord with the nature and situations of them, and which are the most remote from any sort of regularity and formality in their designs.

In ornamented grounds, Mr. London thinks, that walks have partly one of the effects of buildings, which is that of giving force and spirit to the scenes of verdure and cultivation. Their directions, it is supposed, should be dictated by their propriety and convenience, and their width by the utility of them. In respect to their ornamental effects, they chiefly depend upon their margins, their surfaces, and the colour of the materials from which they are formed. In avowedly artificial situations, the first should be parallel to each other, and properly limited; but where the contrary is the case, they should be irregular in their directions as well as compositions, as in natural pleasure-grounds, pasture-fields, parks, forests, dingles, &c. In loose scattered bushy lawns with trees, the sweeps and turns of the walks should, in a comparative degree, be abrupt, the breadths being varied to a great extent, groups of shrubs, or single trees, frequently dividing them, and reducing their widths to narrow courses which are nearly in the same direction, by which they shortly unite again in the same track, and assume their former breadths. Woody banks and commons, it is said, abound with walks of this nature. In thickets and woods, whether of natural trees and undergrowths, or of exotics, as in complete shrubberies, the edges of the walks or paths should be wholly annihilated on both sides, and be bounded only by the irregularity of the lowest growths. Many places, as those of Foxley and Dungslass, afford beauties in full illustration, it is supposed, of the propriety of these principles.

In short, the formal, stiff, harsh edges of made walks, it is thought, constitute one of the most striking deformities in rural works of this kind.

In cases where grass-walks are intended, they should commonly be of some extent in respect to width, as narrow trifling slips have a bad effect, as already seen. In large pleasure-grounds they should be sufficiently spacious to suit their different extents; and in those of the smaller kinds, as well as in gardens, they should seldom have less breadths than eight, ten, or twelve feet. Their situations and directions may be various, according to the nature and positions of the grounds; as some near the residence for ornament and summer-walking upon in dry seasons; others more

distant, in the internal parts, chiefly for variety. They may be laid out in various irregular directions, so as to suit the taste and the nature of the grounds, having broad, irregular borders of flowers, sloping winding shrubberies, and trees or plantations on their sides, and in other parts.

In regard to the general care and management of walks, those of the gravel, sand, or other hard kinds of materials, should be constantly kept in neat and clean order by occasional weeding, sweeping, and cleaning them, and by frequently rolling them well with an iron or stone-roller, as once or twice a week during the summer months, as their surfaces may appear in a loose and disordered state, taking the opportunity of doing it, as often as possible, after showers of rain. This renders them firm and solid, settling any inequalities that may be present, and brings them into a smooth even state of surface. They should also be occasionally rolled in dry open weather, during the winter and spring months, to keep them in a level regular state.

When the surfaces of them become foul, mossy, or full of weeds, the gravel or other materials should be turned, which is best done in the early spring, by means of digging them up to a slight depth, and placing the former surface part downwards, by which the fresh bottom gravel will become the top, and then treading, raking, and rolling the whole well down again, by which means a new clean surface for the ensuing spring and summer seasons is obtained without any great trouble or expence.

The different grass-walks should have the sward constantly kept close and clean by frequent mowing, sweeping, and rolling, during the spring and summer months; and in the winter time by occasional poling and rolling when the weather is open and dry, the former scattering the worm-cast earth about, while the latter, which is commonly of the wooden kind, cleans up the dispersed earth by its adhering to it, and thereby not only renders the surface free from dirt, but the whole surface close, firm, and even, whereby it becomes capable of being mown with ease and facility.

The walks of pleasure-grounds, gardens, and other such places, should never be suffered to have leaves, weeds, or any sort of rubbish, remaining upon them for any length of time, as they soon become injured and spoiled by them.

Where seats are had recourse to in the walks of such grounds, they should be introduced and managed with considerable judgment, taste, and nicety, so as to suit the nature of them and the grounds, and be at the same time as ornamental as possible.

WALK, in the *Manege*, is the slowest and least raised of all a horse's goings. The duke of Newcastle says, that this motion is performed with two legs, diametrically opposite in the air, and two upon the ground at the same time, in form of a St. Andrew's cross; but this, in reality, is the motion of a trot; and accordingly all the latter writers agree, that this author is mistaken, and that the walk is performed, as any one may observe, by the horse's lifting up its two legs on a side, the one after the other, beginning with the hind leg first. Thus, if he leads with the legs of the right side, then the first foot he lifts is the far hind-foot, and in the time he is setting it down (which in a step is always short of the tread of his fore-foot on the same side) he lifts his far fore-foot, and sets it down before his near fore-foot. Again, just as he is setting down his far fore-foot, he lifts up his near hind-foot, and sets it down again just short of his near fore-foot, and just as he is setting it down, he lifts his near fore-foot, and sets it down beyond his far fore-foot.

This is the true motion of a horse's legs in a walk; and this is the pace in which many things are best taught. For

instance, when the horse is to be taught to turn to the right and left, or from one hand to another, he is first to be taught it on the walk, then on the trot, and finally on the gallop.

The walk is a pace to which team, carriage, and road horses, should constantly be well broke, as being of great use in all such cases and intentions. It is an excellent pace, too, in a saddle-horse, when well performed by being properly taught.

WALK, *Ring*, among Hunters. See *RING-Walk*.

WALK, *Terrace*. See *TERRACE*.

WALKS, *Sheep*, in *Agriculture*, the high dry lands where sheep pasture in some districts. These walks and pastures may, it is supposed, be rendered more found and healthy, in some cases, by sowing parts of them with artificial grass seeds, such as those of rye-grass, rib-grass, white clover, or trefoil, and others of the same kind, in mixture with those of the natural grass sort, and keeping them closely fed down in a proper manner. In different instances, a number of valuable plants of this nature are found to rise spontaneously on the foundest sheep-walks, and most of them, when desirable, are capable of being raised and produced by seed as above. Such plants are laid to protect sheep well against the rot or poke, and some other diseases, in such walks and pastures. See *ROT* and *SHEEP*.

WALK-Mill, in *Rural Economy*, a name sometimes applied to the fulling-mill.

WALKÆPETHIGA, in *Botany*, a name by which some authors have called the tree, on which the gum lacca of the thops is usually found.

WALKENRIED, in *Geography*, a town of Germany, in the lordship of Klettenberg, with an abbey, founded in the year 1127, by Adelheid, consort to Volkmar, count of Klettenberg, and countess of Lohra. The doctrine of Luther was introduced in the year 1546; at the peace of Westphalia, the abbey was assigned to the duke of Brunswick; 8 miles N.W. of Nordhausen.

WALKENSEE, a town of Bavaria, situated by the side of a lake of the same name; 18 miles S.S.E. of Weilhaim.

WALKER, ROBERT, in *Biography*, one of the earliest of our portrait painters: he was contemporary with Vandycck, and improved himself by studying the works of that eminent artist. He did not attract much public notice till the time of the Commonwealth, when Cromwell made him his portrait painter, and he drew that extraordinary personage several times. One picture of him by Walker is at Horlieth, the seat of lord Mountford in Cambridgeshire: it was given to his lordship by Mr. Commiffary Greaves, who found it at an inn in that county. Another is at Cashiobury, the earl of Essex's. Another picture of him, with general Lambert, was in lord Bradford's collection. A fourth was purchased at the cost of 500l. for the grand duke of Tuscany. Walker had for some time an apartment in Arundel House, and died a little before the Restoration. His own picture which is a very fair specimen of his power is in the gallery at Oxford.

WALKER, GEORGE, F.R.S., a dissenting divine, and eminent mathematician, was born at Newcastle-upon-Tyne, about the year 1734, and completed his education at the university of Edinburgh, under the celebrated mathematician Dr. Matt. Stewart, and at Glasgow, where he studied theology and ethics. In 1756 he settled at Durham as a dissenting minister, and thence removed to Yarmouth, where he remained for some years, and was highly esteemed. During his residence at Yarmouth he

married; and soon after, in 1772, he undertook the office of mathematical tutor at the academy in Warrington. In this place he published, in 1775, his "Doctrine of the Sphere," a work highly appreciated, not only as a complete treatise on the subject, but as a model of geometrical demonstration. In the same year he removed to Nottingham, and became one of the ministers of the high pavement meeting-house. Ardently attached to the principles of liberty, and feeling no diffidence or timidity in the declaration of his sentiments, his talents and disposition concurred to give him influence amongst those who assembled for political purposes; and his characteristic energy of spirit and style is discernible in the addresses and petitions that issued from the corporation of the town. Of one of these productions Mr. Burke declared, that he had rather have been the author of it than of all his own compositions. So much was Mr. Walker esteemed for his talents and temper, that those who detested his political principles fought his company and conversation, and both honoured and loved him. His hospitality and beneficence far exceeded his ability. After a residence of twenty-four years at Nottingham, he was induced by a variety of circumstances to undertake the office of theological tutor and director of a dissenting academy at Manchester. For the office of superintendant of a public ceremony he was not peculiarly qualified, either by the liberal disposition of his mind, or the habits of his life; and he soon found this situation unpleasant to him, more especially as he was now advancing in years, and relaxation from constant labour became essential to his enjoyment. He therefore quitted this connection, and retired to the vicinity of Liverpool. Since he had left Warrington, he had published several single sermons; two volumes of sermons, characterized by original thought and fervid expression; "An Appeal to the People of England," upon the test-laws, much admired and commended by Mr. Fox; and the first part of a "Treatise on Conic Sections," referred to with deserved commendation in our article *CONIC SECTIONS*. In 1807 Mr. Walker visited London, in order to publish two additional volumes of sermons, and two volumes of Philosophical essays; but he was seized with a disorder, which terminated his life at the age of seventy-three, and his remains were interred in Bunhill-fields, on which occasion Dr. Rees delivered, at the vault, an oration, which was printed by his friends, and which contained a brief sketch of his character. "To a stock of classical knowledge," says one of his biographers, "he added an intimate acquaintance with history, ancient and modern, a familiarity with the best authors of various classes, a natural and glowing eloquence, and a heart, in which every kind and social affection occupied a place." Athenæum.

WALKER'S COVE, in *Geography*, a harbour on the west coast of North America, in Behm's canal: so called from Mr. Walker, surgeon of the Chatham. N. lat. 55° 42'. E. long. 220° 20'.

WALKER'S KEY, one of the small Bahama islands. N. lat. 26° 50'. W. long. 78° 54'.

WALKERIA, in *Botany*, was so called by Schreber, in just commemoration of the founder of the botanic garden at Cambridge, the Rev. Richard Walker, D.D. vice master of Trinity-college. To this foundation a lectureship is attached, and both together are in the gift of five trustees, unshackled by any of those limitations which usually tend only to defeat the purpose of such establishments; for Dr. Walker expressly orders, by his will, that any person, even a foreigner, shall be eligible to the appointment, and may, if he pleases, read his lectures in Latin. The present worthy professor of botany, the Rev.

Thomas Martyn, B.D. is the only person who has hitherto held the lectureship in question, of which, as long as his health would permit, he regularly performed the duties. Another *Walkeria*, in honour of the same liberal patron of botanic science, was named by Miller and Ehret; but that genus having accidentally had various previous appellations, is now established by the Linnæan one of *NOLANA*, which the reader will find in its proper place.—Schreb. Gen. 150. Willd. Sp. Pl. v. 1. 1145. Mart. Mill. Dict. v. 4. (Meesia; Gært. t. 70. Lamarck Illustr. t. 143.)—Clafs and order, *Pentandria Monogynia*. Nat. Ord. uncertain; akin to *OCHNEA*.

Gen. Ch. *Cal.* Perianth inferior, of one leaf, in five ovate, acute, concave, spreading, permanent segments. *Cor.* Petals five, lanceolate, acute, spreading, rather longer than the calyx. *Stam.* Filaments five, capillary, ascending, half the length of the petals; anthers roundish. *Pist.* Germen superior, globular, five-cleft; style bristle-shaped, erect, as tall as the stamens; stigma simple. *Peric.* Drupus five, obovate-kidney-shaped, of one cell. *Seed.* Nut solitary, kidney-shaped, rather bony.

Eff. Ch. Calyx inferior, in five deep permanent segments. Corolla of five petals. Drupus five. Nuts solitary, kidney-shaped.

1. *W. ferrata*. Serrated *Walkeria*. Willd. n. 1. (Meesia ferrata; Gært. v. 1. 344. Tsjocatti; Rheede Hort. Malab. v. 5. 95. t. 48.)—Native of various parts of the Malabar coast, flowering and bearing fruit at various seasons. We have not heard of this plant in any garden, nor are its dried specimens frequent in collections. The stem is shrubby, about twelve feet high, with round, smooth, leafy, alternate branches. Leaves evergreen, smooth and shining, alternate, on short stalks, elliptic-lanceolate, acute, more or less evidently and acutely serrated, four or five inches long, furnished with a strong mid-rib, and many fine, transverse, reticulated veins. *Stipules* none. *Panicles* terminal, with racemose, compound, angular, smooth flower-stalks. *Flowers* yellowish, about half an inch in diameter, without scent. *Fruit* reddish, shining, acid and bitter, seated on the dark-red enlarged calyx. Some of the drupus, in each flower, are often abortive. The qualities of the various parts of this shrub seem to be of an astringent and tonic nature.

Gertner gives, as a synonym to his *Meesia*, *Walkera*, a Ceylon name, found attached to the seeds in the collection at Leyden, from which he made his figure and description. Schreber, in adopting Gertner's genus, found it necessary to change his name, *MEESIA* being appropriated to a genus of mosses, which however is now sunk in *BRYUM*; see those articles. We presume he meant to re-establish the old name *Walkeria*, of which, therefore, we retain the proper orthography. It is not to be supposed that, in this instance alone, he would adopt an entirely barbarous appellation; but the coincidence is singular. Even this appellation indeed proves to be corrupt. We have fought it in vain in Hermann's *Museum Zeylanicum*, but we find there *Malkira*, p. 9, whence, no doubt, it originated; for Linnæus has written *Ochna* against this *Malkira* in his own copy of Hermann's work, the very copy used by him in writing his *Flora Zeylanica*; and the description of the leaves in p. 93, 94, of the latter book, shews his *Ochna*, var. α , to be our *Walkeria ferrata*, whatever doubt may attach to Burmann's t. 56.

WALKERS, a sort of forest-officers, appointed by the king to walk about a certain space of ground, committed to their care and inspection.

Walkers are the same with what we otherwise call foresters.

WALKERSPACH, in *Geography*, a river of Wurtemberg, which runs into the Rems.

WALKERTON, a town of Virginia, on the Mattaponi; 30 miles N.E. of Richmond.

WALKING-FIRE. See *IGNIS Fatuus*.

WALKOOG, in *Geography*, a town of Holland; 10 miles N. of Alcaer.

WALKUFFA, in *Botany*, a tree which grows in the Kolla, or hottest part of Abyssinia. This does not flower immediately after the rains, like the other Abyssinian trees, that is, between the beginning of September and the Epiphany, but towards the middle of January it appears first covered with flowers. Although beautiful, it has no smell, and is found to be destructive to bees, so that it is rooted up in those countries that pay their revenue in honey. In its appearance it resembles the English Kentish cherry-tree: the wood immediately under the bark is white, but under that a brownish-yellow, somewhat like cedar. Although the wood is heavy, it swims in water, contrary to the opinion of the natives. Mr. Bruce has given a botanical description of this tree in the Appendix to his Travels.

WALL, in *Architecture*, &c. a work of stone, brick, or the like, making the principal part of a building; as serving both to enclose it, and to support the roof, floors, &c.

Walls, though built very thick and strong, and their foundations laid deep, yet, if carried on straight in a line, are apt to lean, or fall; and such as are built crooked, though thin and weak, are much more lasting. A wall raised over a river, on arches of pillars, stands as firm as others, whose foundation is entire.

Hence, it appears, that a wall built much thinner than usual, by only having at every twenty-feet distance an angle set out about two feet, or more, in proportion to the height of the wall; or by having, at the like distance, a column, or pilaster, erected along with it, six or eight inches on each side, over and above the thickness of the rest of the wall, will be much stronger than if five times the quantity of materials were used in a straight wall.

Walls are distinguished into divers kinds, from the matter of which they consist; as *plastered or mud-walls*, *brick-walls*, *stone-walls*, *flint*, or *boulder-walls*, and *boarder-walls*. In all which these general rules are to be regarded:

1. That they be built exactly perpendicular to the ground-work.

2. That the massiest and heaviest of materials be the lowest; as being fitter to bear, than be borne.

3. That the walls, as they rise, diminish proportionally in thickness, for ease both of weight and expence.

4. That certain courses, or ledges, of more strength than the rest, be interlaid, like bones, to strengthen the whole fabric.

Mud and plastered walls are chiefly used in ordinary timber-buildings. These walls, being quartered and lathed between the timber, or sometimes lathed over all, are plastered over again with white mortar.

In the constructing of brick-walls, which are the most important and usual of any kind, it is necessary to take particular care in laying and managing the materials; that in summer they be laid as wet, and in winter as dry as possible, in order that they may be made to bind the better with the mortar; that in summer, too, they be covered over as fast as they are laid, in the view of guarding and preventing the mortar and other matters from drying too quickly. That in winter also, they be covered well, to protect them from heavy rain, snow, and frost, which are all enemies to, and greatly destructive of mortar; that they be laid joint on

joint, in the middle of the walls, as seldom as may be; so that good bond be made there as well as on the out-sides. Care is likewise to be taken that the angles be firmly bound, as they may be considered as the nerves and sinews of the whole fabric. In order to which, in working up such walls, it is not advisable to raise any of them above eight feet in height, before the next adjoining ones be brought up to them; so that a good bond may be made as the work proceeds. It may be noticed that a wall of this kind, a brick and a half thick, with the joint, will be in breadth fourteen inches, or very near it; and in which one hundred and fifty, or one hundred and sixty bricks will lay a yard square, measured on the face of the wall; and that to the square of ten feet, seventeen or eighteen hundred bricks are usually allowed.

In building a house in the city of London, the walls are to be of such thicknesses as are enjoined by act of parliament. See **BUILDING**, and **PARTY-walls**.

In the forming of stone-walls, the same sort of care and attention is requisite in protecting and preserving them from the injurious effects of external causes of the above kinds, as well as in that of building them in a solid and secure manner. The foundations are also to be well looked to. The two sides or faces are to be evenly carried up, and the fillings to be put well and sufficiently in the middle parts between them, proper long stones being occasionally placed across, to bind the two faces securely together, and prevent their separating. These attentions are equally necessary in the stone-walls of buildings, as in those of the better sort of stone-walls for other uses and purposes.

In the raising of double walls in this way, as defences in fields and grounds, which is sometimes done, the faces may be bound in, where proper stones as throughs cannot be had, by thin layers or strips of the stones, laid in mortar, at about every fourteen inches in height, as they rise, the mortar being in such cases kept soft, so as that it may lay firm hold of the stones. And with the similar intention of keeping them upright, and preventing their separation, they may be carried up with a considerable inclination inward, towards each other, tapering upward as they rise, in the proportion of about one inch, on each side, to every foot or foot and a half of rise or height.

In raising single field-walls, which is not uncommon in some high situations, and where large stones are met with in plenty upon the surface of the land, two benefits are attained, in some cases, by running them up in as open a manner as the nature of the materials will permit, so as to form good work. Such open-work walls are less liable to be thrown down by the winds in such exposed situations, than those of the close kind; which is an inconvenience to which single walls are exposed in such cases; as by means of part of the blatt passing through them, its force is considerably diminished. And the wild mountain-breeds of sheep are less apt to scale walls so constructed, than they are those which are formed in a closer manner, and have a more solid appearance. This is particularly the case if they be laid with small stones loosely on the tops.

It is said that stone-walls of the field sort, which are apt to shatter with frosts, if laid only a foot deep in the middle with mortar, or even road-stuff made into it, are held well together, and become durable.

Flint, or boulder-walls, are said to be much used, in some parts of the counties of Sussex and Kent, for fence-walls in surrounding court-yards, gardens, and other such places. In performing the work of building them, a right and left-handed man suits well, as they have the hod of mortar poured down upon the work, which they part between them,

them, each spreading it towards himself, and in this way they lay in the flints; the mortar in this case being made very stiff. Stone and earth walls are only of a temporary, and not by any means of a complete nature; they may, however, in some cases, serve to defend rabbit-warrens and other such places, when stones are not wholly to be had for the purpose, and they are formed and constructed in a proper manner. They are, however, very apt to be thrown down by large animals, and to be soon destroyed, consequently to be expensive in the end.

Turf or sod walls are in pretty much the same situation in regard to their use, and form but a very indifferent sort of defence; they are, however, found useful on some occasions, where other kinds of materials cannot be met with.

Boarded walls are only had recourse to in particular cases, as from their perishable nature they are constantly required to be kept coated over with some substance as a protection at a considerable expence. They are formed in several different ways, according to the nature of the circumstances, and their intended uses.

Walls of different kinds, and banks of earth, are sometimes employed in defending plantations of young trees from the injuries to which they are liable and exposed in many cases; and in some situations they form cheap and eligible modes of effecting the business.

In speaking of building field-walls, Mr. London has remarked, that when lime is employed in such walls, if, in place of slacking it, and letting it lie to mellow or four for some weeks, no more were slaked and made ready for use than what was worked up in the same day;—if the sand were clean and rough, and well incorporated with the lime, and the coping put carefully on, such walls would last an inconceivable length of time. Lime used in this way, it is said, binds immediately; and that the longer it stands the harder it becomes. The surfaces of such walls, too, would acquire a coating of mosses, which, it is thought, would add greatly to their beauty, and at the same time prevent decay. Our ancestors, it is said, used lime in this way; and their buildings, in walls of the field kind, as well as in houses, though under every disadvantage, remain, it is observed, as monuments of their superior knowledge in this particular. But the modern builders in general, it is thought, destroy their mortar before they make use of it: it is saturated, it is said, with fixed air, or, in common language, has *lost band* before it is put in the walls: hence the weakness and speedy decay of modern walls and buildings, especially those of the rubble work kind. A proper notion of the importance of this hint is, it is thought, too seldom formed. But let it be asked, whether it be most desirable to build walls that will stand for centuries with little or no repair, or to build them in the common way, when, if they stand half a century, they are to be pointed or rough casted every eight or ten years; while the different modes cost nearly the same in the original expence?

The uses of stone-walls as field defences are limited to particular districts and situations, and the nature of their construction and magnitude must rest materially upon the kinds and sizes of the stones which are employed, and the purposes for which they are designed. In erecting such walls, those of the particular vicinity should be attended to, and the most suitable forms of them adopted, proper estimates of their expence of building being first procured. See FENCE.

WALL, *Angle of a*. See ANGLE.

WALL, *Coping of a*. See COPING.

WALL, *Plinth of a*. See PLINTH.

WALL, *Scenography of a*. See SCENOGRAPHY.

WALLS, *Painting on*. See PAINTING.

WALLS, *Fence*. See FENCE, and LAND, *Inclofing of*.

WALLS, *Party*. See PARTY.

WALL, *Piñs*. See PICTS.

WALLS, *Roman*, were barriers or defences constructed by the Romans for securing the northern frontiers of their British territories. Where they could not avail themselves of seas, firths, rivers, woods, and mountains, for their protection, they had recourse to a variety of artificial modes of defence; guarding those parts of their frontiers that were most accessible by chains of forts, deep ditches, elevated mounds and ramparts of earth, and even stone-walls: Agricola, having in the second year of his government, A.D. 79, conducted his army northwards, and reduced the Brigantes, the Ottadini, the Gadeni, and perhaps the Selgovæ, to obedience, obliged them to give hostages, and begirt them with garriſons and fortresses to secure his conquest. The forts which he built are supposed to have been on or near the tract where Adrian's rampart and Severus's wall were afterwards erected. In his third year he proceeded as far N. as the river Tay, and in the following summer employed his forces in constructing a chain of forts between the firths of Forth and Clyde. The spot was wisely chosen for this purpose; and this chain of forts, each of which was garriſoned and furnished with provisions for a year, served to keep the adjacent country in obedience, and restrained the incursions of the Caledonians, while Agricola prosecuted his operations in Britain. But by the negligence of his successors, these forts became an insufficient security after his departure. Although little is known of the occurrences that filled up the interval between the departure of Agricola, A.D. 85, and the arrival of Adrian A.D. 120; yet we have sufficient reason for believing, that the British nation, in the south of Scotland and in the north of England, had in that interval thrown off the Roman yoke. The emperor Adrian, more intent upon securing than enlarging his empire, contracted its limits in Britain; and for its protection dug a deep ditch, and threw up a lofty and spacious rampart from sea to sea; and this was the second artificial barrier of the Roman territories in Britain. This rampart was constructed of earth, and extended from the Solway firth, a little W. of the village of Burgh on the Sands, in as direct a line as possible, to the river Tyne on the east, at the place where the town of Newcastle now stands; so that it must have been above sixty English, and near seventy Roman miles in length. This work consisted of the principal Agger or Vallum (rampart) on the brink of the ditch; the ditch on the N. side of the Vallum; another agger or mound of earth on the S. side of the principal vallum or rampart, at about five paces distant from it, which may be called the fourth agger; and a large agger or mound on the N. side of the ditch, denominated the north agger. This last is supposed by Horſley to have been the military way to the ancient line of forts, built by Agricola, and also serving as a military way to this work. The fourth agger is supposed to have been made for an inner defence, in case the enemy might beat its defenders from any part of the principal rampart, or to protect the soldiers against a sudden attack from the Provincial Britons. It is generally somewhat smaller than the principal rampart, but in some places it is larger. These four works preserve a constant parallelism one to another. The distance of the north agger or mound from the brink of the ditch is about twenty feet. It is conjectured that the principal rampart was at least ten or twelve feet high; the fourth one not much less, but the north one considerably lower. The ditch was near nine feet deep, and

eleven feet wide at the top, but somewhat narrower at the bottom. Such was the rampart or defence erected by command of the emperor Adrian, A.D. 120, for guarding the Roman territories to the south of it from the incursions of the Britons on the north. This work was defended by a competent number of Roman soldiers and auxiliary troops, who garrisoned the forts and stations, which were situated at proper distances along the line of it. Most, if not all, of these forts and stations had been fixed and constructed before by Agricola and others. Adrian's rampart, however, did not long continue to be the extreme boundary of the Roman territories to the north in Britain; for Antoninus Pius, having brought the *Mœatæ* again under the yoke, commanded another rampart to be erected much farther north, between the firths of Forth and Clyde, in the tract where Agricola had formerly built his chain of forts. From an inscription on the fragment of a Roman pillar, it is inferred that this work was executed in the third consulship of Antoninus, A.D. 140. This wall or rampart, as some imagine, reached from Caer-riden on the firth of Forth to Old-Kirkpatrick on the Clyde; or, as others think, from Kinniel on the E. to Dungalas on the W. Its length appears to have been about 37 English or 40 Roman miles. Capitolinus says, that it was constructed of turf; but from remaining vestiges it is concluded with certainty that the foundation was stone. Camden says, that the principal rampart was faced with square stone, to prevent the earth from falling into the ditch. Its chief parts were as follow:—A broad and deep ditch, said to be twelve feet wide; the principal wall or rampart, about twelve feet thick at the foundation, situated on the S. brink of the ditch; a military way on the S. side of the principal wall, well paved, and raised a little above the level of the ground. This work, as well as that of Adrian, was defended by garrisons placed in forts and stations along its line. The number of these was eighteen, at the distance of two miles from each other. In the intervals between the forts, there were turrets or watch-towers. After the lapse of more than 1600 years, we are enabled to ascertain by what particular bodies of Roman troops almost every part of it was executed. This discovery is made by means of inscriptions upon stones, originally fixed in the face of the wall, and found near its ruins. The number of stones with inscriptions now extant is eleven; and from these it appears in general, that this great work was executed by the second legion, the vexillations of the sixth legion and of the twentieth legion, and one cohort of auxiliaries. If these corps were all complete, they would compose a body of 7800 men. This wall was not long the boundary of the Roman territories in Britain; for we are told, by an author of undoubted credit (Dio), that, in the reign of Commodus, A.D. 180, he had wars with several foreign nations, but none so dangerous as that of Britain; for the people of that island, having passed the wall which divided them from the Romans, attacked them and cut them to pieces. We also know, that the country between the walls of Adrian and Antoninus continued to be a scene of perpetual war and subject of contention, between the Romans and Britons, from the beginning of the reign of Commodus to the arrival of the emperor Septimius Severus in Britain, A.D. 206. This last emperor, having subdued the *Mœatæ*, and repulsed the Caledonians, determined to erect a stronger and more impenetrable barrier than any of the former, against their future incursions. This last wall, the greatest of all the Roman works in Britain, was begun A.D. 209, and finished A.D. 210.

It was built nearly on the same tract with that of the rampart of Adrian, at the distance only of a few paces

north. Its length, from *Coufins-houfe* near the mouth of the river *Tine* on the east to *Boulness* on the *Solway firth* on the west, was a little more than 68 English miles, and a little less than 74 Roman miles. To the north of the wall was a broad and deep ditch, supposed to have been larger than that of Adrian. The wall itself, standing on the brink of the ditch, was built of solid stone, strongly cemented with the best mortar; the stones which formed both the faces being square ashlers, and the filling stones large flags, set a little slanting. The height of this wall was twelve feet besides the parapet, and its breadth eight feet, according to Bede, who lived near the W. end of it, and in whose time it was almost entire in many places. Considering the length, breadth, height, and solidity of this wall of Severus, it was without doubt a work of prodigious labour and extraordinary magnificence. But the wall itself was only a part, and not the most distinguishing part of this work. The great number and different kinds of fortresses which were built along the line of it for its defence, and the military ways that pertained to it, are much more worthy of admiration; for an account of which see *STATIONS*. The castella, or castles, were the second kind of fortifications, which were built along the line of this wall for its defence. They were neither so large nor so strong as the stations, but much more numerous, being no fewer than eighty-one. They were exact squares of sixty-six feet every way; fortified on every side with thick and lofty walls, but without any ditch, except on the N. side, on which the wall itself, raised much above its usual height, with the ditch attending it, formed the fortification. The castles were situated in the intervals between the stations, at the distance of about seven furlongs from each other. In these castles, guards were constantly kept by a competent number of men detached from the nearest stations. The towers, or turrets, were much smaller than the castles, forming a square of about twelve feet, and standing out of the wall on its S. side. (See *TURRETS*.) The usual complement of troops allotted to the defence of this, consisted of twelve cohorts of foot, each cohort including 600 men, one cohort of mariners in the station at *Boulness*, one detachment of Moors, probably equal to a cohort, and four alæ or wings of horse, consisting at the lowest computation of 400 each; the whole number being 10,000. For the convenience of their march from one part of the wall to another, to the wall were annexed two military ways, paved with square stones, in the most solid and beautiful manner, one larger, and one smaller: the latter ran close along the S. side of the wall, from turret to turret, and castle to castle, for the use of the soldiers in relieving their guards and sentinels, and such services; the larger way was not so near the wall, nor did it touch at the turrets or castles, but pursued the most direct course from one station to another, and was designed for the convenience of marching large bodies of troops. This wall of Severus proved an impenetrable barrier to the Roman territories for near 200 years. But about the beginning of the fifth century, the *Mœatæ* and Caledonians, now called Scots and Picts, took advantage of the withdrawal of many of the Roman forces from Britain, and broke through the wall, while others failed round the ends, carrying their ravages into the very heart of Provincial Britain. These invaders were often repulsed by Roman legions sent to the relief of the Britons; and the last of these legions, under the command of *Gallio* of *Ravenna*, assisted by the Britons, regained the walls and its fortresses, and then took their last farewell of Britain. The Scots and Picts found little resistance in breaking through the wall, whose towers and castles were tamely abandoned to their destructive rage. In many places they

WALL.

they levelled it with the ground; and in subsequent times it was so far disregarded, that it became the common quarry for more than 1000 years, and of which all the towns and villages around were built; and it is now so entirely ruined, that the most patient and penetrating antiquarian can hardly trace its vanishing foundations. Henry's History, vol. ii. See *PICTS Wall*, and *SCOTLAND*.

WALLS, Sea. See *DIKE*.

WALL, in Fortification. See *RAMPART*.

WALL, in Gardening, a sort of fence erection in gardens, composed of hard materials, built for the purpose of ripening all such fruits as are too delicate to be perfected in this climate, without such assistance. Walls are raised with different kinds of materials, as stone, brick, earth, or mud, &c. according as they can be best procured, and at the cheapest rate. But for fruit-trees, brick is the best, as being not only the handsomest, but the warmest and kindest for the ripening of fruit, as well as affording the best convenience of nailing; for smaller nails will serve in them than in stone-walls, where the joints are larger; and brick-walls, with copings of free-stone, and stone pilasters or columns at proper distances, to separate the trees, and break off the force of the winds, make not only the most beautiful but the most profitable walls that can be erected.

Rammed earth-walls, as well as those formed of muddy clay, answer very well in some intentions, being very close, compact, and warm.

Sometimes walls are built of mixed materials, as stones and bricks; but in this way they should be carefully built, or the brick front will separate from the stone behind.

Where walls are built entirely of stone, there should be trellises fixed up against them, for the more convenient fastening the branches of the trees: the timber of these espaliers need not, however, be more than an inch and a half thick, and about two inches and a half broad. These should be fixed across each other, at about four inches distance; for if they are at a much greater distance, it will be difficult to fasten the shoots of the trees properly. As this trellis will be laid close to the wall, the branches of the trees will lie about two inches from the wall; in which position the fruit ripens better than when it lies quite close to the wall.

Many improvements have been attempted in building walls in different forms, as in semicircular methods, in angles of various forms, and projecting more towards the north, to screen off the cold winds; but not any method has yet been found which succeeds so well as that of making them straight, and building them in an upright manner. Something of the long-oval from east to west might probably be beneficial in the production of fruit, as there would be the smallest space of it hid from the influence of the sun at any one time.

Many other schemes of expediting the ripening of fruits on walls have been tried, such as painting them black, or of a dark colour, as the dark colour is supposed to imbibe more of the sun's rays, and retain the warmth longer. This has, however, on the same principle, answered better in theory than practice.

Walls, where substantially built, answer much better than those which are slight, not only in their duration, but also in their warmth. A wall two bricks thick will be found to answer better than one brick and a half; and if, in the building of garden-walls, they are grouted with soft mortar, to fill and close all the joints, the walls will be much stronger, and the air not so easily penetrate through them, as it does through those which are built in the usual manner.

In respect to the aspect for walls in this climate, those

which have one point to the eastward of the south are the best, as they enjoy the benefit of the morning sun more, and are less exposed to the west and south-west winds, which are very injurious to fruits, than those which are built due south: and the next best aspect is due south, and after that the south-east. But as there will, for the most part, be south-west and west walls, these may be planted with some sorts of fruit which do not require so much heat to ripen them as those designed for the best walls: but wherever there are north walls, those will only be proper for baking pears, plums, and morello cherries, for preserving; or duke cherries may be planted against these walls, to continue them longer in the season.

The usual thickness of building walls with brick is thirteen inches, or a brick and a half; but this should be proportionable to the height: for if they are built twelve or fourteen feet high, or more, as is often practised, then the foundations of the walls should be at least two bricks and a half in thickness, and brought up a foot or more above the level of the surface of the ground, of the same thickness; then be set off two inches on each side, which reduces them to two bricks; and five or six feet above the surface of the ground, they may be diminished on each side, to reduce them to the thickness of a brick and a half, which must be continued to the top. The piers in these high walls should also be proportionably stronger than is commonly allowed to lower walls; for, as being more exposed to strong gales of wind, if they are not well built, they are in danger of being blown down. The piers in these cases should be projected the length of a brick in the back side, and the thickness of a brick in the front, and be built about ten or twelve feet asunder. There is, however, no necessity for building walls higher than nine or ten feet, unless for pears. Mr. London, however, thinks that garden-walls should seldom be made lower than twelve or thirteen feet, and that they never need be higher than sixteen, except where they are connected with buildings of the hot-house kind.

In building of hot-walls, the ordinary height is usually about ten feet, which is sufficient for any of those sorts of fruits that are generally forced; for by forcing the trees, they are mostly weakened in their growth, so that they do not grow so vigorously as those which are exposed to the open air; and where there is not a quantity of walling planted sufficient to let one part rest every other year, the trees are never very healthy, and last but a few years. In these walls the foundations should be made four bricks and a half thick, in order to support the flues; otherwise, if part of them rest on brick-work, and the other part on the ground, they will settle unequally, and soon be out of order: for wherever there happens any crack in the flues, through which the smoke can make its escape, it will prevent their drawing; and if the smoke gets within the glasses, it will greatly injure the fruit, and give it a smoky taste. This thickness of wall need not be continued more than six inches above the ground, where the foundation or the bottom of the first flue should be, which will be sufficient to raise it above the damps of the earth: then the wall may be set off four inches on each side, which will reduce it to the thickness of three bricks and a half, so that the back wall may be two bricks thick, which is absolutely necessary to throw the heat out more in front; for when the back walls are built too thin, the heat escapes through them. The wall in front next to the fruit should be only four inches thick, whereby there will be an allowance of nine inches for the flues, which may be covered with twelve-inch tiles; for if they have an inch and a half bearing on each side, it will be sufficient. The places in which the fires are made must be contrived on the

the back side of the walls, which should be in number proportionable to the length of the walls. The length usually allowed for each fire to warm is forty feet, though they do very well for fifty feet: they should be shedded over with brick and tile, to keep out the wind and rain, otherwise the fires will not burn equally; and as it is quite necessary to have the fire-places or ovens below the foundation of the first flues, there must be steps down into the sheds, to come to the mouth of them to supply the fuel: of course, they should not be narrower than eight feet in the clear. Where the length of walling requires two ovens, they may be in the middle, being included in one shed, which will save expence, and allow more room to attend the fires; as, in this case, the sheds must be at least ten feet long, but not more than six in breadth, the steps down being at one end.

In regard to the lower flue, through which the smoke first passes from the fire, it may be two feet and a half deep: of course, the back wall should be at least two bricks and a half thick, as high as the top of this flue; and then it may be set off to two bricks, which must be continued to the top of the wall. The second flue, which should return over the first, may be made two feet; the third, a foot and a half; and the fourth, one foot deep; which four flues, with their coverings, will rise near eight feet in height, so that there will be about two feet left for fixing of the frames at the top to support the glasses, and for the coping of the wall: these four returns will be sufficient to warm the air in the frames. But in the carrying up these walls, some strong iron hooks should be well fastened at convenient distances, projecting about two inches from the wall, to which the trellis must be fastened, which is to support the trees. The flues must be well pargeted with loam on their inside, and loam be spread under the tiles which cover them, to the thickness of the hooks, that the flues may be very smooth. At each end of these flues small arches should be turned in the back walls, in such a manner that there may be holes opening to clean the flues of soot, whenever there is a necessity for it. With respect to the borders in the front of these walls, they should be about four feet wide, which will make a sufficient declivity for the sloping glasses; and on the outside of them should be low walls, rising four or six inches above the level of the borders, upon which the plate of timber must be laid, on which the sloping glasses are to rest. The glasses must be divided into two ranges, being contrived in such a manner, as that the upper row may slide down, and be fastened at suitable distances, but the lower may be either fixed or moveable; and the sloping timbers, which support the glass-frames, must be fastened at bottom into the ground-plate in the front of the border, and at the top into strong iron cramps, fixed in the upper part of the wall for the purpose. They are best made of fir, which does not twilt, as oak and some other wood, where it is laid in such position; and on the top should be fixed, in a close manner, a strong board, under which the upper row of glasses should slide, in order to secure the upper part of the glasses from being raised by the winds, and keep the wet from the trees. It may project on the top glasses about two inches. The width of the frames may be about three feet, or according to the extent of the wall, the bars being placed lengthways of them. See STOVE, and WALL, *Hollow or Forcing*.

Walls in gardens are not only of great utility, importance, and advantage, as serving the purpose of defences against external injuries, and as sheltering against cold, cutting winds, high stormy blasts, and all sorts of severe exposure, but also as affording the means of having different sorts of fruit-trees trained against them, for the production

of finer, more early, and better perfected fruit. Indeed, without their assistance, many of the more tender sorts of fruit-trees cannot be made to mature and ripen their fruit in any full perfection, in this climate.

These are those of the peach, nectarine, apricot, vine, fig, and other similar kinds, all of which stand in need of nearly the best full south walls to produce their fruits in the fullest and finest proportion, having their branches trained in close, in a regular expanding manner upon them, in order to have the full benefit of their warmth and protection during the time of their early blossoming, and setting their fruits in the spring months; and afterwards to obtain the most complete influence and advantage of the sun, in bringing them forward in the most effectual manner to the above noticed state of maturity, in due season, and with the greatest richness of flavour.

Walls are likewise useful for most or all of the more common hardy sorts of fruit-trees, notwithstanding they are capable of producing good fruits abundantly without the aid of them, as they are thereby afforded more early, and in superior states of perfection as to size, beauty, and fineness of flavour. Where any of the better sorts of these have the advantage of being grown against a south, south-west, or east wall, their fruits become ripe early, and in a perfectly mature manner; and commonly the early as well as later kinds acquire still more improved states of perfection and fineness of flavour, some of them for immediate eating, others for keeping different lengths of time. This is the case in the chief sorts of the cherry kind, in the choicer sorts of plums, the capital sorts of the finest eating pears, of the summer, autumn, and winter kinds; as also in some highly valued sorts of the eating apples of these different seasons.

And by planting some of these several hardy sorts of fruit-trees against walls fully to the south, others against those which have a westerly aspect, and a few on those towards the east and north, the best sorts of their different fruits will be produced in succession, both at an early and late period.

Where walls are situated in the interior parts of garden grounds, or near their boundaries, with pieces of ground and boundary fences exterior to them, they may be furnished and planted with the most choice sorts of fruit-trees on both sides, suiting them to the nature of the aspect, in both the tenderer and more hardy kinds, some being placed on the full south walls, others on the west and east aspects of them, as well as on their northern exposures; however, in general, allotting those of the best sorts, of the former as well as latter description, to the walls with southern exposures or aspects, as all those of the peach, nectarine, apricot, vine, fig, and other like sorts of the tender varieties of fruit-trees, as noticed already; and some of those of the finest kinds of cherries, plums, pears, and apples, in the more hardy fruit-tree kinds.

The less fine kinds of all or most of these tender and hardy sorts, but chiefly of the latter, may be planted against the walls which have western and eastern aspects; and those which have northern exposures or aspects may have some of the latter sorts, as some kinds of summer pears, plums, morello cherries, and currants, for later successional ripening, placed against them.

Experience has now pretty fully shewn, that the crops of fruit are the most abundant, and of the best quality, where the walls, against which the trees are arranged and nailed, are well built in the perfectly straight form, as they protect the blossoms and young fruit in the most favourable manner for the purpose.

WALL, *Hollow or Forcing*, that sort of wall which is constructed

fructed in such a manner as to contain fire-heat for the purpose of forwarding and ripening the fruit of the trees planted and trained against it at an early season, as already seen in speaking of garden-walls. It is commonly supplied with a frame of glass-work in the front of it, extending to different distances according to circumstances; but is sometimes without this convenience, in which case the most material circumstance, besides the arrangements for the conveyance of the fire-heat, is that of the furnace, and the contriving and constructing of a covering of canvass or netting which is to be let down over the trees in severe weather, and in the night time. The flues being constructed in such a manner as to distribute the fire-heat equally over the whole, and of sufficient thickness to prevent its too great escape or dissipation, the most fit and best adapted furnace for the purpose, is that made in the foundry of Cook and others in London, as well as in those of some other places, and which is employed in most modern hot-houses, to which a damper is connected. Its great superiority has been found, in a striking manner, in many different instances where trials were made with it by Mr. London. The covering is best contrived and constructed of Scotch gauze, or a small sort of netting, on small rafters fixed from the top of the wall into the border about three feet distance from the roots of the trees; along the lower ends of which the roller for containing the covering is to be fastened; when by means of cords and pulleys it can readily and with facility be drawn up to the top of the wall, or rolled down, as there may be occasion.

On all walls of the hollow or forcing kind, a covering of this nature is essentially necessary, and should not be omitted, as is too often the case, as it is of much importance in preserving the heat, and preventing the chilling effects of frosts, dews, and other similar wetnesses which are continually taking place. The common modes of forming walls of the hollow or forcing kind have been described in considering garden-walls, and improved methods of constructing the flues in such cases may be seen under the head stove. See STOVE.

Hollow walls too, it is supposed, may be advantageous for those of the common garden kind, in many cases, by containing air, &c. See a paper by Mr. Stevenson, in the first volume of the Memoirs of the Caledonian Horticultural Society.

Hollow, flued, or forcing walls, are very great acquisitions to fruit gardens in the northern parts of the kingdom on many accounts; and it is said to be a great improvement in them not to have the furnaces placed too close upon the walls, or the flues to lead too directly forward to the front, but the former to be kept back, and the latter to sweep along five or six feet, before they reach the front brick-work.

WALL-Fruit is the name of all that sort which is produced by the trees which are planted and trained against walls, and which is raised and procured by means of them, mostly in the finest perfection. It comprehends a great number of different sorts of fruits both of the finer and more common kinds, as all the peach and nectarine sorts; most of the apricot, fig, and vine kinds; many of the finer varieties of the plum, cherry, and pear sorts; some of the best and most early eating apples; sometimes the early and large mulberry; the earlier and finer kinds of the gooseberry and the currant; besides a variety of other sorts in different cases. It consists of much of the best of our finer as well as commoner sorts of fruits, and is that which is generally held in most estimation, and of the greatest value for the uses of luxury. In order to have it at the table in

the greatest perfection, it should always, in most of the kinds, be used as soon as possible after it is taken from the trees, and while it has its peculiar bloom upon it, as it becomes afterwards far inferior in its qualities for the purpose of eating as well as the beauty of its appearance.

WALL-Trees, such fruit-trees as are planted against walls, and have their branches trained to them in a fanned or some other regular manner, from three or four to five or six inches asunder, in order to produce their fruits more early and in a superior degree of perfection. They are trees of the more tender kinds, or such as will not ripen their fruits in this climate, unless trained against walls of a southerly aspect, to have the advantage of the full sun; and of the several sorts of the hardier kinds, to obtain their fruits in earlier maturity, and of an improved growth and flavour.

The trees of this sort may be considered as consisting of two orders or forms of growth; one of which is of the common dwarf wall kind, and the other of the half standard wall sort. But those of other forms of growth may occasionally be employed in this way with convenience and advantage.

Those of the first of these kinds are such as are trained with short dwarf stems of only a few inches in height, and which, of course, are made to branch out near to the surface of the ground, in order that they may cover the wall by their different branches in a regular manner quite from the bottom of it in an upward direction to the very top, being laid in in somewhat a horizontal or fanning direction, at the distance from each other of not more than from three or four to five or six inches, according to circumstances as already suggested.

These are the common sort of wall-trees for general planting in this way, all the different kinds being usually originally trained in the wall-tree order; and for which use those commonly raised by means of grafting and budding are always grafted and budded low in the stock or stem, as within four or five inches of the upper part of the ground, the first main shoots proceeding directly from the inserted grafts or buds, being when of one year's growth headed down or cut in, in the early spring months, to four or five eyes, in order to the production of a proper supply of lateral shoots, the same year, from them near to the ground, to give the trees the suitable form of head at first, they being trained and laid in on the walls in a spreading order both ways of them, at their full lengths during the summer; and in the early spring afterwards they are pruned or cut in to six or eight eyes for a further supply of similar lateral shoots, for the purpose of increasing the bottom branches, which are trained in the same manner, in order to afford a suitable foundation, as it were, in the advanced heads, for furnishing in a gradual manner all the other necessary branches in a regular way up to the top of the walls, as they may be wanted. And the same methods must be pursued with such trees as are raised and propagated by layers, cuttings, and suckers, as those of vines, figs, and some other sorts, when they are intended for wall-trees; their proper after-management being such as is directed under the proper head of each individual sort. See these different heads.

The latter sort, or the half standard wall-trees, are usually trained with rather high stems of the standard kind, as from three, four, or five, to six feet, being grafted or budded at such heights, in order that they may branch or throw out shoots above in the way which has been already noticed.

These forms of trees are suited for occasional planting against high walls between those of the common dwarf kind, in the view of having the whole of them, both above

and below, covered as soon as possible, as the dwarf trees occupy the lower parts, while the half standards take up the higher, and, of course, there is not any loss of empty space sustained. This sort of wall-trees have likewise their first and second year's shoots from the grafting or budding pruned in the same manner as directed above, for the formation of the heads of the common wall-trees, and they are trained to the walls in exactly the same modes; their after-management having a relation to their particular natures, as may be seen under their respective heads. See also **STANDARD TREES**, and **TRAINED TREES**.

The other sorts are only admitted as wall-trees, in particular cases and situations, and where they are of such natures and kinds, as do not permit of the methods of pruning and training, which are necessary for the trees which are commonly employed as wall-trees.

Wall-trees may therefore be either young plantable ones of one year's growth with proper heads, raised by means of budding or grafting, planted at once where they are constantly to stand and grow, to be pruned and trained in the above manner; or they may be ready trained young trees, of three or four years' growth or more, furnished with spreading branchy heads, which have been regulated and wrought on the walls, palings, flakes, or other sorts of supports in nursery grounds for the above lengths of time, and which are advanced to the proper states of growth for immediate bearing, being kept in such public grounds for the supplying of such persons as are desirous of having their walls immediately covered with such sorts of trees. The particular methods to be pursued in pruning, training, and managing each sort, may be seen described under the above heads of **STANDARD** and **TRAINED TREES**.

But there are besides, mostly in these nursery grounds, a great choice of all the different sorts and varieties of the fruit-tree kind for walls, both of the young untrained descriptions for being first planted out and trained from the beginning, as common dwarf or half standard wall-trees, and which will reach the bearing state in from two or three to four or five years, according to their kinds; and of those which have been already trained as above in all the different sorts proper for bearing in the following season.

These sorts of trees must be trained to south walls, for the principal sorts of the more delicate or tender kinds, such as peaches, nectarines, apricots, grapes, figs, &c., to have the benefit of the full sun, as they do not ripen in good perfection without this assistance. Some of the best varieties of the principal sorts of the hardier fruit-trees, as the most esteemed cherries, plums, and pears, should be also trained to these walls to produce early fruit in the greatest perfection; also some trees of the choicer sorts of summer and autumn apples, to have the fruit earlier, and of an improved rich flavour for immediate eating: likewise some of the best red and white currants and gooseberries; and on west and east walls to have trees of most of these sorts, to ripen in good perfection, in succession to those on the south walls, especially cherries, plums, and pears, and occasionally some common peaches, nectarines, and apricots; but vines and figs generally on south walls, especially vines, which require all possible benefit of the full sun to ripen the grapes in proper season, and with a rich flavour: the north walls are eligible for any of the common hardier summer and autumn fruits, as cherries, particularly morellos, plums, and pears, for late ripening, to succeed those of the more sunny exposures, and to continue a longer succession of particular sorts, which ripen for immediate eating from the trees; also white and red currants for successional ripening in the autumn as has been already seen.

The proper season for planting wall-trees is either in autumn, as in October, November, &c., or in spring, as February and March, or not later than the beginning of April, but before that time, if possible; as late spring-planting, after the young trees begin to push their shoot-buds, is often attended with bad success, as they are apt to become flunted or quite stopped in their growth.

The soil for wall-trees should be a good dry mellow garden-earth, not less than one full spade deep; but if two or more it will be advantageous: or where a good moderately light loamy soil prevails, it is superior for most sorts of fruit-trees; and when enriched by good garden compost it is still more beneficial. The poorer borders should be enriched by means of good surface loam and rotten dung before the trees are planted in them.

In planting wall-trees, the borders should either be wholly dug over a good depth, as two spits, or the parts about where the trees are to be placed only, proper sized circular holes or pits being made in depth and width according to the nature of the roots of the tree plants, the mould taken out being laid on the sides; the distances from each other being regulated by the height of the walls and the nature of the growths of the trees. For those of the peach, nectarine, apricot, fig, plum, and cherry kinds, fifteen or eighteen feet are little enough. Vines require from five to ten and fifteen or more feet, according as they may be trained in upright, horizontal, or other directions, as they admit of all these several modes of regulating their heads. Pears, apples, and other trees of similar growths, should have eighteen or twenty feet, especially when worked on free stocks, and those on dwarf stocks not less than fifteen or eighteen feet of distance from each other.

The wall-trees intended to be planted are then to be carefully taken up from the nursery or other grounds, with their full spread of roots as perfect as possible, the broken, bruised, and injured parts, with any tap-roots and straggling ones, being only cut away and shortened at the moment of re-planting them; and in the heads where they are young trees of one or two years' growth only, with the first main branches or shoots from the budding or grafting quite entire, not having been headed down or cut in, in the nursery, they may be retained whole until after they are planted, or not be pruned in until the spring; and where they are trained trees of some years growth with regular trained heads of some years standing, the very irregular ill placed fore-right shoots, disorderly growths, and rank summer shoots, which are unfitly situated for training in should be cut away: all the well placed side and terminal shoots being left quite entire until after the time of planting the trees at least. Then in planting, place the trees in the pits or holes with the bottoms of the stems about five or six inches or more from the walls, inclining the top parts and heads to them in a close manner, spreading the roots out with regularity in the pits or holes, shovelling in the mould or earth from the sides with exactness and equality, breaking the lumps and clods well, and shaking the trees up and down a little, in holding them by the stems, in order to make the mould sink in well between the roots, fibres, and other parts, then filling them in to the tops of the holes in a careful way, seeing that the upper roots are at least three or four inches below the surface, and ultimately treading the whole down in a moderate manner, to settle the earth about the roots, and give the trees their proper positions against the walls. Proper watering will mostly be immediately necessary in most cases, and which may be repeated as there is occasion, to settle the earth more closely, and promote the striking and growth of the trees.

Wall-trees require the above methods of pruning and training to form their different heads in their young growths; and afterwards in an annual manner to retrench their over-luxuriant shooting, and keep them within due limits and in regular order, for the production of full crops of the best sort of fruit of their different kinds. In these views they stand in need of a regular summer and winter pruning every year, as well as a constant unnailling and renailling in the proper methods and times of the season.

The methods of planting, training, pruning, and nailing of the different sorts, are explained in the several heads, under their particular culture.

Wall-trees besides walls are sometimes planted and trained against wooden erections, such as palings and those made in a close manner with boards, which though they are not so warm as brick or stone walls, and consequently not so productive of early good fruit, yet they sometimes afford it in tolerably good perfection at a little later period.

Great advantage is said to have been lately attained in bringing some sorts of wall-trees into a bearing state, especially pears, by turning the branches of them over the walls, and nailing them in an inverted manner on the other side.

It is stated by sir Joseph Banks, in a paper in the first volume of the Memoirs of the Caledonian Horticultural Society, that he has practised this method, which seems to have been learned from a market-gardener in the vicinity of London, with the best success on the gasnel bergamot pear, which is not very free of bearing. It had stood against a north wall for several years, without once making a fruit bud. About three years ago, he turned it over the wall, and had it nailed with the branches pointing downwards: the spring after, it bore, it is said, about a dozen of very fine pears, and this autumn, the south-side wood, which has increased very much, produced at least ten dozen of the finest pears his garden afforded.

This practice, it is suggested, is now become not unfrequent in the royal gardens, where pear-trees on a west wall have been turned over to the east side, and considerable crops annually obtained from such inverted branches.

Sir Joseph has likewise succeeded perfectly in bringing duke cherries over from the north wall, on which aspect they here produce a valuable crop of cherries for the months of July and August. The branches brought over to the fourth wall afforded the earliest fruit, it is said, and had the largest and fairest berries. This, in our climate, is supposed a material improvement, as duke cherries seldom succeed on a fourth wall: the tree requires to have its root cool, and when it is exposed to the rays of a fourth fun, produces in general small and imperfect fruit.

The same mode, and some other similar ones, will probably succeed with many other sorts of wall-trees, as well as these.

The taller sorts of wall-trees are sometimes termed wall-standards.

WALL-Cress, in *Botany*. See ARABIS.

WALL-Flower. See CHEIRANTHUS.

WALL-Pennywort. See COTYLEDON.

WALL-Pepper. See SEDUM.

WALL-Rue. See ASPLENUM.

Wall of a Stack, in *Agriculture*, a term sometimes made use of to signify the stem, body, or that part which extends from the ground to the eaves, and which spreads out in its upward direction so as to throw off the water. It is of some consequence to have the walls of stacks built in a neat and exact manner, in the preserving of the grain as well as in the keeping of vermin out of them. See STACK.

WALL-Eyes, in *Horses*, are those in which the iris, or

middle part, is of a very light grey colour. Such horses are not considered handsome; but some say that those horses which have wall-eyes are mostly of a good kind. See HORSE.

WALL-Springs, in *Agriculture*, a term applied to those which break out through some laminated rocky strata, or on cold spewy or springy wet clayey ground. The water in these cases mostly drops or oozes out in a slow manner. See SPRING.

WALL-Creeper, in *Ornithology*. See PICUS *Murarius*.

WALL-Moss. See Moss.

WALL-Sided, denotes the figure of a ship's side, when, instead of being incurved so as to become gradually narrower towards the upper part, it is nearly perpendicular to the surface of the water, like a wall; whence the phrase. See SHIP.

WALL's End, in *Geography*, a township of England, in Northumberland, famous for its collieries; 5 miles E.N.E. of Newcastle.

WALLA, the name of an officer in the eastern nations. See WALL.

WALLACE, Sir WILLIAM, in *Biography*, a hero of Scottish fable and romance, was a distinguished patriot and warrior in the thirteenth century, who belonged to an ancient family in the west of Scotland. Hardy and magnanimous, and ardently attached to his country, he engaged in the arduous undertaking of liberating the land of his nativity from the foreign yoke of Edward I., king of England. Having killed an English officer in a quarrel, he retired for safety into the woods, and put himself at the head of a band of outlaws, and commenced an incurable war against the English, who were stationed in that country. Succeeding in his first enterprises, he was joined by many barons, whose cause was secretly favoured by Robert Bruce. But earl Warrenne, appointed by Edward to the government of Scotland, collected an army of 40,000 men in the north of England, and marching into Annandale, terrified the insurgents, so that many of the Scotch nobles submitted, and others joined the English army. Wallace, with his adherents, retired northwards, and being pursued by Warrenne with his forces, he engaged them near Stirling, and defeated them with great slaughter. This success enhanced the reputation of Wallace, and he was declared regent of the kingdom under the captive Baliol. Wallace retaliated on the English, and extended his ravages as far as Durham, and recovered Berwick. Edward, upon receiving this intelligence in Flanders, hastened his return, and marched with 90,000 men to the northern frontier. Wallace, perceiving the jealousy and discontent occasioned among the nobility by his high rank, resigned the regency, and merely retained his command over his own followers. When the Scotch were joined by Edward at Falkirk, in 1298, a battle ensued, in which the English obtained a victory; but Wallace, whose body of forces was unbroken, retired behind the banks of the Carron. After this defeat Wallace still maintained an unsubdued spirit, and asserted his independence. Edward, apprized that he was insecure whilst such an adversary as Wallace lived, used various means for discovering his retreat and seizing his person. He at length succeeded, by the treachery of his friend, sir John Monteith. The captive was conveyed to London, where, though he had never sworn fealty to the English sovereign, he was tried, condemned, and executed as a traitor, August 23, 1305. His memory is still revered in his native country, and he has been celebrated by national songs, and a variety of eulogies, the subjects of which have been partly true, and partly fabulous. Hume. Henry.

WALLACE, in *Geography*, a small island near the coast of South Carolina. N. lat. $33^{\circ} 54'$. W. long. $78^{\circ} 35'$.

WALLACE-TOWN, a town of Scotland, in Ayrshire, founded about the middle of the eighteenth century by Sir Thomas Wallace; 3 miles N.E. of Ayr.

WALLAGE, a river of Germany, which runs into the Ems, at Lingen.

WALLAPATAM, a town of Hindoostan, in the country of the Nays; 14 miles W.N.W. of Palicaudchery.

WALLASEA, an island in the German sea, on the coast of Essex, at the mouths of the Coln and Black Water. It contains two parishes, East and West Mersey. It is about four miles long, and one and a half broad. N. lat. $51^{\circ} 38'$. E. long. $0^{\circ} 48'$.

WALLE, a town of Germany, in the county of Verden; 4 miles N. of Verden.

WALLEBERGA, a town of Sweden, in the province of Schonen; 38 miles S. of Christianstad.

WALLENBURG, or WALENBURG, a town of Switzerland, and capital of a bailiwick, in the canton of Bale; 12 miles S. of Bale.

WALLENFELS, a town of Bavaria, in the bishopric of Bamberg; 7 miles E. of Cronach.

WALLÉNIA, in *Botany*, was so denominated by professor Swartz, in honour of Matthew Wallen, esq., an Irish gentleman, long resident in Jamaica, the friend and coadjutor of Dr. Patrick Browne, in his well-known Natural History of that island. Mr. Wallen spared no expence in the cultivation of plants. The stores of our most distinguished gardens are indebted to him for their choicest rarities. His name occurs amongst the contributors to Kew Garden, and he also sent many fine plants to the late marquis of Rockingham; amongst others, in the year 1778, the splendid *Euphorbia punicea*, Sm. Ic. Pic. t. 3. Curt. Mag. t. 1961, which, being supposed a new genus, for some time bore the name of *Wallenia*, though without any scientific claim to be separated from its congeners.—Swartz Prodr. 31. Ind. Occ. 247. t. 6. Schreb. Gen. 789. Willd. Sp. Pl. v. 1. 618. Mart. Mill. Dict. v. 4. Poir. in Lamarck Dict. v. 8. 785. Petefioides; Jacq. Amer. 17.—Clafs and order, *Tetrandria Monogynia*. Nat. Ord. uncertain.

Gen. Ch. Cal. Perianth inferior, of one leaf, in four erect obtuse segments, permanent. Cor. of one petal, tubular: tube cylindrical, erect, longer than the calyx: limb in four shallow, ovate, obtuse, erect, converging segments. Stam. Filaments four, inserted into the base of the corolla, dilated at the bottom, half erect, as long again as the corolla, and rather spreading in that portion beyond its limb; anthers ovate, incumbent. Pist. Germen superior, oblong; style awl-shaped, shorter than the stamens and corolla, permanent; stigma simple, obtuse. Peric. Berry roundish, of one cell. Seed solitary, roundish, with a brittle shell.

Obs. Some male flowers occasionally occur, which have no pistil, rendering the genus polygamous. Swartz.

Eff. Ch. Calyx four-cleft, inferior. Corolla tubular, four-cleft. Berry with one seed.

1. *W. laurifolia*. Laurel-leaved Wallenia. Swartz. Ind. Occ. 248. Willd. n. 1. Poir. n. 1. (Petefioides laurifolium; Jacq. Amer. 17, a temporary name only. *Bryonia nigra fruticosa*, foliis laurinif, floribus racemosis speciosis; Sloane Jam. v. 1. 234. t. 145. f. 2.)—Branches round.—Native of bushy places, on the mountains of Jamaica and Hispaniola, flowering in spring and autumn. The Spaniards call it *Laurier*. The stem is woody, from ten to twenty feet high, having a smooth bark, and no thorns or prickles. Branches long, subdivided, round, as thick as a goose-quill,

twining about every thing in their way, marked with scars from the infertion of former foliage. Leaves on round smooth footstalks, (whether alternate or opposite, Dr. Swartz does not mention, nor can Sloane's figure be trusted; Jacquin says alternate,) obovate, obtuse, entire, smooth, shining, slightly ribbed and striated, about four inches long, and almost half as broad in the middle. Stipulas none. Panicle terminal, with spreading, alternate, partly level-topped, subdivided branches. Flowers stalked, yellow, inodorous, about half an inch long, numerous, and, according to Sloane, very beautiful. Berry scarlet. The calyx, corolla, fruit, and organs of impregnation, are sprinkled with glandular, orange-coloured dots. The ripe berries are slightly acid and aromatic, like the parts of the flower; the seed tastes like the pepper tribe. Swartz.

We cannot but remark that Willdenow copies, without examination or scruple, two errors from Swartz, in the reference to Sloane.

2. *W. angularis*. Angular-branched Wallenia. Jacq. Hort. Schoenbr. v. 1. 13. t. 30. Poir. n. 2.—Branches angular.—Native of the East Indies. Jacquin says it is cultivated in the island of Mauritius, from whence a living plant was brought to the imperial garden at Schoenbrunn. It has flowered there in the stove, every year in May, but never bore any fruit. The stem, in the island above mentioned, attains the height of twenty-five feet, and is as thick as a man's leg. Branches all angular, smooth. Leaves much like the foregoing, but larger; alternate on the lower part of each branch; opposite, or even whorled, above; all very smooth and shining. Panicle terminal, erect, many-flowered, somewhat corymbose; its ultimate divisions umbellate, or capitate. Flowers green, about the size of *W. laurifolia*, but the calyx seems less deeply divided, more hairy, and the corolla smoother. Stigma downy.

WALLESEN, in *Geography*, a town of Westphalia, in the principality of Calenberg; 15 miles S.E. of Hameln.

WALLENSTADT, a town of Switzerland, near the E. end of Wallenstadt Lake, in the county of Sargans, and principal place of a bailiwick. This place has a Schultheise, and council of its own; the first of whom is nominated by the landvogt out of three burghers, presented for his approbation. It is a great thoroughfare for goods to and from Italy. It is the place likewise where the Switzers and Grisons hold their conciliatory meetings on all claims made by either party; 35 miles E.S.E. of Zurich.

WALLENSTADT, a lake of Switzerland, surrounded with mountains and sharp rocks, which render the navigation dangerous; 9 miles long, and 2 wide; 9 miles S. of Utznach.

WALLER, EDMUND, in *Biography*, an English poet of distinguished celebrity, was the descendant of an eminent family, and born at Colehill, Hertfordshire, in March 1605. His mother was the sister of the famous John Hampden. By the death of his father, when he was an infant, he came into possession of an estate of 3500*l.* a year. Having received his school education at Eton, he was admitted at King's-college, in Cambridge; and exhibiting superior talents, as well as possessing powerful interest, he became a member of parliament in his sixteenth or seventeenth year. Of his poetical talents he exhibited an interesting specimen in his eighteenth year, by his verses on the "Prince's Escape at St. Andero," which far surpasses in poetical melody the productions of his predecessors. He also, at an early period, augmented his patrimony by marrying a rich city heiress. During the intermissions of parliament, which occurred after the year 1628, he lived in a retired

retired manner at his house near Beaconsfield; pursued his classical studies under Morley, afterwards bishop of Winchester; and acquired improvement as well as celebrity from the society of polite scholars into which he was introduced. At the age of twenty-five years he lost his wife, and soon afterwards became the suitor of lady Dorothea Sydney, eldest daughter of the earl of Leicester, whom he has immortalized under the appellation of Saccharissa. But much as he admired this majestic and scornful beauty, as he denominates her, he was more delighted with the gentle Amoret, supposed to have been lady Sophia Murray; but failing to engage the attachment of either of these ladies by his poetic strains, he sought comfort under the anguish of disappointment in a second marriage. When parliament met in 1640, after a long suspension, Waller was again returned for Agmondesham, and joined the party which thought that a redress of grievances should precede a vote of supplies, urging their plea by an energetic speech. He was also a member of the long-parliament, and warmly opposed the exaction of ship-money, after the example of his justly celebrated uncle, Hampden. He farther distinguished himself by his eloquence in the impeachment of judge Crawley, with the conduct of which he was entrusted by the commons. He continued for three years to give his vote in general with the opposition, without concurring in all the measures of this party; particularly the abolition of episcopacy. In the progress of the dispute between the king and parliament, he discontinued for a time his attendance; though he manifested his inclination to the royal side by court panegyric, and when he again returned to the house, by remonstrating against its proceedings; and when the king set up his standard at Nottingham, it is said that he sent him 1000 broad pieces. As he was one of the commissioners appointed by parliament for treating with the king at Oxford, he was kindly noticed by his majesty; and he was probably thus induced to engage in a plot in his favour. Accordingly, he concerted measures with Tomkyns, clerk of the queen's council, for resisting the payment of the taxes levied for the support of the army, and promoting petitions for peace, and thus constraining parliament to adopt pacific measures. In the prosecution of this plan, they sought the concurrence of persons of influence in the city. Whilst they were thus employed, sir Nicholas Crispe, who was a zealous loyalist, was exciting the king's friends among the citizens to resist openly the authority of parliament, and with this view he had actually obtained a commission of array from his majesty. These two plots were, as Clarendon supposes, independent of each other; but however this be, the commission was known to Waller and Tomkyns. When these measures became known to persons in power, they were arrested; and the deficiency of evidence against them was amply supplied by the pusillanimity of Waller, who disclosed every secret of his party, and basely betrayed a number of persons, of different rank and station, who had reposed their confidence in his honour. Of this number were the earl of Portland, lord Conway, and the earl of Northumberland. He attempted also to persuade lord Portland to confess the charge, and to lay the blame on the two other noblemen just mentioned. Two conspirators, *viz.* Tomkyns and Chaloner, were hanged, and Waller saved his life by affecting a remorse of conscience, which disordered his understanding; so that he was merely expelled the house, tried and condemned, and after a year's imprisonment, and the payment of a fine of 10,000*l.*, permitted to go into exile. Thus disgraced in the estimation of all who made any pretensions to probity and honour, he first resided at Rouen, and from

thence removed to Paris, where he lived like a man of fortune, and in the exercise of hospitality, on the means which he derived from the sale of his wife's jewels. After the interval of ten years, being reduced to his *rump* jewel, as he called it, he solicited permission to return to his native country, and having obtained a licence to this purpose, he took possession of a house which he had built near Beaconsfield. Unrestrained by principle, he paid his visit, by the effusion of his prostituted muse, to Cromwell, to whom he also paid a tribute of adulation after his death. He lost no time, however, in congratulating Charles II. on his restoration; and when the king took notice that his panegyric on Cromwell surpassed his congratulatory poem, he replied, with a happy courtly turn, "that poets always succeed better in fiction than in truth." Waller was again received into the best company, and though he drank only water, his wit and vivacity made him an agreeable associate to those who lived more freely and intemperately. He also obtained a seat in the house of commons, of which, though advanced in years, he was a lively and pleasant member. From the king he procured, in 1665, the appointment of provost of Eton college; but Clarendon, who was then lord-chancellor, refused to sanction it, because he was a layman. The conduct of the chancellor gave great offence to Waller, so that he joined the duke of Buckingham in his hostility against him, and both spoke and voted for his impeachment. Upon the accession of James II., Waller, in his eightieth year, was returned for Salts, and availing himself of the privilege of age, spoke freely to the king, whilst he was treated by him with condescension and kindness. Once in conversation with the king he spoke of queen Elizabeth as the greatest woman in the world, to which James retorted, "I wonder you should think so; but it must be confessed she had a wife council." "And when, sir," replied Waller, "did you know a fool choose a wife one?" When Waller was about to marry his daughter to Dr. Birch, the king expressed his wonder, "that he should think of marrying his daughter to a fallen church." He returned a message, in which he expresses his sense of the honour done him by the king's interest in his domestic affairs; adding, "I have lived long enough to observe that this church has got a trick of rising again." Foreseeing the storm that was gathering at the close of king James's reign, he observed, "that he would be left like a whale upon the strand." In his "Divine Poems," indicating the state of his mind towards the close of life, "it is pleasing (says Dr. Johnson) to discover that his piety was without weakness, and that his intellectual powers continued strong and vigorous." His death happened at Beaconsfield, in October 1687, in the eighty-third year of his age; and of several children by his second wife, his son Edmund, who represented Agmondesham in parliament, became a profelyte to quakerism. Of his moral principles and conduct, especially in the earlier period of his life, we can form no very high opinion. Lord Clarendon represents him as abject, and wanting courage to support him in any virtuous undertaking, and as combining servile adulation with a vain and imperious temper; but Clarendon, it will be recollected, was somewhat prejudiced in forming a judgment, which is, upon the whole, too just. He acknowledges, however, that he possessed superior powers of eloquence, and that the exuberance of his wit, and pleasantness of his conversation, which made him a chosen companion, were sufficient to cover a multitude of great faults. As a poet, he is said by one of his biographers to have possessed "character and intrinsic merit enough to retain no mean seat on the English Parnassus;" "he trifles with ingenuity, and is serious with

an air of grandeur;"—and "his works can never fall into neglect with the student of poetry." Biog. Brit. Johnson's Lives of the Poets. Clarendon. Gen. Biog.

WALLER, in *Rural Economy*, a term applied to a person employed in building wall-fences, and other sorts of walls, as well as to a labourer engaged in manufacturing salt from brine in salt-works, who is so called in consequence of raising a bank or walling round the pit, by means of the rubbish collected in long preparing salt. They both require to be well experienced persons. See **FENCE**, **SALT**, and **SALT Brine Springs**.

WALLER See, in *Geography*, a lake in the archbishopric of Salzburg, of an oval form; four miles long, and two broad, where widest; 4 miles N. of Salzburg.

WALLERIUS, NICHOLAS, in *Biography*, an eminent Swedish philosopher and divine, was born in Nerika in the year 1706, and completed his education at Upsal, whither he removed in 1725. Having here distinguished himself by his proficiency in the Wolfian philosophy, he commenced, in 1737, a course of lectures on both philosophy and mathematics, which employed, in consequence of the number of attendants, a very considerable portion of his time. In 1751 he took orders; in the following year he was honoured with the degree of doctor in theology; and in 1755 he was advanced to the chair of the new theological professorship, founded by Dr. Kellenius, bishop of Westeros, with a view of vindicating the truth, and evincing the excellence of Christianity; and in this situation he gained universal esteem. He was also a member of the Academy of Sciences at Stockholm, and of the Academy at Upsal, the transactions of which were enriched by several of his communications. His important and useful life was terminated by a fever in August 1764. His principal works are "Systema Metaphysicum," 1750, 4 vols. 8vo.; "Compendium Logicae," 1754, 8vo.; "Compendium Metaphysices," 1755, 8vo.; "Psychologia Empirica," 1755, 8vo.; "Psychologia Rationalis," 1758, 8vo.; "Prænotionum Theologicarum," six parts, from 1756 to 1765, 8vo. Gen. Biog.

WALLERN, in *Geography*, a town of Austria, on the Inn; 4 miles S. of Efferding.—Also, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Prachatitz; 9 miles S.S.W. of Prachatitz.

WALLERSDORF, a town of Prussia, in Natangen; 18 miles S.W. of Brandenburg.

WALLERSTEIN, a town of Germany, with a castle belonging to the counts of Oettingen, called Oettingen Wallerstein; 4 miles N. of Nordlingen.

WALLERSVILLE, a post-town of the state of Georgia; 729 miles S. of Washington.

WALLETZ SEE, a lake of Brandenburg, in the Ucker Mark; 1 mile W. of New Angermünde.

WALLEY, or **WALLIA**, a town of Africa, with an European factory, in the kingdom of Yani.

WALLHAUSEN, a town of the marggravate of Anspach; 4 miles N. of Creilheim.

WALLI, a kingdom of Africa, to the sovereign of which Mr. Park paid custom in his journey.—Also, a second river.

WALLING of Brick. See **BRICK**.

WALLING, Lead. See **LEAD-Willing**.

WALLINGFORD, in *Geography*, a very ancient borough and market-town in the hundred of Moreton, and county of Berks, England, is situated on the western banks of the Thames, at the distance of 15 miles N.N.W. from Reading, and 45 miles W. by N. from London. There are reasons for supposing it to have been a town in the time of the Romans, though its ancient name is lost: the

present, whether derived from the British word Gualen; or the Roman Vallum, owes its origin to the ancient fortification with which it was surrounded, and its ford over the Thames. The earliest mention of Wallingford in history is in the year 1006, when it was destroyed by the Danes: it appears to have been soon rebuilt, as Swein, king of Denmark was there in 1013. In Edward the Confessor's reign it was a royal borough, and contained 276 houses, the inhabitants of which owed personal service to the king. The town was incorporated by king James I.; by whose charter the civil government is vested in a mayor, five aldermen, a town-clerk, and other officers, chosen out of the burgesses, who are eighteen in number. Wallingford has sent members to parliament from the 23d year of Edward I.: the right of election is in the corporation, and inhabitants paying scot and lot. That eminent lawyer, sir William Blackstone, who had a seat here, now the property of his son, represented this borough in parliament. Wallingford is a market-town by prescription: it appears by the Norman Survey, that in the reign of William Rufus the market was held on Saturday; it was afterwards changed to Sunday; and by a charter bearing date 1218, from that day to Monday. Here are now two weekly markets, on Tuesday and Friday, and four annual fairs. The market-house is a convenient structure, having a town-hall, and sessions-house over it. The town consists of two principal streets: its population, in the return of the year 1811, was stated to be 1901; the number of houses 380. The chief employment of the inhabitants is in agriculture and malt-making; of the latter article, 120,000 bushels have been annually made here. Leland says, here were anciently fourteen parish-churches, and that in his time there were persons living, who could shew the places where they stood. At present here are but three; St. Mary's, St. Peter's, and St. Leonard's: the two latter were nearly destroyed in 1646, when the town, being garrisoned for the king, was besieged for the parliament. St. Leonard's was repaired and opened for divine service in 1704: St. Peter's continued in ruins till the present reign; it was rebuilt principally by the exertions of sir William Blackstone, who erected the spire at his own expence; the new church was finished in 1769, the spire in 1777. St. Mary's, which is the principal church, has a tower surmounted by the figure of an armed knight on horseback. Here are also four meeting-houses for dissenters of different denominations; a free-school, founded by Walter Bigg, alderman of London, in 1659; and an alms-house for six women, endowed by Mr. William Aungear and his sister, about the year 1687. Wallingford-bridge, which crosses the Thames, is a substantial stone structure, three hundred yards in length, and consists of nineteen arches: from its appearance, it seems to vie with the oldest fabric of the kind on the river, but the time of its erection cannot be ascertained: the pointed angular starlings on the upper side are so well constructed, as to be able to resist the most violent floods; and the whole appears to be of immense strength. Near the river side are the mouldering ruins of the ancient castle, which, in the estimation of former ages, was regarded as impregnable, but they give no idea of that strength which regal armies besieged in vain. Camden was of opinion that it was of Roman origin; and Mr. Gough adds, that "the outer work of the castle is evidently Roman, and in a fragment of the wall at the entrance, the stones are laid herring-bone fashion, just as in the walls of Silchester." Having been destroyed by the Saxons and Danes, the castle was rebuilt and enlarged by William the Conqueror, when we learn, from Dome-

day-book, that eight houses were demolished to make room for this fortress. During the contest between king Stephen and the empress Maud, the latter resided in this castle, which was strongly fortified in her behalf: Stephen besieged it several times; but all his assaults were fruitless; the strength of the place, and the bravery of the garrison, effectually resisted his utmost exertions. In the reigns of king John and Henry III., this fortress was the scene of negotiation between the kings and the discontented barons: it also bore a conspicuous part in the civil war between Edward II. and his nobles. When cardinal Wolsey was about to found a college in Oxford, Henry VIII. gave him this castle as a part of the endowment of his intended college; but on the cardinal's attainer, the grant appears to have been resumed. Leland, who visited Wallingford about that time, says, "the castle joineth to the north gate of the town, and hath three dikes, large and deep, and welle watered. About each of the two first dikes renneth an embated hill, now fore yn ruine, and for the most part defaced. Al the goodly building, with the tourres and dungeon, be within the three dikes." Camden, speaking of this castle, says, "Its size and magnificence used to strike me with astonishment when I came hither a lad: it is environed with a double wall and double ditch, and in the middle, on a high artificial hill, stands the citadel, in the ascent to which by steps, I have seen a well of immense depth." At an early period of the civil war between Charles I. and his parliament, Wallingford-castle was put into a state of repair; and being well garrisoned, was esteemed one of the most important fortresses in the king's possession. It escaped a siege till nearly the termination of the war: in 1646 it surrendered to the parliamentary forces; and an order of council for its demolition was issued November 18, 1652. So well was this order obeyed, that the greater part of it was destroyed. Within the walls of the castle was an ancient college, founded and endowed by Edmund, earl of Cornwall, nephew to Henry III., for a dean, four prebendaries, six clerks, and four choristers. Its revenues were further augmented by Edward the Black Prince and king Henry VI. Just within the west gate of the town was a convent of Benedictine monks, founded in the reign of William the Conqueror, by Paul, abbot of St. Alban's. The priory estate is now the property of William Hucks, esq. who has a farm-house on the site. Among the more distinguished natives of Wallingford, were Richard, abbot of St. Alban's, and John, a monk of the same place, who both derived a surname from the place of their birth: the former was eminent as a mathematician, the latter as an historian.

One mile south of Wallingford is Cholesey-farm, one of the largest and most compact in England; being let for 1000*l. per annum*: there is a barn on it 100 feet in length. It was formerly in the possession of the earls of Warwick; but is now the property of lord Kennington.—*Beauties of England and Wales*, vol. i. Berkshire; by J. Britton and E.W. Brayley, 1801. *Lysons's Magna Britannia*, vol. i. Berkshire, 4to. 1806.

WALLINGFORD, a town of the state of Vermont, in the county of Rutland, containing 1386 inhabitants; 40 miles N. of Bennington.—Also, a town of Connecticut, in the county of New Haven. This town, called by the Indians Coginchauge, was settled in 1671. It now contains 2320 inhabitants; 12 miles S.W. of Middleton.

WALLIS, JOHN, in *Biography*, a well known mathematician, was born at Ashford, in Kent, in the year 1616, and after finishing his school education, was admitted, in 1632, at Emanuel college, Cambridge, with a view to the church.

Having taken orders, he commenced the duties of his ministerial office in 1641, as chaplain to sir William Darnley, in Yorkshire; and whilst he occupied the same station in the family of lady Vere, he had an opportunity of exhibiting his extraordinary talent in the art of decyphering. In 1643 the parliament, to which he was then attached, conferred upon him the sequestrated living of St. Gabriel, in Fenchurch-street, London; and in this year he published a quarto volume, entitled "Truth tried, or Animadversions on Lord Brookes's Treatise of the Nature of Truth." At this time he became possessed of a handsome patrimony by the death of his mother; and in 1644 he was appointed one of the secretaries of the assembly of divines. In the following year he concurred with those persons who laid the foundation of the Royal Society, and communicated specimens of his skill in mathematics; and in 1647 he discovered a new method of solving cubic equations. When the independents acquired an ascendancy over the covenanted, Wallis united with other ministers, who assembled at Sion college, in subscribing a paper, entitled "A Testimony to the Truth of Jesus Christ, and to the Solemn League and Covenant, as also against the Errors, Heresies, and Blasphemies of those Times, and the Toleration of them." In 1648 he subscribed a remonstrance against putting the king to death, and another paper, denominated "A serious and faithful Representation of the Judgment of Ministers of the Gospel, within the Province of London, in a Letter from them to the General and his Council of War." In the next year he was appointed by the parliamentary visitor Savilian professor of geometry, and quitting his church in London, entered himself of Exeter college, Oxford, where he became master of arts, and sedulously discharged the duties of his office, connecting himself with those who formed the Philosophical Society in that city. Towards the end of this year he became acquainted with Cavalleri's method of indivisibles, which he thought applicable to the quadrature of the circle; but after bestowing considerable attention upon it, it failed in completely answering his expectations. In 1653 he published, in octavo, his "Grammar of the English Tongue, in Latin," with an "Introductory Treatise on Speech," containing a philosophical inquiry into the formation of articulate sounds. MS. copies of letters which he had decyphered were this year deposited in the Bodleian library, together with an "Account of the Origin and Progress of Cryptography, or Secret Writing." In the following year he was admitted to the degree of doctor in divinity. In 1655 he printed the proposition in his "Arithmetica Infinitorum," relating to the quadrature of the circle, which he sent to Oughtred, and he afterwards published the whole work in quarto, with an introductory treatise on the conic sections, the principal properties of which he demonstrated, independently of the cone, by his method of infinites. At this time he published his "Elenchus Geometriæ Hobbianæ," containing a confutation of Hobbes's method of quadrating the circle, which was followed by an angry controversy of some continuance. In 1656 he brought out his tract "On the Angle of Contact," in which he contradicted the opinion of Peletarius, who had maintained that this angle had no magnitude. In the following year he published his "Mathesis Universalis, &c." and carried on a controversy with Mr. Fermat and M. Frenicle, in letters, which appeared in the "Commercium Epistolicum," in 1658. About this time he was chosen "cultos archivorum" to the university; and he solved some prize questions proposed by Pascal, that related to the cycloid. His letter to Huygens, "De Conoide et Corporibus inde genitis," and also "De Cycloide,

Cycloide, &c." was published in 1659. His talent for deciphering recommended him to Charles II., by whom he was graciously received after his restoration; and who, besides continuing him in his offices at the university, made him one of his chaplains in ordinary. In 1660 he was concerned with those who were employed in reviewing the book of common prayer; and having complied with the requisitions of the act of uniformity, he retained his connection with the church till his death. Having suggested that it was possible to teach a deaf man to speak, he tried his skill, in 1660, upon two deaf subjects, with a considerable degree of success. After the establishment of the Royal Society in 1663, Dr. Wallis, who was one of its first members, very much contributed to its reputation and permanence by his own communications, and by his account of mathematical papers, transmitted to it by other persons. He also published, in 1663, his tract "De Proportionibus," and his illustration of the laws of motion in the collision of bodies; and in 1668 he presented to the public his hypothesis concerning the tides, in his treatise "De Æstu Maris, Hypothesis nova." In the following year appeared the first part of his principal work, intitled "De Motu," which was followed in the two succeeding years by the other two parts; and in 1671 he completed the whole, under the title of "Mechanica, sive de Motu, Tractatus Geometricus." His other publications were "Horocii opera Posthuma, with Flamsteed's Discourse on the Equation of Time," 1673, and "Archimedes' Arenarius," and "Dimensio Circuli," "Ptolemezi Opus Harmonicum," with Latin version, and notes, 1680, and an "Appendix de Veterum Harmonica, et hodiernam Comparata;" "Porphyrus in Harmonica Ptolemei Commentarius ex Codice Manuscripto, Græcè et Latine editus, et Manuensis Bryennii Harmonica ex Cod. Man.;" his "Algebra," 1684, with his Arithmetic of Infinites, the Infinitesimal Method of Leibnitz; and that of Fluxions, by Sir I. Newton;"—"Three Dissertations upon Melchizedek, Job, and the Titles of the Psalms," 1685;—"Institutio Logica," 1687; "Aristarchus Samius de Magnitudine Solis et Lunæ," with "Pappi Alexandrini Libri Secundi Collectionum Mathematicarum hæcenus desiderati Fragmentum," 1689; and also a letter to Sir Samuel Moreland, in order to prove that Des Cartes borrowed his improvement in algebra from his countryman Harriot:—"The Doctrine of the Ever-blessed Trinity," 1690; and "On the Christian Sabbath," 1691. About this time the curators of the university-press at Oxford began to collect his mathematical works, with a view of publishing them in the Latin tongue. The first volume was committed to the press in 1692, and the first two volumes appeared in 1696; and the third volume, containing the *Commercium Epistolicum*, or Letters concerning the original Author of the Method of Fluxions, and a Letter concerning the annual Parallax of the Earth, from Mr. Flamsteed, was published in 1698. Thus closed the scientific and literary labours of Dr. Wallis, who died in October 1703, in the 88th year of his age; leaving behind him one son and two daughters. Of his general character, moral and political, it will be sufficient to say, that he was prudent and moderate, endeavouring, in the collision of parties, to promote what he conceived to be the true interest of religion and science, and of the public community. As a mathematician, he is thought to have excelled in judgment and industry more than in genius. Biog. Brit. Hutton's Math. Dict.

Dr. Wallis was the first in our country who wrote on sympathetic vibrations, and the discovery of Lessons Harmoniques, or the harmonics of a single string (Phil. Transf.);

but he seemed not to know that Galileo and Lemmi Roffe in Italy, and Pere Merfenne in France, had preceded him in accounts of that phenomenon. See BASSE FONDAMONTALE, and HARMONICS.

Dr. Wallis was the first man of science in England who had read the Greek writers on music published by Meibomius, who understood modern harmony, and who denied it to the ancients. He published Ptolemy's Harmonics, with a Latin translation, and notes; Porphyry; and Bryennius. He seems to have studied and understood the subject of the music of the ancient Greeks better than any of our countrymen. His papers in the Phil. Transf., his Appendix to Ptolemy's Harmonics, and notes on the authors he has translated, are such as manifest at once, by their clearness, learning, meditation, and science.

WALLIS'S Bay, or Harbour, in Geography, a bay in the straits of Magellan; 12 miles N.E. of Cape Forward.

WALLIS'S Island, a small island near the south-east coast of New Ireland, at the entrance of Gower's-harbour, called Isle de Marteaux by M. Bougainville; 9 miles N.W. of Cape St. George.

WALLIS'S Islands, in the South Pacific Ocean, discovered by Capt. Wallis in the year 1767, surrounded by a reef of rocks. The inhabitants were robust and active, quite naked, except a kind of mat wrapt round the middle. No other animal was seen, either bird or beast, except sea-fowl. The trees were of different sorts, and many of them large, the only fruit were a few cocoa-nuts. S. lat. 13° 18'. W. long. 177°.

WALLISHOFEN, a village of Switzerland, in the canton of Zurich. Here the French were defeated by the Austrians; 1 mile S.W. of Zurich.

WALLKILL, a post-township of New York, in Orange county, with 4213 inhabitants, on a creek of the same name; 20 miles W. of Newburgh.

WALLOE, or VALLOE, a town of Denmark, in the island of Zealand; 3 miles S. of Kiøge.

WALLOE, a town of Africa, on the Ivory coast. N. lat. 5° 20'. W. long. 4° 55'.

WALLOOR, a town of Hindoostan, in the Carnatic; 5 miles S.E. of Ongole.

WALLOP'S ISLAND, an island in the Atlantic, near the coast of Virginia. N. lat. 37° 48'. W. long. 75° 28'.

WALLSEY, one of the Shetland islands, on the North Atlantic Ocean, situated near the east coast of Shetland; about six miles in length, and three in breadth. N. lat. 60° 35'. W. long. 1° 5'.

WALMER CASTLE, a fort of England, on the east coast of Kent, near Deal. See DEAL.

WALMERSLEY, a township of England, in Lancashire; 4 miles N. of Bolton.

WALNEY, a narrow island in the Irish sea, separated from the coast of the county of Lancaster by a narrow channel; about nine miles in length, but hardly one in breadth. It has two or three small villages, and a chapel. The south end is about 16 miles W.N.W. from the mouth of the Lune. N. lat. 54° 3'. W. long. 3° 10'.

WALNUT, a township of Ohio, in the county of Fairfield, containing 694 inhabitants.—ALFO, a township of Ohio, in the county of Pickaway, containing 759 inhabitants.

WALNUT Hill, a mountainous ridge in the Mississippi territory, on the east bank of the Mississippi, near the mouth of the Yazoo; N. lat. 32° 20'.

WALNUT.

WALNUT-TREE.

WALNUT-Tree, in *Botany, Gardening, and the Materia Medica*. See JUGLANS.

WALNUT-Tree, in *Agriculture*, the common name of a tree which is well known for the use of the nuts which it produces for the table, as an article for the dessert, and for their rinds, hulks, or coats, as well as themselves in their unripe state, as an elegant, valuable, and agreeable pickle; also for its wood as timber, and its ornamental effect. It is on these and other accounts a very desirable tree for cultivation; but, in the first intention, this is often in a great degree prevented, from the very great length of time which is required, in the ordinary modes of raising it, before it becomes capable of bearing fruit in any sufficient quantity. The inconvenience arising in this way has, however, lately, in a great measure, been obviated by directing the following methods and means of producing and growing it. In addition to what has been said of its modes of culture under JUGLANS, it may be farther noticed, that an ingenious cultivator of garden and orchard plants has, within these few last years, from considering the nature of what takes place in raising fruit-trees of the apple and some other kinds, from old bearing branches of other trees of the same sorts, by the practice of grafting; suspecting that they never form what may with propriety be denominated young trees, the stocks into which they are inserted only affording them nourishment; and the new plants retaining, in all cases, the characters and habits of the particular bearing branches of which they once formed parts, and commonly producing, in two or three years from the periods of their insertion, supplies of fruit; been induced to believe that the effects of time might be anticipated in the culture of this and several other fruit-trees, which remain unproductive for a great many years after their being planted; and that parts of the bearing branches of them, when cut and detached from the old trees, and made use of as grafts, would still retain the character and habits of bearing branches.

Some walnut-trees of two years old or growth, which had been planted in the spring season, some time before, in garden-pots, were, in consequence, raised up to the bearing branches of an old walnut-tree, by placing them on the tops of poles set into the earth, and grafted by approach with parts of them. Their union took place during the summer, and in the autumn the grafts were detached from the parent stock. The plants thus obtained were afterwards planted in a nursery-ground, and, without any peculiar care or management, produced both male and female blossoms in the third succeeding spring, and have since afforded blossoms every season. It is noticed, however, that the frost has rendered their blossoms, as well as those of other trees in their neighbourhood, wholly unproductive during the last three years; and in the spring of the year 1805, almost wholly destroyed the wood of the preceding year.

It is remarked that a similar experiment was made the same year on the mulberry-tree, but under many disadvantages. Not having any young plants of this tree, the experiment could only be made with scions of one year old or growth; and of these there were only two, which had sprung from the roots of a young tree, in the preceding year. These were planted in pots, and raised in the former method, to the bearing branches of an old tree. One of the scions died; the other, which had very few roots, succeeded; and the young grafted tree bore fruit the third year, and has continued annually productive. In the last spring it was introduced into the vinery, where its fruit ripened in the greatest state of perfection.

The walnut as well as mulberry-tree succeeds so ill in

grafting, in any other manner than that by approach, that attempts to propagate them in any other way can scarcely be recommended; but when they succeed by other modes of this nature, nearly the same advantages will probably be obtained. It is suggested, however, that the habit of the bearing branch is least disturbed by grafting in the approach method. The latter has been found capable of being produced by layers and cuttings from the strong bearing branches, and to be equally productive in these ways of raising them. Great advantages, too, have attended pruning them in a careful manner, and training them against fourth walls, palings, and other such fences.

The Spanish chestnut succeeds, it is observed, readily, when grafted in almost any of the usual ways; and when the grafts are taken from bearing branches, the young trees afford blossoms in the succeeding year. And it is further suggested, that there is reason to think, from experiments which have been made on this tree, that by selecting those varieties which ripen their fruit early in the autumn, and by propagating with grafts or buds from young and vigorous trees of that kind, which have only just attained the age necessary to enable them to bear fruit, it might be cultivated with much advantage in this country, not only for the use of the fruit, but for that of the wood as timber.

Similar experiments have likewise been tried on many other different sorts of trees, which, it is remarked, have constantly been attended with the same result; and no doubt is entertained but that the effects of time might be thus anticipated in the culture of any fruit, which is not produced until the seedling trees acquire a considerable age. For the conviction of long and extensive experience has fully shewn, that the graft derives nutriment only, and not growth, from the young stock into which it is inserted; and that with the life of the parent stock, the graft retains its habit and constitution, as well as perhaps other properties, as already suggested. See JUGLANS. See also different papers in the Transactions of the Horticultural Society of London.

The walnut is also a well-known deciduous tree, which was formerly much grown and cultivated in the field, and held in great esteem in this country for its wood, which is not unfrequently very finely veined; but which, in consequence of its aptness to be worm-eaten, has now, for the most part, given place to mahogany. It is likewise an useful tree for the purposes of ornament, and for its produce in fruit.

There are different sorts of it, which are capable of being raised and grown in these intentions with advantage; such as the common sort of walnut, which is a very large, lofty, spreading tree, and which has many varieties, as the oval and round walnut, the large and small-fruited walnut, the double early and late walnut, the tender thin-shelled walnut, and the hard thick-shelled walnut; the white sort of walnut, which has the fruit shaped like the common walnut, but in which the shell is not furrowed, the tree being of a light colour. It is said by some to be a tall tree in North America, where it greatly prevails under the title of hickory nut-tree; and the black walnut-tree, which is large, and has the outer covering of the nuts rough, with the form of them more round than in the first of these sorts. The shell is very hard and thick, but the kernel small, though very sweet and agreeable to the taste. These two latter sorts of walnut-trees are less hardy than that of the common kind, though very proper in some cases of planting. It has been noticed that all the first sorts of these trees vary again, when raised from the seed, and that as the nuts from the same tree will produce different fruit. Those who plant the

walnut for the produce of its fruit should make choice of the young trees for that use, in the places where they stand, when they have their fruit upon them.

However, where these trees are intended for timber, it is probably the best practice to plant them out at once in the places where they are to stand or grow, as they thrive faster, and form better trees, it is said, in that method of raising them, than by any other means. The seed or nuts of the two latter sorts are to be procured from North America, and should be such as have been well ripened and secured.

These trees delight in a firm, rich, loamy soil, or such as is inclineable to chalk or marl; but they will thrive very well, it is said, in ground which is of a stony nature, or on chalk-hills, as is evident from those large plantations of them about Leatherhead, Godstone, and Carshalton, in the county of Surrey, where great numbers of these trees, planted on the downs near these places, produce, it is said, annually large quantities of fruit, to the no small advantage of their owners. Mr. Carlisle found the walnut raised from seed to be productive of fruit at a very early period, in one case, when grown on a soil the surface mould of which was of a dark colour, and of from eighteen to twenty inches in depth: it was what the workmen called a light soil; and immediately beneath which was a fine siliceous sand, about two feet thick; then a stratum of ocreous flint gravel; after which a red clay; and, at the depth of twelve feet, good water, arising from clean white sand.

The writer of the corrected account of the agriculture of Gloucestershire has, however, stated that this sort of tree will grow almost in any soil, that it wants no pruning or care, and that in less time than the oak it will make a large tree.

In planting these trees, when they are designed for the purpose of fruit, in such situations, it should not be done at less distance apart than about forty feet; and if more, it will be the better in many cases, where the soil is particularly suitable. But when for the wood or timber only, it may be performed in somewhat a closer manner with propriety, in most instances; though the trees, in such cases, should never be too much crowded together. When for ornament, single conspicuous trees have probably the best effect; but sometimes a few may be planted together with good effect.

The above writer remarks that the wood of this tree is too valuable to apply to the usual purposes of timber-trees, and is consequently always used either for cabinet-work, or for gun-stocks: for the latter use indeed, so great, it is said, has been the demand for a few years past, from the Birmingham gun-makers, that the district he is speaking of has been ransacked for this timber-wood, and very high prices have been held out to tempt the sale of it. In consequence of which, the stock has been much diminished there, so that, with very few exceptions, only a solitary walnut-tree is seen growing here and there; but that in the parish of Arlingham, in that county, there are more perhaps than in many other parishes of the same district combined: so abundant indeed was the fruit, it is said, that year (1805), that it became an article of commerce, and two vessels were then, in the beginning of October, being laden with walnuts for Scotland, at the above place, at a rate as low as four or five shillings a thousand; and that even at this price, the produce of a tree of this sort is highly valuable, as 20,000 nuts are not considered an extravagant calculation for a large tree.

Nay, were it only for the oil that these nuts afford, the trees that produce them would, some think, be worthy of some care. Evelyn has indeed observed, that one bushel of

them will yield fifteen pounds of peeled kernels, and that these will yield half that weight of oil, which the sooner it is drawn is the more in quantity, though the drier the nut the better in quality. It is added too, that the lee, or marc of the pressing, is an excellent substance for feeding hogs with. It would certainly be good manure for land, as are the cakes of linseed, rape, and some others, after the oil has been squeezed out of them. The green husks boiled, without any mixture, it is said, make a good colour for dyeing a dark yellow; and that the kernel rubbed upon any crack or chink of a leaky vessel, will stop it better than either pitch, pitch, or wax.

These trees may, of course, be said to be doubly profitable, as in their annual crops of fruit, while growing, and in their timber, when felled or cut down.

The nuts are the best preserved, for planting and raising the trees, in some sort of dry sandy material; and advantage is said to be gained, in rendering the trees more early productive, by such means as prevent their roots from running too much downwards.

In the intention of preserving and using the nuts or fruit as seed, they should be left upon the trees until they be perfectly ripe, which is shewn by the outer husks easily separating from the nuts, and by these husks occasionally opening and letting the nuts drop out. It is usually about the latter end of September. In trees of large growth, the nuts are usually beaten down by long poles, as it would be difficult and troublesome to gather them by the hand; but it should not be done with such violence as is commonly used, from the mistaken notion that the trees are thereby improved, as most certainly they cannot be benefitted by such a rough manner of forcing off the young wood, upon which this fruit mostly grows at the extremities of the branches. As soon as gathered, they are to be laid in heaps a few days to heat and sweat, to cause the complete separation of the husks, then be cleaned from the rubbish that hangs about them, and be deposited in a dry room for use, covering them well with dry straw, when they will keep some months.

Walnuts are always of ready sale in the markets of large towns, in which, at their first coming in, they are commonly bought with their husks on, and sold by the sack or bushel, but afterwards cleaned, and disposed of both by measure and the thousand.

The ordinary length of time required for the walnut to bear well, when raised from the nut or seed, is mostly about twenty years.

WALO, in Geography, a town of Sweden, in the province of Upland; 30 miles N.E. of Upsal.

WALOM, a town of Hindoostan, in Guzerat; 16 miles S. of Puttan.

WALOON, or WALLOON, a kind of old French; being the language spoken by the Walloons, or the inhabitants of a considerable part of the French and Austrian Low Countries; viz. those of Artois, Hainault, Namur, Luxembourg, and part of Flanders and Brabant.

The Waloon is held to be the language of the ancient Gauls, or Celts.

The Romans, having subdued several provinces in Gaul, established prætors, or proconsuls, &c. to administer justice in the Latin tongue. On this occasion, the natives were brought to apply themselves to learn the language of their conquerors; and thus they introduced abundance of the Roman words and phrases into their own tongue.

Of this mixture of Gaulish and Latin was formed a new language, called Romans; in contradistinction to the ancient unadulterated

unadulterated Gaulish, which is called Waloon, or Walloon. This distinction is kept up to this day; for the inhabitants of several of the Low-Country provinces say, that in France they speak Romans; whereas they speak the Walloon, which comes much nearer the simplicity of the ancient Gaulish.

WALOUGA, in *Geography*, a town of Africa, in the country of Whidah; 10 miles N. of Sabi.

WALPACK, a town of the state of New Jersey, in the county of Sussex, containing 591 inhabitants; 25 miles W.N.W. of Morristown.

WALPERSDORFF, a town of Austria, on the Traisen; 4 miles N. of St. Polten.

WALPING SEE, a lake of Prussia, in the province of Ermeland; 4 miles S.W. of Allenstein.

WALPIT, a town of France, in the department of the Lis; 3 miles N.E. of Courtray.

WALPO, or **WALPON**, a town of Sclavonia, which gives name to a county, situated on a river which runs into the Drave, defended by an ancient castle; 20 miles N.W. of Elzek.

WALPO Taro, a rock in the Spanish Main, near the Mosquito shore. N. lat. $14^{\circ} 30'$. W. long. $82^{\circ} 40'$.

WALPOLE, **ROBERT**, in *Biography*, earl of Orford, the third son of Robert Walpole, esq., was born at Houghton in Norfolk, the seat of his father, in August 1676, received his preparatory instruction at Eton, and completed his course of education at King's college, Cambridge; being distinguished at school for his talents for public speaking, and at the university by the ardour of his attachment to Whig principles. He was originally designed for the church; but his views were changed by the death of his eldest surviving brother in 1698, and he was initiated in the habits and pursuits of a country gentleman. In 1700 he married a lady, whose fortune enabled him to clear the incumbrances of an estate of 2000*l.* a year, which came into his possession after his father's death, and in this year he became an active member of parliament in connection with the Whig party, as a representative of the borough of Castle Rising. In queen Anne's first parliament, 1702, he was returned for Lynn, and continued to represent that borough till he became a member of the house of peers. Having availed himself of two or three opportunities which occurred for gaining the esteem and confidence of his party, he was appointed by the Whig administration in 1708 secretary of war, which office he held for a short time in connection with that of treasurer of the navy. After the trial of Sacheverel, which issued unfortunately, he published a pamphlet, in which he fixed the stigma of Jacobitism on the abettors of that turbulent priest. Upon the dismissal of the Whig ministry, he resigned his office; but having provoked the displeasure of the ruling party by his spirited defence of lord Godolphin, he was charged with venality and corruption, while he held the place of secretary at war, expelled the house, and committed to the Tower in January 1712. During his confinement, he was regarded as a martyr to the Whig cause, and visited by several persons of distinction; and he employed himself in writing a pamphlet in his own vindication. After his release in July, though he could not take his seat, he served his party by his counsel and by his pen. The dissolution of parliament took place in 1713; and Walpole was induced to expose the measures of the Tory ministry by a pamphlet, intitled "A short History of the Parliament," to which he affixed the motto, "Venalis populus, Venalis Curia Patrum." Being returned again for Lynn in February 1714, he was active in opposing the queen's Tory ministry; and particularly

distinguished himself by a speech in favour of Steele, who was prosecuted by the house for two publications. Towards the close of this reign, he displayed great zeal for the Protestant succession in the house of Hanover. Upon the death of the queen in August 1714, and the accession of George I., a new Whig ministry was formed: and Walpole was recompensed for his sufferings and losses by the two lucrative places of paymaster of the forces, and of Chelsea Hospital. He was actively employed in connection with lord Townshend, principal secretary of state, who had married his sister; and became chairman of the secret committee appointed to inquire into charges against the late ministers, and moved the impeachment of lord Bolingbroke. Being a zealous supporter of government in the rebellion of 1715, he was advanced to the important posts of first lord of the treasury and chancellor of the exchequer. Although illness prevented his supporting the septennial bill in parliament, he was decidedly attached to the measure. During the divisions that afterwards occurred in the cabinet, he steadily maintained his connection with lord Townshend, and on his dismissal in 1717, resigned his office; and even joined the Tories in opposing measures, for which, as a minister, he would have been an advocate. He contributed by a speech delivered on the occasion to the rejection of the peerage bill in 1719, and he opposed in 1720 the South-sea scheme for the liquidation of the national debt. Lord Townshend and Walpole received overtures from the earl of Sunderland, whose ministry was embarrassed, and a partial coalition was effected, in consequence of which the latter was restored to the post of paymaster of the forces. He had previously effected a reconciliation between the king and the prince of Wales, between whom a variance had long subsisted. To him the public attention was directed during the disasters that succeeded the failure of the South-sea scheme in 1721; an event which served to displace lord Sunderland from the post of first lord of the treasury, in which Walpole was re-established. At this time he adopted measures for advancing the trade and manufactures of the country, which have been much applauded by dean Tucker. In 1722 a new parliament assembled, in which the Whigs composed a majority; and Walpole distinguished himself in the prosecution of bishop Atterbury for his plot in favour of the pretender, which terminated in the banishment of this prelate. In recompence of his services, which were such as not to allow his removal from the house of commons, his son was made a baron. His brother, Horace Walpole, was appointed minister to the court of France, and he was honoured with being nominated knight of the garter. Sir Robert Walpole was at this time prime minister. In 1725 he promoted the bill for restoring lord Bolingbroke to his country and estate, though his attainder was still subsisting; and this partial benefit gave such offence to his lordship, that he became a powerful antagonist to Walpole's administration. His pacific measures highly recommended him both to the nation and the king; but the death of his majesty in 1727 occasioned changes that are generally incident to a new reign. Walpole was no favourite with George II., but the influence of queen Caroline prevailed against the intrigues of both Pulteney and lord Bolingbroke, and when he was considered as a fallen minister, re-established in the offices of first lord of the treasury and chancellor of the exchequer, with a greater degree of power than he had ever before possessed. Of course his deserted levees were crowded with those who bask in the sun-shine of court favour. Walpole, however, was assailed by a host of able and active adversaries; among whom were Pulteney at the head of discontented Whigs, Sir William Wyndham and the Tories,

and a group of Jacobites. For self-defence, when argument, which derived every possible advantage from his eloquence, failed, he had recourse to the more powerful influence of corruption; and this latter mode of conviction which he not only practised from necessity, but systematically vindicated and recommended, gave a distinguishing character to his administration, and entailed reproach on his memory. In order to secure the favour of the court, he augmented the civil list, and obtained for queen Caroline a jointure of 100,000*l*. Soon after, *viz.* in 1730, the differences with the court of Spain were terminated by the treaty of Seville in 1729, but Townshend, disgusted by the superiority which his kinsman Walpole was assuming, resigned his office of secretary of state, and withdrew from public business with dignity and honour. In the year 1733, Walpole proposed two measures of finance, which occasioned much opposition and clamour; one was the alienation of the sinking fund, and the other the introduction of the excise; but notwithstanding the dissatisfaction produced by these measures, and by his disappointing expectations which he had encouraged the Dissenters to indulge with regard to the repeal of the Test Act, the minister maintained his ground; and succeeded in his endeavours for preserving peace with foreign nations. The disagreement between Frederick prince of Wales and his father was the source of much uneasiness and trouble, and these were aggravated by the death of queen Caroline, who had been long attached to him, and supported his interest with his royal master. Differences that occurred between this country and Spain, on account of the commerce in South America, was the occasion of additional anxiety; and though he much wished for the continuance of peace, the discontented party prevailed, and in 1739 war was declared against Spain. With a mind thus agitated, and contending with a powerful opposition, he fought leave to resign, but the king would not consent. At length, *viz.* in 1740, a motion was made in the house of commons for his removal from the king's presence and councils; but though it was then negatived, the clamour against him increased; and losing the support of the house, he was created earl of Orford in February 1742, and resigned. He succeeded, however, by his influence, in forming a Whig ministry, at the head of which was Pulteney. His conduct during his administration became the subject of parliamentary inquiry, but his enemies could not prevail against him; and he so far retained his majesty's regard and confidence, as to be consulted by him, and to advise Pelham to be placed at the head of the treasury. Having long been afflicted with calculous complaints, which were aggravated by a journey from Norfolk to London, by command of the king in November 1744, he was obliged to recur for temporary relief to large doses of opium; but after a display of extraordinary fortitude and resignation during the progress of his severe disorder, it terminated in his death, on March 18th, 1745, in the 60th year of his age. As to his political character, one of his biographers says, "that the desire of preserving peace abroad, and avoiding all subjects of contention at home, and promoting gradual improvements in the trade and finances of the country, and pursuing useful rather than splendid objects, joined with a sincere zeal for the Protestant succession, were the leading principles of his government; and the means which he employed were prudence, moderation, vigilance, and, it must be allowed, corruption, though it may well be doubted whether he left public men more corrupt than he found them." As a man of business, he was methodical and diligent; and, according to lord Chesterfield, "an artful rather than an eloquent speaker;" and more a man of sound sense and quick dis-

cernment than of genius. In private life, he is said to have been good-humoured, easy and agreeable in his temper, frankly familiar in his manner, and of course much esteemed by his friends and conciliatory to his enemies. His manners, however, were inelegant, his mirth coarse, his conversation and morals licentious, accessible to flattery, and the easy dupe of women. In his domestic relation, he was kind and benevolent; but he neither loved nor patronized literature. Coxe's Memoirs of Sir Robert Walpole. Gen. Biog.

WALPOLE, HORACE, lord Orford, the youngest son of the preceding nobleman, was born in 1718, and educated first at Eton and afterwards at King's college, Cambridge, where he wrote "Verses in Memory of King Henry VI." dated in 1738. Having been nominated on leaving the university to some patent sinecure places, he commenced his tour to the continent in 1739, in which he was accompanied by Gray, from whom he parted, as he candidly acknowledges, by his own fault, and to whom in 1744 he was reconciled. His most intimate friend, however, was his natural cousin, general Seymour Conway, to whom he was attached from his youth, and with whom he corresponded from 1740 to 1795, the year of the general's death. His first appearance in parliament was in 1741, as a representative for Callington. But more attached to literature and the arts than to the occupations of public life, and unambitious of obtaining any emoluments besides those which his places afforded him, or any rank and station connected with political pursuits, he rather chose to retire from the world than to take an active part in parliamentary business. On all occasions, however, he manifested his steady adherence to those Whig principles which he had imbibed from his youth, and his conduct as a member of the legislature was always pure and independent. Having, in 1748, purchased a small house at Twickenham, called Strawberry-hill, he devoted his time and attention to the improvement of it in the Gothic style of architecture; and to the furnishing of it with such a collection of books, pictures, and other specimens of the fine arts, as made it a very desirable place of resort in the vicinity of the metropolis, and he gratified the public curiosity and taste by appropriating three hours a day in the summer months for the accommodation of visitors. In this singular and interesting mansion, he amused himself with the cultivation and exercise of his literary talents by contributing some papers to a periodical publication, entitled "The World;" by his "Catalogue of Royal Noble Authors," printed by his own press; and by a collection of his "Fugitive Pieces;" by his "Anecdotes of Painting in England," published in 1761, in 2 vols. 4to., to which he afterwards added two more volumes; by a political pamphlet on general Conway's dismissal from the army for his vote in parliament on general Warrants, which appeared in 1764; and tale of the "Castle of Otranto," published in 1765. During his visit at Paris in 1765, he provoked the resentment of the irritable Rousseau, by addressing to him a letter in the name of the king of Prussia, exposing his vanity and self-conceit. This letter was afterwards printed, and led Rousseau to suspect, that this was part of a concerted plan to ruin his reputation, and that Hume and the French philosophers had contrived it for this purpose. Walpole was justly censured for the part he took in this business; nor could his best friends vindicate him for the contemptuous treatment with which he treated those who were authors by profession. In 1767 Walpole withdrew from public business, and declined a return for the borough of Lynn in the ensuing parliament. Soon afterwards he published his "Historic Doubts on the Life and Reign of King Richard III." In 1768, he printed at his own press his tragedy of the "Myf-

terious

terious Mother;" and about the same time he was concerned in the transactions that occurred between him and the unfortunate Chatterton. In 1791 the death of his nephew elevated him to the rank and title of earl of Orford; but this circumstance requiring some change in his fixed habits, gave him rather uneasiness than satisfaction. Towards the close of his life he was much afflicted with a constitutional gout, by which he was much debilitated; and yet he attained to his 79th year, quietly expiring in March 1797. His printed and MS. writings, of which an edition was published in 1798 in 5 vols. 4to., were bequeathed to Robert Berry, esq. and his two daughters. A posthumous work, viz. "Letters from the Hon. Horace Walpole, Esq. to George Montague, Esq. from the Year 1736 to 1770," royal 4to. has been published.

Although Horace Walpole, as to the habits of his life, was more inclined to personal enjoyment than to social intercourse, his disposition was affectionate, and he was occasionally generous to his friends. Although he was not profoundly learned, he encouraged literature and the arts by his own writings, and by various domestic arrangements and conveniences adapted to this purpose. Nichols's Lit. Anecd. Walpole's Works. Gen. Biog.

WALPOLE, in *Geography*, a town of New Hampshire, in the county of Cheshire, on the Connecticut, containing 894 inhabitants; 76 miles N.W. of Boston.—Also, a town of the state of Massachusetts, in the county of Norfolk, containing 1098 inhabitants; 21 miles S.W. of Boston.

WALPUSCH, a river of Poland, which runs into the Narew, near Pultusk.

WALRABENSTEIN, a town of Germany, in the principality of Nassau Weilburg; 3 miles N. of Idstein.

WALRING, a town of the duchy of Wurzburg; 4 miles N.W. of Melrichstadt.

WALRUS, in *Zoology*, the name by which some authors call the morse, or sea-horse, called also by others *rosmarus*, a creature very different from the hippopotamus, or river-horse. See MORSE.

WALSALL, in *Geography*, an ancient market-town in the fourth division of the hundred of Offlow, in the county of Stafford, England, is situated on an eminence at the distance of 16 miles S.E. by S. from the county-town, and 126 miles S.W. from London: It is a place of remote antiquity, and is regarded as the second town in the county. The civil government is vested in a mayor, recorder, twenty-four aldermen, and a town-clerk: the mayor, late mayor, and senior aldermen, are in the commission of the peace, and regularly hold quarter-sessions. According to the return of the year 1811, the inhabitants of the town amounted to 5541, occupying 1150 houses, which are disposed in twelve streets. The manufacture chiefly carried on here is that of buckles, spurs, stirrups, and in general all sorts of hardware articles connected with saddlery. A well-supplied market is held on Tuesdays; and three fairs annually for horses, cattle, cheese, and bacon. A remarkable custom, mentioned by Dr. Plot, still prevails here: on the eve of Epiphany, a gift of one penny is regularly distributed to every person residing in the town, or in the villages thereto belonging; not only to the fixed inhabitants, but to all strangers who may happen to be there. This was an ancient endowment of an inhabitant of the name of Morley. The church is a very ancient edifice, of a cruciform construction. At the south-west angle rises a strong, plain tower, surmounted by an octagonal spire. The interior is lofty and spacious, and presents a singular appearance: each side of the chancel has seven stalls, the seats of which are ornamented with a great variety of grotesque figures carved

in basso-relievo. Under this part of the church is an archway of massy workmanship, forming a common passage through the eastern division of the church-yard. Here are also several places of worship appropriated to various classes of dissenters: and a free grammar-school founded by queen Elizabeth.

This parish includes the *foreign of Walsall*, a district comprehending the hamlets of Great Bloxwich, Little Bloxwich, Caldmoor, Little London, and the Windmill. In the year 1811, the population of this district was stated to be 5648; the number of houses 1099: making the inhabitants of the whole parish 11,199; the houses 2249.

About a mile and a half to the north of Walsall is *Rusball-Hall*, the seat and park of the Rev. W. Leigh.—Bescot-Hall is one mile from the town, and occupies the site of the ancient baronial mansion of the Hillarys and Mountfords: it is surrounded by a moat, over which is a picturesque bridge: the iron-gates, formerly standing close to the house, are now placed at a considerable distance, greatly improving the approach.—*Beauties of England and Wales*, vol. xiii. Staffordshire.

WALSCHIED, a town of France, in the department of the Meuse; 6 miles S.E. of Sarburg.

WALSDORF, a town of Germany, in the principality of Nassau; 3 miles N.E. of Idstein.—Also, a town of Bavaria; 4 miles W. of Bamberg.

WALSEE, a town of Austria, on the Danube; 14 miles E. of Ens.

WALSH, WILLIAM, in *Biography*, was born at Abberly in Worcestershire in 1663, and having finished his education as gentleman-commoner of Wadham college in Oxford, he travelled abroad for further improvement, and after his return attracted notice as a man of letters and of fashion. He also assumed a political character, and represented his native county in parliament, and distinguished himself by actively promoting the Revolution. He is supposed to have died in 1709. Dryden, with whom he cultivated friendship, repaid his attentions with that praise which he was disposed liberally to bestow on those whom he wished to distinguish, denominating him "the best critic of our nation," and he furnished a preface to his "Dialogue concerning Women." Pope also acknowledges early obligations to him in the following terms:

"And knowing Walsh would tell me I could write." In his "Essay on Criticism," he denominates him the "Muse's judge and friend," and with the ardour of youth, gives him the credit of having "taught his early voice to sing." It has been observed, however, that Mr. Walsh's rank in the scale of literature scarcely entitled him to the high panegyric either of Dryden or of Pope; for neither his miscellaneous poems, nor his prose pieces, of which one was his "Essay on Pastoral Poetry," justify the very distinguished honour which they conferred upon him. Biog. Brit. Johnson's Lives of the Poets. Gen. Biog.

WALSJ, JOHN, opened a music-shop in Catherine-street in the Strand, 1710; and was the first in our country who stamped music on pewter. He was succeeded by his son, who was Handel's publisher; the publisher of Corelli, and of the solos and concertos of Geminiani. Indeed he and Hulse in the city, seemed for a long time to monopolize the sale of music throughout the kingdom; till Johnson of Cheapside, who attended all the great fairs in the kingdom, and Bremner from Edinburgh, opened a shop in the Strand, and became extensive publishers, and formidable rivals to Walsh and his successor and relation, Randal.

The Dutch, during the whole last century, engraved or stamped music on copper, superior to the natives of all other countries. The only engraver in that metal in our own country

country was Cluer in Bow church-yard, who engraved in 8vo. several of Handel's operas in score, in the neatest and most correct manner which we remember to have seen, particularly Julius Cæsar, in 1720, which we keep as a curiosity.

WALSH, in *Agriculture*, a term provincially applied in some cafes to the peculiarly insipid taste of some vegetables, roots, and other such substantances.

WALSH, *Cape*, in *Geography*, a cape on the coast of New Guinea. S. lat. 8° 24'. E. long. 137°.

WALSHAM, NORTH, a market-town in the hundred of Tunstead and county of Norfolk, England, is situated in a level near the sea, at the distance of 15 miles N.N.E. from Norwich, and 124 miles N.E. by N. from London. In the year 1600, a destructive fire occurred here, which consumed 118 houses, besides many barns, stables, malt-houses, &c.; the value of which was estimated at 20,000*l*. The town now consists of three streets, which form an irregular triangle. At the junction of these is the parish-church, the tower of which fell down in 1724. In the chancel is a fine monument, with an effigy, &c. to the memory of sir William Paston, knt., who died in 1608, aged eighty years. He agreed, in 1607, with John Key, a mafon of London, to erect and fit up this tomb, with his effigy in armour, five feet and a half long, for which he was to pay 200*l*. Sir William settled 40*l*. per annum on the free-school, and 10*l*. a year on a weekly lecturer. In this parish are meeting-houses for Quakers, Methodists, Presbyterians, and Anabaptists. An annual fair is held here, and a weekly market on Thursday. In the reign of Edward VI. bishop Thirlby built a market-cross here, which, being damaged by the fire above mentioned, was repaired by bishop Redman. In the population return of the year 1811, this parish is stated to contain 448 houses and 2035 inhabitants.

In the adjacent parish of Bacton stood *Broomholme Priory*, founded by William de Glanville, in 1113, for monks of the Cluniac order; the remains of this building, near the sea-side, some time since formed an interesting ruin; but most of the walls are now incorporated with a farm-house, and the rooms converted into domestic offices.

St. Bennet's Abbey, at *Holme*, in the parish of Horning in this hundred, was founded in a fenny place, called Cowholme, where formerly was an hermitage, which king Canute, in the year 1020, established for black monks of the Benedictine order. The ample endowments first granted were further extended by Edward the Confessor, the empress Maud, and other royal personages. It was one of the mitred abbeys, and its abbots had a feat in the house of lords. This abbey was so strongly constructed, that it appeared more like a castle than a cloister; and was so well fortified, that William the Conqueror in vain besieged it, till a monk, on promise of being made abbot, betrayed the place: the king performed the condition, but hanged the new abbot as a traitor. Some foundations of the walls, which inclosed an area of thirty-five acres, are yet traceable; but the remains of the once-ately building are now no more, except part of the magnificent gate-way, and this is partially obscured by a draining-mill erected over it.—*Beauties of England and Wales*, vol. xi. Norfolk. By J. Britton, F.A.S. 1810, from Blomefield's History, &c. of Norfolk.

WALSINGHAM, Sir FRANCIS, in *Biography*, an eminent statesman, was descended from an ancient family of Walsingham in Norfolk, and born at Chislehurst in Kent. Having completed his education at King's college, Cambridge, he sought farther improvement by foreign travels, and having remained abroad during the reign of queen Mary, he was introduced to public business by Cecil on his return to his own country. He commenced his political

career as ambassador to France, where he continued, discharging his public duties with great assiduity and injury to his own fortune, until the year 1573. His conduct in this office is highly commended by Wicquefort; and Dr. Lloyd, in his "State-Worthies," pronounces a very flattering eulogy on his political character. In 1573 he was appointed secretary of state, admitted into the privy-council, and knighted; and such was his vigilance in guarding against plots which threatened to disturb the tranquillity and security of queen Elizabeth, that he is said to have maintained 53 agents and 18 spies in foreign courts. In 1581 he went to France as ambassador for the purpose of treating concerning a marriage between Elizabeth and the duke of Anjou; and on this occasion, it is said, that "the fickle coquetry of his mistresses tried his patience, and exercised all his diplomatic dexterity." The result of his embassy to Scotland in 1583 was a report of James's abilities and learning more favourable than he really merited. In the unhappy dispute that terminated in the execution of Mary, Walsingham was a principal agent, and he has been charged, as the reader will find under the article ELIZABETH, with recommending some private method of putting that unfortunate princess to death; but it has been thought that the letter mentioned under that article, and said to have been signed by him, is not genuine; and that this is the case is rendered more probable by the evidence alleged in proof of Walsingham's having warmly opposed such an act of villainy when proposed by the earl of Leicester. After the death of Mary, Walsingham was principally instrumental in producing a reconciliation between the English and Scottish courts. This minister was a zealous Protestant, and seemed disposed to countenance the Puritans, as the most zealous opponents of popery; and he also manifested his attachment to the reformed religion by establishing a divinity-lecture at Oxford in 1586, for the purpose of discussing the fundamental truths of Christianity, derived from the scriptures, and of thus forming a wider separation between the church of England and that of Rome. In advanced life, Walsingham retired from business; and died in April 1590, so much in debt, notwithstanding the various posts and dignities which he occupied, that he was buried in St. Paul's privately and by night, lest his body should be arrested. His poverty, however, seems to have been exaggerated, though his expences in the conduct of public business were known to be very great. His only daughter was successively married to sir Philip Sidney, to the earl of Essex, and to the earl of Clanrickard. The negotiations and dispatches of Walsingham, during his residence at the French court in 1570, were collected by sir Dudley Digges, and published in 1655, fol. *Biog. Brit.*

WALSINGHAM, THOMAS, a native of Norfolk, was a benedictine monk of St. Alban's, where he was chanter, and probably regius professor of history about the year 1440, in the reign of Henry VI., as he styles himself historiographer royal. One of his works is intitled "Historia brevis," and commences with the close of the reign of Henry III., where that of Matthew Paris terminates. Another performance is intitled "Hypodigma Neustrie," and gives an account of the affairs of the duchy of Normandy, from the time of Rollo to the sixth year of Henry V. The materials of this chronicler's narratives are in good estimation; and were published by archbishop Parker, Lond. 1574, fol. Nicolson's Hist. Lib. Gen. Biog.

WALSINGHAM, THOMAS, in the *History of Music*, was the author of a treatise in the MS. of Waltham Holy Cross; for an account of which, see *Lionel Power*. For an account of Walsingham's treatise, see the article PRO-LATION.

WALSINGHAM; a tune in queen Elizabeth's Virginal Book, with thirty variations by Dr. Bull; so difficult, that the famous finger, Margarita, after she had quitted the stage, and was married to Dr. Pepusch, though she became a great harpsichord player, could never entirely conquer them. See VIRGINAL Book of queen Elizabeth and Dr. BULL.

We at first imagined that this tune might have had its name of Walsingham, from the composer of whom we have been speaking in the preceding article; but find that in Ward's Lives of the Prof. of Gres. Coll. it is said to have been first composed by Birde, with twenty variations, and that Bull composed his variations at different times. Afterwards, we thought then that the name might have been a compliment to sir Francis Walsingham, the queen's minister; but that idea was relinquished on finding that it was the tune of an old song, beginning, "As I went to Walsingham," in queen Elizabeth's book; and "Have with you to Walsingham," in lady Nevill's virginal book, where it is inserted with twenty-two variations by Birde. Now it is well known by tradition, in Norfolk, that Henry VIII., previous to the suppression of the monasteries, visited that of our lady of Walsingham, so rich in votive gifts from those who had been cured of diseases, or imagined themselves cured, by the waters of the holy well, that it has been supposed that Henry, tempted by the riches and splendour of the religious houses at Walsingham, precipitated their fall; and it is probable, that the words to the tune called Walsingham were written about this time.

WALSINGHAM, *Little, or New, in Geography*, a considerable market-town in the hundred of North Greenhoe and county of Norfolk, England, is situated on the banks of a small river at the distance of 29 miles N.W. from the city of Norwich, and 114 miles N.N.E. from London. The great celebrity which this town obtained for several centuries was originally derived from the widow of Ricoldie Faverches founding, about the year 1061, a small chapel in honour of the Virgin Mary, similar to the Sancta Casa at Nazareth. Sir Geoffrey Faverches, her son, confirmed the endowments, made an additional foundation of a priory for Augustine canons, and erected a conventual church. Immense wealth was accumulated by grants and offerings; and the image of the *Lady of Walsingham* was as much frequented, if not more than the shrine of St. Thomas à Becket at Canterbury. Foreigners of all nations came hither on pilgrimage; many kings and queens of England also paid their devours to it; so that the number and quantity of her devotees appeared to equal those of the lady of Loretto in Italy. Erasmus, who visited this place, says, that "the chapel, then rebuilding, was distinct from the church, and inside of it was a small chapel of wood, on each side of which was a little narrow door, where those who were admitted came with their offerings and paid their devotions; it was lighted up with wax torches, and the glitter of gold, silver, and jewels, would lead you to suppose it to be the seat of the gods." This far-famed image was, in the 30th year of Henry VIII., conveyed to Chelsea, and there publicly burnt. The present remains of this once-noble monastic pile are, a portal, or west entrance gateway, a richly ornamented lofty arch, sixty feet high, which formed the east end of the church, supposed to have been erected in the time of Henry VII.; the refectory, seventy-eight feet long, and twenty-seven broad, and the walls twenty-six feet and a half in height; a Norman arch, part of the original chapel, which has a zigzag moulding; part of the old cloisters, a stone bath, and two wells, called the Wishing Wells, from a charm which superstition attached to them. The principal parts of these venerable ruins are included in the pleasure-

grounds of Henry Lee Warner, esq. who has a commodious house, which occupies the site of the priory. The present proprietor has progressively, for several years, been making improvements in planting, and laying out the grounds in the immediate vicinity of his mansion. The church of Walsingham is a spacious and interesting pile, displaying in its architecture, ornaments, monuments, and very elegant font much to gratify the antiquary. The latter is not only the finest specimen of the sort in the county, but perhaps in the kingdom. It is of an octangular shape, and the whole of its base, shaft, and projecting upper portion, is covered with sculpture, representing buttresses, pinnacles, niches, crocketed pediments, &c. with several figures in basso-relievo. It is elevated on a plinth of four steps, the exterior faces of which are also decorated with tracery mouldings. (See an account and view of it in Britton's Architectural Antiquities of Great Britain.) A house of grey friars was founded in this town about the year 1346 by lady Elizabeth de Burgh, countess of Clare; but its fame was eclipsed by the superior grandeur of its neighbour, and poverty thrust it still further into obscurity. An hospital for lazars was founded here in 1492: the building of which is used now as a bridevell. A fair is held annually; and a market weekly on Fridays. The population, by the return of the year 1811, was stated to be 1008, occupying 236 houses.

At the distance of a mile and a half N. by E. is the village of Old Walsingham, which contains two churches; and in 1811 was returned as having 71 houses, and a population of 347 persons.

In the adjoining parish of Binham are the remains of Binham Priory, formerly an edifice of great extent and liberal endowment. Its ruins are now very considerable and interesting, but are gradually mouldering away. Of the once-spacious collegiate church, only the nave and north aisle, the chief part of the western front, and fragments of the transept, are now left. Excepting the west façade, the whole is of the early Norman architecture, and most probably constitutes part of the original structure founded in the beginning of the reign of Henry I. The exterior of the western front is wholly in the pointed style, and is an interesting specimen of the ecclesiastical architecture of the thirteenth century.

Holkham House, in the adjacent parish of Holkham, the magnificent seat and residence of Thomas William Coke, esq., was begun in the year 1734 by the earl of Leicester, and completed by his dowager-countess in 1760. The central part of this spacious mansion extends three hundred and forty-five feet in length, by one hundred and eighty in depth, and is accompanied by four wings or pavilions, which are connected with it by rectilinear corridors or galleries; each of the two fronts, therefore, displays a centre and two wings. In the centre are comprised the principal rooms; and each wing has its respective destination, and suite of family apartments. There may be houses larger and more magnificent than this, but scarcely any one in the kingdom that can equal it for convenience and appropriate arrangement. The fitting up of the interior is in the most splendid style, and in some of the apartments with the most elegant taste. A corresponding style prevails in laying out the extensive pleasure-grounds and park. On the north side of the latter, a lake, covering about twenty acres, extends in nearly a right line for 1056 yards; it includes a small island, and the shore is finely clothed with wood.—*Beauties of England and Wales*, vol. xi. Norfolk. By J. Britton, F.A.S. 1810. Blomefield's Topographical History of Norfolk, vol. ix. 8vo. 1808.

WALSINGHAM of *Davis, Cape*, a cape on the E. coast of America, at the N. side of the entrance into Cumberland straits. N. lat. $64^{\circ} 10'$. W. long. 66° .

WALSINGHAM of *Frobisher, Cape*, a cape at the S.E. extremity of Hale island in Davis's straits, at the entrance of Frobisher's straits. N. lat. $62^{\circ} 50'$. W. long. $64^{\circ} 58'$.

WALSRODE, *i. e.* WALO'S CROSS, a town of Westphalia, in the principality of Luneburg Zell, on the Bolme. It owes its rise to a monastery founded in 986, by Walo a prince of Anhalt, and is now a considerable town with a good trade in wool, beer, &c.; 3 miles N.W. of Zell. N. lat. $52^{\circ} 54'$. E. long. $9^{\circ} 35'$.

WALSTORP, a town of the duchy of Holstein; 11 miles S.W. of Lutkenborg.

WALT, in *Sea Language*, an obsolete or spurious term, signifying crank.

WALTDORF, or WALTERSDORF, in *Geography*, a town of Silesia, in the principality of Neisse; 5 miles N.N.E. of Neisse.

WALTENBUCH, a town of Wurtemberg; 8 miles S. of Stuttgart.

WALTER NIENBURG, a town of Germany, in the principality of Anhalt Zerbst; 6 miles W. of Zerbst.

WALTERSDORF, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Chrudim; 13 miles N.E. of Leutnisch.

WALTERSDORFF, a town of Austria; 5 miles E. of Zitterdorf.

WALTERSHAUSEN, a town of Germany, in the principality of Gotha; 4 miles S.S.W. of Gotha. N. lat. $50^{\circ} 56'$. E. long. $10^{\circ} 38'$.

WALTERSKIRCHEN, a town of Austria; 8 miles N.W. of Zitterdorf.

WALTHAM, a town of Massachusetts, in the county of Middlesex, containing 1014 inhabitants; 11 miles N.W. of Boston.—Also, a town of Vermont, in the county of Addison, containing 244 inhabitants.

WALTHAM, or *Wesham*, a town of Virginia, on the left bank of James river; 4 miles N.W. of Richmond.

WALTHAM Abbey, or WALTHAM *Holy-Crofs*, a large irregular market-town in the half-hundred of Waltham and county of Essex, England, is situated on low ground near the river Lea, at the distance of twenty-three miles W. by S. from Chelmsford, and twelve miles N. by E. from London. This spot was originally part of the forest of Essex, and derived the appellation of Waltham from the Saxon words *Ham*, a place, and *Weald*, woody; the whole feat being anciently overgrown with trees. The additional names were derived from the abbey afterwards founded here, and the crofs to which the abbey was dedicated. The first mention of Waltham occurs in the reign of Canute the Great, when Tovy, the king's standard-bearer, founded here a village and a church, placing three score and fix dwellers in the former, and two priests in the latter. After his death, Waltham reverted to the crown, and was granted, in 1062, by Edward the Confessor, to earl Harold, on condition that he should build a monastery there. Harold accordingly, in the same year, re-founded and enlarged the building erected by Tovy, and endowed it as a college for a dean and eleven secular canons of the order of St. Augustine. A distinct manor was assigned for the maintenance of each canon, and fix for the support of the dean; the church was enriched with a great number of relics and costly vessels. The possessions of the college were afterwards considerably augmented by various benefactions, and it continued in a state of progressive advancement till the reign of Henry II. This monarchy, by a charter of licence from pope Alexander, changed the old foundation of secu-

lars into an abbey of regular canons of the same order, enlarging the number to twenty-four, and proportionably increasing their revenues; and the abbey and church were re-dedicated to the Holy Crofs. Walter de Gaunt was appointed the first abbot, with an exemption by the pope from episcopal jurisdiction; and this privilege has descended to modern times, Waltham being still exempted from the arch-deacon's visitation. Richard I. granted to the abbey the whole manor of Waltham, with various privileges and gifts, which were greatly augmented by Henry III., from whose time it became so distinguished by a series of royal and noble benefactors, as to rank with the most opulent in the kingdom. Henry frequently made the abbey his residence; and, to provide, in some measure, for the increased consumption which his presence and retinue occasioned, granted to the town the privilege of a weekly market, and an annual fair of seven days. The abbey having existed during the government of twenty-seven abbots, exclusive of the deans of the first foundation, was dissolved in the year 1539; when its annual revenues were valued at 900*l.* 4*s.* 11*d.* according to Dugdale; or, as recorded by Speed, at 1079*l.* 12*s.* 1*d.* The feat was granted to sir Anthony Denny; from whose family it passed in the next century, by marriage, to James Hay, earl of Carlisle: it has since been in the family of sir William Wake, bart. The abbey-house is said to have been a very extensive building; but it has been long since wholly demolished; a gateway into the abbey-yard, a bridge which leads to it, some ruinous walls, an arched vault, and the church, are now the only vestiges of the ancient magnificence of Waltham abbey. The church, which was of a much earlier style of architecture than the other remains, was built in the usual form of a crofs, and consisted of a nave, transept, choir, ante-chapel, &c. Some idea may be formed of its great extent, from the situation of king Harold's tomb, which stood about 120 feet east from the termination of the present building, in what was then the east end of the choir: the intersection of the transept is still visible; above this rose the ancient tower, part of which falling through mere decay, the remainder was undermined and blown up, and the whole choir, tower, transept, and east end, were wholly demolished, so that nothing was left standing but the nave, which has since been fitted up, and made parochial, and constitutes the present church. This venerable relic, though much disfigured and mutilated, contains several interesting and curious specimens of the ornamented columns, semi-circular arches, and other characteristics of the Norman style of architecture. Its length is about ninety feet; and its breadth forty-eight. The body is divided from the aisles by fix arches on each side; five are semicircular and decorated with zigzag ornaments; the sixth is pointed, and apparently of a later construction. At the west end is a heavy square embattled tower, rising to the height of eighty-six feet, and having the date of 1558. Almost every ornamental vestige of grandeur and antiquity, which formerly distinguished the exterior of this church, has been industriously defaced; and what remains owes its preservation to the durable nature of its materials. In the inside the hand of violence is less conspicuous; but every thing displays marks of the most wretched parsimony: the grandeur and simplicity of the ancient remains are much injured by white-washing; the brafses are torn from the grave-stones, and it is with difficulty that their impressions can be traced. In this church were interred king Harold and his two brothers, Girth and Leofwin, slain with him at the battle of Hastings. Many other persons of rank and authority in early times were also buried here. The history of Waltham town is so nearly identified with that of the abbey,

abbey, that but little remains to be said of the former. In the population return of the year 1811, the inhabitants of this town are enumerated as 2287; the houses as 422. Tuesday is the market-day, and here are now two annual fairs. The chief manufactures are those of printed linens, and of pins; for the latter purpose some large buildings have been recently erected, in which a great number of children of both sexes are employed. On one of the branches of the Lea, near the town, are some gunpowder mills, now in the occupation of government; these have been partly rebuilt since the year 1801, when considerable damage was done by the explosion of the Corning-house. The various streams of the Lea, in this vicinity, are traditionally supposed to flow in the same channels which the great Alfred made to divert the current, when he drew off the water, and left the Danish fleet on shore. Waltham parish includes the hamlets of Holyfield, Sewardstone, and Uphire, which are stated to contain 297 houses and 1398 inhabitants; making the aggregate population of the parish 3685, the number of houses 719.—*Beauties of England and Wales*, vol. v. Essex. By J. Britton and E. W. Brayley, 1803. History, &c. of Waltham Abbey, by J. Farmer, Gent. 8vo. 1735.

WALTHAM, *Bishop's*. See *BISHOP'S WALTHAM*.

WALTHAM, *West*, or *WALTHAM CROFT*, a hamlet in the parish of Cheshunt, hundred and county of Hertford, England, is situated half a mile from Waltham abbey, nine miles S. by E. from Hertford, and twelve miles N. from London. It derives the appellation of *Crofts* from one of those elegant stone crosses which Edward I. erected to the memory of his consort queen Eleanor, who died in November 1291, at Hareby near Grantham, in Lincolnshire. Her bowels were interred in Lincoln cathedral; her body was brought to London, and deposited in Westminster abbey. At each of the places where the procession rested, during this journey, the king afterwards erected a cross; of which only those of Geddington, Northampton, and Waltham, now remain. Waltham cross is the least perfect of the three, though the Society of Antiquaries have twice interested themselves in its preservation; once in 1721, and again in 1757, when lord Monson, then lord of the manor of Cheshunt, at the request of the Society, surrounded the base with brick-work: it was originally encompassed by a flight of steps, but these have been long removed. The upper parts are also greatly mutilated; much of the foliage is defaced, and the pinnacles and battlements are broken. The form of the cross is hexagonal: it is separated into three stories; the middlemost of which is open, and displays statues of queen Eleanor crowned; her left hand holding a cordon, and her right a sceptre or globe. Each side of the lower story is divided into two compartments, beneath an angular coping, charged with shields exhibiting the arms of England, Castile, Leon, and Pontien. The cornice over the first story is composed of various foliage and lions' heads, surmounted by a battlement pierced with quatrefoils. The second story is formed of twelve open tabernacles, in pairs, terminating in ornamented pediments with a finial on the top: this story also finishes with a cornice and battlement like the first, and supports a third story of solid masonry, ornamented with single compartments in relief, somewhat resembling those below. In this hamlet is an ancient Spital, consisting of four rooms below, and three above, from time immemorial appropriated for poor lame people. The work-house for the parish of Cheshunt is situated in this hamlet.—*Beauties of England and Wales*, vol. vii. Hertfordshire. By E. W. Brayley. 1808. Lyfons' Environs of London, vol. iv. 4to. 1796. Britton's Architectural Antiquities of Great Britain, vol. i. 4to. 1807.

VOL. XXXVII.

WALTHAM, *Great*, a township of England, in Essex; 4 miles N. by W. of Chelmsford.

WALTHAM on the *Wold*, a town of England, in the county of Leicester, which had formerly a weekly market on Thursday, now discontinued; 18 miles S.E. of Nottingham. N. lat. 52° 50'. W. long. 0° 48'. See *WALTON-on-the-Wolds*.

WALTHAMSTOW, an extensive village in the hundred of Becontree and county of Essex, England, is situated near the borders of the river Lea, at the distance of six miles and a half N.E. by N. from St. Paul's cathedral, London. Its name is derived from the Saxon word *wæald*, a wood, *ham*, a manor, and *stowe*, a place. It covers a considerable tract of ground, and is divided into the following streets, or hamlets: Wood-street, Clay-street, Marsh-street, Hoo-street, Hale-end, and Chapel-end. The parish church, a spacious brick structure, consists of a chancel, nave, and two aisles. At the west end is a square tower, which was rebuilt by sir George Monox, alderman of London; who also built the chapel at the east end of the north aisle about the year 1535: the south aisle was built about the same year with a part of some monies bequeathed for charitable uses by Robert Thorne, merchant-taylor, and citizen of London. About the year 1740, a meeting-house for Protestant dissenters was established in this village: in 1787 some disputes among the congregation occasioned the building of a new meeting-house, which was opened in July in that year: it has a cemetery adjoining. Sir George Monox, before mentioned, built and endowed thirteen alms-houses on the north side of the church-yard, for eight men and five women; with a school-house and apartments for a master: the endowments were augmented in 1686, by the will of Henry Maynard, esq. Thirty boys are now clothed and educated in the school; and the benefits have been extended to twenty girls, in a school established in 1780. Here is also a school for very young children, who are taken care of till of age to be admitted into the other schools. In the year 1795, six alms-houses were built and endowed by Mrs. Mary Squires, for widows of decayed tradesmen. The parish of Walthamitow contains about 4320 acres of land, of which upwards of 3000 are inclosed; chiefly pasture land. The population return of the year 1811 states the number of houses to be 562; the inhabitants 3777.—*Lyfons's Environs of London*, vol. iv. 4to. 1796.

WALTHARN, a town of Hesse Darmstadt; 26 miles E.N.E. of Heidelberg.

WALTHAUSEN, a town of Austria, with a convent; 4 miles N.E. of Grein.

WALTHER, AUGUSTINE FREDERIC, in *Biography*, an anatomist and physician, was appointed in 1723 professor of anatomy and surgery, in the university of Leyden. Several of his dissertations on anatomical subjects are upon the whole commended, and have been reprinted by Haller. The best of his larger pieces are, "De Lingua Humana Libellus," 1724, 4to. As a botanist, he published a catalogue of the plants in his own garden, and a work on the structure of plants. He died about the year 1746. Haller. Eloy. See *WALTHERIA*.

WALTHER, BERNARD, an eminent astronomer, was born at Nuremberg in the year 1430, and having applied principally to the study of mathematics, and more especially of astronomy, under Regiomontanus, was eminently useful by his talents and opulence in encouraging the inventions and aiding the observations of his preceptor, whilst he continued at Nuremberg; and when by the invitation of pope Sixtus IV. he removed to Rome, with a view to the reformation of the calendar, he continued his observations for

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nearly forty years, viz. from 1475 to the time of his death in 1504. His instruments were of the most perfect kind which he could then procure, and he was skilful and persevering as well as successful in the use of them. He was the inventor of a chronometer, or clock with wheels, which indicated the time of noon with an accuracy corresponding to the result of calculation; and he is also celebrated as the first of the Moderns who observed refraction. (See the article JOHN MULLER.) The singularity of his character, however, restricted the benefit which astronomy might otherwise have derived from his own observations and those of his preceptor Regiomontanus, or John Muller. After the death of Muller, he purchased his papers and instruments, which he kept in his own possession, without allowing any one to see them; and after his death, they were neglected by his heirs, so that many of them were lost. At length the senate of Nuremberg purchased the writings of these two mathematicians which they could procure, and deposited them in the library of that city. Several parts of them were afterwards extracted, and published by Schoener and his son. In the work entitled "Vranies Norice Basis Astronomice, five Rationes motus annui ex Observationibus in Solem hoc nostro et Seculo ab hinc tertio Norinberge, habitis, a Johanne Philippo a Wurzelbau," Norimb. 1709, are contained observations by Walther and Wurzelbau, with inferences drawn from a comparison of them, which are said by Kästner to be very valuable, as the observations were made under the same meridian, and at the interval of a century. Montucla Hist. du Mathem. Kästner Geschite du Mathematik, cited in Gen. Biog.

WALTHER, JOHN GODFREY, author of an excellent historical and biographical musical dictionary, published in German at Leipzig, 1782, in 8vo. The German title is: *Musikalisches Lexicon oder Musikalische Bibliothek*. Of all the books which we have consulted for information concerning musicians and their works, we have never met with more satisfaction than from this Lexicon; which though compressed into an octavo volume, is so ample and accurate, that we have been seldom disappointed, and never led into error by it. This little volume contains, not only all the technica of ancient and modern music, but biography, as far as names, dates, and works, of almost every eminent musician that has existed in ancient and modern times, till the year in which the book was published. The author's information, of course, concerning Germany, is the most ample, but Italy and France have had a considerable share of attention.

In 1790 and 1792 a new edition of this work, with additions to the time of publication, was printed at Leipzig in two vols. 8vo. by Ernst Ludwig Gerber.

WALTHER, JOHN LUDOLPH, author of another very curious and useful dictionary, published at Ulm in folio, 1756, in Latin, intitled "Lexicon Diplomaticum Abbreviationes syllabarum et vocum in diplomatibus et codicibus a Seculo VIII. ad XVI. usque occurrentes exponens. Junctis Alphabetis et scripturæ Speciminibus integris." The author was librarian and private secretary to his British majesty Geo. II. as elector of Hanover. With a very learned preface by John Harry Young, regius secretary in the university of Gottingen.

The whole book is engraved on copper-plates; and in the second part, among the specimens of writing without abbreviations, we have examples of the first attempts at musical notation from the ninth century, not only before lines were in use, but even before points of different elevation were the vocal guides of the priests in canto fermo.

This very curious, learned, and elegant publication seems

to have escaped the notice of all our periodical works of criticism, nor have we ever seen it mentioned in any of our catalogues of old and curious books.

WALTHERIA, in *Botany*, received its name from Linnæus, in honour of Augustus Frederick Walther, professor of Pathology at Leipzig, where he published, in 1735, an alphabetical catalogue of his own garden, with twenty-four plates, no very great acquisition to science. The author, being an able anatomist, gave some attention to the structure of plants, on which he published an academical treatise in 1740; but, as it appears by Haller's account, without much that is new or instructive. He wrote also on the essential oils of vegetables, on the Egyptian *Lotus*, and on the *Silphium* of the antients, as elucidated, if such a term be allowable, by their coins. This author died in 1746, at the age of 58. There have been several others of the same name, but scarcely entitled to claim a share in the botanical distinction here conferred.—Linn. Gen. 348. Schreb. 453. Willd. Sp. Pl. v. 3. 586. Mart. Mill. Dict. v. 4. Ait. Hort. Kew. v. 4. 138. Cavan. Diss. 315. Juss. 289. Lamarck Illustr. t. 570. Poiret in Lamarck Dict. v. 8. 323.—Clafs and order, *Monadelphia Pentandria*. Nat. Ord. *Columniferæ*, Linn. *Malvaceæ*, Juss.

Gen. Ch. *Cal.* Perianth inferior, double; the outer unilateral, of three leaves, deciduous; inner of one leaf, cloven half way down into five acute segments, cup-shaped, permanent. *Cor.* Petals five, inversely heart-shaped, spreading, their claws inserted into the lower part of the tube of the filaments. *Stam.* Filaments five, united into a tube, their upper part separate, spreading, short; anthers ovate. *Pist.* Germen superior, ovate; style thread-shaped, longer than the stamens; stigmas tufted. *Peric.* Capsule obovate, of one cell and two valves. *Seed* solitary, obtuse, dilated upwards.

Ess. Ch. Calyx double; the outer lateral, of three leaves, deciduous. Petals five. Style one. Capsule of one cell, and two valves. *Seed* solitary.

A tropical genus, whose flowers are smaller than in most of the Mallow tribe, and always assembled numerously into little tufts or heads. The stem is shrubby. Leaves undivided, more or less ovate, serrated, generally downy. The simple capsule, with only one seed, makes the peculiar character of *Waltheria*, opposed to others of the same natural order.—Jussieu refers this genus, along with *Hermannia* and *Mahernia*, to a section of his *Tiliaceæ*, which he terms *dubie*. We make no scruple to follow the example of Cavanilles, in removing it to the *Malvaceæ*, with which it accords in every essential point of character and habit.

1. *W. Americana*. American *Waltheria*. Linn. Sp. Pl. 941. excluding the syn. of Breynius. Willd. n. 1. Ait. n. 1. (W. Indica; Jacq. Ic. Rar. t. 130. Misc. Austr. v. 2. 323. W. arborefcens; Cavan. Diss. 316. t. 170. f. 1. Monosperm-althæa arborefcens villosa, folio majore; Inard Mem. de l'Acad. des Sciences for 1721, German ed. 751. t. 32. Betonica arborefcens, foliis amplioribus; Pluk. Almag. 67. Phyt. t. 150. f. 6.)—Leaves oval, plaited, downy, unequally and sharply toothed. Heads of flowers stalked.—Native of the Bahama islands, and South America. Cultivated in the royal gardens at Hampton-court, in Plukenet's time. A stove plant, flowering at various seasons, after which it usually dies, though shrubby, and perhaps naturally perennial. The branches are round, downy, leafy, wand-like, very soft when young. Leaves alternate, stalked, one to two inches, or more, in length, strongly veined, plaited at the edges, extremely soft on both sides, with dense, hoary, minutely starry, pubescence. *Sipulas* awl-shaped. Flowers small, yellow, in dense axillary

solitary tufts, each on a stout straight downy stalk, various in length, but usually about equal to the corresponding foot-stalk.

2. *W. Indica*. East Indian Waltheria. Linn. Sp. Pl. 941. Willd. n. 2. Ait. n. 2. (*Malvinda ulmifolia*, *Stoculis pusillus mucosus confusis*; Burn. Zeyl. 149. t. 63. *Betonica arborefcens maderaspatana*, *villosis foliis profundè venosis*; Pluk. Almag. 67. Phyt. t. 150. f. 5.)—Leaves oval, plaited, downy, bluntly toothed. Heads of flowers sessile.—Native of the East Indies. Cavanilles unites it with the foregoing, but the blunter more shallow teeth of the leaves, which are perhaps less densely downy, and the constantly sessile heads of flowers, of a tawny yellow, appear sufficient marks of distinction, especially as the native countries of these two plants are so remote from each other. Mr. Aiton marks the *W. Indica* as a shrub, flowering in the stove from June to August, and cultivated by Miller before the year 1759. To the *Americana* he attaches the character of biennial.

3. *W. Lophanthus*. Crested South-sea Waltheria. Forst. Prod. 47. Willd. n. 3. (*Lophanthus tomentosus*; Forst. Gen. t. 14; see *LOPHANTHUS*).—"Leaves roundish-heart-shaped, serrated, stalked, clothed with silky pubescence. Heads of flowers stalked. Bractæa imbricated."—Native of the Marquis islands. G. Forster.

4. *W. ovata*. Roundish-leaved Waltheria. Cavan. Diff. 317. t. 171. f. 1. Willd. n. 4.—Leaves roundish-ovate, acute, unequally toothed, densely downy. Heads of flowers sessile.—Gathered in Peru by Dombey, who, unaware of its real genus, named the plant *Aubentonia*. This is a bushy shrub, three or four feet high, downy and very soft in every part. Leaves of a very broad ovate figure, obscurely lobed or angular, one and a half or two inches long, sharply toothed. Flowers yellow, in small sessile tufts, some of the lower ones assembled upon short, leafy, axillary branches, not near so long as the leaves.

5. *W. angustifolia*. Narrow-leaved Waltheria. Linn. Sp. Pl. 941. Willd. n. 5. (*W. microphylla*; Cavan. Diff. 317. t. 170. f. 2.)—"Leaves oblong, obtuse, plaited, toothed, hoary. Heads of flowers nearly sessile."—Native of the East Indies. Willdenow says, "*the stem is shrubby. Whole plant invested with thin pubescence. Leaves half an inch long, obtuse at each end. Heads supported by very short stalks.*" We are obliged to adopt from him our ideas of this species, having no certain means of knowing what Linnaeus intended. The plant of *Fl. Zeylanica*, n. 244, is probably different from that of *Sp. Pl.* but the synonyms of this and *W. indica* are so confused, that they embroil rather than illustrate the subject, nor does the Linnaean herbarium throw any certain light upon it.

6. *W. elliptica*. Elliptic-leaved Waltheria. Cavan. Diff. 316. t. 171. f. 2. Willd. n. 6.—Leaves elliptic-oblong, obtuse, plaited, toothed, downy. Heads of flowers sessile.—Gathered by Sonnerat in the East Indies. The leaves are more downy, and thrice as long as in the last, though not broader; the petals, according to Cavanilles' plate, obtuse, not emarginate.

7. *W. glabra*. Smooth-leaved Waltheria. Poir. in Lam. n. 7.—Leaves smooth, ovato-lanceolate, bluntish, with tooth-like serratures. Heads of flowers alternate, on axillary stalks.—Native of Guadeloupe, described by Poir. from the herbarium of professor Desfontaines. A shrub related in many respects to the *W. americana*, but smooth in all its parts. The branches are slender, a little compressed, very smooth, dark brown. Leaves stalked, oval, somewhat lanceolate, two or three inches long, one and a half or two inches broad; smooth on both sides; paler beneath; rarely

pointed. Footstalks slender, six or eight lines long. Stipules lanceolate, pointed, deciduous. Flowers in dense, almost sessile, leafless tufts, ranged alternately on an axillary stalk. Outer calyx of three very narrow, smooth, deciduous leaves: inner permanent, bell-shaped, very smooth, with long, almost thread-shaped teeth. Corolla yellow, scarcely longer than the inner calyx. Capsule membranous, with one seed. Poir. The genus is clear by this description.

8. *W. cordata*. Heart-leaved Waltheria. Leaves smooth, heart-shaped, sharply and unequally toothed. Heads of flowers ovate, solitary, on straight axillary stalks.—Native, we believe, of the West Indies. The branches are round, elongated, brown; very smooth below; their younger shoots roughish to the touch with minute points. Leaves from one to two inches long, on roughish footstalks about a quarter of their own length, broadly ovate, bluntish, veiny, but not plaited; more or less heart-shaped at the base; very unequally toothed; paler beneath. Stipules awl-shaped. Common flower-stalks generally much longer than the footstalks, stout, each bearing a dense head of flowers, about half an inch long. Calyx, &c. answering nearly to the description of the last. The seed is solitary, turbinate, rather hard. The younger Linnaeus received this plant by the name of *W. angustifolia*, which it cannot be. The smoothness of the leaves and most other parts distinguish it from every described species, except the last, with whose description its leaves and inflorescence will by no means accord.

WALTHERIA, in Gardening, affords plants of the woody exotic kind, in which the species cultivated are the American waltheria (*W. Americana*); the Indian waltheria (*W. Indica*); and the narrow-leaved waltheria (*W. angustifolia*).

The first is a soft woody-stalked plant of small growth.

The second fort has a branching shrubby growth. And the last is of the woody-stalked kind.

They all afford flowers during the summer months.

Method of Culture.—These plants may be increased by seeds, which must be sown on a hot-bed; and when the plants are fit to plant out, they must be each removed into a separate small pot, and plunged into a fresh hot-bed, being afterwards treated in the same manner as other plants of the same nature, being kept in the bark-stove. In the second year they flower and produce seeds, but may be continued three or four years if they be often shifted, and the roots pared to keep them within compass. In the view of keeping the roots out of the tan, they should be drawn up out of it at least once in six weeks, during the summer season, and the plants be shifted out of the pots once in two months: with this management the second and third forts may be continued several years, but the first seldom endures longer than two.

They have a good effect in stove collections among other potted plants.

WALTON, BRIAN, in Biography, editor of the English Polyglott Bible, was born about the year 1600 in the district of Cleveland, Yorkshire, and in 1615 admitted into Magdalen college, Cambridge, whence he removed to Peter-house. In 1623 he took the degree of M.A. being then curate and master of a school in Suffolk. Upon his removal to London, he became in 1626 rector of St. Martin's Orgar, and was distinguished for his talents and diligence among the London clergy. After having been instituted to other preferments in the church, he took the degree of D.D. in 1639; but in the civil war his livings were sequestered, and he was under a necessity of seeking shelter among the royalists at Ox-

ford, where he formed the design of the Polyglott Bible, and which he actually commenced, upon his removal to London, in 1653. Indefatigable in his application, he completed this work in six vols. fol. in 1657; and it was the first work published in England by subscription. The protector's government also allowed him to import paper exempt from duty. For an account of this, as well as the other principal polyglotts, with a brief statement of their respective contents, we refer to the article POLYGLOTT. It is somewhat curious in the history of literature, that in the first preface to this work, Dr. Walton acknowledged his obligations to the protector for his patronage; but that after the Restoration, several alterations were made in this preface, and the paragraph in which he acknowledges his obligations to the protector is suppressed, and another transferring his respect to Charles is introduced in its room. (See Hollis's *Memoirs*, vol. i. p. 425. Bowyer's *Origin of Printing*, Appendix.) These alterations have occasioned a distinction among those who are curious in the editions of books between *republican* and *royal* or *loyal* copies of the Polyglott. The republican copy now before us is the rarest, and therefore bears the highest price. Dr. Owen in 1659 made an attack upon the prolegomena or appendix of this bible, which was annexed to two of his tracts published at Oxford, and in the same year Dr. Walton published an elaborate reply.

Soon after the Restoration, Dr. Walton presented his Polyglott to Charles II., who, in recompence of his services to religion and learning, appointed him his chaplain in ordinary, and bishop of Chester, to which see he was consecrated in December in 1660. In the following year, he was one of the commissioners at the Savoy conference. After his return to London from a visit to his diocese, in the autumn of that year, he was seized with a disease, which terminated his life on the 29th of November. His remains were interred in the cathedral of St. Paul's, and a sumptuous monument was erected to his memory. Biog. Brit.

WALTON, ISAAC, was born at Stafford in 1593; and settling in London as a shop-keeper, he married, about the year 1632, the sister of Dr. Ken, afterwards bishop of Bath and Wells. Satisfied with a moderate competency, he left business, and removed from London. Upon the decease of Dr. Donne, in 1631, whose ministry he attended during his residence in the city, he undertook, at the request of sir Henry Wotton, to collect materials for his life; but as Wotton, for whose use they were intended, died before he had an opportunity of executing his purpose, Walton, though destitute of a literary education, wrote this life, which he published in 1640, and also that of Wotton, which appeared in 1644. After his recess from business, his favourite amusement was fishing; and being expert in the practical part of this art, he wrote a book upon the subject, which he published in 1653 under the title of "Complete Angler, or Contemplative Man's Recreation," 12mo. This small tract, drawn up in the form of dialogue, was rendered interesting by the reflections that were introduced, and by the engravings of fishes that adorned it. Accordingly it became popular, and five editions of it, with successive improvements, appeared to the year 1766; and it is now a kind of standard book among those who pursue this recreation. Having lost his wife in 1662, he associated chiefly with the clergy, and whilst he was resident with Dr. Morley, bishop of Winchester, he was induced, by the suggestion of Dr. Sheldon, to write the life of Richard Hooker, which was followed by that of George Herbert; and both were published in 1670. In 1677 he published the life of Dr. Sanderfon, which closed his literary labours. His life was prolonged to the age of

ninety, when he was carried off at Winchester, in December 1683, by the severity of a hard frost. In his disposition and character, he was amiable, loyal, and religious; and in his style of writing simple and unaffected. A collection of his lives with notes was printed by Dr. Zouch in 1796, 4to. and again in 8vo., to which is prefixed a copious life of the author. Gen. Biog.

WALTON, in *Geography*, a post-township of Delaware county, in New York, about 85 miles from Albany; about 7 miles square, situated on both sides of Conango, or the W. branch of the Delaware river; it is mountainous and hilly, with good soil along the streams; much of the hills is arable or meadow land, and good for grazing. The township is well watered, and affords timber, which is rafted to Philadelphia. Here are a Presbyterian meeting-house, and several schools. In 1810 the whole population was 1311, with 128 electors, 173 taxable inhabitants, and 183,357 dollars of taxable property.

WALTON, a town of Virginia; 60 miles S.W. of Richmond.

WALTON, a town of England, in Derbyshire; 3 miles S.W. of Chesterfield.—Also, a village of England, in the county of Gloucester, where there is a medicinal spring, similar to Cheltenham; 1 mile E. of Tewkesbury.

WALTON *le Dale*, a township of Lancashire; 7 miles W. of Blackburn.

WALTON-on-the-Wolds, a village and parish in the hundred of East-Goscote, and county of Leicester, England; 4 miles E. of Loughborough. See Nichols's History, &c. of Leicestershire.

WALTON-upon-Thames, a village in the hundred of Elmbridge and county of Surrey, England, is situated on the southern bank of the river, 14 miles N.E. by N. distant from Guildford, and 18 miles W.S.W. from London. Mr. Gough says it probably derived its name from an encampment on St. George's-hill, in the vicinity, called Wall-town. These works are said to have been of Roman construction as well as a larger encampment at Otlands, and some topographers contend that Julius Cæsar raised a bridge over the Thames near this place. This however is very doubtful, although it seems satisfactorily proved, that many piles and pieces of timber have been raised from the bed of the river, and that these as well as the spot have long been called Cowey-stakes. In Walton are two annual fairs, one of which was established by grant of king Henry VIII. Apfe-court, in this parish, is an old mansion, belonging to Edmund Hill, esq.; but the land and extensive walled gardens are now let to a gardener. At Burwood-park is a handsome modern house, built by sir John Frederick, bart., who has lately much enlarged and improved the estate. Burhill is a feat in this parish, belonging to sir Charles Kemys Tynte, grandson of general Johnson, who obtained this estate in 1720 by the bequest of Peter de la Porte. Pains-hill is much celebrated for its fine grounds and beautiful gardens, which were first laid out by the honourable Charles Hamilton, and obtained very considerable popularity from having been formed from a sterile heath. Thus an apparent desert was transformed to a terrestrial paradise. Walpole, Gilpin, and other authors, have decanted on the beauties of this famed feat. One of these states, "there may be scenes where Nature has done more for herself, but in no place that I ever saw has so much been done for nature as at Pains-hill. The beauty and unexpected variety of the scene, the happy situation, elegant structure, and judicious form of the buildings; the flourishing state, uncommon diversity, and contrasted groupage of the trees, and the contrivance of the water, will not fail to awaken the most pleasing sensations." Mr. Hamilton sold this place to Benjamin Bond Hopkins, esq.,

efq.; who erected a large mansion on the brow of the hill. Pains-hill is now the seat of the earl of Carhampton. At Walton is a very long bridge over the Thames. In the church is a large costly monument by Roubiliac, to the memory of Richard, viscount Shannon, who died in 1740, and who was at that time field-marshal in the army, and commander-in-chief in Ireland. William Lilly, the astrologer, was buried in the chancel of this church; and in other parts were interred the following persons: Jerome Wefton, earl of Portland, who died in 1662; fir Jacob Edwards, bart., and his lady; Henry Skrine, esq., author of a tour in Wales, &c. Several of the Rodney family were buried in the church. In the chancel is a brass-plate engraved with the figures of a man on the back of a stag, and said to commemorate the following person and fact:—John Selwyn, a keeper in Oatlands park, was particularly noted for his strength, agility, &c. One day when hunting a stag in the said park, in the presence of queen Elizabeth, he sprang from his horse's back on that of the deer, and there preserved his seat, till the animal had reached a spot near her majesty, when Selwyn plunged his sword into the throat of the deer, and killed him on the spot.—See Antiquarian Repository, vol. i. 1807. For an account of Oatlands, &c. see WEYBRIDGE. History and Antiquities of Surrey, by the Rev. Owen Manning and William Bray, esq., three vols. fol.

WALTUNGI, a small island on the E. side of the gulf of Bothnia. N. lat. 65° 34'. E. long. 25°.

WALTWIESE, a town of France, in the department of the Moselle; 7 miles N.W. of Sar Louis.

WALTZ, in *Biography*, a German base finger, with a coarse figure, and a still coarser voice, whom Handel, when abandoned by all the great fingers who had performed in the operas which he composed for the Royal Academy, was obliged to employ in the place of Montagnana. It has been said, that Waltz was originally Handel's cook. He frequently sung in choruses and comic entertainments at Drury Lane, in our own memory; and, as an actor, had a great deal of broad humour. He played a little on the violoncello, and used to divert the band in the music-room under the stage when not wanted in the orchestra, with accompanying himself in ridiculous and satirical songs.

WALTZ, the name of a riotous German dance, of modern invention; of which the definition has not yet had admission in any musical lexicon. The tune is gay, and always in triple time. All our great performers on keyed instruments have composed and published tunes of this kind. The verb *waltzen*, whence this word is derived, implies to roll, wallow, welter, tumble down, or roll in the dirt or mire.

What analogy there may be between these acceptations and the dance, we pretend not to say; but having seen it performed by a select party of foreigners, we could not help reflecting how uneasy an English mother would be to see her daughter so familiarly treated, and still more to witness the obliging manner in which the freedom is returned by the females.

WALUWE, in *Geography*, a town on the S.E. coast of Ceylon; 40 miles S. of Yale.

WALWARNO, a river of England, which runs into the Lee, in the county of Chester.

WAMAR, a small island in the East Indian sea, near the W. coast of Aroo. S. lat. 5° 30'. E. long. 134° 57'.

WAMBA, a town of Spain, anciently called Gertica; 6 miles N. of Valladolid.—Also, a province of the kingdom of Anziko, S.E. of Pombo.

WAMBERG, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Koniginigratz; 20 miles E.S.E. of Koniginigratz.

WAMBRE, a river of Africa, in the kingdom of An-

ziko, which runs into the Bancaro, 25 miles N.E. of Concabella.

WAMBULA, a town of Sweden, in the province of Abo; 48 miles S.S.E. of Biornborg.

WAMMELOF, a town of Sweden, in the province of Schonen; 25 miles S.E. of Lund.

WAMPACH, a town of France, in the department of the Forefts; 6 miles E.N.E. of Houfalife.

WAMPOOL, or WAMPUL, a river of England, in Cumberland, which runs into the Eden, at its mouth.

WAMPU, a town of China, situated on the river between Macao and Canton, where vessels of different nations lie to take in their lading; not being allowed to go up higher. The air is said to be unwholesome; 7 miles S. of Canton.

WAMPUM, a sort of shells, several of which, being strung upon threads, are used as money among the Indians.

It is formed of the inside of the clam-shell, a large fea-shell bearing some resemblance to that of a scallop, which is found on the coasts of New England and Virginia. This shell is made into small cylinders of about one quarter of an inch long, and a fifth of an inch over, and being bored as beads, is strung in great numbers upon long strings. In this state it passes among the Indians in their usual commerce, as silver and gold among us; but being loose it is not so current.

It is both white and black or purple; and the meanest is in single strings, of which the white goes at five shillings a fathom, and the black at ten; or by number, the white six a penny, the black at three. The next in value to these single strings, is that which is wove into bracelets of about three-quarters of a yard long, black and white, in stripes, and six pieces in a row, the warp consisting of leather thongs, and the woof of thread; these the gentlewomen among them wear, wound twice or oftener about their wrists.

The most valuable of all is that woven into girdles or belts. These are composed of many rows, and the black and white pieces woven into squares or other figures. These girdles are sometimes worn as their richest ornaments; but they are oftener used in their great payments, and make their noblest presents, and are laid up as their treasure. Grew's Museum, p. 370.

WAMWALO, in *Geography*, a town of Hindoostan, in Guzerat; 55 miles W. of Noanagur.

WANA, a town of Sweden, in the province of Tavastland; 5 miles S.E. of Tavasthus.

WANASPATUCKET, a river of Rhode island, which runs into Providence river.

WANDA, a town of Algiers, in the province of Tremecen; 35 miles S.W. of Tremecen.

WANDASS. See WINDASS.

WANDECHY, in *Geography*, a town of Bootan; 4 miles N.W. of Tassafudon. N. lat. 27° 52'. E. long. 89° 31'.

WANDERSLEBEN, a town of Saxony, in the principality of Altenburg; 9 miles S.W. of Erfurt.

WANDESBECK, a town of the circle of Holstein; 3 miles N.E. of Hamburg.

WANDIPOUR, a town of Bootan, defended by a citadel, and considered as a place of great strength; 15 miles E. of Tassafudon. N. lat. 27° 50'. E. long. 89° 47'.

WANDIWASH, a town of Hindoostan, in the Carnatic; taken by the British troops in 1760; 38 miles N.N.W. of Pondicherry. N. lat. 12° 31'. E. long. 79° 46'.

WANDLACKEN, a town of Prussia, in the province of Natangen; 4 miles E. of Gerdaven.

WANDLE,

WANDLE, a river of England, in the county of Surrey, which runs into the Thames, below Wandsworth.

WANDO, a river of South Carolina, which runs into the Ashley, N. lat. $33^{\circ} 50'$. W. long. $79^{\circ} 58'$.

WANDSU, in *Zoology*, the name of a species of monkey found in the island of Ceylon. It is all over of a fine deep black; but has a long white beard hanging from its chin.

WANDSWORTH, or **WANDLESWORTH**, in *Geography*, a village in the western division of Brixton hundred, in the county of Surrey, England, is situated on the banks of the small river Wandle (which falls into the Thames in this parish), at the distance of six miles S.W. from St. Paul's cathedral, London. The parish, according to the population return of the year 1811, contained 905 houses, and 5644 inhabitants, of whom 620 families were employed in various trades and manufactures. Aubrey, in his "Antiquities of Surrey," mentions a manufacture of brass plates for frying-pans, kettles, and other culinary vessels, which was established here by Dutchmen who kept it a mystery: the houses where this business was carried on bore the name of frying-pan houses. Towards the close of the 17th century, when great numbers of French Protestants fled from the persecution which prevailed in the reign of Louis XIV., many of them settled at Wandsworth, and established a French church, which is now used as a meeting-house for Methodists. Among these refugees was a considerable number of hatters, who introduced their manufacture at this place with great success. Though diminished in its extent, the manufacture still exists. The art of dyeing cloth has been practised here above a century, and is now carried on to a considerable extent: as is also calico-printing, of which here are two extensive manufactories. Here are also establishments for printing kerseymeres, for bolting cloth, and for whitening and pressing stuffs; likewise iron-mills, oil and white-lead mills, vinegar works, and distilleries. Wandsworth church, which stands nearly in the centre of the village, is a brick structure, and consists of a nave, chancel, and two aisles: at the west end is a square tower, built in the year 1630. In 1780 the greater part of the church was rebuilt, at the expence of about 3500*l*. The Quakers have a meeting-house and two schools in this parish. Among the benefactions to the poor of Wandsworth is 500*l*. bequeathed by Henry Smith, alderman of London, who was born here about 1540, died in 1627, when he was buried in the church. He also left large estates, real and personal, to be allotted to the poor of various parishes, according to the discretion of his executors. In this distribution the county of Surrey has been principally regarded.

Garrett, a hamlet within this parish, appears to have been about two centuries ago a single house, called the Garvett. It now contains about fifty houses, and is well-known as the scene of a mock election on the meeting of every new parliament: when several noted characters in low life appear as candidates, being furnished with clothes and equipments by the publicans, who derive considerable profits from the crowds of people who assemble on such occasions.—Lysons's *Environers of London*, vol. i. 1796.

WANFRIED, a town of Germany, in the principality of Hesse Rhinefels, on the Werra; 13 miles W. of Muhlhausen. N. lat. $51^{\circ} 12'$. E. long. $10^{\circ} 14'$.

WANG, a town of Bavaria, in the bishopric of Freysing; 20 miles S. of Weilheim.—Also, a town of Austria; 12 miles S. of Ips.

WANG-TOOTH, a term sometimes applied to the jaw-tooth of an animal.

WANGA, in *Geography*, a town of Sweden, in East

Gothland; 11 miles N.N.E. of Linköping.—Also, a town of West Gothland; 46 miles E. of Uddevalla.

WANGARA, or **GUANGARA**, a country of Africa, watered by the Niger, which passes through it from W. to E. and is supposed soon after to lose itself in a lake or the sandy desert. This country is subject to Bornou, to the S. of which it lies. It was formerly, *i. e.* about the 11th century, subject to the sovereign of Ghera, which was called by the Arabians, according to the Arabian writers on the eastern part of the great central river, the Nile of the Negroes. Wangara, denominated the land of gold, is represented as formed into a species of island by branches of the Nile, which surround it on all sides, and which overflowing during the rainy seasons, laid waste the whole country under water. When the inundation subsided, the inhabitants are described as rushing with eagerness, and digging up the earth, in every part of which they found gold. Soon afterwards the merchants arrived from every part of Africa, to exchange their commodities for this gold. The principal cities of Wangara were Raghabid and Samagonda, situated on the shore of large fresh-water lakes. In the time of Leo Africanus, Ghera, mentioned under the name of Caro, no longer held the supremacy among the states of the Niger, but had become subject to the kingdom of Tombuctoo, founded A.D. 1215. Wangara, or Guangara, had become an independent kingdom, whose sovereign maintained a considerable army; and the gold, for which this region is so celebrated, is represented by Leo as found, not within itself, but in mountains to the south. It appears that at a later period the caravans traded to Wangara for gold.

WANGEN, a town of Switzerland, and capital of a bailiwick, in the canton of Berne; 20 miles S. of Berne.—Also, a town of France, in the department of the Lower Rhine; 12 miles W. of Strasburg.—Also, a town of Germany, on the Argon, lately imperial, till, in 1802, it was given among the indemnities to the elector of Bavaria. Its territory only included a few villages. The inhabitants are Roman Catholics; 22 miles W. of Kempten. N. lat. $47^{\circ} 43'$. E. long. $10^{\circ} 50'$.

WANGENDORFF, a town of the duchy of Stiria; 8 miles S.W. of Gnaa.

WANGERIN, a town of Pomerania; 20 miles N.E. of Stargard. N. lat. $53^{\circ} 38'$. E. long. $15^{\circ} 32'$.

WANGEROEG, an island in the German Ocean; about 12 miles in circumference; 4 miles from the coast of Friesland. N. lat. $53^{\circ} 44'$. E. long. $7^{\circ} 45'$.

WANGEROW, a town of Pomerania; 12 miles S.E. of West Stettin.

WANGWELL, a small island in the Pacific Ocean, near the S. coast of Waygoo. S. lat. $0^{\circ} 23'$. E. long. $131^{\circ} 35'$.

WANHOM, in the *Materia Medica*, a name by which Kemper has called the plant, of which the great galangal of the shops is the root.

WANJEW, in *Geography*, a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Bielsk, near the conflux of the Narew and the Wanjewka; 24 miles N.N.W. of Bielsk.

WANJEWKA, a river of Poland, which runs into the Narew, near Wanjew, in the palatinate of Bielsk.

WANKANER, a town of Hindoostan, in Guzerat; 45 miles N. of Junagur.

WANKAREY, a town of Hindoostan, in the country of Vissapour; 6 miles W. of Poonah.

WANLASS, in *Hunting*. See **WINDASS**.

WANNAS, in *Geography*, a town of Sweden, in West Bothnia; 22 miles N.W. of Umea.

WAN-NASH-REESE, a lofty rugged mountain of Algiers,

Algiers, generally covered with snow, supposed to have been anciently called Zalacus; 45 miles S. of Sherfshell.

WANNOUGAH, a mountain of Algiers; 100 miles W. of Constantina.

WANO, a town of Sweden, in the province of Tavastland; 4 miles S.E. of Tavasthus.

WANOAEETTEE, a small island in the Pacific Ocean; 10 miles W.N.W. of Wateehoo.

WANORA, a small island on the W. side of the gulf of Bothnia. N. lat. $64^{\circ} 32'$. E. long. $21^{\circ} 14'$.

WANQUI, a country of Africa, on the Gold coast.

WANSARAR, a town of Hindoostan, in Guzerat; 25 miles N. of Junagur.

WANSBECK. See WENSBECK.

WANSEN, a town of Silesia, in the principality of Brieg; 10 miles S.S.W. of Ohlau.

WANSINGAR, a small island on the W. side of the gulf of Bothnia. N. lat. $63^{\circ} 5'$. E. long. $18^{\circ} 32'$.

WANSLEBEN, JOHN-MICHAEL, in *Biography*, the son of a Lutheran minister at Erfurt, in Thuringia, was born in 1633; and having studied philosophy and theology at Konigsberg, he acquired a knowledge of the Ethiopic language under the instruction of Ludolf, by whom he was sent to London to publish his Ethiopic dictionary in 1661; and he was also employed by Castell in compiling his "Lexicon Heptaglotton." Upon his return to Germany, Ernest, duke of Saxe-Gotha, engaged him to visit Abyssinia, for the purpose of acquainting himself with the language and natural history of that country; but having reached Cairo in 1663, he was prevented from proceeding to Abyssinia, as it was thought, by his own misconduct, and embarking at Alexandria in 1665, he arrived in Italy; and in the following year abandoned Lutheranism, and entered into the Dominican order. Upon his being introduced to Colbert at Paris, in 1670, he was engaged to make a visit to Abyssinia, and to bring home all the manuscripts which he could purchase. During his residence of twenty months in Egypt, he transmitted for the Royal Library at Paris 334 manuscripts, Arabian, Persian, and Turkish. But not being able to enter Abyssinia, he went to Constantinople, and from thence in 1676 he was recalled to France; on account of his irregular conduct. Being at length reduced to want, he gained a mere subsistence by serving the village church of Bouron as vicar, where he died at the age of fifty-eight, in the year 1693. His principal publications are, "The Liturgy of Dioscorus, Patriarch of Alexandria," Lond. 1662; "An Account of the present State of Egypt, in Italian," 1671; "Nouvelle Relation en forme de Journal d'un Voyage fait en Egypte au 1672 et 1673;" "Histoire de l'Eglise d'Alexandria," 1677; which is said to contain a more accurate catalogue of the patriarchs of Alexandria than that of Ludolf communicated to the Jesuits of Antwerp. Moreri.

WANSTA, in *Geography*, a town of Sweden, in the province of Schonen; 25 miles E. of Lund.

WANSTEAD, a village and parish in the hundred of Becontree and county of Essex, England, is situated eight miles N.E. from St. Paul's cathedral, London. The old parish-church was repaired and enlarged in the early part of the last century, principally at the expence of the first earl Tylney; but being still found small and inconvenient, it was pulled down, and a new church erected on a larger scale, nearly adjoining to the old site. The first stone of the present structure was laid July 13th, 1787; it was finished in 1790, and consecrated June 24th in that year. It is built with brick, and cased with Portland stone; the portico is of the Doric order: at the west end is a cupola,

supported by eight Ionic columns. The interior consists of a nave, chancel, and two aisles, separated by columns of the Corinthian order. In the chancel is a beautiful window of stained glass, by Eginton of Birmingham, representing our Saviour bearing the cross, from the picture at Magdalen college, Oxford: here is also a superb monument, with the effigy of the deceased in white marble, to the memory of sir Josiah Child, bart., who died in 1699. The population of the parish, as enumerated under the act of the year 1811, was 210; the number of houses 1127.

Wanstead-house was designed by Colin Campbell, in the year 1715, and executed under his direction for sir Richard Child, who was afterwards advanced to the peerage by the title of earl Tylney. This edifice occupies the site of an ancient mansion, which, with the annexed demesne, had previously been possessed successively by sir William Mildmay, George, marquis of Buckingham, king James I., Charles Blount, earl of Devonshire, Robert Rich, earl of Leicester, and his father Robert, lord Rich. The latter built the old house, which was called Naked-hall-house, and in which queen Elizabeth and her court were sumptuously entertained in May 1578 for several days. Sir Richard Child, finding this house inadequate to his domestic establishment, employed Mr. Campbell to build the present splendid mansion. It consists of a centre with two uniform flanks or wings, and extends about 260 feet in front by nearly 80 feet in depth. The middle portion has a noble pediment, supported by six columns of the Corinthian order, which rest on a bold projecting basement. This forms the entrance, by a double flight of steps, to the great hall and saloon, the former of which measures 51 feet by 36, and 36 feet in height; and the latter forms a cube of 30 feet. These communicate with a double suite of state apartments, which extend along the whole of both fronts, and are connected at the south end by a grand ball-room, which is 64 feet by 24. In strict accordance with the principal front, and imitative of the style of Italian villas, the architect has raised a stone parapet, with a series of detached obelisks, to form two fides of the entrance court, the third being bounded by a ha-ha. The whole of this area has lately been laid out as a rich parterre or flower-garden; and executed from the designs of Mr. Repton. Of a style and character with the exterior architecture is the interior finishings and furniture of the house. Thus formed and thus embellished, Wanstead-house may be said to vie with many foreign palaces, and to rank with those English mansions which proclaim the riches and splendour of the country. At the commencement of the present century, this house was the residence of the royal family of France; and here also was the first splendid entertainment given to congratulate the marquis, now duke of Wellington, on his return from his victorious campaigns in Spain and Portugal. Wanstead-house, with its contiguous property, and extensive estates in Essex, Hants, Wilts, Yorkshire, and Dorsetshire, came into the possession of William Wellefley Pole, esq., by marriage, in March 1812, with Catherine Tylney Long, daughter and heiress of sir James Tylney Long, bart.—Beauties of England and Wales, vol. V. Essex. By J. Britton and E. W. Brayley, 1803. Lysons' Environs of London, vol. iv. 4to. 1796.

WANT, in *Zoology*, a name sometimes given to the mole.

WANTAGE, anciently WANATING, in *Geography*, a market-town of considerable antiquity in the hundred of the same name, in the county of Berks, England, is situated on the skirts of the prolific vale of White-horse, at the distance of 10 miles S.W. from Abingdon, 26 miles N.W. by W. from Reading, and 59 miles in the same bearing from London,

London. A variety of concurring testimonies render it probable that this place was once a Roman station; though the numerous alterations which it has undergone almost preclude the possibility of tracing those remains which would decide the question. The vallum, said to be part of a Roman station, was plainly to be seen when Mr. Wise visited it about the year 1738, "inclosing a space called the High garden." A hollow way into the town from Farringdon, Grove-street, a morass, and a brook, form the sides of an oblong square, containing about six acres of ground. On this spot, continues Mr. Wise, "stood the Saxon palace where Alfred was born." North of the brook is an inclosure where Roman coins have been found; and the remains of a building called king Alfred's cellar, which was paved with brick, and appears to have been a bath. Wantage was probably of consequence in the Saxon times, as it was undoubtedly a royal villa, and appears, together with the surrounding country, to have been the patrimony of the West Saxon kings: by the will of Alfred, it was bequeathed to his cousin Alfrith. It is a market-town by prescription, having obtained that privilege about the beginning of the 13th century, through the interest of Fulk Fitzwarine, on whom it was bestowed by Roger Bigod, earl marshal of England, as a reward for military services. The market-day is Saturday; and here are four annual fairs. The civil government is vested in a chief constable. In the population return of the year 1811, the town is stated to contain 510 houses, occupied by 2386 persons. The chief employment of the inhabitants is the manufacture of coarse cloth and facking. The parish church is a spacious cruciform structure, built either wholly, or in part, by the Fitzwarine family, whose arms and effigies are to be seen in various parts of the edifice; which also contains some old pompous monuments, and a large ancient font constructed of porphyry-stone. An act of parliament passed in the year 1598, for vesting the town lands of Wantage given in the reigns of Henry VI. and Henry VII. for charitable uses, in twelve of the "better sort of inhabitants" to be deemed a body corporate. By this act the revenues of the said lands are appropriated to the relief of the poor, the repairs of the highways, and the support of a grammar-school. An English school has, from an early period, been added to the other charitable objects provided for out of the profits of these lands. The governors allow 30*l.* per annum to the master of the grammar-school, who must be a graduate in one of the universities; and 15*l.* per annum to the master of the English school. In 1680 an alms-house for twelve poor persons was founded and endowed by Mr. Robert Styles. Dr. Joseph Butler, a learned divine, and bishop of Durham in the last century, was born in this town: but its chief celebrity is its having been the birth-place of king Alfred, peculiarly styled the Great. See ALFRED.—*Lyons' Magna Britannia*, vol. i. Berkshire, 1806. *Beauties of England and Wales*, vol. i. Berkshire. By J. Britton and E. W. Brayley, 1801.

WANTAGE, a town of New Jersey, in the county of Sussex, containing 2969 inhabitants; 15 miles N. of Newtown. WANTI. See GLOVE.

WANTING, in *Geography*, a town on the E. coast of Lower Siam. N. lat. $7^{\circ} 39'$. E. long. $100^{\circ} 55'$.

WANTSUM, a name given to the river Stour, which divides the isle of Thanet from the rest of the county of Kent, and runs into the Downs, below Sandwich.

WANTY, in *Rural Economy*, the name usually given to a broad girth of leather, by which the load is bound upon the back of the horse. It is very useful in hilly districts for securing various kinds of loads.

WANTZENAU, in *Geography*, a town of France, in

the department of the Lower Rhine; 6 miles N. of Strasbourg.

WANTZLAU, a town of the Middle Mark of Brandenburg; 9 miles S.S.W. of Brandenburg.

WANZCY, in *Botany*, a tree very common throughout all Abyssinia. Every house in Gondar has two or three planted round it, so that, when first viewed from the heights, it appears like a wood, especially through the whole season of the rains, but very exactly on the 1st of September, for three years together, in a night's time, it was covered with a multitude of white flowers. Gondar, and all the towns about it, then appeared as if covered with white linen, or with new-fallen snow. It grows to a considerable magnitude, being from eighteen to twenty feet high; the trunk is generally about three feet and a half from the ground; it then divides into four or five thick branches, which have at least 60° inclination to the horizon, and not more. These large branches are generally bare, and half way up the bark is rough and furrowed. They then put out a number of small branches, circular at top, in figure like some of our early pear-trees. (See the description of it in the Appendix to Bruce's Travels.) This tree and the coffee-tree have divine honours paid by each of the seven nations; under this tree their king is chosen; here he holds his first council; his sceptre is a bludgeon made of this tree, which, like a mace, is carried before him wherever he goes; it is produced in the general meetings of the nation, and is called "Bucu."

WANZLEBEN, in *Geography*, a town of Westphalia, in the duchy of Magdeburg; 10 miles W.S.W. of Magdeburg.

WAPENTAKE, or WEAPENTAKE, a division of certain northern countries, particularly those beyond the Trent, answering to what in other places is called a *hundred*, or a *cantred*.

Authors differ as to the origin of the word. Brompton brings it from the Saxon *waepen*, and *taecan*, to deliver, by reason the tenants anciently delivered their arms to every new lord as a token of their homage.

Sir Thomas Smith gives a different account. Musters, he observes, were anciently taken of the armour and weapons of the several inhabitants of every hundred; and from such as could not find sufficient pledges for their good abearing, their *weapons* were taken away, and delivered to others.

Others give a different account of its rise; viz. that when first the kingdom was divided into wapentakes, he who was the chief of the division, and whom we now call *high-constable*, as soon as he entered upon his office, appeared in the field, on a certain day, on horseback, with a pike in his hand; and all the chief men of the hundred met him with their lances, who, alighting, touched his pike with their lances, as a signal they were firmly united to each other, by the touching of their weapons. Whence the denomination *wapentakes*, from the Saxon *waepen*, and *tac*, touching.

WAPESSAGA, in *Geography*, a lake of Canada. N. lat. $48^{\circ} 10'$. W. long. $71^{\circ} 40'$.

WAPITWAGO ISLANDS, a cluster of islands near the fourth coast of Labrador. N. lat. $50^{\circ} 4'$. W. long. $60^{\circ} 20'$.

WAPLES, a town of Prussia, in the province of Oberland; 16 miles S.E. of Osterode.

WAPNO, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Konigin-gratz; 14 miles S.W. of Konigin-gratz.

WAPP, in a *Ship*, that rope with which the throwds are set taught with wale-knots; one end is made fast to the throwds, and to the other are brought the lariards.

WAPPE, a species of cur. The name is derived from

its note; its only use was to alarm the family by barking, if any person approached the house. See Dog.

WAPPER, in *Ichthyology*, a name given by some to the smaller species of the river gudgeon.

WAPPING'S CREEK, in *Geography*, a river of New York, which runs into the Hudson, 7 miles S. of Poughkeepie.

WAPPO, a town of Africa, on the Grain coast. N. lat. $4^{\circ} 55'$. W. long. $8^{\circ} 20'$.

WAPPOCOMO, a river of Virginia, which runs into the Potomac, 9 miles E.S.E. of Fort Cumberland.

WAPSTENO, a town of Swedish Lapland; 115 miles N.W. of Umea.

WAPUWAGAN ISLANDS, a cluster of islands near the coast of Labrador. N. lat. $50^{\circ} 2'$. W. long. $60^{\circ} 14'$.

WAR, BELLUM, a contest or difference between princes, states, or large bodies of people; which, not being determinable by the ordinary measures of justice and equity, is referred to the decision of the sword: or, it is that state in which a nation prosecutes its right by force.

Hobbes's great principle is, that the natural state of man is a state of warfare; but most other politicians hold war to be a preternatural and extraordinary state.

War may be considered, says archdeacon Paley, with a view to its *causes* and to its *conduct*. The *justifying* causes of war are *defensive* invasions of right, and the necessity of maintaining such a balance of power amongst neighbouring nations; as that no single state, or confederacy of states, be strong enough to overwhelm the rest. The objects of just war are precaution, defence, or reparation. In a larger sense, every just war is a *defensive* war, inasmuch as every just war supposes an injury perpetrated, attempted, or feared.

A *defensive* war is opposed to that which is *offensive*; and as in the former case, the sovereign power of a nation takes up arms to repel the attacks of an enemy, so, in the latter, arms are taken up in order to attack a nation that lived in peace with the others. War is so dreadful an evil, and so destructive in its progress and effects, that it should never be undertaken without the strongest reasons. Humanity is shocked at a sovereign who, without imperious necessity, lavishes the lives of his most faithful subjects, and who exposes his people to the havoc and miseries of war, when they might enjoy an honourable and salutary peace; and if this want of love for his people be accompanied with injustice towards those whom he attacks, what guilt does he incur, or rather what a dreadful series of crimes does he commit? The slaughter of men, the pillage of cities, the devastation of provinces, are his crimes. He is responsible to God, and accountable to man, for every person that is killed. The violences, the crimes, the various disorders attendant on the licentious tumult of arms, pollute his conscience, and blacken his account, as he is the original author of them all.—May this faint sketch, says the excellent Vattel, affect the hearts of the leaders of nations, and in military enterprises suggest to them a circumspection proportional to the importance of the subject! Vattel states the following triple end as the distinguishing characteristic of a lawful war: 1. To recover what belongs or is due to us. 2. To provide for our future safety by punishing the aggressor or offender. 3. To defend ourselves from an injury by repelling an unjust violence. The two first are the objects of an offensive, the third that of a defensive war. Camillus, when he was going to attack the Gauls, concisely represented to his soldiers all the causes which can justify a war: "Omnia quæ defendi, repetique et ulcisci fas est." Liv. l. ix. c. 49.

VOL. XXXVII.

The *insufficient* causes, or unjustifiable motives of war, according to Paley, are the family alliances, the personal friendships, or the personal quarrels of princes; the internal disputes which are carried on in other nations; the justice of other wars; the extension of territory, or of trade; the misfortunes or accidental weakness of a neighbouring or rival nation. There are *two* lessons of rational and sober policy, says this excellent writer, which, if it were possible to inculcate into the councils of princes, would exclude many of the motives of war, and allay that restless ambition which is constantly stirring up one part of mankind against another. The first of these lessons admonishes princes to "place their glory and their emulation, not in extent of territory, but in raising the greatest quantity of happiness out of a given territory." The enlargement of territory by conquest is not only not a just object of war, but, in most instances in which it is attempted, not even desirable. What commonly is gained to a nation, by the annexing of new dependencies, or the subjugation of other countries to its dominion, but a wider frontier to defend, more interfering claims to vindicate, more quarrels, more enemies, more rebellions to encounter, a greater force to keep up by land and sea, more services to provide for, and more establishments to pay? And in order to draw from these acquisitions something that may make up for the charge of keeping them, a revenue is to be extorted, or a monopoly to be enforced and watched, at an expence which costs half their produce. Thus the provinces are oppressed, in order to pay for being ill governed; and the original state is exhausted in maintaining a feeble authority over discontented subjects. Do opulence and extent of dominion always constitute the happiness of states? Among the multitude of instances that present themselves to notice, let us confine ourselves, says Vattel, to the Romans. The Roman republic ruined itself by its triumphs, the excess of its conquests and power. Rome, the mistress of the world, when enslaved by tyrants, and oppressed by a military government, had reason to deplore the success of its arms, and to look back with regret on those happy times when its power did not reach beyond Italy, or even when its dominion was almost confined within the circuit of its walls. Dr. Paley mentions two cases in which the extension of territory may be of real advantage, and to both parties. The first is, where an empire thereby reaches to the natural boundaries which divide it from the rest of the world. Thus we account the British Channel the natural boundary which separates the nations of England and France; and if France possessed any counties on this, or England any cities or provinces on that side of the sea, the recovery of such towns and districts, to what may be called their natural sovereign, though it might not be a just reason for commencing war, would be a proper use to make of victory. The other case is, where neighbouring states, being severally too small and weak to defend themselves against the dangers that surround them, can only be safe by a strict and constant junction of their strength: here conquest will effect the purposes of confederation and alliance; and the union which it produces is often more close and permanent, than that which results from voluntary association.

The second rule of prudence, to which we have above referred, and which ought to be recommended to those who conduct the affairs of nations, is, "never to pursue national honour as distinct from national interest." "The dignity of his crown, the honour of his flag, the glory of his arms," in the mouth of a prince, are stately and imposing terms; but the ideas they inspire are insatiable. The pursuit of honour, when set loose from the admonitions of prudence,

becomes in kings a wild and romantic passion; eager to engage, and gathering fury in its progress, it is checked by no difficulties, repelled by no dangers: it forgets or despises those considerations of safety, ease, wealth, and plenty, which, in the eye of true public wisdom, compose the objects, to which the renown of arms, the fame of victory, are only instrumental and subordinate. The pursuit of interest, on the other hand, is a sober principle; computes costs and consequences; is cautious of entering into war; stops in time: when regulated by those universal maxims of relative justice which belong to the affairs of communities, as well as of private persons, it is the right principle for nations to proceed by; even when it trespasses upon these regulations, it is much less dangerous, because much more temperate than the other.

Another object of consideration, in reference to this subject, is the *conduct* of war. If the cause and end of war be justifiable, all the means that appear necessary to the end are justifiable also. War is a contest by force, between parties who acknowledge no common superior; and as it does not include in its idea the supposition of any convention which should restrict the operations of force, it has naturally no boundary, but that in which force terminates, the destruction of the life against which the force is directed. Nevertheless, the licence of war authorizes no acts of hostility but what are necessary or conducive to the end and object of the war. Gratuitous barbarities borrow no excuse from this plea. The slaughter of captives, the subjecting of them to indignities or torture, the violation of women, the profanation of temples, the demolition of public buildings, libraries, statues, and, in general, the destruction or defacing of works that conduce nothing to annoyance or defence—these enormities are prohibited not only by the practice of civilized nations, but by the law of nature itself; as having no proper tendency to accelerate the termination, or accomplish the object of the war; and as containing that, which in peace and war is equally unjustifiable, ultimate and gratuitous mischief.

The laws of war, which are part of the law of nations, impose other restrictions upon the conduct of war. To this head we may refer the duty of refraining in war from poison, and from assassination. Such practices are at present excluded by the usage and opinions of civilized nations; and the first recourse to them would be followed by instant retaliation. The licence of war then acknowledges *two* limitations: it authorizes no hostilities which have not an apparent tendency to effectuate the object of the war; it respects those positive laws which the custom of nations hath sanctified, and which, whilst they are mutually conformed to, mitigate the calamities of war, without weakening its operations, or diminishing the power or safety of belligerent states.

Before a just war is undertaken, we owe, says Vattel, this further regard to humanity, and especially to the lives and tranquillity of the subjects, to declare to the unjust nation with which we are about to contend, that we are at length recurring to the last remedy, and going to make use of open force, for bringing it to reason. This is called "declaring war." All this is included in the Roman manner of proceeding, regulated in their Feacial law. They first sent the chief of the Feceales or heralds, called "Pater Patratus," to demand satisfaction of the people which had offended them; and if within the space of thirty-three days this people did not return a satisfactory answer, the herald called the gods to be witnesses of the wrong, and came away saying, that the Romans would consider what they had to do. The king, and afterwards the consul, used

to ask the senate's opinion; and the war being resolved on, the herald was sent back to the frontier, where he declared it. It is surprising to find among the Romans such justice, such moderation, and wisdom, at a time too when apparently nothing but courage and ferocity were to be expected from them. By this religious conduct, previous to its war, Rome laid the most solid foundation for its future greatness.

A declaration of war being necessary as a farther trial for terminating the difference without the effusion of blood, by making use of the principle fear, for bringing the enemy to more equitable sentiments; it is, at the same time that it declares the resolution taken of making war, to set forth the cause of that resolution. This is at present the constant practice among the powers of Europe.

If in consequence of such declaration, the enemy offers equitable conditions of peace, the right of war ceases. Formerly the powers of Europe used to send heralds or ambassadors to declare war; at present this is only done in the capital, the principal towns, or on the frontiers. Manifestoes are issued, and the communication, so easy and expeditious from the establishment of posts, soon spreads the intelligence. Besides, it is in some cases necessary for a nation to publish the declaration of war for the instruction and direction of its own subjects, in order to fix the date of the rights belonging to them from the moment of this declaration, and relatively to certain effects which the voluntary law of nations attributes to a war in form. Without such a public declaration of war, it would be difficult to settle, in a treaty of peace, those acts which are to be accounted the effects of the war, and those which each nation may consider as wrongs, for obtaining reparation. He who is attacked, and makes only a defensive war, need not declare it; the state of war being sufficiently determined by the declaration of the enemy, or his open hostilities. Nevertheless, from dignity, or for the direction of his subjects, a sovereign, though attacked, seldom fails of declaring war in his turn. By the law of nations, the declaration of war need not be made till the enemy has reached the frontiers; but it must always precede the commission of any hostility. Thus we provide for our own safety, and equally procure the end of the declaration of war, which is, that an unjust adversary may still seriously consider his measures, and avoid the horrors of war, by doing justice. The sovereign, having entered a country, and declared war, may proceed, if equitable conditions are not offered him, to hostile operations. The sovereign declaring war can neither detain those subjects of the enemy, who are within his dominions at the time of the declaration, nor their effects. He is to allow them a reasonable time for withdrawing with their effects; and if they stay beyond the term prescribed, he has a right to treat them as enemies, though as enemies disarmed.

Because the Christian scriptures describe wars, as what they are, says Paley, as crimes or judgments, some have been led to believe that it is unlawful for a Christian to bear arms. But it should be remembered, that it may be necessary for individuals to unite their force, and, for this end, to resign themselves to the direction of a common will; and yet it may be true, that that will is often actuated by criminal motives, and often determined to destructive purposes. Hence, although the origin of wars be ascribed in scripture to the operation of lawless and malignant passions; and though war itself be enumerated amongst the forest calamities with which a land can be visited, the profession of a soldier is no where forbidden or condemned. See Luke, iii. 14. Luke, vii. 9. Acts, x. 1. On the subject of this article,

article, see Paley's Phil. vol. ii. Vattel's Law of Nations, book iii.

The sole prerogative of making war and peace belongs, by the English constitution, to the king. But as a king of England can neither raise money nor compel his subjects to take up arms, without the concurrence of parliament, his right of making war is only a slender prerogative, unless the parliament second him with supplies. Levying war against the king in his realm is a species of treason.

WAR, Civil, or Intestine, is that between subjects of the same realm; or between parties in the same state.

In this sense we say, the civil wars of the Romans destroyed the republic; the civil wars of Granada ruined the power of the Moors in Spain; the civil wars in England began in 1641, and ended in the king's death, 1648.

When a party is formed in a state, which no longer obeys the sovereign, and is of strength sufficient to make head against him; or when, in a republic, the nation is divided into two opposite factions, and both sides take arms; this is called a civil war. Some confine this term only to a just insurrection of subjects against an unjust sovereign, to distinguish this lawful resistance from rebellion, which is an open and unjust resistance: but what appellation will they give to a war in a republic torn by two factions, or in a monarchy between two competitors for the crown? Use appropriates the term of civil war to every war between the members of one and the same political society. If it be between part of the citizens on one side, and the sovereign with those who continue in obedience to him on the other; it is sufficient that the malcontents have some reason for taking arms, to give this disturbance the name of civil war, and not that of rebellion. This last term is applied only to such an insurrection against lawful authority, as is void of all appearance of justice. The sovereign indeed never fails to term rebels all subjects openly resisting him; but when these become of strength sufficient to oppose him, so that he finds himself compelled to make war regularly on them, he must be contented with the term of civil war.

If we consider the reasons why a civil war is warranted or justified, we recur to a question of very delicate investigation, and of very difficult solution. It involves the inquiry, in what cases a subject may not only refuse to obey, but even resist a sovereign, and by force repel force. (See SOVEREIGNTY.) But omitting the justice of the cause, we shall here advert to the maxims that ought to be observed in a civil war, and consider whether it be incumbent on the sovereign to keep within the laws of common war. A civil war breaks the bands of society and government, or at least it suspends their force and effect; it produces in the nation two independent parties, considering each other as enemies, and acknowledging no common judge: therefore of necessity these two parties must, at least for a time, be considered as forming two separate bodies, two distinct people, though one of them may be in the wrong in breaking the continuity of the state, to rise up against lawful authority, they are not the less divided in fact. Besides, who shall judge them? who shall pronounce on which side the right or the wrong lies? On earth they have no common superior. Thus they are in the case of two nations, who having a dispute which they cannot adjust, are compelled to decide it by force of arms.

In this state of the case, the common laws of war, or maxims of humanity, moderation, and probity, should be observed on both sides in civil wars. The same reasons on which the obligation between state and state is founded, render them even more necessary in the unhappy circumstance when two incensed parties are destroying their com-

mon country. Should the sovereign conceive he has a right to hang up his prisoners as rebels, the opposite party will make reprisals: if he does not religiously observe the capitulations, and all the conventions made with his enemies, they will no longer rely on his word: should he burn and destroy, they will follow his example; the war will become cruel and horrid; its calamities will increase on the nation. Whenever a numerous party thinks it has a right to resist the sovereign, and finds itself able to declare that opinion sword in hand, the war is to be carried on between them in the same manner as between two different nations; and they are to leave open the same means for preventing enormous violences, and restoring peace.

A sovereign having conquered the opposite party, and reduced it to submit and sue for peace, he may except from the amnesty the authors of the troubles, and the heads of the party; may bring them to a legal trial, and on conviction punish them. He may especially act thus with regard to disturbances, raised not so much on account of the people's interests as the private views of some great men, and which rather deserve the appellation of rebellion than of civil war.

When subjects take up arms, without ceasing to acknowledge the sovereign, and only to procure a redress of grievances, there are two reasons for observing the common laws of war towards them. 1. Left a civil war becoming more cruel and destructive by the reprisals, which, as we have observed, the insurgents will oppose to the prince's severities. 2. The danger of committing great injustice, by the hastily punishing those who are accounted rebels; the tumult of discord, and the flame of a civil war, little agree with the proceedings of pure and sacred justice: more quiet times are to be waited for. It will be wise in the prince to secure his prisoners till, having restored tranquillity, he is in a condition of having them tried according to the laws.

As to the conduct of foreign nations, they ought not to interfere in the constitutional government of an independent state. It is not for them to judge between contending citizens, nor between the prince and his subjects: to them the two parties are equally foreigners, equally independent of their authority. They may, however, interpose their good offices for the restoration of peace; and this the law of nature prescribes to them. But if their mediation proves fruitless, they who are not tied by any treaty may, for their own conduct, take the merit of the cause into consideration, and assist the party which they shall judge to have right on its side, in case this party shall request their assistance, or accept the offer of it: they may, for the same reason that they are at liberty to espouse the just quarrel of a nation entering into a war with another. As to the allies of a state distracted by a civil war, they will find a rule for their conduct in the nature of their engagements, combined with the circumstances of the war. Vattel's Law of Nations, book iii.

WAR, Gladiators. See GLADIATORS.

WAR, Holy, is that anciently maintained by leagues and croisades, for the recovery of the Holy Land.

WAR, King's, Bellum Regis. At the time when particular lords were allowed to make war with one another, to revenge injuries, instead of prosecuting them in the ordinary courts of justice, the appellation *king's war* was given to such war as the king declared against any other prince, or state: on which occasion, the lords were not allowed to make private war against each other; as being obliged to serve the king, with all their vassals.

WAR, Religious, is a war maintained in a state, on ac-

count of religion; one of the parties refusing to tolerate the other.

WAR, *Social*. See *SOCIAL WAR*.

WAR, *Art of*. See *MILITARY ART*.

WAR, *Council of*. See *COUNCIL*.

WAR, *Habiliments of*. See *HABILIMENTS*.

WAR-HORSE. See *HORSE*.

WAR, *Man of*. See *SHIP, RATE, &c.*

WAR, *Officers of*. See *OFFICERS*.

WAR, *Place of*, is a place fortified on purpose to cover and defend a country, and stop the incursion of an enemy's army: or it is a place in which are disposed the provisions of war, for an army encamped in the neighbourhood; or whither an army retires into winter-quarters. See *PLACE*.

WAR-CRY, was formerly customary in the armies of most nations, when just going to engage. Sometimes they were only tumultuous shouts, or horrid yells, uttered with an intent to strike terror into their adversaries; such as is now used by the Indians in America, called the *war-whoop*.

WARA, in *Geography*, a city of Africa, capital of the country of Bergoo; 35 miles S.E. of Bornou. N. lat. $15^{\circ} 30'$. E. long. $25^{\circ} 30'$.

WARADIN. See *WARDEIN*.

WARADURA, a town of Hindoostan, in the circar of Cuddapa; 18 miles W.S.W. of Cuddapa.

WARANG, or FORMOSA, a small island near the coast of Guinea. N. lat. $11^{\circ} 26'$. W. long. $16^{\circ} 28'$.

WARANGER, a town of Finmark; 22 miles S.W. of Wardhus.

WARANGOLE, a town of Hindoostan, in Golconda; 45 miles N.N.E. of Hydrabad. N. lat. $17^{\circ} 55'$. E. long. $79^{\circ} 15'$.

WARASDIN. See *VARASDIN*.

WARASDINS, a kind of Slavonian soldiers, clothed like the Turks, with a fugar-loaf bonnet instead of a hat. Their arms are a fuzee and pistols; the butt-end of their fuzee serves for a spade, when they have occasion to throw up earth.

WARBEETLES, in animals, the name by which the large maggots or worms, which are bred in the backs of neat cattle and other animals, are sometimes provincially called.

WARBERG, or WARBURG, in *Geography*, a town of Westphalia, in the bishopric of Paderborn. It contains two churches, two convents, and two castles. It was formerly imperial, and one of the Hanse towns. In the year 1760, the French were defeated by the British and allies, under the hereditary prince of Brunswick; 16 miles S.E. of Paderborn. N. lat. $51^{\circ} 37'$. E. long. $9^{\circ} 11'$.

WARBERG, a sea-port town of Sweden, in the province of Halland. It has a harbour on the North sea, which, at present, has only depth enough for small vessels. Warberg carries on a considerable trade, and had stood on three different situations before the year 1666, when it was built the fourth time on the spot where it now stands. A very ancient fortified castle stands at the harbour's mouth, on a rock, surrounded with water, but at present is of little service; 32 miles N.N.W. of Halmstad. N. lat. $57^{\circ} 7'$. E. long. $12^{\circ} 4'$.

WARBLERS, in *Ornithology*, a name by which Mr. Pennant distinguishes an order of birds, comprehending the nightingale, red-tart, red-breast, black-cap, petty-chaps, hedge-sparrow, yellow, gold-crested, and common wren, the sedge-bird, or lesser reed-sparrow, the tit-lark, or grasshopper-lark, the wheat-ear, whinchat, stone-chatter, and white-throat: their general characters are, that the bill is slender and weak, the nostril small and sunk, and the ex-

terior toe joined at the under part of the last joint to the middle toe. Some of these birds have tails of one colour, and others have party-coloured tails. Brit. Zool. vol. i. p. 363. See *MOTACILLA*.

WARBLES, in animals, a term sometimes applied to the small hard tumours or swellings on the sides or saddle part of the horse's back, that are occasioned by heat in travelling, or the uneasiness of its situation; and also to the large worms or maggots in the backs of these animals, neat cattle, and some others. It is said that a hot greasy cloth, at first frequently applied, will sometimes remove the first of these sorts of tumours; and camphorated spirit of wine is always very effectual for dispersing them, more especially if a little spirit of sal ammoniac be mixed with it. If the horse should be wanted for work, care should be taken to have the saddle nicely chambered and fitted. In these kinds of tumours, especially where they are caused by sandy or gravelly matters insinuating themselves between the skin of the animal and the saddle, or its girths, much may often be done in dispersing them, by applying to the parts salt dissolved in water, brandy, or warm vinegar, and in some cases a mixture composed of four parts of opodeldoc to one of spirits of turpentine.

In all cases where horses are returned to the stables, after long journeys, the saddles should not be removed for fifteen or twenty minutes, the girths being only loosened; as, by this simple means, many of these swellings may be prevented, which would otherwise take place.

In cases where the skin is rubbed off the parts, the tincture used for wounds, or friar's balsam, may be applied three or four times a day, and the places defended by diachylon plasters, with great benefit.

But in the case of real warbles, which are produced from a fly, known by the name of ox or gad-fly, by the puncturing of small holes in the backs and sides of these different sorts of cattle stock, and there depositing its ova or eggs, which are speedily hatched by the heat of the animal's body, small tumours arising in consequence, which contain grubs, and which have small openings in their middle parts, that answer as spiracula, and for casting out the superfluous matter, which, if confined, might soon produce considerable abscesses, and destroy the grubs; other modes of cure or removal are to be had recourse to. With some it is the practice to attempt to dislodge them, by pressing strongly the different sides of the lumps or tumours with the thumb and fingers. But a more ready and certain way of eradicating and destroying such grubs is that of pulling off the scabs, that commonly cover the holes or openings on the tops of the swellings, and pouring a few drops of the oil of linseed, in mixture with the spirits of turpentine and vitriolic acid, into the openings on the parts, or by the use of the turpentine alone.

WARBLING of the *Wings*, in *Falconry*, is when a hawk, after having mantled herself, crosses her wings over her back.

WARBURTON, WILLIAM, in *Biography*, an English prelate, was the son of an attorney at Newark-upon-Trent, where he was born December 24, 1628, and destined by his father for his own profession. With this view, after he had finished his ordinary grammar education, he was articled, in 1714, to an attorney at East Markham, in Nottinghamshire; and when he had completed his clerkship of five years, he was admitted in one of the courts at Westminster; and returning to Newark, commenced the exercise of his profession. But it was soon found, that his talents and disposition were more adapted to the church than to the law; and, therefore, in 1723, he took deacon's orders. To his

first work, consisting of "Miscellaneous Translations in Prose and Verse," from Roman authors, was prefixed a Latin dedication to Sir George Sutton, who, in 1726, presented him to a small vicarage. Towards the close of this year he visited London, and became acquainted with some of the inferior literati of that period, and particularly with Theobald, to whom he communicated some notes on Shakespeare. He joined with these in their confederacy against the reputation of Pope, of whom Warburton said, that, whilst "Milton borrowed by affectation, and Dryden by idleness, Pope borrowed by necessity." In 1727 he evinced his ability for original writing, by "A Critical and Philosophical Inquiry into the Causes of Prodiges and Miracles, as related by Historians, with an Essay towards restoring a Method and Purity in History, in which the Characters of the most celebrated Writers of every age; and of the several Stages and Species of History, are occasionally criticised and explained." This work was dedicated, in very respectful and complimentary language, to Sir Robert Sutton, his first patron; by whose interest he was placed in the list of king's masters of arts, upon his majesty's visit to Cambridge in 1728; and by this academical degree he supplied the defects of his education. He was also presented by the same patron to the rectory of Broad Broughton, in Lincolnshire, where he remained some years in the assiduous prosecution of his studies. In 1736 he engaged the public attention as a writer by his well-known work, entitled "The Alliance between Church and State; or, the Necessity and Equity of an established Religion and a Test-Law, demonstrated from the Essence and End of Civil Society upon the fundamental Principles of the Law of Nature and Nations." The design of this work, as it is stated by a defender of it against an attack of Lord Bolingbroke, was "to vindicate our present happy constitution on a principle of right, by adjusting the precise bounds of the two societies, by shewing how they came to act in conjunction, and by explaining the nature of their union; and from thence, by natural and necessary consequence, inducing, on the one hand, an *established religion*, with all its rights and privileges, secured by a *test-law*; and on the other, a full and free *toleration* to all who dissented from the national worship." This was a popular performance, and four editions of it appeared in the author's life-time; but it gave satisfaction neither to the high church party, nor to the advocates for religious liberty. Our author's greatest work was published in 1738, and entitled "The Divine Legation of Moses, demonstrated on the Principles of a religious Deist, from the Omission of the Doctrine of a future State of Rewards and Punishments." This adventurous and paradoxical performance found adversaries amongst persons of all parties, who concurred in criticising and censuring the theory on which it is founded. Undismayed by his opponents, he not only published a "Vindication" of his opinion, but persevered in the prosecution of his work, abounding with learning and paradoxes, and calculated to amuse rather than to convince its readers. In a second corrected and enlarged edition of the first volume of his "Divine Legation," he professes to have omitted "passages, which were thought vain, insolent, and ill-natured." In the year 1738 he published a sermon, entitled "Faith working by Charity to Christian Edification," and became chaplain to the prince of Wales. Wishing probably to regain the good opinion of Mr. Pope, he published, in the "Works of the Learned," a defence of his "Essay on Man," against the remarks of M. de Croufaz. Whatever was his design, Mr. Pope acknowledged his obligations; and an intimacy commenced between them, which very much contributed to the subsequent advancement of the apologist.

The second volume of the "Divine Legation" was published in 1741, and the work became the general repository of the author's literary effusions, and of various controversies in which he was engaged. In the course of this year he was introduced by Pope to Mr. Allen, at his house near Bath, where he was afterwards a frequent visitor. In return for the poet's attention, he vindicated his writings by notes and comments, and thus so far confirmed and enhanced the friendship that subsisted between them, that when Pope died, in 1744, he bequeathed to Warburton half his library, and the property of all his works already printed, and not otherwise disposed of, the value of which legacy is estimated by Johnson at 4000*l*.

The controversial antagonists of Warburton and of his "Divine Legation" were numerous, and comprehended such names as those of Drs. Middleton, Pococke, Grey, Sykes, and Stebbing; against whom he defended himself, in 1744 and 1745, in a publication, entitled "Remarks on several occasional Reflections, &c." with a degree of asperity, and conscious superiority and self-confidence, which discriminated his style of writing. The introduction to Mr. Allen's friendship terminated in a marriage with his favourite niece, Miss Gertrude Tucker, which took place in 1745, and which ultimately put him in possession of the splendid seat of Prior-Park. His Three Sermons, in defence of the Protestant establishment and civil constitution, preached on occasion of the rebellion, were held in high estimation. In the year 1746 he became preacher to the Society of Lincoln's Inn; and in the following year he appeared as an editor of Shakespeare. Bold and original in his criticisms and conjectures, the absurdity of several of which has been exposed by Edwards, Johnson, and others, he has nevertheless thrown light on some obscure passages, and drawn forth into view latent beauties, so that many of his notes will find a place in the approved editions of this admirable dramatist. Warburton's "Julian, or a Discourse concerning the Earthquake and fiery Eruption which defeated that Emperor's Attempt to rebuild the Temple at Jerusalem," published in 1750, on occasion of Dr. Middleton's "Inquiry concerning the miraculous Powers," is commended for its candour, a quality for which the writer was not remarkably distinguished, and of which few specimens occurred in the controversy produced by Dr. Middleton's publication. The notes annexed to his complete edition of Pope's works, in 9 vols. 8vo., are said by the most competent judges to have disguised and perverted the author, and to have aggravated the satirical asperities of the poet by the malignities of the annotator. Two volumes of Warburton's sermons, preached at Lincoln's Inn, were published in 1753 and 1754; and in these, as well as in a series of letters addressed to a friend in the following year, he exhibits "A View of Lord Bolingbroke's Philosophy." He was now rapidly advancing from one stage of preferment to another; from that of prebend of Gloucester, obtained in 1753, to that of king's chaplain in ordinary in 1754; and in 1755 to that of prebend of Durham, in exchange for that of Gloucester, to the honour of a Lambeth degree of D.D. conferred upon him by archbishop Herring, to the deanery of Bristol in 1757, and in 1759 to the see of Gloucester. Being appointed on the following 30th of January to preach before the house of lords, he closed his sermon with the following summary of the character of the martyr: "In a word, his princely qualities were neither great enough nor bad enough to succeed in that most difficult of all attempts, the enslaving a free and jealous people." Of the Methodists Dr. Warburton had spoken with some degree of asperity, in the second volume of his "Divine Legation," in 1742; and

and in 1762 he more directly and severely attacks their leading principles, in his work entitled "The Doctrine of Grace, or the Office and Operation of the Holy Spirit vindicated from the Insults of Infidelity and the Abuses of Fanaticism." In 1763 he was the mover in the house of lords of a charge against Mr. Wilkes, as the author of an indecent "Essay on Women;" for which he was abushively attacked by Churchill, and others of that party. In 1765, a fourth edition of the second part of his "Divine Legation" appeared, as the third, fourth, and fifth volumes of that work. In this edition he treated the father of the learned Dr. Lowth in a manner so illiberal, as to occasion an acrimonious controversy between these antagonists. A third volume of his "Sermons" was published in 1767; and in 1768 he transferred *scilicet* to trustees, for defraying the charge of a lecture at Lincoln's Inn, instituted with a view of proving the truth of Christianity from a completion of the prophecies in the Old and New Testament relating to the Christian church. The decay of his faculties was soon afterwards accelerated by the death of his only child, who was carried off by a consumption in his 19th year; and his life terminated at Gloucester, June 7th, 1779, in the 81st year of his age. His works were collected and printed by Dr. Hurd, bishop of Worcester, in 1788, comprehended in 7 vols. 4to., to which the editor has prefixed an account of his life, writings, and character. In 1809 appeared "Letters from a late eminent Prelate to one of his Friends," (Warburton to Hurd,) containing reflections on the literature of the times; but "lamentably deformed," as a biographer before us justly observes, "by the arrogance and imperative spirit of one prelate, and the adulation of the other." Dr. Johnson, in his "Life of Pope," has justly delineated the literary character of bishop Warburton, of whom it is said that he was kind in the domestic relations of life, and ardent in his friendship, in the following passage: "He was a man of vigorous faculties, a mind fervid and vehement, supplied by incessant and unlimited inquiry, with wonderful extent and variety of knowledge, which yet had not oppressed his imagination, nor clouded his perspicuity. To every work he brought a memory full fraught, together with a fancy fertile of original combinations; and at once exerted the powers of the scholar, the reasoner, and the wit. But his knowledge was too multifarious to be always exact, and his pursuits were too eager to be always cautious. His abilities gave him a haughty consequence, which he disdained to correct or mollify; and his impatience of opposition disposed him to treat his adversaries with such contemptuous superiority, as made his readers commonly his enemies, and excited against the advocate the wishes of some who favoured the cause. He seems to have adopted the Roman emperor's determination, "Oderint dum metuant." He used no allurements of gentle language, but wished to compel rather than persuade. His style is copious without selection, and forcible without neatness: he took the words that presented themselves; his diction is coarse and impure, and his sentences are unmeasured." Hurd. Nichols. Johnson. Gen. Biog.

WARD, SETH, D.D., in *Biography*, an eminent mathematician, was born at Buntingford, in Herts, in 1617, and completed his education at Sidney college, Cambridge, of which he became a fellow. Mathematics were his favourite study; but his pursuits were interrupted by the civil war, as he chose to share the fate of his friend and patron, Dr. Samuel Ward, the master of his college, to accompany him in his imprisonment, and to attend him even on his death-bed, in 1643. In consequence of refusing to take the covenant, he was deprived of his fellowship in 1644, and of

all means of support at the university. Many opportunities of private instruction in families of distinction presented themselves; but preferring residence with Ralph Freeman of Apendene-hall, esq., whose sons he taught, he continued with him till the year 1649, when he was appointed chaplain to Thomas lord Wenman of Tame-park, in Oxfordshire. On the expulsion of Mr. Greaves, civilian professor of astronomy at Oxford, he was chosen to succeed him, but with the condition of taking the oath called the engagement. Having raised the astronomical lecture to reputation, he, together with his friend Dr. Wallis, was made doctor of divinity; and they both concurred in attending those meetings at Wadham college, which laid the foundation of the Royal Society, of which he became a fellow in 1661, and for several years second president. In 1659 he was chosen president of Trinity college, but resigned it in favour of the legal owner. After the Restoration, he became vicar of St. Lawrence-Jewry, in London, in 1660; soon after dean of Exeter, and, by the interest of Monk and Clarendon, bishop of that see, which he improved in a variety of respects by his munificence. At Salisbury, to which he was translated in 1667, he conciliated universal respect by his charity and hospitality. To this see he was a distinguished benefactor, obtaining for its bishop the perpetual honour of being chancellor of the order of the Garter, which had been for more than a century alienated from it; and founding in the town the college of matrons in 1682, for the maintenance of ten widows of orthodox ministers in the diocese. Although he was not naturally of a perfecting disposition, yet he was active in executing the orders which he received from court for the suppression of conventicles. In consequence of a fever, with which he was attacked in 1660, his bodily strength declined, and his intellectual faculties were impaired; and at length he closed a melancholy life in 1689, in the 72d year of his age. Mr. Oughtred gives him the character of a prudent, pious, and ingenious person, skilled not only in mathematics, but in all branches of polite literature. According to Burnet, he was, in many respects, one of the greatest men of his age; but he elsewhere says, that his sincerity was much questioned; being a profound statesman, but an indifferent clergyman. His various works on mathematics and astronomy were valued at the time when they were written, but they have been superseded by modern discoveries and improvements. For an account of the hypothesis that bears his name, see the article ANOMALY. He published, besides sermons, "A philosophical Essay towards the Eviction of the Being and Attributes of God, the Immortality of the Souls of Men, and the Truth and Authority of Scripture," Oxford, 1652, 8vo.; "De Cometis, ubi de Cometarum Natura differitur, nova Cometarum theoria ex novissima Cometæ Historia proponitur. Prælectio Oxonii habita, et Inquisitio in Ismaelis Bullialdi Astronomiæ Philolaicæ Fundamenta," Oxon. 1653, 4to.; "Idea Trigonometricæ demonstrata, in Usum Juventutis," Oxon. 1654, 4to.; "In Thomæ Hobbii Philosophiam Exercitatio Epitolica, ad D. J. Wilkinsium Guardianum Coll. Wadhami," ibid. 1656, 4to.; "Astronomia Geometrica: ubi Methodus proponitur qua primariorum Planetarum Astronomia sive Elliptica sive Circularis possit geometricè absolvi," Lond. 1656, 8vo. Biog. Brit. Hutton's Dict.

WARD, JOHN, LL.D., the son of a nonconformist minister, was born in London in 1679, and for some years, after a competent education, occupied a place in the Navy-office; but devoted to literary pursuits, he quitted this situation in 1710, and became a school-master. As a member of a society, established for literary improvement, he read,

in alternation with others, lectures on civil law, and the law of nature and nations. His first production as a writer was a small Latin essay, containing rules for composition, published in 1712. In 1720 he was chosen professor of rhetoric in Gresham college; and in 1723 a fellow of the Royal Society, having in that year translated into Latin Dr. Mead's treatise on the plague. To Vollius's "*Elementa Rhetorica*," printed in 1724, he added a valuable appendix, "*De Ratione Interpungendi*." He engaged in the controversy between Dr. Mead and Dr. Middleton concerning the condition of physicians in ancient Rome; and he annexed to Horley's "*Britannia Romana*" an "*Essay on Peutinger's Table* so far as it relates to Britain." In 1736 he became a member of the Society of Antiquaries, of which he was afterwards vice-president. His "*Lives of the Gresham Professors*" was published in 1740; and in 1751 he was honoured by the university of Edinburgh with the title of LL.D. When the British Museum was established in 1753, he was chosen one of the trustees, to which he rendered considerable service by his advice and co-operation in forming the rules of that important and useful institution. Notwithstanding the variety of his literary occupations, and his studious habits, he prolonged his life to his 80th year, and died in 1758. After his death, a valuable work, which he had prepared for the press, was published, entitled "*A System of Oratory, delivered in a Course of Lectures publicly read at Gresham College*," in 2 vols. 8vo. The Transactions of the Royal and Antiquarian Societies contain several of his papers, chiefly on subjects of antiquity. In his religious profession he was a Protestant dissenter, distinguished by rational piety, and great moderation and candour towards persons of all persuasions. To persons engaged in literary pursuits he was ready at all times to communicate advice and assistance; and his modesty was equal to his learning. Nichols's Lit. Anecd. Gen. Biog.

Unfortunately, before we perused Dr. Ward's *Lives*, &c., says a coadjutor, we had read Fontenelle's *Eloges* of the members of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris; panegyrics, which not only afford amusement, but instruction to readers; as that elegant and ingenious writer so describes the science, learning, and peculiar character and abilities of each individual whom he celebrates, that the reader of taste, if neither scientific nor learned before he has seen these *Eulogies*, becomes both in the course of perusal.

But Mr. Prof. Ward's work, says Dr. Burney, neither amuses us by the grace, dignity, or eloquence of style, nor instructs by its science. His materials are scanty, nor has he sufficiently applied to useful purposes those which he had amassed. The genealogy of the professors is all that he has laboured, and that not very successfully. Our chief inquiry of him was confined to the music-professors; but we obtained no information concerning any one of them, except Dr. Bull; and all he knew of that great musician he had from Dr. Pepusch, the studious, learned, and worthy organist of the Charter-House. Out of thirteen professors of music, who had had the honour of being placed in the chair, after Bull, previous to the year 1740, when Ward's biographical work was published, there appears no reason for the election of any one of them for their musical science or talents, except Dr. Bull. None of the rest had ever distinguished themselves either in the theory or practice of music, or been authors of any work on the art or science, which could qualify them for becoming candidates for the professorship.

The long and dry list of Dr. Bull's fugitive pieces is given in a language now utterly obsolete, and unintelligible to the generality of readers.

WARD, —, an English madrigalists of the second class, during the reign of James I. Ward was one of the first who transformed his madrigals into *fancies* for lutes and viols. No instrument, except the organ, had been much cultivated in England at this time; so that sonatas, solos, or concertos, were wholly unknown to us; and like our betters, the ancient Greeks, our instruments had nothing but vocal music to perform: in choruses, doubling the voice parts in unisons and octaves, and playing notes, and other vocal airs, for their solos.

WARD, *Warda*, *Custody*, or *Keeping*. See GUARD. WARD is a word used in our *Law Books*, in divers significations. Thus, a ward, in London, is a part of the city, committed to the special charge of one of the aldermen of the city. There are twenty-six wards in London, which are as hundreds, and the parishes thereof as towns.

A forest is also divided into wards; so also are most of our hospitals. See HOSPITAL.

A prison is sometimes also called a ward.

The heir of the king's tenant, who held by knights-service, or in capite, was also called a ward, during his non age. But this sort of wardship is taken away by the statute 12 Car. II. cap. 24. See GUARDIAN, in Chivalry.

WARD, *Watch* and. See WATCH.

WARD, *Castle*. See CASTLE.

WARD-ROOM, the apartment in a ship in which the officers mess, &c. next under the captain's cabin.

WARD, *Warda*, *Wardagium*, is also used, in our *Ancient Writers*, for the custody of a town or castle, which the tenants and inhabitants were bound to keep at their own charge. See WARDSHIP.

WARD'S MEDICINES, a denomination given to certain medical nostrums, originally prepared and dispersed by Mr. Ward, and which were some years ago much celebrated for their efficacy in a variety of disorders.

The methods of compounding the principal of these medicines was communicated to the public about fifty years ago by I. Page, esq., to whom Mr. Ward left his book of receipts; and in order to their being procured at a cheap rate, his late majesty settled a pension on Messrs. White and Osterman, the two chemists who had been employed by Mr. Ward in preparing them, on condition that the profits arising from the sale of them should be applied to the support of the Asylum and Magdalen charities.

These medicines are the red pill and emetic sack drop, the white drop, sweating powders, liquid sweat, paste for piles and fistulas, droply purging powders, and essence for the head-ache.

The method of preparing the antimony for the pill and drop is as follows:—The finest and purest crude antimony is powdered, and ten or twelve ounces of it put into an earthen unglazed pan that holds three or four quarts, and set on a fire; the mass is stirred with an iron spatula, and the fire raised till it sends forth fumes, and a flame like burning brimstone; and the same degree of fire is continued, and the mass stirred, till no fumes escape from it, and it becomes a grey or ash-coloured powder. If it should melt and run into lumps, it must be taken out of the pan, and pounded again, and then put in and stirred as before, till it be thoroughly calcined. Then four ounces of the crude matter must be added; and the process repeated, till a sufficient quantity has been thus prepared. The process must be performed in a chimney, lest the fumes should injure the operator. Into a clean crucible, holding about a quart, put about two pounds of the calcined antimony; set it in a melting furnace, and make a gradual fire under it; put coals
round

round the crucible nearly to the top; keep the mafs in a ftate of moderate fufion, occasionally ftirring it with an iron rod. When the matter that adheres to the rod appears bright and transparent, which, with a proper degree of fire, will be in about half an hour after it is in fufion, pour the vitrified matter on a fmooth marble, well dried, and heated as hot as the hand can bear; repeat the procefs, in order to obtain more of the matter, if neceffary; and thus will be had a fair and pure glafs of antimony, of a light red colour.

In order to prepare the *pill*, take a quantity of this glafs of antimony; pound it in a clean iron mortar, and fift it through a fine lawn fieve; then grind, or levigate it, on a fmooth marble, to an impalpable powder: take alfo dragon's blood dried and powdered; and put one ounce of this to four ounces of the levigated glafs; grind them well together; and with good fack, or rich mountain wine, make them into a mafs for pills, of about one grain and a half each, which is a full dofe for a man or woman.

The *drop* is made by putting about half an ounce of the levigated glafs of antimony into a quart of the richeft Malaga mountain or fack; fhake them well together, and let them ftand two or three days to fettle, and grow clear; then pour it off gently, to be quite fine. The full dofe for a man or woman is half an ounce; but it is advifable to begin with the half or two-thirds, according to the age, or ftrength of conftitution. Thefe medicines, it is faid, cannot be fafely administered, if the vifcera are unfound. They have been ufually given in diforders occafioned by foul ftomachs and indigeftion; and the pill has been very fuccefsful in inveterate rheumatifms: both the pill and the drop frequently operate upward and downward, but with lefs ftaining than the emetics ufually given. The pill muft be bruifed, and taken in a fpoonful of any fmall liquid, on an empty ftomach: if it works upwards or downwards, it will be proper to drink a fmall quantity of balm or fage-tea, between each motion; and if it fweats, as it fometimes does, let the patient keep himfelf warm, and encourage it by drinking the above fmall liquors; when it is taken, milk, greens, and fruit, muft be avoided. The potion, called the *drop*, requires no vehicle: when the ficknefs comes on, let the patient drink about half a pint of warm water, or thin water gruel, and continue to do fo every time it works.

The *white drop* is prepared by bruifing fourteen pounds of the cleaneft copperas into a rough powder; then drying it with a gentle heat, and fpreading it thin, till it becomes a dry and fubtile powder, refembling quick-lime, but much whiter. When this operation is finifhed, which requires about fix or feven days, take an equal quantity of good and clean rough nitre, or falt-petre, tolerably dry; pound the nitre and copperas together; fift the powder through a fine hair-fieve, put it into a large glafs retort, coated at bottom, and fet it in a fand-furnace about an inch from the bottom and fides of the fand-pan; fix on with lute a large receiver, leaving a fmall vent-hole in the joint to prevent the burfting of the retort or receiver; make a gentle fire for the firft three hours; and gradually increafe it for three or four hours longer, till the iron-pan be red-hot at bottom; continue the fire about thirty hours; and then let it out, and when it is cool, you obtain a very powerful aqua-fortis; put this into a bottle, ftop it clofe, and let it ftand fix or eight days to digeft itfelf. Put this aqua-fortis into a glafs retort about half or two-thirds full; fet it in the fand-heat, and fix on a receiver; make a moderate fire, till the aqua-fortis is come over into the receiver, leaving behind only a brown, reddifh earth: by this procefs is obtained a very ftrong and pure aqua-fortis. Put a quantity of this rectified aqua-fortis

into a large bolt-head, with a long neck, fo as to make it about a quarter full; then take of the pureft and fineft volatile fal ammoniac, in which there is not the leaft acid falt, or lime. To fifteen ounces of the aqua-fortis in the bolt-head, add, by half an ounce at a time, feven ounces of the volatile fal ammoniac, flopping the mouth of the bolt-head, (a vent-hole excepted,) till the fermentation ends; let it ftand two or three hours, till the fumes are fettled. Next put it into a fmall bolt-head, half full, and fet it in a moderate fand-heat; when it is warm, put four ounces of the fineft quickfilver to each pound of fifteen ounces of the folution, and let it ftand in the heat till the quickfilver is diffolved; increafe the fire, and add quickfilver; and when it will diffolve no more, take it out of the bolt-head, and put it into an open glafs vefel, or a white, large ftone bowl; fet it in a moderate fand-heat, and let it evaporate till a pellicle or fkin comes over the top of it; then put it in a cool place to congeal. The heavy liquor, or oil, which remains congealed, muft be poured off, and thoroughly drained, and the remaining falt muft be put into a glafs body; to each pound adding three pounds of the fineft rofe-water, and flopping the mouth of the glafs with a piece of double brown paper. Set it again in the fand-heat with a moderate fire, till the falt is wholly diffolved, which is ufually effected in twenty-four hours; and thus is the white drop prepared.

This medicine, it is faid, cannot be accounted dangerous; as there is not in two drops, ufually taken in twenty-four hours, half a grain of mercury. It has been administered with fuccefs as an antifebrile in all ftages of the fever, and even when the difeafe has been hereditary. The dofe of two drops is to be taken in a fmall quantity of water in the morning, fasting, or at night, going to reft, for two or three days together; then after an interval of as many days, proceeding as before. It generally produces its effect without any fenfible operation; except that in fome conftitutions it produces one or two motions.

Mr. Ward administered two forts of sweating powders: one fort is directed to be made by rubbing together in a mortar four ounces of refined nitre, and as much vitriolized tartar, into a powder; and putting into a red-hot crucible half of this mafs, and ftirring it with an iron fpatula: when the red fumes that arife from it ceafe, put in the remainder of the matter, and ftir it till no more fumes arife; then pour it into an iron mortar; and when cool, add opium, ipecacuanha, and liquorice powder, of each an ounce: pound and fift them through a lawn fieve, and mix all together. When the powders are thus prepared, they fhould be fpread thin on white ftone difhes, and fet in a cool place for about two days, mixing them well, and fpreading them twice a day; then dry them before the fire, or with any other gentle heat.

The other fort of sweating powder is prepared by fulminating together common tartar, and refined nitre, of each one pound, in a crucible or iron pot, which will reduce them to about fifteen ounces: to thefe add white hellebore, and liquorice powder, of each fix ounces; powder them together, and fift them through a fine lawn fieve. The dofe is from twenty-five to fifty grains.

Thefe sweating powders are faid to remove rheumatic and other pains, occafioned by obftructions; though it is faid that the *red pill* has been found to anfwer better in ftubborn rheumatic cafes, and other fettled pains in the limbs. They may be taken in any liquid, going to bed between the blankets, and now and then drinking fome warm diluting liquor, as white wine whey, baum tea, &c. They may be repeated every other night at difcretion.

The *liquid sweat* is prepared by putting a gallon of good spirits of wine, and half a gallon of good white wine, into a strong bottle, and adding half a pound of saffron, four ounces of cinnamon, two ounces of salt of tartar, and one ounce of opium, cut into small pieces. Stop the bottle close, and set it near the fire for eight days, shaking it three or four times a day; then filter the contents through a filtering paper. The dose is from thirty to sixty drops, in a glass of good white wine.

The *paste* for the piles and fistulas is prepared by pounding separately a pound of elecampane root, three pounds of fennel-seeds, and one pound of black pepper, and sifting the powders through a fine sieve; then melt two pounds of honey, and two pounds of powder sugar, over a gentle fire, scumming them, till they become bright as amber: when they are cool, mix and knead your powder into them in the form of a soft paste. This paste is said to be a specific remedy for the fistula, piles, &c. The dose is the quantity of a nutmeg, morning, night, and noon, drinking after it a glass of water, or white wine.

The *droply purging powder*, as made by Mr. Ward, was formed by powdering separately jalap, cream of tartar, and Florentine iris, of each four ounces, and mixing them well; as prepared by M. D'Osterman for Mr. Ward, it consists of a pound of jalap in powder, a pound of cream of tartar, and an ounce of bole armoniac, in fine powder, mixed well together. The dose is from thirty to forty grains, in broth, or warm water, to be repeated two or three days successively, and longer, at proper intervals, if necessary.

The *essence for the head-ache* was formed by Mr. Ward of four ounces of spirits of wine, two ounces of camphor, and two ounces of volatile spirit of camphor, well mixed, and applied with the hand. M. D'Osterman prepared it for Mr. Ward, by putting two pounds of true French spirit of wine into a large strong bottle, and adding two ounces of roch alum in fine powder, four ounces of camphor cut small, half an ounce of essence of lemon, and four ounces of the strongest volatile spirit of sal ammoniac. Stop the bottle close, and shake it three or four times a day for five or six days. The method of applying it is, to rub a little of it gently upon the palm of the hand, and then holding it to the part affected till it is dry. If the pain is not relieved, it should be repeated two or three times.

For some remarks on Mr. Ward's pill and drop, by Mr. Clutton, see True and candid Relation of their good and bad Effects, and Med. Ess. Edinab. abr. vol. ii. p. 434. 470, &c. and Ed. Med. Ess. and Obs. vol. vi. p. 423.

WARD, in *Geography*, a township of Massachusetts, containing 540 inhabitants; 6 miles S. of Worcester.

WARD, a river of Denmark, in North Jutland, which runs into the North sea, 15 miles N.N.W. of Ripen.

WARD *Lacus*, a mountain of Scotland, in the county of Ayr; 16 miles E. of Ayr.

WARD'S *Creek*, a river of Virginia, which runs into James river, N. lat. 37° 10'. W. long. 77° 11'.—Also, a river of Maryland, which runs into the Chesapeake, N. lat. 38° 8'. W. long. 76° 52'.

WARDA ECCLESIAIUM denotes the guardianship of churches; which is in the king during vacancies by reason of the regalia, or temporalities. See VACATION.

WARDAGE, WARDAGIUM, is sometimes used, in our ancient law-writers, in the same sense with wardpenny. Sometimes it also seems to denote a being free from wardship.

WARDAN, or *Ras Wardan*, in *Geography*, a cape on the coast of Arabia, in the Red sea; 5 miles S. of Maf-tura.

WARDAN. See VARDEN.

WARDE, or VARDE, a town of Denmark, in North Jutland, on the river Ward. It was formerly a considerable city; but as the depth of its river, which abounds in fish, particularly salmon, is so much decreased, as to be no longer navigable for ships of burthen, it is fallen into decay. It has two churches; 18 miles N. of Ripen. N. lat. 55° 35'. E. long. 8° 28'.

WARDE *Mauger, La*, a town of France, in the department of the Somme; 4 miles W.N.W. of Montdidier.

WARDECORNE, among our *Ancient Writers*, a duty incumbent on the tenants, to guard the castle, by founding a horn upon the approach of an enemy; called also *cornage*.

WARDEIN, in *Geography*. See PETER WARDEIN.

WARDEIN, *Gros*, a town of Hungary, on the river Koros, surrounded by good fortifications; the see of a bishop. The town itself is not large, but has three suburbs of very considerable extent. The adjoining fortrefs is a regular pentagon, well fortified, besides a deep and broad moat. Near the city is an excellent cold-bath; 66 miles N. of Temesvar. N. lat. 46° 53'. E. long. 21° 32'.

WARDEN, GUARDIAN, one who has the charge or keeping of any person, or thing, by office. See GUARDIAN.

Such is the warden of the Fleet, who is the keeper of the Fleet prison, and has the charge of the prisoners there; especially such as are committed from the court of chancery for contempt.

Such also are the warden of the fellowships, warden of the marshes, wardens of peace, warden of the west marshes, warden of the forest, warden of the alnage, warden of the king's wardrobe, &c.

WARDEN, in an university, is the head of a college; answering to what in other colleges we call the *master* thereof.

WARDEN, or *Lord Warden of the Cinque Ports*, is the governor of those noted havens; who has the authority of an admiral, and sends out writs in his own name. See CINQUE-PORTS, and GUARDIAN.

WARDEN of the *Mint*, is an officer, whose business is to receive the gold and silver bullion brought in by the merchants; to pay them for it, and oversee the other officers. He is also called keeper of the Exchange, and Mint.

WARDENS, *Church*. See CHURCH.

WARDEN, *Renter*. See RENTER.

WARDEN *Ledge*, in *Geography*, a rocky shoal on the west coast of the Isle of Wight. N. lat. 50° 41'. W. long. 1° 25'.

WARDENBURG, a town of Germany, in the county of Oldenburg; 6 miles N. of Oldenburg.

WARDER, *Yeomen Warders of the Tower*, are officers, forty in number, who are accounted the king's domestic servants, and are sworn by the lord chamberlain: their duty is, to attend the prisoners of state, and to wait at the gates.

Ten of them are usually upon the day's wait, to take an account of all persons who come into the Tower; to enter their names, and the names of the persons they go to, in a book, to be perused by the comptroller or lieutenant.

WARDFEOH, or WARDFEGH, the value of a ward, or heir under age; or the money paid to the lord of the fee for his redemption.

WARD-HOOK, in *Gunnery*, the same with *wad-hook*, or worm.

WARDHUS, or WARDHUY, or *Vardhuys*, in *Geography*, a town of Norwegian Lapland, and chief place of a govern-

government, defended by a castle, in which a governor resides, but without bastions; the town is chiefly inhabited by fishermen, and is situated on an island called Wardoe, the largest of three. N. lat. $70^{\circ} 16'$. E. long. $30^{\circ} 28'$.

WARDMOTE, in London, is a court so called, which is kept in every ward of the city; answering to the *curiata comitia* in ancient Rome.

WARDÖ, in *Geography*, a small island in the Baltic, E. of Åland, with a town. N. lat. $60^{\circ} 15'$. E. long. $20^{\circ} 12'$.

WARDPENNY, *Wardpeni*, was formerly a customary due paid to the sheriff, or other officer, for maintaining watch and ward.

It was payable at the feast of St. Martin; and is still paid within the manor of Sutton-Colfield, in Warwickshire; and that with some very singular ceremonies.

WARDROBE, a closet or little room adjoining to a bed-chamber; serving to dispose and keep a person's apparel in; or for a servant to lodge in, to be at hand to wait, &c.

WARDROBE, in a prince's court, is an apartment in which his robes, wearing apparel, and other necessities, are preserved; under the care and direction of proper officers.

His majesty has a great wardrobe, a removing wardrobe, and divers standing wardrobes, belonging to his bed-chamber, in each of his palaces; viz. at Whitehall, Kensington, Windsor, Hampton Court, and the Tower; each under its respective keeper.

The removing wardrobe always attends on the king's person; as also on ambassadors, at christenings, masques, plays, &c. It is under the command of the lord chamberlain: the under-officers are, a yeoman, two grooms, and three pages.

The great wardrobe is of great antiquity. Anciently it was kept near Puddle-wharf, in a house purchased for that purpose by king Edward III.; but, after the fire of London, it was kept in York-buildings. The master or keeper of which is an officer of great dignity: high privileges were conferred on him by Henry VI.; and James I. enlarged the same, and erected the office into a corporation.

The officers are, the master or keeper, his deputy, and his clerk, besides several other officers; and above sixty tradesmen, all sworn servants to the king.

This office is to provide for coronations, marriages, and funerals, of the royal family; to furnish the court with beds, hangings, carpets, &c.; to furnish houses for ambassadors, at their first arrival here; presents for foreign princes and ambassadors; furniture for the lord lieutenant of Ireland, and our ambassadors abroad; robes for the knights and officers of the garter, heralds, pursuivants, ministers of state; liveries for the officers of the bed-chamber, and other servants; liveries for the lord-chief justices, and barons of the exchequer, and other officers in those courts; as also yeomen, warders, trumpets, kettle-drums, messengers, coachmen, grooms, &c. with coaches, harnesses, saddles, &c. the watermen, game-keepers; linen and lace for the king's person; tilts, &c. for his barges, &c.

WARDS. See COURT of Wards.

WARDSBOROUGH, *North District*, in *Geography*, a town of Vermont, in the county of Windham, containing 1150 inhabitants.

WARDSBOROUGH, *South District*, a town of Vermont, in the county of Windham, containing 894 inhabitants.

WARDSBRIDGE, a post-town of New York; 36° miles S. of Kingston.

WARDSHIP, in *Chivalry*. See GUARDIAN, in *Chivalry*, and WARD, *supra*.

WARDSHIP, in *Copyholds*, is incident only to those of inheritance. It partakes both of that in chivalry, and that in fofage; like that in chivalry, the lord is the legal guardian, who usually assigns some relation of the infant tenant to act in his stead; and he, like guardian in fofage, is accountable to his ward for the profits. See GUARDIAN.

WARDSHIP, in *Socage*. See GUARDIAN and SOCAGE.

WARD-STAFF, the constable's or watchman's staff.

The manor of Lambourn, in Essex, is held by service of the ward-staff; viz. by the carrying of a load of straw in a cart with six horses, two ropes, and two men in harness to watch the said ward-staff, when it is brought to the town of Abridge, &c.

WARDWÂN, in *Geography*, a town of Hindoostan, in Guzerat; 80 miles S.W. of Amedabad.

WARD-WITE, compounded of the Saxon *ward*, watch, and *wite*, mulct, is defined by Fleta, as signifying a being exempted from the duty of watching. Others rather take it for a duty paid towards the charge of it.

WARE, Sir JAMES, in *Biography*, a descendant of an ancient English family in Yorkshire, was born at Dublin in 1594, and finished his education at Trinity college, Dublin. His proficiency was such as to entitle him to the particular notice of Dr. Usher, then bishop of Meath, with whom he contracted an intimate friendship. On his first visit to England in 1626, he was introduced by Usher to sir Robert Cotton, from whose library he derived much assistance in his researches; of which he again availed himself in a second journey to England in 1628. In 1629 he was knighted by the lords justices of Ireland, and in 1632 he succeeded to his father's estates, and to his office of auditor-general. He was greatly confided in and often consulted by the earl of Strafford, and by him made a member of the privy council. In 1639 he represented the university of Dublin in parliament, and was steadily attached to the interest of lord Strafford. He was active in his endeavours for suppressing the Irish rebellion which broke out in 1641, and he was held in such estimation by the marquis of Ormond, that he was one of three persons deputed by him to inform his majesty at Oxford, in December 1644, of the state of affairs in Ireland. On his return he was captured by a ship of war belonging to the parliament, and committed to the Tower, whence he was released by exchange. During the progress of the civil war, he was invariably attached to the royal cause, and when Dublin surrendered to the parliament, he was one of the hostages for the fulfilment of the treaty. After his return to Ireland, he was suspected, and ordered to depart to any place except England. He chose France as the place of his exile, and removed thither in 1649, and here he associated with men of learning. In 1651 he was allowed to come to London, and from thence he returned to Ireland, which was then in a tranquil state. During the embroiled state of the country, sir James Ware employed his time in the elucidation of historical antiquities, and published, at different periods, a variety of biographical and other works; and particularly his treatise "De Scriptoribus Hibernicis," lib. ii. commencing with the introduction of Christianity into Ireland, and continued to the close of the sixteenth century; and also his principal work, entitled "De Hibernia et Antiquitatibus ejus," and first published in London in 1654, of which an enlarged edition appeared in 1658, with

an appendix; "Rerum Hibernicarum regnante Henrico VII. Annales." His next publication was "A Collection of the Works ascribed to St. Patrick," 1656; and this was followed by "Two Epistles of the Venerable Bede," and some other ecclesiastical pieces. In 1662 appeared at Dublin, fol. "Rerum Hibernicarum Annales, regnantibus Henrico VII., Henrico VIII., Edwardo VI., et Maria." His last work, in 1665, was his "Complete History of Irish Bishops," comprehending his former narratives of them, under the title of "De Præfulibus Hiberniæ Commentarius, a prima Gentis Hiberniæ ad Fidem Christianam conversione ad Nostra usque Tempora," Dub. fol.

Sir James Ware is denominated by Nicolson the "Camden of Ireland," and highly commended both for his industry and judgment. After the Restoration he was restored to his office of auditor-general, and in 1661 chosen representative in parliament for the university of Dublin; he was also appointed to some other posts under government, and he refused the dignities of baronet and viscount, though he manifested his attachment to his country till his death in 1666. He left two sons and two daughters. After his death his works were collected by his second son Robert, and published in one folio volume in 1705; and a more complete edition was given by Walter Harris, esq. who married one of his descendants, in 3 vols. fol. ; printed at Dublin in 1739, 1745, and 1746. Biog. Brit.

WARE, in *Geography*, an ancient and populous market-town in the hundred of Braughin, and county of Hertford, England, is situated on the west side of the river Lea, at the distance of three miles E.N.E. from the county-town, and twenty miles N. from London. At the time of the Domesday survey it was a small village, and was held by Hugh de Grentemaifnil, to whom it was given by the Conqueror, and from whose family it passed to Robert Blanchmains, earl of Leicester. In the reign of king John, it descended by marriage to Sayer, earl of Winchester. "Before his time," says Salmon, "a great iron chain was put across the bridge, to prevent a road here to the disadvantage of Hertford. The bailiff of Hertford had the keys in his power; and no carriage with horses or harness could go over without paying a toll to him, which toll was esteemed worth 10*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* yearly. But the earl broke the chain, and laid the road open, which made this a great thoroughfare, brought trade to the town, and occasioned buildings in it." The high road to the north, which before went through Hertford, was now turned through this town. At a tournament held at Ware, 25 Henry III., Gilbert le Marechal, the potent earl of Pembroke, was killed by falling from his horse, and being trampled on; Robert de Say, one of his knights, was also slain in the diversion, and several others were wounded. In 1408, the town was greatly damaged by a flood: its low situation rendering it very liable to this inconvenience, several weirs and sluices have been raised at different times to remedy it. There were anciently two religious establishments in this town: one was a priory of Benedictines, subordinate to the abbey of St. Ebrulph, at Utica, in Normandy, to which Hugh de Grentemaifnil granted the church of Ware: "Whereupon," says Tanner, "it became a cell to that abbey; and in process of time was so well endowed, that, upon the seizure of the alien priories by Edward III. this was farmed at 20*0*l.* per annum."*

Some remains of the priory buildings are yet standing at a little distance from the church near the banks of the river: they chiefly consist of ancient walls fitted up and accommodated to the purposes of a modern dwelling: a small obtusely-pointed arch, within the north-east angle of the building, is supported by corbels displaying the upper parts of human figures; one of which appears to be clad in

mail. The other establishment, which stood in the north part of the town, was for Grey or Franciscan friars; but by whom, or when founded, is uncertain. The town of Ware at present consists of one principal street, a mile in length, intersected by several smaller. In the return of the year 1811, the population is stated to be 3369, occupying 687 houses. Considerable traffic is carried on in corn and malt, which are conveyed to the London markets by the river Lea and the new navigable canal: the barges load back with coals and other articles. A weekly market, granted in the reign of queen Elizabeth, is held on Tuesdays; and two fairs annually. At an inn in this town was formerly a remarkable bed, twelve feet square, called the Great Bed of Ware; it is said to be of remote antiquity, but its origin is not mentioned in history. Ware church, a spacious edifice, consists of a nave, chancel, and aisles, with an embattled tower at the west end. The inner roofs are of timber, and have been ornamented with paintings and inscriptions, of which there are still considerable remains; particularly in the fourth chancel or chapel, where the roof is divided into squares, in each of which is some figure or legendary subject. The sepulchral memorials are numerous, among which are various ancient slabs, most of which have been pillaged of their brasses. The font is ornamented with various sculptures, representing St. George, and other subjects. At the west end of the church is a handsome gallery, erected by the governors of Christ's hospital, London, for the use of the school that was formerly established here for the younger children of that institution, but which has been many years removed to Hertford. Among various benefactions for charitable purposes are several well-endowed alms-houses, established in different parts of the town. In a piece of ground called the Bury-field, at the south-west corner of Ware, in February and March, 1802, at about the depth of three feet, were found four stone coffins, each of them formed of one mass of stone, hewn with tolerable squareness: each lid was also of one piece. At a spot, called Lemonsfield, were dug up, in 1729, several Roman vessels of reddish earth, &c. At Roadmill are the remains of a Roman camp.

Ware-park, the seat of Thomas Hope Hyde, esq. is situated on an eminence, commanding the rich meadows which extend between Ware and Hertford. The ancient manor-house, which had been the retirement of the Fanshaws, and the occasional residence of their predecessors in the possession of the manor, was pulled down by Thomas Hyde, esq.; and a new mansion erected on the acclivity of a hill. This is elegantly fitted up, and forms the present residence of the family; the park and grounds are well diversified, and are rendered extremely pleasant by the contiguity of the rivers Lea and Rib. Sir Richard Fanshaw, a distinguished statesman in the seventeenth century, was born in the old manor-house in 1607, and was interred in Ware church in 1666.

In the meadows opposite to Ware-park, on the south-east, are the springs of Chadwell, the proper source of the New River. These are concentrated in a small pool or basin, surrounded by a light railing, from which the stream slowly issues in its course towards London, and is swelled at a small distance by a cut from the river Lea. See *NEW RIVER*.—*Beauties of England and Wales*, vol. vii., Hertfordshire; by E. W. Brayley, 1808. Salmon's *History of Hertfordshire*, fol. 1728.

WARE, a town of Massachusetts, in Hampshire county, containing 996 inhabitants; 15 miles N.E. of Springfield.

WARE, a river of Massachusetts, which runs into the Connecticut, at Springfield.—Also, a river of Virginia,

which runs into the Chesapeake, N. lat. $37^{\circ} 25'$. W. long. $76^{\circ} 26'$.

WARE, *Earthen, Queen's, and Stone.* See POTTERY.

WARE-SEA. See SEA-WARE.

WARECTUM, in *Ancient Writings*, signifies land that has lain long neglected, and untilled.

In ancient records, we meet with *tempus warecti*, for the time in which land lies fallow, or else the season of fallowing.

WAREE, in *Geography*, a town of Africa: capital of a country of the same name; 60 miles S. of Benin. N. lat. $5^{\circ} 25'$. E. long. $4^{\circ} 48'$.—Also, a country of Africa, near the west coast, south of Benin.—Also, a town of Hindoostan, in Guzerat; 50 miles W. of Radunpour.

WAREHAM, a borough and market-town in the hundred of Winfrith, Blandford south division of the county of Dorset; England, is situated on a peninsula, formed by the rivers Frome and Piddle, near their confluence with the waters of Poole harbour, at the distance of 18 miles E.S.E. from Dorchester, and 110 miles S.W. by W. from London. It appears to have been a British town, from its earthen vallum, and from the barrows in its vicinity; and that the Romans had a station here is evinced, by a military way which proceeds immediately hence to Dorchester, and by Roman coins found in the neighbourhood. Mr. Baxter and other antiquaries consider it to have been the *Morinio* of Ravennas and Richard of Cirencester. Wareham was a place of some consequence in the time of the Saxons; but was made a theatre of war by the Danes for a century and a half; in which period its principal notoriety arose from its misfortunes and desolation. In the reign of Athelstan it had recovered so much importance, that the king appointed it to have two mints and mint-masters; a greater proportion than any town in the county possessed, except Shaftesbury. Here also Edward the Martyr was privately buried, after his assassination at Corfe castle; though within three years his body was removed to Shaftesbury abbey. In the year 998, Wareham was visited by the Danes; and likewise in 1015, when Canute entered the Frome, and ravaged the adjacent country. It seems to have been the constant practice of these pillagers, when the invasion of the western counties was their object, to make this town their head-quarters; so that it was in a state either of continual apprehension or of absolute warfare. In *Domesday-book*, it is described as being in a desolate state in the time of Edward the Confessor: after the conquest, it gradually became of greater importance; but from the year 1138 to 1146, it was a scene of confusion and war, arising from the contentions between king Stephen and the empress Maud, during which the town and cattle were burnt. From this period scarcely any thing important occurred in Wareham, till the civil war in the reign of Charles I., when it was early fortified for the parliament; but in a short time it was possessed by the king: it was afterwards again taken by the parliamentary forces, who relinquished on the surrender of Corfe castle. On the 25th of July 1762, Wareham experienced a dreadful calamity, in a fire which broke out nearly in the centre of the town, and spread with such violence and rapidity, that in three hours two-thirds of the town were reduced to a heap of ruins: 133 dwelling-houses, with the town-hall and other buildings, were destroyed; and the loss, exclusive of insurance, was estimated at 10,000*l*. The subscriptions for the relief of the sufferers did honour to the nation, and the town rose out of its ashes to greater advantage than before. Wareham is built in a flat country, and forms a long square: the buildings, which are chiefly constructed of brick, are

disposed in four spacious streets, intersecting each other at right angles. The area on which it stands is computed at an hundred acres, and is inclosed, except on the fourth side where the Frome runs, by a high rampart or bank of earth, which was cast up by the Danes in the ninth century, and measures 5360 feet. The space between the bank and the town was anciently occupied by houses, the foundations of which still remain. At present it consists chiefly of extensive garden grounds, divided into regular quadrangles, the scites of ancient streets; the holders of these grounds are entitled to vote for members for the borough. These gardens produce vast supplies of vegetables, considerable quantities of which are sent by water to Poole and Portsmouth. The soil is favourable for the cultivation of hops, which grow wild and luxuriant in the hedges and fields. This town was anciently a borough by prescription, and is so styled in *Domesday-book*. By a charter of queen Elizabeth, the government of the town was vested in a mayor, six burgesses, and other corporate officers; but, from some peculiar circumstances, these privileges were neglected, and became obsolete. The mayor, by prescriptive right, is coroner of the town, and of the isles of Purbeck and Brownsea: this right is still claimed and exercised. By a charter of the second year of queen Anne, the town is incorporated by the style of "the mayor, the capital, and assistant burgesses;" and, among other privileges, is empowered to have a gaol and house of correction; and to hold three fairs, and a court of pie-powder; the profits of the fairs and courts to be for the sole benefit of the mayor. A weekly market is held on Saturdays. Two members have been returned to parliament ever since the 13th of Edward I. The right of election was anciently vested in four burgesses; but in the year 1747 it was determined to be in the mayor and corporation, jointly, with such inhabitants as paid foot and lot, together with such freeholders who hold lands in their own occupation, or by descent, marriage-settlement, or promotion in the church. Wareham had formerly eight churches, of which only three remain. Trinity is reputed the mother-church, but does not contain any thing remarkable. St. Martin's is an ancient structure, neatly fitted up: St. Mary's is a lofty fabric, and with the exception of Sherborne and Wimborne, the most spacious and ancient in the county; in the south aisle is a chapel, said to be the burial-place of the Saxon kings; within it is a neat mural pyramidal monument, to the memory of the Rev. John Hutchins, rector of Wareham, and author of the *History and Antiquities of Dorsetshire*. The building that was formerly St. Peter's church is now used as a town-hall, school-house, and gaol. This parish is singular for a house in the market-place, called *Homo cum cane*, the owner of which is always a tithing-man, and obliged to attend at the wool-court, twice a year, with a one-eyed bitch. Here are two meeting-houses for Dissenters, a free-school, a charity-school, and an alms-house: the latter founded by John Streeke, esq. of Exeter, and rebuilt, in 1741, by Henry Drax, esq. and John Pitt, esq. The priory, situated on the river side, near St. Mary's church, is one of the most ancient in the county; it is said to have been founded by Adhelm, bishop of Sherborne, who died in 709; and appears to have been a nunnery antecedent to 876, when, together with the town, it was destroyed by the Danes. Robert Bellamont, earl of Leicester, changed it into a convent for monks, subject to the Benedictine abbey of Lira, in Normandy. At the dissolution of alien-houses, it was bestowed on the Carthusian monastery of Shene, in Surrey; and on the general dissolution of monasteries, it shared the common wreck of those monuments of religious splendour. By various descents, it is now the property of lord Rivers. In a close, denominated Cattle close,

close, formerly flood the castle, of which no remains are now visible: it was famous for the imprisonment and death of Robert de Belesme, earl of Montgomery, who, for rebelling in the year 1114 against Henry I., was doomed to the most rigid confinement in this castle, where he starved himself to death. The port of Wareham was formerly considerable; but, owing to the shallowness of the shore, and the retreat of the sea, it is nearly choked up; though at very high tides the water flows up to Holm bridge, nearly five miles. It had anciently a court of admiralty belonging to it: the quay lies on the fourth side of the town, but the trade is now very inconsiderable; it chiefly consists in the exportation of pipe-clay, vast quantities of which are obtained from the clay-pits round the town; and nearly 10,000 tons are annually shipped for London, Hull, Liverpool, Glasgow, &c. for the use of the potteries. This clay is particularly useful in the composition of Staffordshire ware; the digging it employs many hands. According to the population return of the year 1811, the inhabitants of Wareham were 1709, occupying 383 houses. South Bridge, which, crossing the Frome, connected this town with the isle of Purbeck, was an ancient structure, probably coeval with William Rufus; but being ruinous was presented at the Easter sessions for the county in 1775. A handsome bridge of Purbeck stone has been since erected, having five arches, the expense of which amounted to 2932*l.* 10*s.* The salmon fishery on the Frome anciently belonged jointly to the abbey of Bindon: the hoop-net, or weir, for taking the salmon, was fixed in the Wareham royalty for several centuries; and its antiquity appears from various grants. The fishery is now held by Thomas Weld, of Lullworth, and John Calcraft, esqrs.—Hutchins's History of Dorsetshire, 4 vols. fol. 1796. Beauties of England and Wales, vol. iv. Dorsetshire; by J. Britton and E. W. Brayley, 1803.

WAREHAM, a town of the state of Massachusetts, in the county of Plymouth, on a river which runs into Buzzard's Bay, containing 851 inhabitants; 35 miles S.S.E. of Boston.

WAREM. See BORCHWORM.

WAREN. See WARREN.

WAREN, in *Geography*, a small island in the North sea, near the coast of Lapland, but the principal of a group. N. lat. 66° 48'.

WARENDORFF, a town of Germany, in the bishopric of Munster, on the Ems; 12 miles S.E. of Munster. N. lat. 51° 52'. E. long. 8° 6'.

WARENDORP, a town of the duchy of Holstein; 6 miles W.S.W. of Cismar.

WARESTAS, a small island on the east side of the gulf of Bothnia. N. lat. 60° 43'. E. long. 21° 4'.

WARGAM, a town of Hindoostan, in Guzerat; 45 miles S. of Gogo.

WARGELA, a town of Africa, in Sahara; 250 miles N.W. of Agades. N. lat. 23° 35'. E. long. 9° 50'.

WARGEN, a town of Prussia, in Samland; 6 miles W.N.W. of Königsberg.

WARGENTIN, PETER WILLIAM, in *Biography*, an eminent Swedish astronomer, was the son of a clergyman, and born in Yamtland in 1717. In his earlier years he made rapid proficiency in the learned languages and in mathematics, and in those other branches of learning which were adapted to his original destination for the church. In 1733 he was admitted at the academy of Upsal, where he enjoyed peculiar advantages under Klingenshierna and Celsius for pursuing his favourite studies of mathematics and astronomy; gaining, after the death of his father, the means of subsistence by the instruction of private pupils. The

subjects of his disputations, preparatory to his degree of master of arts, which he obtained in 1743; were the satellites of Jupiter, and the political system of Machiavel. His views were directed in the course of his studies to the office of lecturer in mathematics in the gymnasium of Hernösand, and this object he succeeded in attaining. Having calculated new tables of Jupiter's satellites, which were inserted in the transactions of the society of Upsal for 1741, he was chosen a member of that body. After the death of Celsius, he commenced a correspondence with some of the French astronomers, and in 1743 was nominated a member of the Academy of Sciences at Paris. In 1749 he was chosen successor to Elvius, as secretary to the Academy of Sciences at Upsal, the duties of which office he discharged for 34 years. Wargentín's tables for the satellites of Jupiter, published in 1741, were much approved by all foreign astronomers; and in 1742 he communicated, in the transactions of the society of Upsal for 1742, more than 1000 observations made by various astronomers, which he compared with his tables, and the result of the comparison was, that the difference seldom amounted to a minute, and for the most part to less. In the same transactions for 1743, he inserted about 400 observations of the other satellites, which, compared with the tables, gave a difference that seldom amounted to four minutes of time, but for the most part to less. From this time he directed his attention to the improvement of the theory of Jupiter and his moons, and to the perfection of his tables. He was thus led to revise them to the year 1753; and when his tables of the four satellites were completed, he transmitted a copy of them to M. de la Lande, by whom they were inserted, in 1759, in a new edition of Halley's tables, published at Paris. In 1769 he sent a copy of them, further improved, to Dr. Maskelyne, who published them in the Nautical Almanack for 1771. They were again published, with improvements by De la Lande, together with his own astronomical tables; and another edition of them, with some variations from the last edition of Paris, appeared at Berlin in 1776. The result of Wargentín's assiduity in this department of astronomy was communicated to the public in the "Connoissance du Mouvements Célestes" for 1766, the "Nautical Almanack" for 1771 and 1779, and the "Astronomisches Jahr-buch" for 1777, 1779, 1781, and 1782: and the fruits of his last labour in these tables appeared in the fourth volume of the "Nova Acta Societatis Literariæ Upsaliensis," which contained 1250 observations of the third satellite, with appropriate remarks. This indefatigable astronomer contributed to the transactions of the Royal Academy of Sciences papers on different subjects, amounting to the number of sixty. All these papers, besides several others, and one written in 1744, on the velocity of the rays of light, were produced by him after he became secretary to the academy. Many of them "relate to the history of the sciences; such as on thermometers, and the best sorts of them; on the attempt made to determine the real figure of the earth; on the parallax of the fixed stars, and the experiment made to discover it; on logarithms; on the flux and reflux of the sea; on comets; on the use of ventilators on board ships; and on the northern lights." Some of them treat of climate and its differences, in reference to which he observes in general, "that milder and colder winters, summers more or less warm, earlier or later springs and autumns, depend not only on the greater or less degree of latitude of the place, but also on other circumstances, such as the vicinity of the sea, lakes, marshes, large woods, uninhabited deserts, &c. from which he deduces this conclusion, that the climate of Sweden is much more temperate than many others lying

under

under the same parallel." On parallaxes and transits he also made a variety of observations, which were published in the transactions of the different societies to which he belonged. The phenomena of the magnet and of the northern lights were also objects of his attention; and he suggested that some connection subsisted between them, and that the variations of the magnetic needle are violent in proportion to the intensity of the lights. He likewise furnished the Academy of Sciences, and also our ingenious traveller, Mr. Coxe, with tables and observations relating to births and deaths, as well as to population in general, not only in Stockholm, but in various other places.

In sketching his character, one of his biographers says, that "he was a man of great integrity, modest and friendly in his disposition; zealous for the advancement of science, and ever ready to make any sacrifice which could tend to promote the good of his country." His merit induced king Adolphus Frederick to create him, in 1759, a knight of the Polar Star; and he was a fellow of the Royal Society of London, and member of the Academies of Peterburgh, Paris, Göttingen, Copenhagen, and other learned institutions. Although his genius was not brilliant, his judgment was sound and discriminating, and his labour, industry, and perseverance, were indefatigable. Notwithstanding the intenseness of his application, which allowed him few intervals of relaxation and amusement, his habits were regular and temperate, and served to prolong his life to an advanced period. Towards the close of it, however, his sight and hearing decayed; but neither his strength nor spirits seemed to decline till the summer of 1783, when a diabetes, which baffled all medical skill, carried him off in the month of December in that year. His papers on a variety of subjects occur in the following volumes of the Philosophical Transactions, viz. xlvii. li. liii. lvi. lviii. lix. lxx. and lxxvii. Coxe's Travels in Sweden, &c. vol. iv. Gen. Biog.

WARGO, in *Geography*, a small island in the gulf of Bothnia, near the east coast. N. lat. $63^{\circ} 0'$. E. long. $20^{\circ} 57'$.—Also, a small island on the west side of the gulf of Bothnia. N. lat. $65^{\circ} 17'$. E. long. $21^{\circ} 47'$.

WARGOCZYN, a town of Poland; 40 miles N.W. of Lublin.

WARGRAVE, a town or populous village of England, in Berkshire, on the right bank of the Thames; 7 miles N.E. of Reading.

WARI, a town of Hindoostan, in Baglana; 28 miles E. of Bahbelgong.

WARIANAGUR, a town of Hindoostan, in the Carnatic; 16 miles S. of Tiagar.

WARIBA, a river of Guiana, which runs into the Atlantic. N. lat. $6^{\circ} 54'$. W. long. $59^{\circ} 8'$.

WARIGARI BAY, a bay on the island of St. Vincent, south of Hungary Point.

WARIN, a town of Mecklenburg; 10 miles S.E. of Wismar.—Also, a river of Brazil, which runs into the Atlantic. S. lat. $4^{\circ} 55'$. W. long. $36^{\circ} 58'$.

WARING, EDWARD, M. D., in *Biography*, descended from an ancient family at Milton, in the county of Salop, was born in 1734, and finished his education at Magdalen college, Cambridge, where he was considered, when he took his first degree in 1757, as a prodigy in those sciences which form the subject of the bachelor's examination. At the age of 25 years, in 1759 he was elected Lucasian professor of mathematics, not without giving offence to some of the senior members of the university, who disapproved the appointment of so young a man to occupy a chair which had been dignified by a Newton, a Saunderson, and a Barrow; and the first chapter of his "*Miscellanea Analytica*," which

was circulated in vindication of his scientific character, was the occasion of a controversy of some continuance. The attack was commenced by Dr. Powell, master of St. John's, and the young professor was ably defended by Mr. Wilfon, afterwards judge Wilfon, a gentleman held in high estimation. In 1760, Waring received the degree of master of arts by royal mandate; and in 1762, his "*Miscellanea Analytica*" was published, with a dedication to the duke of Newcastle. This work amply vindicated his early elevation to the professorship, and extended his scientific fame through Europe; so that he was elected member of the societies of Bologna and Göttingen, and honoured by expressions of high regard by the most celebrated mathematicians, both at home and abroad. Speaking of this miscellany, comprehending most subjects in pure mathematics, he himself says, "In my preface I have given a history of the inventions of different writers, and ascribed them to their respective authors, and likewise some account of my own. To every one of these sciences I have been able to make some additions, and in the whole, if I am not mistaken in enumerating them, somewhere between 300 and 400 new propositions of one kind or other, considerably more than have been given by any English writer; and in novelty and difficulty not inferior; I wish I could subjoin, in utility. Many more might have been added, but I never could hear of any reader in England out of Cambridge, who took the pains to read and understand what I have written. But I must congratulate myself that D'Alembert, Euler, and La Grange, three of the greatest men in pure mathematics, of this or any other age, have since published and demonstrated some of the propositions contained in my '*Meditationes Algebraice*,' or '*Miscellanea Analytica*,' the only book of mine they could have seen at that time; and D'Alembert and La Grange mention it as a book full of excellent and interesting discoveries in algebra. Some other mathematicians have inserted some of them in their publications. The reader will excuse my saying so much, there being some particular reasons which influenced me." Medicine also engaged our author's attention, and in 1767 he took his degree of doctor; but though he took pains by attending lectures and hospitals in London to perfect himself in the medical art, it does not appear that he ever gained much practice. His manner, it is said, was not very prepossessing; but his want of success he had the less reason to regret, as he had a very liberal patrimony, and as he was sufficiently amused by his favourite science. He resided for some time at St. Ives, after taking his doctor's degree, and in 1776 he married; but as the air of Cambridge, whither he removed, did not agree with Mrs. Waring's constitution, he went to live on his own estate at Pilsly, about eight miles from Shrewsbury, and prosecuted his mathematical inquiries. He also directed his attention to other subjects, and printed at Cambridge, in 1796, a work entitled "An Essay on the Principles of Human Knowledge," which was never published. Attached to his country retreat he seldom left it, except when he occasionally attended the Board of Longitude in London, of which he was a member. A violent cold terminated in his death, which happened in August 1798, in the 64th year of his age. His integrity was inflexible, his modesty disguised the superiority of his understanding, and his habits and manners were simple and plain.

In the extract we have given from his own account of his writings, some may suppose that he incurs the charge of vanity and self-adulation; but occasions may occur in which the most modest men are called upon to do themselves justice, which was the case with regard to Dr. Waring. To say nothing of the disparaging reflections which his early appointment

pointment to the Lucasian professorship produced, he was induced, for the honour of his country, to retort to the charge of Lalande, the French astronomer, who, in his life of Condorcet, asserts, that in 1766 there was no first-rate analyst in England. In order to repel this accusation, he takes occasion, in a letter to Dr. Maskelyne, to mention with respect the writings of several celebrated British mathematicians, two of whom were living in 1764, and then to take notice of his own discoveries, many of which had been published before that year; it should be remembered, that this account was not published by himself. It is not without reason that he intimates the neglect with which his writings were treated; the fact is certain, and it was owing partly to the abstruseness of the subjects, but principally to the perplexed style and manner in which they are discussed. His principal works, besides those that have been mentioned, are "Meditationes Algebrae," 1770; "Proprietates Algebraicarum Curvarum," 1772; and "Meditationes Analyticae," 1773, 1774, 1775, 1776. His papers in the Philosophical Transactions may be found in vols. liii. liv. lv. lxi. lxxvi. lxxvii. lxxviii. lxxix. lxxx. lxxxiv. For these communications he was honoured with Sir Godfrey Copley's medal. Nichols's Anecd. of the 18th century. Gen. Biog.

WARING, in *Geography*, a town of Virginia; 15 miles E.S.E. of Port Royal.

WARINGSTOWN, a town of the county of Down, Ireland, about 3 miles from Lurgan, where the linen manufacture is extensively carried on; 67 miles N. from Dublin.

WARISE, a town of France, in the department of the Moselle; 4 miles S. of Boulay.

WARKA, a town of the duchy of Warsaw. In 1656, the Poles were defeated here by the Swedes; 30 miles S. of Warsaw.

WARKALLEN, a town of Prussian Lithuania; 4 miles N. of Gumbinnen.

WARKULLEN, a mountain of Sweden, in the province of West Gothland, from which may be seen 23 lakes, great and small.

WARKWORTH, a market-town in the east division of Morpeth ward, and county of Northumberland, England, is situated on the banks of the river Coquet, distant 7 miles S.E. from Alnwick, and 305 miles N. by W. from London. It consists chiefly of one principal street; and in the population return of the year 1811 is stated to contain 108 houses, and 568 inhabitants; the latter are mostly employed in taking and curing salmon. A weekly market is held on Thursdays; and three fairs annually. Warkworth is a borough by ancient prescription, and is governed by a mayor chosen by the free burgesses. In the centre of the town is the market-place, having a stone cross inclosed in a spacious area. The church exhibits some remains of ancient architecture, and has a spire one hundred feet in height. Adjoining to the church was formerly a cell for two Benedictine monks from Durham, for whose maintenance here Nicholas de Farnham, bishop of Durham, who died A.D. 1257, appropriated the church of Brankelton, which was confirmed by Walter de Kirkham, his successor. Over the Coquet is a stone bridge of three arches; on the middle of it is a pillar, and at its south end an ancient tower. At the south end of the town is Warkworth castle, the ancient residence of the earls of Northumberland; in Leland's time it was, he says, "well menteyned;" but in 1672 its timber and lead were granted to one of their agents, and the principal parts of it unroofed. It contains within its moat above five acres. The whole stands on a rock, and its walls were well guarded

with towers. The keep is square, with the angles canted off, and having at the middle of each side a projecting turret, semi-hexagon at its base, and of the same height as the rest of the structure. It contains a chapel, and a variety of spacious apartments, and is finished with a lofty watch-tower, commanding an almost unbounded prospect. Half a mile above the castle is the Hermitage of Warkworth, celebrated in 1771, by the late bishop of Down, in his ballad of the "Hermit of Warkworth." It was only for one priest or hermit, but its origin and foundation are uncertain. The earl of Northumberland, in his grant to the last hermit in 1572, calls it "a min armitage, belded in a rock of stone, in my parke, in honour of the Holy Trinity." The most perfect and curious part of it consists of a chapel, sacristy, and vestibule, hewn out of a fine freestone-rock, twenty feet high, and overshadowed with shrubs and stately forest trees. The chapel is about eighteen feet long, and seven feet broad and high; and executed with great neatness, in columns, groins, and arches, in the old style. Parallel with the chapel, five feet wide, and stretching five feet round its west end, is the sacristy, lighted from the chapel with a window, and having the remains of an altar in it, and over its door a shield, with instruments of the Passion. Its west end communicates with the vestibule, in which are two square niches, and from which has been a way into an apartment of masonry, having remains of a chimney. A staircase led from the chapel door to the top of the cliff, where were the hermit's house and garden.—Beauties of England and Wales, vol. xii., Northumberland; by the Rev. J. Hodgkin, 1813. History and Antiquities of Northumberland; by Nicholson and Burn, 2 vols. 4to.

WARLAX, a small island on the east side of the gulf of Bothnia. N. lat. 63° 18'. E. long. 21° 29'.

WARLEY, a township of the West Riding of Yorkshire; 3 miles N.W. of Halifax.

WARMBRUNN, a town of Silesia, in the principality of Jauer, celebrated for its warm baths; 3 miles S.S.W. of Hirschberg.

WARMELAND, a province of Sweden, bounded on the north by Norway and the province of Dalecarlia; on the east by Westmanland and Nericia; on the south by the Wenner Lake; and on the west by Norway; about 200 miles in length from north to south, and 130 in breadth from east to west. This country is almost every where mountainous; but the east and south parts are more level and fertile than the west and north parts. However, the woods and mines of silver, lead, copper, and iron, with the forges, founderies, &c. belonging to them, furnish the inhabitants of the latter with a great variety of employments. In the year 1726, some pure silver was found in an iron mine not far from Philipstad, and the memory of this extraordinary circumstance has been preserved in some medals struck on the occasion. The chief occupation of the inhabitants is mining, smelting, &c. together with fishing, and a little agriculture. Their trade consists mostly in malts, planks, timber, the bark of birch-trees, &c. The chief river in this province is the Clara, or Stor Elbe, in which there is a very profitable salmon-fishery. The principal lake, besides the Wenner, is the Fry-ken, which is eight Swedish miles in length, but narrow: it has communication with the Wenner lake.

WARMENSTEINACH, a town of Germany, in the principality of Culmbach; 9 miles E.N.E. of Bayreuth.

WARMINSTER, a considerable market-town, of antiquity, in the hundred of the same name, and the county of Wilts, England, is situated near the western confines of the county, at the distance of 20 miles W.N.W. from Salisbury,

WARMINSTER.

bury, and 98 miles W.S.W. from London. At the time of the Conquest, Warminster appears to have been exempted from the payment of taxes, which circumstance, together with the evident derivation of its name, seems to point it out as the site of an ancient monastery. At a later period it was celebrated for its corn-market. Leland, in his Itinerary, says, "Worminster, a principall market for corne, is 4 myles from Brookehaulle, a myle to Welbury, and fo 3 myles forthe." At the present day, the market of this town continues to be abundantly supplied with wheat, barley, oats, &c. and here are three annual fairs. Warminster possesses no corporation within itself, and is therefore under the government of the neighbouring county magistrates, with the aid of constables chosen every year, at the court-leet of the marquis of Bath, who is lord of the manor. The chief trade carried on here is that of malting, and a considerable manufacture of woollens: the latter has been rapidly on the increase within the last century. According to the parliamentary returns of the year 1811, the town and parish of Warminster contained 1073 houses, and a population of 4866 persons. The houses in the town are principally ranged in one very long street, stretching along the sides of the turnpike-road. At the western extremity stands the parish-church, which is a spacious edifice of stone, with a square tower; and near the centre of the town is a chapel of ease, erected some years ago for the convenience of the parishioners. There are besides two places of worship belonging to the Dissenters; also a good market-house, an assembly-room, and a free grammar-school for the education of twenty poor boys. This institution is endowed with a salary of thirty pounds *per annum*, and is in the gift of the marquis of Bath. The lordship of Warminster in ancient times formed part of the estate of the family of Mauduit, whence it passed to the Hungerfords. Mary, an heiress of that family, conveyed it by marriage to Edward, lord Hastings, who was beheaded by order of the duke of Gloucester, afterwards Richard III. That monarch subsequently bestowed it on John Howard, whom he created duke of Norfolk. It is now the property of the marquis of Bath. Dr. Samuel Squire, a learned writer, and bishop of St. David's, was born at Warminster in 1714, and died in 1766.

Southley Wood, so called from its lying to the south of Warminster, is distinguished by a small intrenchment, denominated Robin Hood's Bower, which is nearly of a square form, and comprises about three-quarters of an acre. Close to the eastern boundary of this wood is another similar earthen-work; and on its eastern side is a third intrenchment, resembling an amphitheatre in miniature. This last is a very curious work, and consists of a ditch and two vallars. The outer vallum is about eighteen feet in height, and is very neatly formed; the breadth of the ditch is seven feet; the height of the inner work from fifteen to sixteen feet; and the length of the area of the inner work on its longest side (for it is of an oval shape) is one hundred and eleven feet.

Clee or Clay Hills, in this vicinity, are two very singular knolls; one of which is much larger than the other, and is surrounded by a ditch and rampart, bearing the marks of very high antiquity; and on its summit are placed two barrows, and the pedestal of a stone cross. Both these tumuli were opened by sir Richard Hoare, who ascertained one of them to be decidedly sepulchral; but no remains of any interment appearing in the other, it is supposed to be designed for a beacon.

At the distance of a quarter of a mile N.E. from Warminster, is a conical-shaped eminence, called Cop-Head Hill,

which is crowned by a large barrow, encircled by a ditch and vallum. This tumulus was opened in 1809 by sir Richard Hoare, and found to contain the skeletons of several males, one female, and a child; besides an interment of burnt bones.

About three-quarters of a mile further to the eastward, on the summit of an irregular hill, is Battlebury Camp: on the west and north-east sides it is nearly inaccessible, from the steep and difficult nature of the ground; and on those sides where it is more easily approached, additional ramparts have been constructed exterior to the double ditch and vallum which surround the whole. The circuit of the outer vallum is seven furlongs and sixty-six yards, and the greatest height of the ramparts is sixty feet: the area, within the interior vallum, measures twenty-three acres and a quarter, and is wholly under tillage. At the south-west angle of the camp are three barrows: one of them fills the entire space of the inner ditch; and the other two are placed in the line of the inner rampart. These last, on opening, proved to be sepulchral; but no interment could be discovered in the other.

Between these fortresses and the village of Boreham, is one of the largest barrows in Wiltshire, from which circumstance it has been dignified with the appellation of King Barrow. It extends two hundred and six feet in length, fifty-six in breadth, and from fifteen to sixteen in height. When first opened in 1800 by Mr. Cunningham, the skeleton of a horse, and three of human beings, were discovered, together with some pieces of flags' horns, boars' tusks, and rude pottery; also a single-edged iron sword, about eighteen inches in length, and two in breadth, which lay on the thigh of one of the skeletons.

Westward from Warminster four miles and a half, on the immediate confines of this county with Somersetshire, is Longleat, the magnificent seat of the marquis of Bath. The old house was originally part of a priory, founded by sir John Vernory, lord of Horningham. On its surrender to Henry VIII. the site and lands attached were granted to sir John Horley, and Edmund, earl of Hertford, from whom the whole was afterwards purchased by sir John Thynne, an ancestor of the present proprietor. Towards the close of his life he laid the foundation of the superb mansion, which still continues the proudest architectural ornament of this part of Wiltshire; but he only lived to finish the shell and a small portion of the interior. The remainder was completed by his son and by his grandson; the latter of whom was created lord Weymouth by king Charles II. This nobleman likewise furnished the house in a most splendid manner. His lordship died in 1714; the third lord, who was afterwards raised to the dignity of marquis of Bath, new-modelled the gardens and grounds by the advice of the celebrated Brown, whose plan his lordship unremittingly pursued till his death, which happened in 1796. The situation of Longleat is peculiarly fine and picturesque. An extensive park surrounds the mansion; and both nature and art have co-operated to render this place highly important and interesting. The whole domain, within the plantations, is about fifteen miles in circumference. Longleat-house is built on a scale of magnificence proportionate to the extent and grandeur of the park in which it is seated. The architecture is the mixed style which prevailed at the end of the sixteenth century; but it partakes far more of the Roman than of the pointed or English character. The form of the edifice is a parallelogram two hundred and twenty feet in length, by one hundred and eighty feet in depth; it is built entirely of free-stone, and is adorned with pilasters of the Doric, Ionic, and Corinthian orders, with enriched

enriched capitals, friezes, entablatures, parapets, and cornices. In the centre are two quadrangular courts; and externally it presents four principal fronts, each divided into three stories in height, and into different portions in width by square projections. The interior of this princely mansion corresponds with its exterior in character and effect; every thing is vast, and every part is grand. The principal apartments, with all the out-offices, have been recently formed and arranged by Jeffery Wyatt, esq., architect; who, well acquainted with the style of architecture in which the house was originally erected, has judiciously adhered to the same style in his additional works. Hence, when the whole is completed, it may be safely asserted, that for grandeur of effect, commodiousness of arrangement, and adaptation for a splendid establishment, it will equal any mansion in Great Britain. The libraries and other apartments are enriched with numerous pictures, among which are portraits of many personages of distinguished celebrity in the three last centuries.—Beauties of England and Wales, vol. xv., Wiltshire; by J. Britton, F.S.A. Hoare's "Ancient Wiltshire," fol. 1812. A fine view of this house, with a particular description of the seat, are published in Havell's Views of Seats, fol. 1817.

WARMSTER, a post-town of Virginia, on James river; 90 miles W. of Richmond.—Also, a township of Pennsylvania, in the county of Bucks, containing 564 inhabitants.

WARMSDORF, a town of Germany, in the principality of Anhalt Cothen; 8 miles W. of Bernberg.

WARMSRING MOUNTAINS, or Jackson's Mountains, mountains of Virginia. N. lat. $54^{\circ} 30'$. W. long. $79^{\circ} 40'$.

WARMSTADT, or WORMIT, a town of Prussia, in the province of Ermeland; 42 miles S.W. of Königsberg. N. lat. $54^{\circ} 3'$. E. long. $20^{\circ} 7'$.

WARMTH. See HEAT.

WARMTH, in *Painting*, denotes that fiery effect which a small addition of yellow gives to a true red; and that glowing appearance which red imparts to either yellow or blue. By warmth, in red, is to be understood a small inclination towards orange; by the same term, applied to yellow, a like tendency by the admixture of red; and by the same again, in the case of blue, must be understood its slightly verging on the purple. Coolness is opposed to warmth; but it is seldom used except in speaking of yellow and blue; and then it means either the negation of that which causes warmth, or a tendency to green, in either colour, by a slight admixture of the other. The sense of the term warmth, when applied to colouring, or the combined appearance of various tints, must not be confounded with that which it bears when we are speaking of particular colours. For then it relates to the procuring of a strong effect, by the disposition or contrast of the colours, or the grossness of the tints; and not the qualities peculiar to, or inherent in the colours themselves.

WARN, in *Law*, to summon a person to appear in a court of justice.

WARNA, in *Geography*, a town of Sweden, in East Gothland; 14 miles E.S.E. of Linköping.

WARNAMMA, or WERINAMA, a town on the south coast of the island of Ceram. S. lat. $3^{\circ} 45'$. E. long. $120^{\circ} 34'$.

WARNAS, a name by which some of the chemical writers express what others of them call the *acetum philosophorum*, or vinegar of the philosophers.

WARNE, or WARNOV, in *Geography*, a river of Mecklenburg, which passes by Rostock, and runs into the Baltic, at Warnemünde.

WARNE, a river of England, in the county of Northumberland, which runs into the Irish sea, 4 miles S. of Holy island.

WARNEMÜNDE, a town of the duchy of Mecklenburg, at the mouth of the Warne, where vessels bound to Rostock pay a toll, which formerly amounted to 80,000 rix-dollars a year; at present to not more than 6000; 9 miles N. of Rostock.

WARNENAS, a town of Sweden, in the province of Smaland; 11 miles S.S.W. of Calmar.

WARNER, a town of New Hampshire, in the county of Hillsborough, containing 1838 inhabitants; 20 miles W. of Concord.

WARNER's Patent, a town of New Hampshire, in the county of Coos, containing 35 inhabitants.

WARNERIA, in *Botany*, was so called by Miller, in honour of Richard Warner, esq. of Woodford-row, Essex, author of the *Plantæ Woodfordienses*, published in 1771. This gentleman, rather a patron of the science than a deep botanist, is mentioned by Dr. Pulteney, as a successful cultivator of exotic plants, and a lover of indigenous botany. On his death, April 11, 1775, he left his valuable library to Wadham college, Oxford, where he received his education; this bequest was accompanied by a stipend for a botanical lecture, of which we have never heard the result. He is also celebrated for his critical knowledge of Shakspeare, of whose plays he had long meditated an edition; but resigned his pretensions to Mr. Steevens. The genus dedicated to Mr. Warner, has not however been allowed to retain his name. It is the *HYDRASTIS* of Linnæus; see that article.

A small pamphlet of twelve pages, entitled "Additions to Warner's *Plantæ Woodfordienses*," was printed in 1784, by Thomas Fairleigh Forster, esq. F.L.S. a distinguished British botanist.

WARNESS, in *Geography*, a cape on the south coast of the island of Eday. N. lat. 59° . W. long. $2^{\circ} 42'$.

WARNETON, a town of France, in the department of the Lys. This town was ceded to the Dutch in 1715, as a barrier town, and before the revolution, with its territories, belonged to the prince of Orange; 2 posts N.W. of Lille.

WARNING-Piece, in the *Military Art*. See *Evening Gun*.

WARNING-Wheel, in a clock, is the third or fourth, according to its distance from the first wheel. See *Clock*.

WARNITZ, in *Geography*, a town of European Turkey, in Bessarabia, remarkable for being the place where, in the year 1709, Charles XII. of Sweden broke up his camp, and continued till the year 1713, when the Turks were obliged to make use of force to get rid of him; near Bender.

WARNOth, in our *Old Writers*, an ancient custom, by which if a tenant, holding of the castle of Dover, failed in paying his rent at the day, he was to forfeit double; and for the second failure, treble; and the lands so held were called *terris culis*, and *terris de warnoth*.

WARO, in *Geography*, a town of Sweden, in the province of Halland; 13 miles S. of Königsberg.

WAROLA, a town of Sweden, in West Gothland; 66 miles E. of Uddevalla.

WARP, in *Agriculture*, a slimy sort of substance or material which is deposited or let fall upon land by the sea, tides in some particular situations, and by which a new, rich, and fertile sort of alluvial soil is formed. The term is also sometimes applied to the ooze or slimy matter thrown up by the sea in ordinary cases. It is in both instances a

very productive material when employed as manure in composition with other matters, or used alone.

WARPS are applied to flat, wide beds or ridges of ploughed land in some districts. It is often a bad mode of laying land when in the state of tillage.

WARP in *Cows*, in *Rural Economy*, a term made use of in some places to signify to miscarry or slip their calves. Where cows are liable to warp or slip their calves, and it has taken place in different cases, it is considered dangerous to permit them to continue in the yards with the whole of the same sort of stock, from the fear of the same effect being produced on the others. For though some cows may probably, by constitutional weakness, or some bodily imperfection, be more liable to warp than others; such accidental circumstances as produce sudden fright are very often the cause. Putrid disagreeable smells, and the exposure of putrid animal substances, have frequently too the same effect. It is stated, that in an inclosure in the parish of Arlingham, in the county of Gloucester, near to which was a dog-kennel, eight heifers out of twenty warped, in consequence, as it was supposed by the farmer, of the frequent exposure of the flesh, and the skinning of the dead horses before them: the remainder being removed to a distant pasture, it is said, did well. Many other cases of this sort have likewise been noticed.

WARP, in the *Manufactures*, is the threads, whether of silk, wool, linen, hemp, cotton, or the like, that are extended lengthwise on the weaver's loom, and across which the workman, by means of his shuttle, passes the threads of the woof, to form a cloth, ribband, fustian, or other matter.

For a woollen stuff, &c. to have the necessary qualities, it is required, that the thread of the warp be of the same kind of wool, and of the same fineness throughout; that they be sized with Flanders or parchment-size, well prepared; and that they be in sufficient number, with regard to the breadth of the stuff to be wrought. See WOOL, CLOTH, &c.

WARP, in a *Ship*, is a small rope employed occasionally to remove a ship from one place to another, in a port, road, or river. Hence,

To WARP, in *Sea Language*, is to change the situation of a ship, by pulling her from one part of a harbour, &c. to some other, by means of warps, which are attached to buoys, to anchors sunk in the bottom, or to certain stations upon the shore, as posts, rings, trees, &c. The ship is accordingly drawn forwards to those stations, either by pulling on the warps by hand, or by the application of some purchase, as a tackle, windlass, or capstern, upon her deck. When this operation is performed by the ship's lesser anchors, these machines, together with their warps, are carried out in the boats alternately towards the place where the ship is endeavouring to arrive; so that when she is drawn up close to one anchor, the other is carried out to a competent distance before her, and being sunk, serves to fix the other warp, by which she is farther advanced.

Warping is generally used when the sails are unbent, or when they cannot be successfully employed, which may arise from the unfavourable state of the wind, the opposition of the tide, or the narrow limits of the channel. Falconer.

WARP also denotes a towing-line, by which boats are hauled in a canal, &c.

WARP of *Shrouds*, the first given length, taken from the bolster at the mast-head to the foremost dead-eye.

WARPED into *Junks*, in *Rope-Making*, is yarn warped into short lengths for spun-yarn.

WARPEN, in *Geography*, a lake of Sweden, in Dalecarlia.

WARPENI. See WARDPENNY.

WARPING of *Land*, in *Agriculture*, the practice of forming, fertilizing, and improving lands of the tillage kind, which is employed in some particular situations on the borders of large rivers and channels into which the sea-tides flow, and where the level of the ground is such as to admit of their being overflowed with much facility. This practice has hitherto been chiefly confined to the extensive sea-districts of Lincolnshire and Yorkshire, but is little known to most others. It has been remarked by the writer of a late calendar of husbandry, that the waters of the tides that come up the Trent, Ouse, Dun, and other rivers of the former of the above counties, which empty themselves into the great estuary of the Humber, are muddy to an excess; inasmuch that in the summer season, if a cylindrical glass, twelve or fifteen inches long, be filled with the water, it will presently deposit an inch, and sometimes more, of this muddy matter, or what is there called warp. Where it comes from is, it is said, a disputed point: the Humber, at its mouth, is clear water; and no floods in the countries washed by the warp rivers bring it, but, on the contrary, do much mischief by spoiling the warp. In the very driest seasons and longest droughts, it is found the best and most plentiful.

The improvement in land, which is made by this means, is, it is said, perfectly simple and easy, consisting in nothing more than merely letting in the tide at high water to deposit the warp, or muddy material, and permitting it to run off again as the water falls. But in order to render it fully efficacious, the water must be at command, so that it may be kept out and let in at pleasure, consequently there must be not only a cut or canal made to join the river, but a sluice at the mouth of it formed so as to open or shut, as wanted; and that the water may be of a proper depth on the land to be warped, and also prevented flowing over contiguous lands, whether cultivated or not, banks are necessary to be raised around the fields to be warped, of from three or four to six or seven feet high, according as the circumstances of the cases may be. Thus, if the tract be large, the canal which takes the water, and which, as in the practice of irrigation, might, it is said, be called the grand carrier, may be made several miles long: it has been tried, it is said, as far as four, so as to warp the lands on each side the whole way, and lateral cuts made in any suitable direction for the same purpose; it is, however, to be observed, that the effect lessens as the river is receded from; that is, it demands longer time for the water to deposit warp enough for producing the benefit.

It is to be noticed in this case, however, it is said, that the effect is very different from that of irrigation or watering; as it is not the water that works the effect or improvement, but the mud or material which is deposited, so that in time of floods the business ceases, as also in winter; and that it is not in this case to manure the soil, but to create and form it. What the land is, it is supposed, which is intended to be warped, is not of the smallest consequence: a bog, clay, sand, peat, or even a barn floor, all one and the same; as the warp raises it in one summer from six to sixteen inches thick, and in the hollows or low places, two, three, or four feet, so as to leave the whole piece or field level. Thus, a soil of any depth that may be required is formed, which consists of mud, or a material of that sort, of vast fertility, though not containing much besides sand; but a sand unique, it is supposed.

It is stated in addition, too, by the same writer, that Mr. Dalton, of Knäth, on Trent, in the same county, sent some
of

of this material to an eminent chemist, whose report of it was, that it contained mucilage, and a very minute portion of saline matter; a considerable one of calcareous earth: the residue is mica and sand; the latter in far the largest quantity, both in very fine particles. Here, it is said, there is no mention of any thing argillaceous; but from examining in the fields much warped, the writer is clear that there must be clay in some, from its caking in small clods, as well as from its cleansing cloth of grease, almost like fuller's earth. He was told too, by a considerable warp farmer, that the stiffest warp was the best; but in general it has the appearance, it is said, of sand, and all of it glitters with the micaeous particles.

It is evident therefore that the soil or bed which is formed in the cases of warping is somewhat of the alluvial kind, and of course well constituted for the growth of most sorts of tillage crops.

Warping is a practice which begins in the month of July, and which proceeds during the summer season; and as it can only be performed at that particular period, every occasion of having it executed should constantly be embraced, by having the works in perfect repair and readiness, that every tide may be made to produce its full effect. In regard to the utility and advantage of doing this sort of work in the summer months, it may be noticed, that at these times the lands not only become the soonest dry, a circumstance which must always fully take place before the proofs of cultivation can be carried on, but the tides are less mixed with fresh water, in which situation they are constantly found the most effectual in the business.

In respect to the method of performing the work, it is described by lord Hawke, in one of the Reports on the Agriculture of Yorkshire, in the manner which is given below.

The land to be warped must, it is said, be banked round against the river; the banks for which are made of the earth taken on the spot from the land: they must be formed so as to slope six feet; that is, three feet on each side of the top or crown of the bank, for every foot perpendicular of rise: their top or crown part being made broader or narrower, according to the impetuosity of the tide, and the weight and quantity of water; and they extend from two feet to twelve: their height is regulated by the height to which the spring-tides flow, so as to exclude or let them in at pleasure. In these banks, there are to be more or fewer openings formed, according to the size of the field or ground to be warped, and the choice of the occupier or proprietor; but in general they have only two sluices, it is said; one called the flood-gate, to admit, the other termed the clough, to let off the water in a gentle manner; these are sufficient, it is observed, for ten or fifteen acres: when the spring-tide begins to ebb, the flood-gate is opened to admit the tide, the clough having been previously shut by the weight of the water brought up the river by the flow of the tide. As the tide ebbs down the river, the weight or pressure of the water being taken from the outside of the clough next the river, the tide-water that has been previously admitted by the flood-gate opens the clough again, and discharges itself slowly but completely through it. In forming the cloughs, they are walled on each side, and so constructed, as to let the water run off between the ebb of the tide admitted, and the flow of the next; and to this point particular attention is, it is said, paid by the workmen. The flood-gates are placed so high in these intentions as only to let in the spring-tides when opened. They are, of course, placed above the level of the common tides.

Willows are also, it is said, occasionally planted on the

fronts of the banks, to break the force of the tides, and defend the banks, by raising the fronts of them with warp thus collected, accumulated, and detained: but these willows must never, it is remarked, be planted on the banks themselves, as they would in that way destroy them, by giving the winds power to shake and disturb them.

In regard to the expence, it is stated that the first cost of a sluice for warping, which is five feet in height, and seven feet in width, may be estimated at from four to five hundred pounds. And that such a sluice will in general be adequate to the warping of fifty acres annually; and where the soil or land is contiguous to the river, for seventy or more.

In these cases, the nature of the culture which is proper, the crops, and various other circumstances that require attention, are well shown and pointed out in the observations that are given below, which were taken by the first of the above writers on the farm of Mr. Webster, at Bankside, in the county of Lincoln, who has made to great an improvement by warping, that it merits, it is said, particular notice and regard. His farm of two hundred and twelve acres, it is said, is all warped; and that to shew the immense importance of the improvement, it would be necessary only to mention that he gave eleven pounds an acre for the land, and would not now take seventy pounds an acre for it; he considers it worth eighty pounds, and some of it even one hundred pounds the acre: not that it would sell so high at present however; yet the whole expence of his sluices, cuts, banks, and other things, did not, it is said, exceed two thousand five hundred pounds, or twelve pounds the acre; from which, however, to continue the account, one thousand five hundred pounds may, it is said, be deducted, as a neighbour below him offers five pounds an acre for the use of his sluice and main cut, to warp three hundred acres by, which will, it is said, reduce Mr. Webster's expence to one thousand pounds, or about five pounds an acre. Take it, however, it is said, at the highest, twelve pounds, and add eleven pounds, the purchase, together twenty-three pounds an acre; if he can sell at seventy pounds, it is forty-seven the acre profit. This, it is thought, is prodigious, and sufficient to prove that warping exceeds all other improvements. Mr. Webster has, it is observed, warped to various depths, to eighteen inches, two feet, two and a half feet, &c. He has some, it is said, that, before warping, was moorland, worth only one shilling and sixpence the acre, now as good as the best. Some of it would let at five pounds the acre for flax or potatoes; and the whole at fifty shillings. He has twenty acres that he warped three feet deep, between the beginning of June and the end of September, and eighteen acres, part of which is three feet and a half deep. He has applied it, too, on fubbles in autumn by way of manuring, it is said; for it should be noted, the writer says, as a vast advantage in this species of improvement, that it is renewable at any time: were it possible to wear out by cropping or ill-management, a few tides will, it is asserted, at any time restore it. As to the crops he has had, they have, it is said, been very great indeed; of potatoes from eighty to one hundred and thirty tubs of thirty-six gallons each, selling the round sorts at three shillings, to three shillings and sixpence a tub; and kidneyes at from five shillings to eight shillings the tub. Twenty acres warped in 1794, could not, it is said, be ploughed for oats in 1795; he, therefore, sowed the oats on the fresh warp, and scuffled in the seed by men drawing a scuffler, eight to draw, and one to hold: the whole crop was very great; but on three acres of it, measured separately, they amounted, it is said, to fourteen quarters one sack the

WARPING OF LAND.

acre. The writer here observes, that he little thought of finding exactly the husbandry of the Nile in England. He had, however, before heard of clover-feed being sown in this manner on fresh warp, and succeeding greatly.

It is stated in addition, that Mr. Webster warped twelve acres of wheat-flubble, and sowed oats in April, which produced twelve quarters an acre; then wheat, thirty-six bushels an acre: that his wheat is never less than thirty bushels; and that six acres of beans produced thirty loads the acre, or ninety bushels; that one acre, measured to decide a wager, yielded ninety-nine bushels; that he has had one hundred and forty-four pods from one bean, on four stalks; and Tartarian oats seven feet high; that one piece, warped in 1793, produced oats in 1794, six quarters an acre. White clover and hay-seeds were sown with them, and mown twice the first year: the first cutting yielded three tons of hay on the acre; the second, one ton; and after that, an immense eddih. Warp, it is observed by Mr. Webster, brings weeds never seen there before, particularly mustard, cresses, and wild celery, with plenty of docks and thistles; also flax, from forty to fifty stones the acre.

It is remarked too, in the same agricultural work, that Mr. Nicolson, at Rawcliffe, when this practice is intended, takes the levels first, then builds a sluice; that if a quarter of a mile or half a mile in length, sixty acres may be done the first year; the drier the season the better, as suggested above. The clough or sluice, when eight feet wide, and five or six feet high, will be 400l.; and a drain made fourteen feet at the bottom, and as much more at top, from thirty to forty shillings an acre of twenty-eight yards; banks made from four to eight feet high, and the expence from seven to twenty shillings the acre of twenty-eight yards: that he begins the business at from Lady-day till Martinmas, but all depends on season; the depth will depend on and be regulated by circumstances. If a landlord warp, it should be deep, it is said, at once; if a tenant, shallow and repeated; for as good corn will grow at six inches as six feet; at three inches, great crops; the stiffer the warp the better, as already noticed. Some seasons, corn is sown the year after. Warp is cold, and, if deep, takes time; a dry year best; great seed crops. The crops ought to be beans, twenty loads; oats, ten quarters; wheat, ten or twelve loads: never barley. After six years, potatoes, and good flax: he makes it worth from forty to fifty pounds an acre, it is said. And Mr. Wilson's idea of warping is considered by the writer as very just; which is to exhaust the low lands in favour of the hills; then to warp six-inches deep, to exhaust that to make the hills; then to warp again: and by thus doing, to keep the warp-land in the highest order, and at the same time to work a great improvement to all the higher grounds.

The substance of the observations of a commissioner much employed in warping is, that warp leaves one-eighth of an inch every tide on an average; and that these layers do not mix in an uniform mass, but remain in leaves or layers distinct. That if there be only one sluice, then only every other tide can be used; as the water must run perfectly off, in order that the surface may incurst; and that if the canal be not empty, the tide has not the effect. At Althorp, Mr. Bower has warped, it is observed, to the depth of eighteen inches in a summer.

Ten quarters of oats an acre is common, on raking in the feed on warp; the more salt there is in the warp, the better; but one fallow, in that case, is, it is said, necessary to lessen the effect, or it hurts vegetation.

It is remarked, that as a sort of new soil is created by this mode of practice, it is of but little consequence what the

original nature or quality of the land may be, almost all kinds being improved by it, as seen already; but that, at the same time, it may be the most beneficial in such light soiled lands as are very open and porous, and such stiff ones as are defective in calcareous matter, and which require substances of this kind to render them less tenacious: and that land, when once well warped, will continue for a vast length of time in a good state of fertility. But till it is suggested, by some experienced warpers, as a better practice, in this mode of tillage improvement, to apply a small portion of warp whenever the land is in the state of fallow, which will be about every five or six years; as, by this means, the farmer will be more secure of having good crops. The depth to which the lands are covered by the tides must, it is said, be regulated according to their levels, and the height to which the tides rise in the rivers from which they proceed.

It is stated in the Agricultural Report of the West Riding of the County of York, that where it can be done, the water may be admitted to the height of three, four, or more feet; and that the deposit of the muddy sediment or material is in some measure proportionate to the height of the tide-water; but that the same effects may be gained from much smaller quantities of water, by continuing the process or practice a great number of tides: also, that such lands as have been subjected to this method of improvement, should constantly be kept in the state of tillage for some length of time afterwards, in order that they may be brought to a proper condition for the production of grass.

In respect to the expence of this mode of improving lands, it must necessarily differ much, it is said, in different cases, according as the circumstances of situation, distance, &c. may vary; but it can seldom exceed twelve or fifteen pounds the acre, according to some, as the first of the above writers; and in most instances it must, it is thought, be greatly below such estimates. It is, however, properly remarked by Mr. Day, another experienced writer on the subject, that no estimate can be made, without viewing the situation of the lands to be warped, and the course and distance it will be necessary to carry the warp to such lands: as, 1st, the situation of the lands must be fully considered; 2dly, the quantity of land the same drains and cloughs will be sufficient to warp; and 3dly, the expence of building the cloughs, cutting the drains, embanking the lands, &c. An estimate of which expence being made, then it will be necessary to know the number of acres such cloughs and drains will warp, before any estimate per acre can be made; consequently it will be easy to conceive, that the greater quantity of land the same cloughs and drains will warp, the easier the expence will be per acre. It is his opinion, that there are great quantities of land in the above county, and others, which might be warped at so small an expence as from four to eight pounds the acre, which is nothing, it is thought, in comparison to the advantages which would arise from it.

The writer has known land which has been raised in value by warping, from five to upwards of forty and even fifty pounds the acre; therefore it is easy to conceive, it is said, that the greatest advantages arise upon the worst land, and the more open and porous the soil the better, as has been noticed, as the wet filters through readily, and it soon becomes fit for use. The advantages of warping are, it is thought, very great; as, after lands have been properly warped, they are so enriched thereby, that they will bring very large crops for several years afterwards, without any manure; and, when it is necessary, the lands may be warped again, by opening the old drains, which may be done at a very trifling expence, and will bring crops in succession for

WARPING OF LAND.

many years, with very little or no tillage at all, if the lands be kept free from quick grafs, and other weeds, which muft be the cafe in all lands where they are properly managed; befides, the drains which are made for the purpofe of warping, are the belt drains, it is faid, that can be contructed for draining the lands at the time they are not ufed for warping, which is another very great advantage, it is thought, in low lands in this fort of bufinefs.

As to the difadvantages in warping, it is conceived there can be very few, if any, as the land may be warped in the year in which it fhould be a fummer fallow. Indeed all lands that are warped, it is faid, fhould be prepared in the fpring as fallow lands, fo that they may be ready to let in the warp by the month of June, as the three fucceeding months are the moft proper ones in the whole year for warping; but they might be continued in warping longer when neceffary, therefore the rent is, it is thought, out of the queftion. The only inconveniences that can arife are, in the writer's opinion, from the blowing up of the cloughs, or the breaking of the banks, which is feldom the cafe, except where there is fome neglect in the works, and thereby overflowing the adjoining lands, and very probably deftroying the crops; it, however, very much enriches the land that is overflown: fuch accidents and circumftances fhould notwithstanding be guarded againft by every cautious contriver of fuch works.

It is noticed that warped land feldom fails of carrying good crops of moft forts; but that oats are moft to be depended on the firft feafon. It is thought that warped land is better calculated for the growth of oats, wheat, and beans, than barley, as the foil by that means becomes fo very rich, that barley in general grows too coarfe. It never fails growing artificial feeds of all kinds, and is the belt of all land for paffure.

When once well warped, land lafts a confiderable length of time, and is generally the moft conveniently and belt done in a gradual manner, as fuggelted above, as by fuch means the farmer will feldom fail of having great crops. In fhort no fort of field management is known that is fo cheap as warping, when properly applied. Land of all qualities is warped; but in general it is not warped more than one year in feven; one year's warping will do for that length of time in moft cafes. The land is various as to the preference of the grain or crops to be fown upon it, as in other cafes.

In fome cafes, land has been raifed confiderably by warping; in one inftance of bad corn land, almoft good for nothing, it was raifed in three years fourteen inches: it lay idle for that time, that it might be raifed by this means; it was then fown with beans, and promifed a crop of eight quarters.

The warp confifts of mud and falts depofited by the ebbing-tide, as fuppofed above: near Howden, one tide will, it is faid, depofit an inch of mud, and this depofit is more or lefs in proportion to the diftance from the Humber, at which the place is.

Cherry-cob fands were gained, it is afferted, by warping from the Humber; and they are fuppofed to be at leaft four yards thick of warp: fome of thefe were ploughed for twelve, fourteen, or fifteen years, it is faid, before they would grow grafs-feeds: the greater part is now in feeding land, and makes very fine paffure.

The land muft always be in tillage for fome confiderable time after warping, as pointed out above; and if laid down for grafs, and continued in that ftate, it is not warped; for the falts in the mud would, it is faid, infallibly kill the grafs-feeds.

When it is propofed to fow the land again with corn, then

it is warped: when the farmers find the grafs decline, they then warp and plough it out: as the land varies in quality, fo does the time during which it will produce good grafs. It is never in the ftate of fallow, but in the year when it is warped, as fuggelted already.

In regard to the practice of warping in the low part of the Weft Riding of the above diftrict, it is conceived, that it originated from the tides overflowing the banks of the rivers, and thereby leaving a fediement, which was found to be excellent manure, and that the land brought very large crops after being covered or flooded in that manner. Indeed, it is believed that the firft trial of warping was made by a fmall farmer, who had fome low land adjoining a certain river called the Dutch river, which was a very poor foil, the loweft part of which was levelled with the higheft, by the overflowing of fome very high tides, which convinced the farmer that he could, by banking the land round, and laying a tunnel through the bank of the river, raife the fame, and make it of confiderably more value. He confequently applied to the commiffioners of fewers for the level of Hatfield chafe, as being appointed for draining that part of the diftrict, &c. to grant him an order, giving him leave to lay a tunnel, a few inches fquare, through the bank of the faid river, for the purpofe of warping his land, which was granted him with a great deal of reluctance, for fear of overflowing the country thereabouts with water, on his giving a proper fecurity for indemnifying the county againft any injury which might happen thereby, which anfwered his purpofe, it is faid, very well. But now, it is obferved, there are cloughs laid of fix or eight feet wide, and drains made of proper dimenfions, to carry the water as circumftances may be. The writer is not certain how long it is fince warping came much into practice, but it is not, however, many years; it is believed not more then (1799) than twenty or twenty-five years, or thereabouts.

It is ftated, however, that Mr. Richard Jennings, of Armin, near Howden, was the firft perfon who tried the experiment of warping, about fifty years fince at the above period. It was next attempted, then about forty years ago, by a Mr. Farham, fteward to — Twifleton, efquire, of Rawcliffe, as well as by a Mr. Mould, of Potter Grange; and it has been tried, it is faid, by a great variety of perfons fince that time, to their great advantage.

It is obferved in the work firft noticed, that a very great object in the hufbandry of warping, is the application and extenfion of it in other diftricts. They have much warp, it is faid, on all the coaft from Wifbeach to Bofton, and other places in that vicinity, and which through a long fucceffion of ages has formed a large tract of warp country, called there the *Silt diftrict*, yet no attempts that have been heard of have been made there to warp artificially. It is therefore fuggelted to the proprietors and farmers living near a muddy river, that they fhould confider the pofition of their grounds well, and try the amount of the fubfidence of the mud in the water, in a cylindrical glafs jar, as a treafure may be near them without their knowing any thing of it. See the Corrected Agricultural Reports of Lincolnshire and the Weft Riding of Yorkfhire.

WARPING-BANKS, the mounds of earth that are raifed up round the fields or grounds to be warped againft the rivers. See **WARPING OF LAND**.

WARPING CUTS, DRAINS, or GUTTERS, the open paffages which are formed for taking away the water in *warping of land*. See the article.

WARPING CLOUGH, HATCH, or SLUICE, the ftongly framed wood-work which is placed in the inlet cut in the bank of the warping river, which cut is walled on each fide with a
ftong

strong wall, and this frame or gate for the flood-tide firmly fixed in the middle part, in order to let in and out the water. They are sometimes constructed nearly on the same principle as those which are used at water-mills, and commonly like the gates and sluices in canals for raising the water to assist the passage of boats on them; in some cases, too, such gates are placed above the clough in a perpendicular manner. The sizes and dimensions of them are different according to the differences in the circumstances of the cases, as well as the cost of them. Some notion of each of which has been given in speaking of the practice of warping. See *WARPING of Land*.

WARPING, in *Rope-Making*, is running the yarn off the winches into hauls to be tarred.

WARPING-Hook, for hanging the yarn on when warping into hauls for tarring, is a large iron hook hung occasionally to the warping-posts.

WARPING-Post, a post fourteen or sixteen inches diameter, fixed in the middle of a rope-ground, for warping the yarns into hauls.

WARRAN, in *Geography*. See *ORAN*.

WARRANAROU, a small island near the east coast of the island of St. Vincent. N. lat. 13° 22'. W. long. 61° 11'.

WARRANT, an act, instrument, or obligation, by which a person authorizes another to do something, which he had not otherwise a right to do.

WARRANT, in *Law*, is a precept under the hand and seal of some officer, to bring any offender before the person granting it.

A warrant may be granted in extraordinary cases by the privy-council, or secretaries of state; but ordinarily by justices of the peace. This they may do in any cases where they have a jurisdiction over the offence, in order to compel the person accused to appear before them. And this undoubtedly extends to all treasons, felonies, and breaches of the peace; and also to all such offences as they have power to punish by statute.

Sir Edward Coke lays it down, that a justice of the peace cannot issue a warrant to apprehend a felon upon mere suspicion, nor even till an indictment be actually found; but this opinion has been combated by Sir Matthew Hale, who maintains that a justice of peace hath power to issue a warrant to apprehend a person accused of felony, though not yet indicted; and that he may also issue a warrant to apprehend a person suspected of felony, though the original suspicion be not in himself, but in the party that prays his warrant. But in both cases it is proper to examine upon oath the party requiring a warrant, as well to ascertain that there is a felony or other crime actually committed, without which no warrant should be granted; as also to prove the cause and probability of suspecting the party, against whom the warrant is prayed. This warrant ought to be under the hand and seal of the justice; should set forth the time and place of making, and the cause for which it is made; and should be directed to the constable, or other peace officer, or it may be to any private person by name, requiring him to bring the party either generally before any justice of the peace for the county, or only before the justice who granted it: the warrant in the latter case being called a *special* warrant.

A general warrant to apprehend all persons suspected, without naming particularly, or describing any person in special, is illegal and void for its uncertainty; for it is the duty of the magistrate, and ought not to be left to the officer, to judge of the ground of suspicion; and a warrant to apprehend all persons guilty of a crime therein specified, is no legal warrant; because the point, upon which its autho-

rity rests, is a fact to be decided upon in a subsequent trial; namely, whether the person apprehended upon it be really guilty or not. It is, therefore, in fact, no warrant at all; for it will not justify the officer who acts under it; whereas a warrant, properly penned (even though the magistrate who issues it should exceed his jurisdiction) will, by statute 24 Geo. II. cap. 44. at all events indemnify the officer, who executes the same ministerially. A practice, indeed, had obtained in the secretaries' office, ever since the Restoration, grounded on some clauses in the acts for regulating the press, of issuing general warrants to take up (without naming any person in particular) the authors, printers, and publishers, of such obscene or seditious libels as were particularly specified in the warrant. When those acts expired in 1694, the same practice was inadvertently continued in every reign, and under every administration, except the four last years of queen Anne, down to the year 1763; when such a warrant being issued, its validity was disputed; and the warrant was adjudged, by the whole court of king's bench, to be void. After which, the issuing of such general warrants was declared illegal by a vote of the house of commons. Com. Journ. 22 April, 1766.

When a warrant is received by the officer, he is bound to execute it, so far as the jurisdiction of the magistrate and of himself extends. A warrant from the chief or other justice of the court of king's bench, extends all over the kingdom; and is tested or dated England, and not any particular county. But the warrant of a justice of peace in one county must be backed, that is, signed by a justice of the peace in another, before it can be executed there. Formerly, regularly speaking, there ought to have been a fresh warrant in every fresh county; but the practice of backing warrants had long prevailed without law, and was at last authorized by statutes 23 Geo. II. cap. 26. and 24 Geo. II. cap. 55. And now, by statute 13 Geo. III. cap. 31. any warrant for apprehending an English offender, who may have escaped into Scotland, and *vice versa*, may be indorced and executed by the local magistrates, and the offender be conveyed back to that part of the united kingdoms in which such offence was committed. Blackst. Comm. book iv.

WARRANT of Attorney, is that by which a man appoints another to do something in his name, and warrants his action.

It seems to differ from a *letter of attorney*, which passes under hand and seal of him that makes it, before credible witnesses; whereas *warrant of attorney*, in personal, mixed, and some real actions, is put in course by the attorneys for the plaintiffs or defendants. Though a warrant of attorney, to suffer a common recovery by the tenant, or vouchee, is to be acknowledged before such persons as the commission for the doing of it directs.

It is usual, in order to strengthen a bond creditor's security, for the debtor to execute a warrant of attorney to any one, empowering him to confess a judgment by *nihil dicit*, *cognovit actionem*, or *non sum informatus*, in an action of debt to be brought by the creditor for the specific sum due; which judgment, when confessed, is absolutely complete and binding.

In the court of common pleas, there is a *clerk of the warrants*, who enters all warrants of attorney for plaintiff and defendant.

WARRANT, Search. See *SEARCH*.

WARRANT Officers. See *OFFICERS*.

WARRANT, in the *Manege*. A jockey that sells a horse is, by custom, in some countries, obliged to warrant him, that is, to refund the money that was given for him, and re-deliver the horse in nine days after the first delivery, in case

case he sold him when under such infirmities as may escape the view of the buyer, and as are not obviously discovered. These infirmities are puriveness, the glanders, and unfoundness, hot and cold: but he does not warrant him clear of such infirmities as may be discerned. Not only jockeys or horse-merchants, but also persons of what quality or condition soever, are obliged to take back the horse, and repay the money, if he is affected with the said disorders. But the rule of the law of England is, *caveat emptor*, unless the feller expressly warrants. See WARRANTY.

WARRANTS, *Dividend*. See DIVIDEND.

WARRANTS for impressing Chorifiers. See TUSSEY.

WARRANTIA CHARTA, a writ that lies for a person who is infeoffed in lands and tenements, with clause of warranty; and is pleaded in an assize, or writ of entry, in which he cannot vouch, or call to warranty. See VOUCHER.

WARRANTIA DICI, a writ which lies in a case where a man, having a day assigned personally to appear in court to an action in which he is sued, is, in the mean time, by commandment, employed in the king's service; so that he cannot come at the day assigned. It is directed to the justices, ordering them not to find or record him in default.

WARRANTIZANDUM. See SUMMONS ad Warrantizandum.

WARRANTO. See QUO WARRANTO.

WARRANTY, WARRANTIA, in Law, a promise or covenant, by deed, made by the bargainer for himself and his heirs, to warrant and secure the bargainee, and his heirs, against all men, for enjoying the thing agreed on or granted between them.

Such warranty passes from the feller to the buyer; from the feoffee to the feoffee; from him that releaseth to him that is releaseth from an action real. The form of it is thus: "Et ego terræ præfatus A. et hæredes mei, prædictas quinque acras terræ cum pertinentiis suis præfatus B. hæredibus et assignatis suis, contra omnes gentes warrantizabimus in perpetuum, per presentes."

Note, under *hæredes*, heirs, are comprised all such as the first warrantor's lands come to, whether by descent, purchase, or the like.

Warranty is either *real*, or *personal*. *Real*, when it is annexed to lands and tenements granted in fee, or for life, &c. which, again, is either *in deed*, or *in law*.

Personal either respects the property of the thing sold, or the quality of it.

By the civil law, an implied warranty was annexed to every sale, in respect to the title of the vendor: and so too, in our law, a purchaser of goods and chattels may have a satisfaction from the feller, if he sells them as his own, and the title proves deficient, without any express warranty for that purpose. But, with regard to the goodness of the wares so purchased, the vendor is not bound to answer; unless he expressly warrants them to be found and good, or unless he knew them to be otherwise, and hath used any art to disguise them, or unless they turn out to be different from what he represented to the buyer. And if he, who selleth any thing, doth upon the sale warrant it to be good, the law annexes a tacit contract to this warranty, that if it be not so, he shall make compensation to the buyer; also, it is an injury in good faith, for which an action on the case will lie to recover damages. The warranty must be upon the sale; for if it be made after, and not at the time of the sale, it is a void warranty. Also the warranty can only reach to things in being at the time of the warranty made, and not to things in futuro: as, that a horse is found at the time of buying him, not that he will be found two years hence.

Any artifice to disguise goods shall be equivalent to an express warranty, and the vendor is answerable for their goodness.

A general warranty will not extend to guard against defects that are plainly and obviously the object of one's senses, as if a horse be warranted perfect, and wants either a tail or an ear, unless the buyer in this case be blind. Also, if a horse is warranted found, and he wants the sight of an eye, though this seems to be the object of one's senses, yet as the discernment of such defects is frequently matter of skill, it hath been held that an action on the case lieth, to recover damages for this imposition. Blackst. Com. book iii.

Real warranty, again, in respect of the estate, is either *lineal*, *collateral*, or *commencing by disseisin*.

Lineal warranty was where the heir derived, or might by possibility have derived, his title to the land warranted, either from or through the ancestor who made the warranty; as, where a father, or an elder son in the life of the father, releaseth to the disseisor of either themselves or the grand-father, with warranty, this was *lineal* to the younger son.

Collateral warranty was where the heir's title to the land neither was, nor could have been, derived from the warranting ancestor; as, where a younger brother releaseth to his father's disseisor, with warranty, this was collateral to the elder brother.

But where the very conveyance, to which the warranty was annexed, immediately followed a disseisin, or operated itself as such, (as, where a father tenant for years, with remainder to his son in fee, aliened in fee-simple with warranty), this, being in its original manifestly founded on the tort or wrong of the warrantor himself, was called a warranty *commencing by disseisin*; and being too palpably injurious to be supported, was not binding upon any heir of such tortious warrantor. Blackst. Com. book iii.

WARRAWARROW, in Geography, a bay of the island of St. Vincent; 1 mile S. of Kingilton bay.

WARRELL, a river of Hindoostan, one of the arms of the Indus.

WARREN, WARRENA, a franchise, or place privileged, either by prescription, or grant from the king, to keep beasts and fowl of warren in; as rabbits, hares, partridges, pheasants, &c.

A man that has the franchise of warren is in reality no more than a royal game-keeper: but no man, not even a lord of a manor, could by common law justify sporting on another's soil, or even in his own, unless he had the liberty of free-warren. This franchise is almost fallen into disregard, since the new statutes for preserving the game. There are, indeed, many instances of eager sportsmen in ancient times, who have sold their estates, and reserved the free-warren, or right of killing game, to themselves; by which means it comes to pass that a man and his heirs have sometimes free-warren over another's ground.

By a statute, 21 Edw. III., a warren may lie open, and there is no need of closing it in; as there is of a park.

If any person be found an offender in any such free-warren, he is punishable for the same at common law. See BLACK AID, and GAME.

The word warren is now generally applied to a piece of ground set apart for the breeding and preserving of rabbits.

In the setting up of a warren, great caution is to be used for the fixing upon a proper place, and a right situation. It should always be upon a small ascent, and exposed to the east or the south. The soil that is most suitable, is that which is sandy; for when the soil is clayey or tough, the rabbits find much more difficulty in making their burrows, and never do it so well; and if the soil be boggy or mossy, there

there would be very little advantage from the warren, for wet is very destructive of these animals.

All the due precautions must be taken, that the warren be so contrived, that the rabbits may habituate themselves to it with ease. Many would have it that warrens should be enclosed with walls; but this is a very expensive method, and seems not necessary nor advisable; for we find but very few that are so, and those do not succeed at all the better for it.

Mr. Chomel's opinion is, that it ought to be surrounded with a ditch. This indeed is no fence to prevent the rabbits from going out, unless there be water in it; but it marks the intended bounds of the warren, and the rabbits generally confine themselves within its circumference, though not necessarily compelled to do so. The space proper for a warren has no limits but the owner's pleasure; but, in general, the larger it is, the more profitable it also proves; and the rabbits, when once accustomed to the place, will keep within their bounds, though they are hemmed in neither with walls nor ditches, nor any other fence whatever.

Some have prescribed the making of deep ditches, and constantly keeping them supplied with water in the summer as well as winter season, that they may serve as fences to the rabbits; but as it is not found necessary to fence them in at all, it is extremely injudicious to do it, by means of a thing known to be so very prejudicial to these creatures as water is. If the person who has set up a warren has but few rabbits to stock it with, the more patience he must have as to the profit of it; but the best method of getting quickly into the scheme of profit in it, is the buying at first a large number of doe-rabbits all big with young. These being unwieldy and heavy, will naturally stay in the place, and the young ones will be habituated to it, as their native place, and will never run from it. These young ones will soon breed again, and the warren will begin quickly to be stocked with inhabitants, almost all natives of the place. They should not be hunted at all the two first years, and but very moderately the third. After this they will increase so fast, that scarce any body can conceive the numbers that may be taken, and the profit that may be annually made without hurting it.

The warren is the next franchise in degree to the park, and when spoken of in law, the terms used are, the liberty and franchise of a free-warren.

A forest, which is in dignity the highest and greatest franchise, comprehends in it a chase, a park, and a free-warren; for which reason the beasts of the park, and the beasts and fowls of the free-warren, are as much privileged within the forest, as the beasts of the forest itself are.

WARREN is also applied to a contrivance for preserving fish in the midst of a river, to be taken at pleasure.

WARREN, in *Geography*, a post-township of New York, in the S.E. corner of Herkimer county; 10 miles S. of Herkimer, and 70 W. of Albany. The situation is elevated at the head of the lakes that form the Susquehanna, and the surface pleasantly undulated by arable hills and fertile valleys; and it has many cedar swamps that supply fencing-timber. The rocks are calcareous, and much of the soil of the same quality. There are large springs, but the waters of the town are small; it has five grain-mills, nine saw-mills, a carding-machine, a forge, and trip-hammer. It has one meeting-house belonging to united Lutherans, Calvinists, and Presbyterians, and a competent number of school-houses. Iron-ore is found, and a pigment from which is prepared a durable brown paint. The principal settlements in this town have been made within the last twenty-five years. In 1810 Warren contained 664 families, 444 senatorial electors, and a

total population of 3974 persons.—Alto, a county of West Tennessee, containing 5725 inhabitants, of whom 476 are slaves.—Alto, a town of the Mississippi territory, containing 1114 inhabitants, including 473 slaves.—Alto, a town of the state of Rhode Island, in Bristol county, containing 1775 inhabitants; 4 miles N. of Bristol.—Alto, a post-town of the district of Maine, in the county of Lincoln, near the coast, containing 1443 inhabitants; 55 miles N.E. of Portland.—Alto, a town of New Hampshire, in Grafton county, containing 506 inhabitants; 16 miles N. of Hanover.—Alto, a township of New York; 55 miles W. of Albany.—Alto, a town of Connecticut, in the county of Litchfield, containing 1096 inhabitants; 5 miles W. of Litchfield.—Alto, a county of Georgia, with 8725 inhabitants, of whom 3048 are slaves.—Alto, a county of the state of Ohio, containing five townships, viz. Deerfield, Franklin, Turtle-creek, Hamilton, and Wayne, and 9925 inhabitants.—Alto, a county of Pennsylvania, bordering on the west part of New York. It contains two townships, viz. Conewago and Broken-Draw, and 827 inhabitants.—Alto, a county of Kentucky, bordering on the Ohio, containing 11,783 inhabitants, of whom 1447 are slaves; and its town Bolin Green 154 inhabitants, including 51 slaves.—Alto, a town of the state of Vermont, in the county of Addison, containing 229 inhabitants; 30 miles N. of Rutland.—Alto, a post-town of Virginia; 178 miles W.S.W. of Washington.—Alto, a town of the state of Ohio, with a gaol, in the county of Belmont, containing 734 inhabitants.—Alto, a township, in the state of Ohio, and county of Jefferson, containing 2122 inhabitants.—Alto, a township of Ohio, in the county of Trumbull, containing 875 inhabitants.—Alto, a township of Ohio, in Washington county, containing 260 inhabitants.—Alto, a county of North Carolina, with 11,044 inhabitants, of whom 6282 are slaves.—Alto, a town of New Jersey, in the county of Somerset, containing 1354 inhabitants.

WARREN, or *Warentown*, a post-town of North Carolina, and capital of the county of Warren; 16 miles N.E. of Hillsborough.

WARREN, *Fort*, in Governor's island, is situated in Suffolk county, and state of Massachusetts, within the jurisdiction of Bolton, and contains 64 inhabitants.

WARREN'S *Island*, an island in the Pacific ocean, at the entrance of the Duke of Clarence's straits, near the west coast of the Prince of Wales's archipelago, so called by captain Vancouver, in compliment to his John Borlase Warren. N. lat. 55° 56'. E. long. 226° 22'.

WARREN'S *Point*, or *Waring's Point*, a post-town of the county of Down, Ireland, situate upon the bay of Carlingford; 5½ miles from Newry, and 5½ N. from Dublin.

WARRENTON, a post-town of Georgia, in the county of Warren; 68 miles S. of Washington.

WARRI, a town of Hindoostan, in the Carnatic; 10 miles S. of Golconda.

WARRINGTON, a large, populous manufacturing town in the hundred of West Derby, and county palatine of Lancaster, England, is seated on the northern bank of the river Mersey, about midway between Manchester and Liverpool, at the distance of 51 miles S. by E. from the county-town, and 187 miles N.W. by N. from London. Some authors have contended that a Roman station was established here, as a guard to the ford; but no particular discoveries have been made to justify this opinion. Leland describes Warrington as "a paved town of pretty bigness, with a church at the tail end of al the tounne: it is a better market than Manchester." The town of Warrington consists of four principal streets, which are long, narrow, ill built, crowded with carts and passengers, and unpleasant to the inhabitants;

inhabitants; but, a few modern buildings being interspersed, afford a striking mixture of mean and handsome houses. According to the population return of the year 1811, the town contained 2639 houses and 11,728 inhabitants. A charter for a market and two fairs was obtained in the reign of Edward I. by Sir Thomas Boteler, of Bewfey, where a moated mansion still remains. The market-day is Wednesday. The principal trade of the place consists in the manufacture and sale of sail-cloth, or poleaday; but some coarse linens and checks are made in the town and in its vicinity. The former is chiefly composed of hemp and flax mixed, and some sorts are manufactured with flax alone: the raw materials are mostly brought from Russia, and imported into Liverpool, whence to Warrington is a cheap and expeditious water carriage by the Mersey. Among other manufactures of this place, may be specified pin-making, glass-making, and iron-founding. Warrington may, in some measure, be considered as a port-town, the Mersey admitting, by the help of the tide, vessels of seventy or eighty tons burthen to Bank Quay, a little below the town, where warehouses, cranes, and other conveniences for landing goods, are erected. The spring-tides rise to the height of nine feet. Upwards, the river communication extends to Manchester. The parish-church of Warrington is an ancient structure, and contains many old handsome monuments: here is also a chapel of ease, erected in 1760: likewise places of worship for Catholics, Presbyterians, Anabaptists, Methodists, and Quakers. A well-endowed free-school is established here; and a charity-school for educating and maintaining poor children of both sexes. About the middle of the last century, a seminary for educating youth on a liberal academical plan was instituted, and supported by subscriptions, chiefly among the Dissenters: it was denominated the Warrington Academy, and flourished a considerable period under the care of tutors of eminence; but at length sunk, through want of adequate support, and the difficulties in maintaining proper discipline. A stone bridge crosses the Mersey from Warrington, built by the earl of Derby in the reign of Henry VII. As there is no other bridge over the Mersey between this place and Liverpool, nor for many miles east of it towards Manchester, the pass here has been a point of consequence in the civil commotions of this kingdom. The most memorable event of this kind occurred in 1648, when a large body of the fugitive Scotch army, under the duke of Hamilton, was pursued from Ribbles-ton-moor; and though they made an obstinate resistance for some hours at this bridge, yet above 1000 men were killed, and 2000 taken prisoners. Again, in 1651, general Lambert, who commanded on the former occasion, fixed on this spot to oppose the Scotch army under the young king, who was here repulsed. In the year 1745 also, the middle arches of the bridge were broken down, to check the progress of the rebels, and restored again on the termination of the insurrection.—*Beauties of England and Wales*, vol. ix. Lancashire. By J. Britton, F.S.A. 1807. Aikin's Description of the Country round Manchester, 4to. 1795.

WARRINGTON, a township of Pennsylvania, in the county of York, containing 1105 inhabitants.—Also, a township of Pennsylvania, in Bucks county, containing 429 inhabitants; 20 miles N.N.E. of Philadelphia.

WARRIOR, MARK, a township of Pennsylvania, in Huntingdon county, containing 672 inhabitants.

WARRIORE, a town of Hindoostan, in the Carnatic; 32 miles N.N.E. of Tanjore. N. lat. 11° 16'. E. long. 79° 25'.

WARRIORS' BRANCH. See *RED River*.

WARSAW, a city of Saxony, and capital of a duchy, late a city of Poland, and capital of the palatinate of Masovia.

sia, situated on the Vistula, almost in the centre of the kingdom. It is surrounded with a moat and double wall, and consists of Old and New Town, and two suburbs, Kraka and Praga. The general diets of Poland were usually held here, as well as the provincial assembly, and court of judicature. Here are several elegant stone buildings and palaces, a great number of beautiful churches and convents, a hospital, and an arsenal. King Sigismund III. was the first who made this city the royal residence, and his successors resided here ever after. In the year 1569, in order to gratify the Lithuanians, the diet was removed to Warfaw. The Poles laid siege to it in the year 1656, and after a most vigorous defence, obliged the town to surrender. By the articles of capitulation, the Swedes were permitted to leave the place; but the best part of the plunder they had amassed together fell into the hands of the Poles. However, Charles Gustavus approaching with an army to the relief of the town, king John Casimir marched against him, and a battle was fought near the suburb of Praga, which lasted three days. At last the Poles were obliged to retreat, leaving behind them their baggage and artillery, upon which the Swedes placed a small garrison in the town, and destroyed the fortifications. In the year 1702, Charles XII. of Sweden made himself master of Warfaw, which happened to be then without a garrison, and fixed his head-quarters at Praga. In the month of June 1794, the king of Prussia laid siege to Warfaw; but on a rumour of disturbances in his own dominions, his forces were, after a fruitless attempt for three months, withdrawn. The Russians afterwards summoned Warfaw to surrender, and on being refused, after the junction of the different corps under Ferfen, Dornfeld, Denisow, and Suwarrow, they proceeded, on the 4th of November, to attack the suburbs of Praga. In the mean time, the generale Madalinski and Dambrowski threw themselves into Warfaw, and prepared for resistance. The suburb of Praga was defended by more than a hundred pieces of cannon, disposed upon thirty-three batteries. Little intimidated by so formidable a force, the ferocious Suwarrow commanded his soldiers to mount to the assault in the same manner they had done at Ismail, by climbing over the dead and wounded bodies of their comrades, as well as of their enemies. His farther commands were, that they should fight only with the sabre and bayonet. The Russians sprung to the charge with almost inconceivable impetuosity; they eagerly began to climb the works, and the six Russian columns, by singular good fortune, presented themselves at the same moment before the lines of Praga. Thus surrounded, the Polish generals found themselves unable to oppose with 10,000 soldiers, which was the whole of their force, the united attack of 50,000 men: and to add to their distress, the fire which they immediately commenced, from the darkness of the night, was so ill directed, as to pass over the heads of the assailants. The cry raised by the successful columns penetrated to the intrenchments on the other side of the Vistula, and added to the consternation of the Poles engaged with the other part of the Russian force; and they endeavoured to find safety by retiring into Warfaw, over a bridge. In their retreat they were met by another body of Russians, and a dreadful carnage ensued, in which a great part of the garrison of Praga was miserably slaughtered. After a severe conflict of eight hours, the resistance on the part of the Poles ceased; but the massacre lasted for two hours longer, and the pillage lasted till noon on the following day. Five thousand Poles were computed to have been slain in the assault, the remainder were either imprisoned or dispersed. The citizens were compelled to lay down their arms, and their houses were plundered by the merciless Russians; who, after the battle

had ceased nearly ten hours, about nine o'clock at night set fire to the town, and began to massacre the inhabitants; 9000 persons, unarmed men, defenceless women, and harmless infants, perished either in flames or by the sword, and nearly the whole of the suburb was reduced to ashes. In the whole of this siege, it is computed that not less than 30,000 of the Poles were inhumanly put to death. It was soon after given up to Prussia, and with the rest of Malovia continued subject to that power, until by the peace of Tilsit, this part of Poland, which had been seized by Prussia since the year 1772, was given to Saxony, and formed into a principality under the title of the duchy of Warfaw; 150 miles S. of Königsberg. N. lat. 52° 12'. E. long. 21° 9'.

WARSAW, a duchy annexed to Saxony, formed out of that part of Poland which had been seized by Prussia after the year 1772. It was united to the empire of Russia by the Vienna congress in 1815: that part called the grand duchy of Posen is to be possessed in full sovereignty and property of the king of Prussia.

WARSAW, a post-township of New York, in Genessee county; 260 miles from Albany. It is a good tract of land, and comprises three townships. In 1810 there were 201 senatorial electors, and the whole population is stated at 1317 persons.

WARSAW. See WASSAW.

WARSIMOW, a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Brzesc; 32 miles W. of Brzesc.

WARSHOWKA, a town of Poland, in Volhynia; 48 miles N.E. of Zytomirz.

WARSTEN, a town of Germany, in the duchy of Westphalia; 3 miles S.W. of Rhuden.

WART, in Latin *verruca*, denotes, in Surgery, a kind of excrescence from the cutis, or true skin, covered with a production of cuticle, which is strong and hard, or more delicate, according to the natural quality of the cuticle which is spread over the surrounding integuments. In the arrangement of Drs. Willan and Bateman, warts constitute a genus of the order *tubercula*. Some warts are connected with the skin by pedicles; while others have a broad base. They are most frequently moveable; but sometimes they are firmly fixed to the subjacent parts. Their general size does not exceed that of a pea. Much larger ones, however, often form about the anus, perineum, and pudenda. Sometimes the excrescence is single; sometimes it presents itself in large numbers, occupying different situations in the body, though most frequently occurring on the hands and face. The complaint, as every body knows, is much more common in children and young persons, than in people more advanced in life. As Mr. Hunter observes, warts are radiated from their basis to their circumference. The surface of the radii appears to be pointed, or granulated, like the surface of healthy granulations, with the exception of being harder, and rising higher. The surface on which a wart is formed, appears to be capable of producing only one such tumour; for the surrounding and connecting surface does not throw out a similar substance. Thus, when a wart has once begun to grow, it rises higher and higher, without becoming larger at its basis. Such excrescences seem to have within themselves the power of growing larger; for, after they have risen above the surface of the skin, on which their basis cannot grow larger, they swell out into a round thick substance, which becomes rougher and rougher. In consequence of having this structure, warts are very liable to be hurt by bodies rubbing against them, by which means they are sometimes made to bleed very profusely, and to become sore and painful.

Almost all writers on surgery consider warts as depending upon causes which are sometimes quite local, and, in other instances, general, or constitutional. The opinion, that many of these excrescences arise from constitutional causes, is supported chiefly by the following facts: first, Many warts, growing about the pudenda, anus, &c. reputed to be venereal, and certainly very often yielding to mercury, seem to favour the doctrine, that such excrescences are a consequence of syphilis, and true venereal complaints. Secondly, The circumstance of warts growing in large numbers, and often recurring in a very short time after their removal, has strengthened this mode of thinking. Thirdly, The unquestionable greater propensity to warts observable in young subjects than in elderly persons, is another fact which affords a strong argument in support of the opinion. Indeed, we believe that, in particular habits, a disposition to the formation of warts must be admitted as a positive truth, and of course we cannot reject the doctrine, that these excrescences frequently arise from certain states of the constitution. With respect to venereal warts, we have always doubted the reality of their existence; because, although we know that many such tumours may be cured by a course of mercury, we have never met with any which could not be dispersed or destroyed by escharotics, the ligature, or the knife.

Warts are generally quite free from all risk of any serious consequences; but, on account of their size and situation, they frequently give trouble, and occasion deformity; and sometimes, when they are irritated, they are attended with considerable inflammation, and even obstinate ulcerations.

In the treatment of warts one thing is to be recollected; viz. that they are adventitious substances not constituting any original part of the body, and therefore possessing only an inferior degree of vitality. Hence, when stimulated, they generally diminish or separate in sloughs. Another circumstance seems also particularly deserving of the surgeon's recollection; namely, that warts will always grow again, if any part of them be left behind unextirpated.

When warts are dependent upon constitutional causes, writers on surgery agree in recommending the internal exhibition of alterative medicines. In particular, they enjoin a change of diet, with the use of resolvent or mercurial remedies; or such other means as seem best calculated to obviate the cause of the complaint. When the state of the constitution has been rectified, the warts frequently disappear of themselves. The tendency to warts observable in young persons, spontaneously ceases as they grow older; and, in them, after the adult age, how common it is to find warts disappearing of themselves, though they had previously resisted every ordinary means of cure!

When warts are altogether dependent upon a local cause, they can be most effectually treated by external applications. Should the wart have a narrow neck, or pedicle, it may be made to fall off by constricting the part near its root with a fine silk ligature, or a piece of horse-hair, which is to be rendered gradually tighter. However, although this plan answers very well, and sometimes does not give so much alarm as the use of a cutting instrument, the same sort of warts may also be still more expeditiously removed with a knife, or a pair of scissors. When a wart is large and has a very broad base, if an attempt is to be made to destroy it with a ligature, the surgeon must pass a double ligature through the centre of its root, or pedicle, and then tie each half of the silk separately over the two portions of the excrescence. Were an endeavour made to extirpate a wart with a large base by a single ligature, the process would be tedious, painful, and often ineffectual.

Warts with a broad attachment, however, are unfavourable

able for the ligature; and it is generally best in such cases, either to have recourse to stimulating applications, escharotics, or cutting instruments.

Rubbing warts with soapy liniments, or lotions containing the muriate of ammonia, vinegar, the muriate of soda, the liquor ammoniac, &c. frequently brings about their gradual removal by absorption. The stimulating properties of the juice of a variety of herbs also have the same effect, as well as the school-boy's practice of smearing them continually with ink.

A more certain method, however, is to attack warts with escharotic and caustic applications, such as the tincture of cantharides, the plaster of cantharides, the pulv. cantharidum et æruginis aris, the nitrate of silver, muriate of antimony, sulphate of copper, concentrated mineral acids, &c. In the use of the stronger caustics, it is necessary to protect the surrounding skin from their action by covering it with adhesive plaster. The surgeon must also be cautious in their use, lest he excite very painful and troublesome sores.

When warts are very large, we conceive it best to cut them away, and apply the lunar caustic to the surface from which they grew. In doing this operation, let the surgeon always remember, that removing only a part of the wart is worse than doing nothing; since the portion left behind will afterwards grow with increased rapidity. Hence, when warts have been removed either with ligatures, or cutting instruments, it is generally prudent to touch the situation of their roots with some active caustic.

WARTS, in *Animals*, the horny excrescences which are formed in the skin of different parts of them, and which are caused by any thing that hardens it in a local manner. In horses, they are said to be of the same nature as those excrescences that take place on their legs and pasterns, and to be more or less hurtful, as they may be situated nearer to, or at a greater distance from, the larger finews of the parts. See *Rat-Tails*, *SCRATCHES*, &c.

In regard to the removal of them, they are capable of being destroyed by touching them occasionally with any powerful caustic substance, by the use of ligatures, and by being cut off, in some cases, when superficially situated. In the first of these intentions, three ounces of the powder of coppers are directed to be put into a crucible, and placed on a charcoal fire, keeping the powder stirred from time to time, but being careful to avoid the steam; continuing a pretty strong heat until the powder grows somewhat reddish; when it is to be taken off the fire, and after it is cooled broken, the parts being beaten and reduced into a very fine powder; some of which is then to be incorporated with some soft unctuous material, and an ointment formed; which is to be applied cold to the warts, anointing them lightly with it every day, when they will soon, it is said, fall off in the manner of the kernels of nuts, without causing any sort of swelling or uneasiness. Care is, however, to be taken not to touch any thing but the warts. And if the animal be a horse, he should not be wrought or rode during the application of the ointment or caustic.

The other modes of cure are equally easy and effectual in many cases of warts in animals.

WART, in the *Manege*, is an excrescence, or superfluity of spongy flesh, that rises in the hinder pasterns of coach-horses, almost as big as a walnut. It suppurates, and voids red stinking matter, and does not heal but for a time, for it returns again. See the preceding article.

WART-Wort, in *Botany*, a name sometimes given to two very different plants. See *NIPPLE-Wort* and *SPURGE*.

WART-Wort, in *Gardening*, the common name of a thick-

leaved plant, which is studded with hard warty knobs or knots. See *EUPHORBIA*.

WARTA, in *Geography*, a town of the duchy of Warsaw, on a river of the same name, which runs into the Oder; 10 miles N.N.E. of Siradia.—Also, a town of Silesia, in the principality of Neisse; 5 miles E. of Neisse.—Also, a river which rises near Cracow, and runs into the Oder at Cuftrin.

WARTAU, a town of Switzerland, in the county of Sargans; 20 miles N. of Sargans.

WARTBERG, a town of Austria; 7 miles N.E. of Steyregg.

WARTBURG, a town of Switzerland, in the canton of Soleure; 16 miles N.E. of Soleure.

WARTBURG, or *Wartenburg*, a castle of Saxony, in which Martin Luther was imprisoned eleven months, near Eislebach.

WARTENBERG, a town of Bavaria, on the Strong; 4 miles S.E. of Mofpurg.—Also, a town of Silesia, and capital of a lordship of the same name, containing scarcely above 100 houses. It was formerly much larger; but in the year 1444, 580 houses were destroyed by fire. The circle was afterwards contracted, and the town surrounded with a rampart, wall, and moat. The Roman Catholics, the Lutherans, and the Calvinists, have each a place of worship; 14 miles N.E. of Oels. N. lat. 51° 18'. E. long. 17° 45'.—Also, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Boleslaw; 4 miles N.E. of Nimes.—Also, a lordship of Silesia, surrounded by the principality of Oels, to which it once belonged, but was erected into a particular lordship in the year 1490; it has frequently changed proprietors, and lately belonged to the duke of Courland.

WARTENBURG, a town of Austria; 1 mile N.W. of Voglabruck.—Also, a town of Prussia, in the province of Ermeland; 63 miles S. of Königsberg. N. lat. 53° 43'. E. long. 20° 40'.—Also, a town of Vermont, in the county of Chittenden, containing 866 inhabitants.—Also, a castle of France, in the department of Mont Tonnerre, late in the circle of the Upper Rhine, which gave name to a county, the lands of which were not united together, but lay in detached parts. It was made an imperial county in the year 1707. The castle is situated 6 miles N.E. of Lautern.

WARTH, in our *Old Writers*, seems to be the same with ward-penny, being a customary payment for some castle-guard.

WARTHA, in *Geography*, a town of Silesia, in the principality of Munsterberg, on the Neisse; 6 miles N.E. of Glatz. N. lat. 50° 20'. E. long. 16° 35'.

WARTHEBERG, a town of Austria; 13 miles S.W. of Steyr.

WARTHENBERG, a town of Silesia, in the principality of Glogau; 18 miles N.W. of Gros Glogau. N. lat. 51° 52'. E. long. 15° 45'.

WARTHENBURG, a town of Saxony; 6 miles S.E. of Wittenberg.

WARTON, JOSEPH, D.D., in *Biography*, son of the poetry-professor of the same name at Oxford, and vicar of Basingstoke, was born in 1722, and entered at the age of fourteen years on the foundation at Winchester-school, and in 1740 at Oriel college, Oxford. After having taken the degree of B.D. he became curate to his father, and in 1744 exercised the same office at Chelsea. In this year he published a small volume of "Odes," and in 1748 he was presented by the duke of Bolton to the rectory of Winslade, and soon after married. In 1751 he accompanied his patron on a tour to the south of France, and in 1753 completed his

edition of Virgil in Latin and English; the *Æneid* being in Pitt's translation, and the *Eclogues* and *Georgics* in his own; adding notes and three essays on pastoral, didactic, and epic poetry. His translations are characterized as superior in accuracy to Dryden's, and in poetry to Trapp's, but not distinguished by spirit or brilliancy. To the "Adventurer" he became a contributor, by the recommendation of Dr. Johnson, of twenty-four papers, which were of an humorous cast, and mostly essays on critical topics. In 1754 he was presented to the rectory of Tamworth, and in the following year became second master of Winchester-school. In 1756 he published, without his name, an "Essay on the Writings and Genius of Pope," in which he intermixes praise with reflections that tend to degrade this poet to the class of those who have been votaries of reason rather than of imagination. Failing to convince the public that his estimate of his talents was just, he deferred the publication of his second volume for twenty-six years. In 1766 he was advanced to the station of head-master of Winchester-school, which he long occupied with distinguished reputation, and in which he formed many scholars, who afterwards rose to literary eminence, and retained a grateful sense of his tuition. On this promotion he visited Oxford, and was honoured with the degrees of bachelor and doctor of divinity. His subsequent preferments were numerous but small, and he obtained them late in life: in 1782, the friendship of bishop Lentholt procured for him a prebend of St. Paul's, and the living of Thorley in Hertfordshire; and in 1788 he was advanced to a prebend of Winchester and the rectory of Easton. In 1793 he resigned his mastership of Winchester-school, and retired to the rectory of Wickham, which he enjoyed in exchange for another. As he was fond of literary employment, he was engaged by the booksellers to superintend an edition of Pope's Works, which appeared in 9 vols. 8vo. in 1797, with notes critical and biographical, partly selected from his former essay, and a life of the poet. When this work was finished, he undertook an edition of Dryden, and had prepared two volumes at the time of his death, which happened in February 1800, in his 78th year. He was twice married, and left one son and three daughters. In his private character, says his biographer, he was amiable, and in social life no less estimable than in his literary connections. The Wickhamites, gentlemen who had been educated at Winchester-school, testified their respect for his memory by erecting a monument over his tomb in Winchester cathedral. His "Ode to Fancy," first printed in Dodsley's Collection, is thought to have been most admired, and to afford the fairest specimen of his talents. Gen. Biog.

WARTON, THOMAS, brother of the preceding, was born at Basingstoke in 1728, and manifested, by his translation of an epigram of Martial in his ninth year, an early taste for verification. In 1743 he was admitted a commoner of Trinity college, Oxford, where he distinguished himself, in his twenty-first year, by his "Triumph of Isis," in vindication of the university against the reflections of Macon's elegy of "Isis." This poem, however, he afterwards excluded from his volume of collected pieces. His "Progress of Discontent," said to have been written as a college-exercise in 1746, gained him reputation. Having taken his degree of M.A. in 1750, he became in the following year a fellow of his college; and seems to have formed his purpose of university-residence, and of devoting himself to poetry and elegant literature. Besides his "Newmarket," a spirited satire against the ruinous passion for the turf; his ode for Music; Verses on the death of the prince of Wales; and his editorship, in 1753, of a collection of poems, entitled the "Union," and containing several of his own pieces, severally contributed to his re-

putation; but his observations on Spenser's *Fairy Queen*, published in 1754, first in one volume and afterwards in two volumes, were of more essential service in making him known as a critic, and as conversant with poetical antiquities; and prepared the way for his election, in 1757, to the office of professor of poetry to the university, which he occupied for ten years, with an erudition and taste that rendered his lectures instructive and amusing. Our limits will not allow us to enumerate his various publications, but we shall proceed to other details of greater importance. Having taken the degree of B.D. in 1761, he was instituted to the small living of Kiddington, in Oxfordshire, in 1771. His edition of Theocritus, in 2 vols. 4to., was published in 1770, and very much contributed to his literary celebrity both at home and on the continent. It was probably about this time that he formed a design of writing a "History of Poetry," which had been contemplated by Pope, Gray, and Macon. However, the first volume in quarto was published in 1774, the second appeared in 1778, and a third was presented to the public in 1781. His plan was much more extensive, and intended to terminate only with the commencement of the eighteenth century; but he became tired of the task, and wished for relaxation, so that he prepared only a few sheets of a fourth volume. This *Opus Magnum*, as it may be well denominated, exhibits an extent of research and reading, and a correctness of taste and critical judgment, which do him great honour; and we may justly regret that he did not finish it, and that no one, equal to the undertaking, has had resolution to prosecute and complete it. In such a comprehensive and multifarious work, some inaccuracies are unavoidable; but the most fastidious critic must acknowledge, that it abounds with curious and interesting information. In 1781 he projected a county history of Oxfordshire, and in 1782 he published a specimen of his undertaking in a topographical account of his parish of Kiddington; but he was probably discouraged by the magnitude and labour of such a work. In this year he took part in the controversy concerning Rowley's poems, which he decidedly pronounced to be the fabrication of their pretended editor. His views with regard to promotion were restricted; however, his income was at this time increased by a donative in Somersetshire, and in 1785 by the office of Camden-professor of history at Oxford; and soon after by the king's offer of the post of poet-laureat, which he accepted with a design of rendering it respectable. As the indolence of age and of a collegiate life was advancing upon him, he no longer indulged extensive views and projected great undertakings, but he contented himself with accomplishing a task which to him must have been very easy; and that was an edition of Milton's juvenile poems, with notes for illustrating their beauties and explaining their obsolete and peculiar phraseology. The first edition appeared in 1785, and the second in 1791, a little while before his death. In his 62d year he was attacked with a paroxysm of the gout, and this was succeeded in May 1790 by a paralytic seizure, which terminated his life at his lodgings in Oxford. His remains were interred, with every academical honour, at the chapel of Trinity college. Although his character was marked by some peculiarities, he is said to have been substantially good-humoured, friendly, and placid. Several editions of his poems appeared in his life-time; and since his death an edition of his works has been given by Mr. Mant, in 2 vols. 8vo. 1802, to which is prefixed a biographical account of the author. Nichols's Liter. Anecd. Gen. Biog.

Musical historians have considerable obligations to this poetical antiquary: as in his long, extensive, and diligent researches, he has furnished them with anecdotes and narratives

tives concerning the harpers and minstrels of our country, and the high estimation in which the former stood with our princes and the latter with the nobility, till they became so numerous and licentious, that they lost the favour of the great, and reverence of the vulgar. Till about the end of queen Elizabeth's reign, there was no great personage who had not a band of musicians attached to his household, and a choir to his chapel, in England; in Ireland and Wales a domestic harper, and in Scotland a bagpiper domiciliated. The late lord Marshal, who had a very good taste in Italian vocal and German instrumental music, had a Scots bagpiper in his service at Potsdam and elsewhere, till the time of his decease. The laureat and Oxford poetry-professor was fond of music, and loved to be talking and writing on the subject; and in his history of poetry has kept back nothing which he accidentally found in the course of his other inquiries. As Milton's minors perhaps delight the generality of his readers more than his sublime epics, so the ballads and smaller pieces of T. Warton were in more general favour than those of length, upon graver subjects, which had cost him more meditation and midnight oil.

WARTON, or WHARTON, in *Geography*, a township of Pennsylvania, in the county of Fayette, containing 922 inhabitants.

WARWICK, the county-town of Warwickshire, England, is situated in the Warwick division of the hundred of Kington, on a rocky eminence on the banks of the Avon, near the centre of the county, at the distance of 10 miles S.S.W. from Coventry, and 90 miles N.W. from London. It is a neat pleasant town, enriched with a castle of stupendous grandeur, and several public buildings possessing great attractions. Dugdale, and more early writers, conjectured this to be a Roman station, but no vestiges have been found, or other circumstances shewn, to strengthen the supposition, and its origin has been assigned to the Saxon era. Dugdale shews, from several authorities, that this town was highly favoured by the patronage of Ethelfleda, daughter of king Alfred, who in the year 915 constructed a fortified building (termed the Dungeon) on the artificial mount, which still remains on the west side of the castle; and that the town, under such protection, advanced rapidly in population and repute. In Domesday-book it is called a borough, and is there stated to contain 261 houses. The same record states, that in the time of Edward the Confessor, a castle was erected here, which belonged to the crown; that it was "a special strong hold for the midland part of the kingdom," and that Turkill was appointed governor. When William the Conqueror obtained the crown, he ordered Turkill, who was vicecomes of Warwick, to fortify and enlarge the castle, which at that time consisted of little more than the keep or dungeon. The king afterwards gave the castle to his adherent, Henry de Newburgh, whom he created earl of Warwick; and under the patronage of this nobleman, and a long line of descendants, the town advanced in importance and prosperity, and obtained many privileges and immunities. The paving of the town, and the building of the walls, commenced in the latter part of Edward I.'s reign, and the expence was defrayed by several tolls granted in this and the two following reigns; but these proving very prejudicial to the markets and trade, were abolished in the thirty-second year of Edward III. The appearance of the town in the reign of Henry VIII. is thus described by Leland: "The town of Warwick hath been right strongly defended and walled, having a compass of a good mile within the wall. The dike is most manifestly perceived from the castle to the west gate, and there is a great creel of earth that the wall stood on. Within the precincts of the town is but one paroch church, dedicated to St. Mary, standing in the middle

of the town, fair and large. The town stands on a main rocky hill, rising from east to west. The beauty and glory of it is in two streets, whereof the High-street goes from east to west, having a right goodly cross in the middle of it; and the other crosstith the middle of it, maketh a quadrivium, and goeth from north to south." A charter of incorporation was granted to the burgesses in the first year of Philip and Mary; and in the year 1572 the town received a visit from queen Elizabeth, an account of which is preserved in a curious manuscript, called the Black Book, which is in the possession of the corporation. The active part taken by lord Brooke in the civil wars of the seventeenth century, produced here, as might be expected, great confusion and dismay. The castle was placed in a regular state of garrison; at one period it sustained a siege, and several skirmishes took place in the neighbourhood. In the year 1694, the greater part of the town, including the High-street, and nearly the whole of St. Mary's church, was consumed by fire; and 120,000*l.* were collected by briefs, a royal grant, and private subscriptions. The town was rebuilt by act of parliament in a more commodious form, partly of free-stone, from the rock on which it stands. It now consists principally of two streets: the High-street, which is spacious and handsome, is formed in a direct line from east to west, with an ancient gateway at each extremity; that at the west end is surmounted by a chapel. The two churches which now ornament the town are those of St. Mary and St. Nicholas. A church, having a similar dedication to the former, occupied the same spot before the Conquest. Henry de Newburgh, the first earl of Warwick of the Norman line, formed the design of making it collegiate, which was carried into execution by his son, earl Roger, in the year 1123. The latter bestowed on the associated canons tithes and other property of considerable value, and his successors, the earls of Warwick, and other benefactors, continued to protect and foster them during several ages. Through the munificence of the earls of Warwick, St. Mary's church was rebuilt in the fourteenth century. The choir was commenced by the first Thomas de Beauchamp, the earl so much distinguished in the French and Scottish wars of Edward III., and the whole structure was completed by his son, of the same name, in the year 1394. At the dissolution, this church was granted by letters patent to the inhabitants of Warwick and their successors. The great fire of 1694, as before observed, consumed the greater portion of this church. In the middle of the choir is an altar-tomb to Thomas Beauchamp, earl of Warwick, who died Nov. 13, 1370, and his wife, Catherine, daughter of Roger Mortimer, first earl of March. This monument is pronounced by Mr. Gough to be one of the most beautiful of its kind in the kingdom. On the fourth side of this church is St. Mary's chapel, usually termed the Beauchamp chapel, which was erected according to the directions of the will of Richard Beauchamp, earl of Warwick: it was begun in 1443, and was finished in the year 1464. The total expence of the structure, including the tomb of the founder, was 248*l.* 4*s.* 7*d.*, equal at present to more than twenty times that sum; wheat being then only 3*s.* 4*d.* per quarter. The architecture and decorations of this chapel are at once very beautiful and interesting. It consists of one oblong apartment, having one large window at the east end, three others on the south and north sides, a door of entrance from the west, a richly ornamented altar-screen at the east end, some carved seats, and three oratories, or inclosed fests, on the north side. Nearly in the centre of the chapel is a large and elegant altar-tomb, for the founder, whose effigy in brass, very finely executed, is laid on the top. Of this curious tomb and chapel some interesting documents are preserved and published in the "Architectural Antiquities of Great

WARWICK.

Great Britain," which contains a plan, sections, and views of the building.

St. Nicholas church is a recent structure, though a religious edifice stood on the same spot at an early period. The old tower was taken down in 1748, and the present, crowned with a spire, erected on its site. In 1779 the body of the church was taken down, being in a state of decay, and the present edifice raised in its stead. Besides these places of worship on the establishment, here are meeting-houses for the various classes of Dissenters; Presbyterians, Independents, Baptists, Methodists, and Quakers. The public buildings are numerous: the court-house, or town-hall, is a respectable stone building on the south side of the High-street, erected about 1730, at the expense of the corporation. The county-hall is a spacious and magnificent edifice, erected about 1776, by Mr. Hiorne, a native of Warwick. A plain but large stone building, adjoining the hall, has lately been erected by Mr. Hakevill, for the accommodation of the judges at the assizes. The county gaol adjoins the great hall, and is a large, substantial, and well-designed modern fabric, surrounded by a strong wall, twenty-three feet high, which incloses nearly an acre of ground. The county bridewell is also a spacious modern structure, of a very judicious character. The market-house is a substantial stone building: the lower and open part is appropriated to the use of those who attend the markets. Leicester Hospital is an ancient edifice, situated at the western extremity of the High-street, and was originally the hall belonging to two guilds which were founded in the time of Richard II., but were afterwards united. After the dissolution of this fraternity by Henry VIII., the building became the property of Robert Dudley, earl of Leicester, who, in the twenty-eighth of Elizabeth, converted it into an hospital for twelve poor men, and one master, a professor of divinity. The land with which it was endowed was at that time valued at 200*l. per annum*; but in 1811 the clear annual value amounted to nearly 2000*l.*, owing to the augmentation of the rents of land; and each of the pensioners received about 130*l.* from the surplus. In 1813 important changes were introduced by act of parliament, by which the number of pensioners was to be increased to twenty-two, with an allowance of 80*l. per annum* to each, and the salary of the master was to be progressively advanced to 400*l. per annum*. The appointment of the master and brethren is in the heir-general of the founder, who is, at this time, John Shelly Sidney, esq. of Penshurst-place, in the county of Kent. The buildings of the hospital consist of lodgings and a public kitchen for the brethren, ranged in a quadrangular form, a chapel, and a spacious hall, in which the guild is supposed to have held their meetings, but which is now converted into apartments for the ten additional brethren. Various charity-schools and alms-houses have been erected and endowed; and a new institution is now established for providing a refuge for juvenile delinquents, who are brought to the bar of justice at the several gaol-deliveries for the county; and for bringing them up (after the term of their imprisonment) in habits of industry and virtue. The estates and monies appropriated to charitable and public uses for the benefit of the town are also very considerable. In 1811 a subscription was commenced for paving the streets, and was supported with great spirit and liberality. All the principal streets have by this means been handsomely flagged; and the work has been completed (at the expense of about 6500*l.*) to the perfect satisfaction of the subscribers and the public in general. Warwick has a weekly market on Saturdays, which was formerly inconsiderable, but it is now large, well supplied, and numerously attended. Here are also twelve annual fairs; and horse-races take place twice in the year.

Manufactures are established here to some extent, particularly those for worsted and cotton; and one of lace has been recently established from Nottingham. The civil government of the town is vested (under a charter granted by William and Mary, in 1694) in a mayor, a recorder, 12 aldermen, and 12 principal burgesses, with a town-clerk. It appears, from the rolls of parliament, that Warwick was represented as early as any of the boroughs. It returns two members, chosen by the inhabitants paying scot and lot, the mayor being the returning officer. But for many years past, one of the members has, by tacit agreement, been returned by what is called the independent interest, and the other by the Warwick family. According to the enumeration under the act of 1811, the population of Warwick was 6497; the number of houses 1283.

On the south-east of the town is *Warwick castle*, built on a rock, to which it seems united rather by the hand of nature than by human art. It is not known, with precision, at what period a castle was first built on this spot, but the foundation is supposed to have taken place by Ethelfleda, daughter of king Alfred, in the year 915: nothing, however, is thought to remain of this erection, except the mound of earth on which the keep, or dungeon, is supposed to have stood. From the period when William the Conqueror gave this fortress to his adherent Henry de Newburgh, whom he created earl of Warwick, it became of consequence in English history, and so continued during the union of its fortunes with those of the succeeding earls, through the lines of Beauchamp, Neville, Plantagenet, and Dudley. The latter family being extinct, James I. granted the castle with all its dependencies to sir Fulk Greville, afterwards lord Brooke. At his time it was in a ruinous condition, and the strongest part was used as the county gaol. This proprietor restored it, and, it is said, expended in repairs and embellishments the sum of 20,000*l.*; and in his family it has continued, without interruption, to the present time. During the civil wars of Charles I. it was converted (as before noticed) into a garrison for the parliament. In consequence it was besieged in 1642 by lord Northampton, who also surprised the artillery dispatched from London for its defence. Notwithstanding this misfortune, sir Edward Peto had the gallantry to defend it with a single piece of ordnance, until it was relieved by lord Brooke. In the time of Charles II. Robert lord Brooke greatly embellished the state apartments. Francis, his successor, was created earl Brooke of Warwick castle in 1746, and earl of Warwick in 1759. The whole castle consists of a connecting series of walls, towers, and other buildings, surrounding a large irregular court. At the south-east angle is *Cæsar's Tower*, the most ancient part of the whole. Of its exact date no trace however remains, but it is still in the most perfect state of strength and repair. Guy's Tower, at the north-east angle, is named after the legendary champion, and was erected in the reign of Richard II.: it is 128 feet in height. In the centre of the east front is the great arched gateway, leading into the inner court, flanked with towers, and succeeded by a second arched gateway, with other towers and battlements above it. Before this whole front is a moat, over which an arch is thrown, where the drawbridge formerly was. Passing the entrance tower, the display is truly magnificent. The area is clothed with verdure; but the mighty remains of ancient fortifications are spread around. The habitable part of this immense structure lies to the left of the great court; and in the progressive ameliorations of feature effected in latter ages, every desirable attention has been paid to consistency of character. The interior surpasses the expectation raised by the external view; for with the ponderous towers, and ramparts of stone, we associate only ideas

ideas of chivalric hardihood, and unpolished baronial pride. The grand suite of apartments extends in a right line 333 feet, and are furnished in a chaste but magnificent manner. They contain many fine and interesting pictures, and in a gallery is some curious armour, painted glass, and other ancient relics. The park attached to the castle is very extensive, and finely ornamented with wood and water. The gardens and pleasure-grounds are arranged with great taste; and a broad gravel-walk conducts to a green-house, a spacious building, erected purposely for the reception of a large antique vase, which is considered as one of the noblest specimens of ancient art now in England. It is of white marble, and is of a circular form, sufficiently capacious to hold 163 gallons: it is placed on a square pedestal, and is made to move round by means of a mortise and tenon. This exquisite antique was found (as a Latin inscription states) at the bottom of a lake, not far from Adrian's villa, near Tivoli, about twelve or fourteen miles from Rome: it was first purchased by the late Sir William Hamilton, of whom it was bought by the late earl of Warwick, and conveyed to England at his expence. In Britton's "Architectural Antiquities," are two views of the castle, with a particular history and description of the edifice.

In the vicinity of Warwick, on the north, stood the Priory of St. Sepulchre, founded by Henry de Newburgh, earl of Warwick, in the reign of Henry I. It was designed for a society of regular canons, instituted in imitation of one of the same order, established at the holy sepulchre in Jerusalem. In the 38th of Henry VIII., the building and adjacent lands were granted to Thomas Hawkins, the son of a person who sold fish at the market-cross in Warwick. The ancient edifice was then pulled down, and the present eligible residence was erected.

About a mile and half from Warwick, on the north-east, is Guy's Cliff, an ancient hermitage, and traditionally said to be the retirement of the celebrated champion Guy of Warwick. It is now the seat of Bertie Greathead, esq. distinguished by his mental and moral qualities, to whom a tribute of respect is due by all who have the honour of his acquaintance. The capacious stables, cellars, and out-houses, are formed by excavations in the solid rock.

About half a mile from Guy's Cliff is Blacklow Hill, rendered memorable by the summary execution of Piers Gaveston, earl of Cornwall, the favourite of Edward II. in 1312, on this spot.

Myton, a short distance from Warwick, was formerly a considerable village, but in the time of Dugdale, "there was no more left than a grove of elms, in the place where the village stood." It has now one house, a modern structure, called Myton House.

At a small distance also from Warwick, on the Stratford road, is Longbridge House, the seat of William Staunton, esq.—Dugdale's History and Antiquities of Warwickshire. Beauties of England and Wales, vol. xv. Warwickshire. By J. N. Brewer, 1814.

WARWICK, a town of the state of Rhode island, in the county of Kent, containing 3757 inhabitants; 7 miles S. of Providence.—Also, a county of Virginia, containing 1835 inhabitants.—Also, a town of Virginia; 6 miles S. of Richmond.—Also, a town of Virginia, and capital of a county, established in 1628; 65 miles E.S.E. of Richmond. N. lat. 37° 8'. W. long. 76° 30'.—Also, a town of Massachusetts, in the county of Hampshire, containing 1227 inhabitants; 80 miles W. of Bolton.—Also, a post-township of New York, in Orange county; 120 miles S. of Albany, and 10 miles E. of Goshen: its form is triangular; its area may be 110 square miles: the S. part is broken by ranges of hills, in which are

several large ponds that run S. to the Pullaic of New Jersey: the N. part, which is less broken, is watered by the Walkill and other streams that run N. to the Hudson, in Orange and Ulster counties. Few towns have a greater quantity of fruit, and the apple-orchards are very fine. Here are five places of worship and sixteen school-houses; nine grain-mills, ten saw-mills, six carding-machines, and sixteen distilleries of fruit-spirits. Here are a furnace, several forges, an anchor-shop, being the oldest in America, that of Rhode island excepted, and a steel-furnace. The village of Warwick, in which is the post-office, 11 miles E. of Goshen, has two houses of worship, and about thirty dwellings. Florida village is situated $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles N. of Warwick: it has a church, an academy, and about thirty dwellings; and Amity in the W. has also a church. The whole population in 1810 was 3978, when there were 323 electors.—Also, a township of Pennsylvania, in the county of Bucks, containing 1287 inhabitants.—Also, a township of Pennsylvania, in Lancaster county, containing 3439 inhabitants.—Also, a post-town of Maryland, on the east shore of Chesapeake bay; 14 miles S. of Elkton.

WARWICK^s, *Earl of, Powder.* See *Scammony POWDER.* WARWICKSHIRE, an inland county of England, is situated near the centre of the kingdom. In form it approaches to an oval; and is bounded on the S.E. by the counties of Oxford and Northampton; on the N.E. by the great Roman road termed Watling-street, which separates it from Leicestershire; on the N.W. it is limited by Staffordshire; the county of Worcester lies on the W.; and part of Gloucestershire on the S.W. The greatest length, from N. to S., is 51 miles; and the greatest breadth, from E. to W., is 36 miles; the circumference being about 150 miles. It forms an area of 984 square miles, or 639,760 acres; of which about 154,530 acres are in a constant course of tillage; 190,000 acres are arable, and 300,000 in pasture.

Civil and Ecclesiastical Divisions: Population.—When Domesday-book was compiled, this county contained ten hundreds; a circumstance which seems to prove the consequence and great population of the district at that period. These hundreds did not exist long under the names mentioned in that roll; but though they fluctuated in title, the number for some time remained nearly the same. There are now only four hundreds; Barlichway, Hemlingford, Kington, and Knightlow, which are subdivided for convenience into eighteen parts. The city and county of Coventry, though forming a district politically distinct from Warwickshire, is usually considered as a fifth hundred. Warwickshire, thus constituted, contains a half city, Coventry; one borough, Warwick; and eleven other market-towns, viz. Alcester, Atherlow, Birmingham, Colehill, Henley, Kington, Nuneaton, Rugby, Southam, Stratford-on-Avon, and Sutton-Colfield; together with part of the town of Tamworth. The whole county comprehends 193 parishes. According to the population return of the year 1811, the number of houses was 46,157, of inhabitants 228,735; viz. 109,539 males, and 119,196 females: 15,131 families were stated to be employed in agriculture, and 29,775 in trade and manufactures. Six members are returned to the imperial parliament; two for the shire, two for Coventry, and two for the town of Warwick. This county is comprised in the province of Canterbury, and in the dioceses of Lichfield and Coventry, and of Worcester; it is included in the Midland circuit.

Antient State: Historical Events.—Warwickshire was one of the five counties which, at the time of the Roman invasion, were possessed by the *Cornacii* or *Carnabii*. Mr.

WARWICKSHIRE.

Whitaker, in his "History of Manchester," observes, that these and the Britons of Cornwall in the south-western regions of the island, and those of Caithness in the north-eastern, are all equally termed Carnabii by Richard of Cirencester, who expressly declares that these people were originally situated in the neighbourhood of the Dee, and extended their possessions across the whole of Warwickshire, to Bennonæ, or Cleychester, on the skirts of the adjoining county of Leicester. Of the history of this district while under the Romans, but little can now be satisfactorily ascertained. In the year 50, Ostorius first visited the Arden of Warwickshire. He led his troops from the banks of the southern Ouse, taking in his northward progress the course of the Watling-street, and probably fixing his encampments on the sites of British stations. In order to increase his security, and to extend the line of military communication, he constructed forts and entrenched camps along the banks of the rivers Avon and Severn. As the woodland recesses of the district emphatically termed Arden, then comprised the greater part of Warwickshire, and were chiefly inhabited by the *Ceangii*, or herdsmen, Ostorius probably did not deem it expedient to fix any military station in the interior of the county on the north of the Avon. His great Ardenian station was assuredly *Tripontium* (Lilburn, Northamptonshire, on the border of this county). At High-Croft was a second settlement, now included in the county of Leicester. Further north, on the Watling-street, was *Mandueffedum* (Manchester). The chain of camps on the Avon communicated with these places, and at Warwick, nearly in the centre of the line, some writers have placed the *Praesidium* of the Romans; but this still remains a subject of dispute among antiquaries. With greater certainty the honour of a Roman station may be ascribed to *Alecster*, on the Icknield-street, in the south-west division of the county. The second journey of Antoninus passes through this part of England, from north to south; but as he adhered strictly to the track of the great river, when on the confines of Warwickshire, he only gives in his Itinerary the name of one station—*Mandueffedum*. Cogidunus, who had been originally king of the Dobuni, was not only permitted by the Romans to retain nominal authority, or, in other words, to become an imperial legate, but had various extents of country added to his dominions. Among these was a part of Warwickshire; and he retained his titular supremacy to the days of Trajan. When Severus, in the beginning of the third century, divided the Roman territories in Britain into two provinces, the greater part of this county was comprehended in *Britannia Secunda*. During the period between the secession of the Romans and the conquest of the midland district of England by the Saxons, the silence of historians respecting this tract, induces us to suppose, that the inhabitants wisely avoided civil contention. Credda was the first Saxon commander who obtruded on this peaceful disposition of the natives. On the formation of the heptarchy, Warwickshire was constituted a part of the powerful kingdom of Mercia; and with this new political arrangement recommence those military details which form the grounds of ordinary history. The kings of Mercia often maintained the rude pomp of their court in this county. Tamworth was a favourite seat with several sovereigns, until that town was destroyed by the Danes. A charter of Burthwulf, king of Mercia, in the Textus Roffensis, is dated from Warwick: Kinfbury was also a regal abode. Among the numerous conflicts produced by the ambition of those fresh invaders, to which the country was now subject, the battle of Seckington is especially memorable. Here Ethelbald, the tenth king of Mercia, fought

Cuthred, king of the West-Saxons, and was slain by Burgred, his own officer. The Danes committed great ravages in Warwickshire; and in the course of their several irruptions, burned and destroyed the principal towns. The war between the houses of York and Lancaster forms the next great historical era. During this calamitous period, the people of this county, in common with other districts, was much divided in sentiment, and lost some of its best blood in the field, though it was not the immediate scene of any important action. As the chief members of the house of Neville, of which the earl of Warwick was a distinguished branch, supported the pretensions of the duke of York, it will be supposed that his interest was strong in the county. But in those infuriate days, when even families were divided in motive, no citizen could depend on the integrity of a neighbour. The town of Warwick was swayed by its earl; but the city of Coventry had equally strong reasons for attachment to the house of Lancaster. Henry and Margaret had won the esteem of the inhabitants by frequent visits, and had conferred on them a particular favour, in constituting their city, and some adjacent parishes, a separate county. The citizens were firm in affection and gratitude. In 1460, when a strong power, under the earl of Warwick and the earl of March (afterwards Edward IV.), proceeded from London in search of the royal forces, the Lancastrians were quartered in Coventry. They shortly, however, quitted that city, and the battle of Northampton ensued. In 1470 the earl of Warwick, then a partisan of the Lancastrians, possessed himself of Coventry, and the citizens refused admission to Edward IV., who met with a more friendly reception in the town of Warwick. When Richard III. took arms to oppose the earl of Richmond, the sheriff of this county levied men for the king. But it is probable that they were not engaged in the decisive action, as it appears, from an inquisition then taken, that the sheriff (Richard Boughton) was slain two days before the battle of Bosworth; whence it is supposed, that marching to the aid of the king, he was encountered and overpowered by some of the earl's troops. In the 17th century, when the nation was again plunged into the miseries of civil contest, the inhabitants of Warwickshire evinced a greater unanimity of sentiment. Some were found ready to adventure life and fortune in support of their king; but these were few in number. The influence of lord Brooke, one of the earliest and most strenuous advocates of the popular faction, did much in kindling the zeal of the natives; and his local resources were of distinguished service to his party. The castle of Warwick, situated near the centre of the kingdom, and strong by nature and art, was a most convenient place of arms; and the possession of such a garrison gave confidence to the first hostile movements of the parliament. The flame of opposition spread through every town; and no county exhibited a more decided inclination to take an active part in the sanguinary business. In June and July 1642, lord Brooke arrayed the militia of the county, in attention to a commission received from the parliament; and, in October following, was fought the first great battle between the opposed parties at Edgehill, on the south-east border of this county. On this eventful day, lord Brooke's own regiment, composed of prime Warwickshire men, fought in the right wing, and entirely broke the left of the king's army. At different periods of this war, the castle of Warwick sustained a siege, the town of Birmingham was fired by the troops under prince Rupert, and many inferior skirmishes took place. Though only a comparatively small part of the population of England was actively engaged in these degrading hostilities, yet Warwickshire furnished its

full

full quota to the parliamentary forces. During these scenes of violence, some religious structures, and numerous mansions of the gentry, suffered much dilapidation. After that complete destruction of the hopes of the Royalists, which followed the battle of Naseby, Warwickshire, among other midland counties, remained under the quiet controul of the parliament, until the entire restoration of national good order.

General Aspect, Soil, Produce.—Warwickshire is described by early writers as naturally divided into two parts, the Feldon (or Champaign) and the Woodland. The river Avon formed the line that separated these tracts; and the sylvan district was emphatically denominated *Arden*, which term is well known to have been common among the Celts in general for a forest however situated. The Arden of this county is asserted to have been the largest of the British forests, as it extended from the banks of the Avon to the Trent on the north, and to the Severn on the west; on the east the tract was bounded by an imaginary line drawn from High Croft to Burton. When England was divided into shires, the counties of Worcester and Stafford took their respective portions of this wild, and bestowed on the forests so claimed the names by which they are still distinguished; the part remaining within Warwickshire alone retained the title by which the whole was originally designated. But this large division has been long cleared of those thick-matted woods which formerly encumbered, rather than ornamented its soil. A colouring, however, of its pristine character remains; and an occasional air of wildness is found to denote the complexion of the country when occupied by the *Ceangri* or the *Cornavii*, and their numerous herds. In general aspect Warwickshire presents a face of country agreeably diversified by such an alternation of hill and valley as is equally gratifying to the eye of the pictorial traveller, and beneficial to the more important views of the agriculturist. The insulated situation of the county, and its freedom from any great inequalities of surface, render the climate mild, and vegetation early. The most general winds are from the south-west, and usually accompanied with rain. Warwickshire, upon the whole, however, is not to be considered as subject to any particular excess of damp or frost. The soil, as is usual in the midland district, possesses great variety. Nearly every species is to be seen, except that incorporated with chalk and flint; and often many of these varieties occur within one field or inclosure. The greater part of the soil is, however, of a description highly favourable to the purposes of agriculture; and it may safely be asserted that few counties possess less bad or sterile land, in proportion to that which corresponds readily and abundantly with the husbandman's toil. The crops usually cultivated are wheat, barley, oats, peas, beans, vetches, and turnips. The crops partially raised, but which are not admitted into the ordinary rotation of farms, are rye, potatoes, and flax. The live stock reared by the grazing farmers is of various descriptions; but the long-horned cow is the sort chiefly bred in the county. The Warwickshire sheep of the large polled kind have been judiciously crossed with the Leicester; and a very serviceable breed has resulted. The farms of Warwickshire are in general far from large; but the system of consolidation appears to be rapidly growing into favour with the great landholders. At present about 150 acres are the average size of farms throughout the county. Few leases are granted; but the rent of land, with the exception of such districts as border on great commercial towns, is very moderate. The principal woodlands of this county are still to be found in the neighbourhood of its former great forest, in the middle, western, and northern districts; but nearly every

division is interspersed with valuable and ornamental timber. Oak, matured and grand, conveying the story of former ages, yet likely to flourish in the days of succeeding generations, is attached to almost every residence of hereditary consequence. Elm, in the most flourishing condition, is also abundant. Nor does the county entirely depend for its wealth in woodland recesses on the liberal providence of past ages; the recent plantations are numerous and carefully attended. There are also many coppices, consisting of oak, ash, hazel, alder, birch, and beech. Concerning the management of these nothing peculiar occurs. They are cut in regular allotments, so as to admit of a fall in every year. As coals abound in this county, the wood is seldom consumed as fuel, but is used chiefly for hurdles, hoops, rails, &c.

Rivers, Springs, Canals.—Warwickshire is watered by numerous streams, which impart richness to large tracts of pasture, and add much to the pictorial charms of the county, though (with the exception of the Avon) they are of a character too trivial to bestow important facilities on commercial interchange. The principal are, the Avon, the Tame, the Leam, the Rea, the Stour, the Alne, the Arrow, the Anker, the Blythe, the Swift, the Cole, and the Dove. The Avon, (termed the Upper, or Warwickshire Avon,) the only one which claims particular notice, derives its source from a spring in the village of Naseby, Northamptonshire, and enters the county of Warwick at Bensford bridge; whence proceeding in a south-west direction, but with devious windings, it reaches the town of Warwick, through valleys which conspicuously increase in beauty. Passing close to Warwick castle, whose lofty towers so finely decorate its course, it expands in some places to the breadth of two hundred feet, as it pursues its track through the grounds attached to this princely residence. It now draws near to the neighbourhood which imparts classic immortality to its name. It passes Fulbroke, and taking a large sweep towards the north, washes the border of the celebrated town of Stratford. Hence it proceeds, with no deviation of interest, to Bidford, supposed to have been Shakspeare's retreat for convivial relaxation. At the distance of a mile from Bidford, near the village of Cleve, the river, though broad, is only four feet in depth. It shortly after leaves the county, having, in its progress through it, received the aid of several minor streams. The Avon was made navigable for vessels of forty tons burthen, from Stratford to its conflux with the Severn at Tewkesbury, in the year 1637; but the numerous canals which have since been formed have much diminished its traffic. The chief medicinal springs are those of Leamington and Newnham-Regis. The former are found so efficacious in many chronic disorders, in diseases of the skin, and visceral obstructions, that the village in which they rise is rapidly augmenting in buildings of a costly and ornamental character. The latter is a weak chalybeate, and a bath formed from its waters was once in great repute for the cure of scorbutic complaints; but it is now resorted to only by a few. The canals of the county are the great objects of consideration while treating of artificial water. Warwickshire is conspicuous for commercial enterprise, and for the spirit with which manufactures are cultivated. It will naturally be supposed that a people so industrious and intelligent have been active in profiting by the great medium of canal conveyance. No county, indeed, can boast of more numerous facilities of this description; and some diversions from original channels are yet projected, which a more propitious era may bring to perfection. The canals in this county are, the Birmingham Old Canal, the Birmingham and Fazely, the Warwick and Birmingham, the Worcester

ter and Birmingham, the Coventry, the Warwick and Napton, the Stratford, and the Ashby-de-la-Zouch Canal. (See their respective names under the article CANAL.) While so much liberality has been evinced in the extension and improvement of water conveyance, the chief roads of the county have been far from experiencing neglect. The materials principally used are lime-stone and gravel; and with these the high turnpike ways are kept in good repair. This is a circumstance of public accommodation peremptorily required by the manufacturing interest; but where the agriculturists are left to their own exertions, we return to such rough and homely channels as were tediously trodden by the unambitious tenantry of past centuries. The cross-country roads are treated with too little attention in nearly every part of the county.

The minerals and fossils of Warwickshire are, coal, lime-stone, free-stone, iron-stone, blue flag-stone, marble and blue clay. The best coal in the county is that found at Bedworth. The seam at this place is from three to four feet in thickness. It sells at the pit for 12s. per ton. Lime-stone abounds in many parts, and the lime sold at the kiln from 2s. 6d. to 3s. per quarter, or from 43s. to 45s. per waggon load. Free-stone rock is found in most divisions where the soil is a light sand; and considerable quantities of blue flag-stone are wrought in the vicinity of Bidford and Wilnecote. The west part of the county is prolific of good marble; and blue clay abounds in the eastern districts.

Manufactures of various descriptions are carried on to a considerable extent. The manufactory of hardware goods at Birmingham has obtained for that town the appellation of "the toyshop of Europe," and is a just subject of national pride. Not less than 16,000 people, in the city of Coventry, and neighbouring towns and villages, are employed in the manufacture of ribbons. Watch-making is likewise carried on by numerous workmen in all its branches. Horn combs of all descriptions are made at Kenilworth. At Warwick are manufactories of worsted for hosiery; of calicoes, and other cotton goods, from yarn spun at Manchester and its vicinities; and a mill for the spinning of cotton yarn. At Alcester about six hundred persons are employed in the making of needles; and in other parts of the county are considerable flax manufactories, and much linen yarn spun.

Antiquities.—The state of the county, while occupied by the Britons, and during the invasion and settlement of the Romans, and their Saxon successors, we have already noticed. It remains to mention the relics of those eras, the tangible memorials of days long past. Although Mr. Shaw, in his history of Staffordshire, conjectures that the chief seat of the Arch-Druid of Britain was situated in the vicinity of Sutton-Colfield, yet we find few vestiges that can be safely ascribed to the Britons. The Romans, warlike, successful, and vast in undertaking, worked for posterity; and their connection with Warwickshire would be obvious, if every other record had sunk amidst the wrecks of time. The roads, which at once facilitated conquest, and aided the progress of civilization, form the most interesting relics of this great people. The *Watling-street*, that most stupendous of their works in Britain, divides this county from Leicestershire on the north-east. From Weedon to Lilburn it is only a private road, though distinctly marked, and well known. It then forms the public way between Daventry and Lutterworth, when it again becomes private, and so continues till it reaches High-Crofts. Here the turnpike-road from Lutterworth to Atherstone passes over it. Beyond Atherstone it is in good repair, and shortly becomes the basis of the great Chester road. The *Foss-way* intersects the Watling-street at High-Crofts. Passing near

Monk's Kirby and Stretton, it goes through Brinklow, Bretford on the river Avon, and Stretton-upon-Dunmoor; then crossing the river Leam, near Stretton-on-Foss, it enters Gloucestershire. This road, which is supposed to have been constructed in the third consulship of Hadrian, nearly 1700 years back, is still firm through many parts of its progress, and likely to mock the assaults of time for centuries. A third Roman way, connected with Warwickshire, is the *Icknield* (or, as termed by some modern writers, *Ryknild*) street. It enters on the south, and is clearly distinguishable in the neighbourhood of Bidford. Between Wixford and Alcester few traces remain; but to the north of the latter place, it again rises to notice, and is known by the name of the *Haden-way*. After passing Studley, it enters a recess of Worcestershire, and returns in the vicinity of Birmingham. Touching the margin of Staffordshire, it proceeds to Sutton-Park, where it is to be distinctly traced. A minor road, termed the *Ridgeway*, likewise borders Warwickshire on the east; and several branches appear to have diverged from each of the great tracts. The principal stations of the Romans in this county have been already mentioned. The remains of various camps constructed by that people are found in different states of preservation. The chief of these are seen on the Foss-way, where places of accommodation were formed for the troops on their marches; and on the banks of the Avon, where Ostorius arranged a chain of minor fortifications to keep the natives in awe. Many tumuli are found in the vicinity of the roads and camps, and coins and other vestiges of the Romans have been discovered in almost every district. Here are few military remains of the Saxons, or of the Danes; and the relics of Saxon architecture are far from numerous, and are by no means conspicuous for the rude but commanding grandeur of effect sometimes produced by that people. This county contains many instances of fine castellated and ancient domestic architecture; and mansions of more recent erection are frequent, and in a highly creditable taste. Few religious edifices will be found remarkably conspicuous either for magnitude or beauty, with the exception of those of Coventry, St. Mary's, Warwick, with its attached chapel, and the church of Stratford.—Dugdale's History and Antiquities of Warwickshire. Beauties of England and Wales, vol. xv. Warwickshire, by J. N. Brewer, 1814.

WARY. See CARLSBAD.

WASA, or VASA, a sea-port of Sweden, and capital of a government to which it gives name, built by Charles IX. This government comprehends all the northern part of East Bothnia; 50 miles N. of Abo. N. lat. 63° 5'. E. long. 21° 29'.

WASANGO, a town of Africa, in Whidah; 5 miles E. of Sabi.

WASASHE, or OSAGES (which see), a people of Louisiana, who are divided, according to Mr. Brackenridge (Views of Louisiana, 8vo. 1814), into three bands: the Great Osage, the Little Osage, and the band of Big Track, from a chief who left the nation some years ago, and is now settled on the Arkansas. Their language may be considered as the primitive of several others, which are spoken by neighbouring nations, without any great difference; as the Arkansas, Kansas, and Mahas. They trade principally in deer-skins, bear-skins, beaver, otter, musk-rat, and the buffalo. These people are noted for their uncommon stature, which has sometimes been exaggerated. They are reputed warlike, though not possessing any uncommon degree of bravery. When compared with the Shawanose, and the nations west of the Mississippi, they might with greater propriety be regarded as a treacherous

and cowardly race. The Osages have their villages on the Missouri. The Kansas were, a few years ago, the most abandoned tribe of the Missouri, robbing traders and all trading whites; but of late, in consequence of a severe defeat from the Panis, in which their greatest warriors fell, they have been humbled. They are brave, and are esteemed great warriors. They have their villages on the Kansas river. Their country abounds with the beaver, but they do not hunt much. They speak the Osage language with some difference of dialect. The *Mahas*, or *Oo-ma-ha*, reside on the Maha creek, about 80 leagues above the latter, in some villages, and raise corn. They are a friendly and industrious people, and have a considerable trade. Their language is that of the Osages. All the Sioux bands, except the Yankfons, make war upon them. Their numbers have been lately much reduced.

WASEN. See WESEN.

WASEN, a town of Austria; 8 miles S.S.W. of St. Polten.

WASERHITEN, a town of the duchy of Carinthia; 2 miles N.W. of Eberndorf.

WASH, the distiller's name for the fermentable liquor, made by dissolving the proper subject for fermentation and distillation in common water.

The wash of the malt-distiller is made by mixing the water hot with the malt ground into meal. If the water be too hot, the mixture will become gluey; and if too cool, a part of the virtue of the malt will be lost. Under the right application of the water is to be considered the proper manner of agitating the mafs, so that all the parts of the aqueous fluid may come fully and freely in contact with the soluble particles of the subject. When once the water is well saturated by standing on the malt a proper time, it may be drawn off, and fresh poured on, till at length the whole virtue, or all the fugary sweetness of the malt is extracted, and nothing but a fixed husky matter remains behind, incapable of being farther dissolved by the action of hot or boiling water, or of being advantageously washed or rinsed out by the bare affusion of cold. This artificial and external agitation, or stirring about of the mafs, is necessary not only in the common way of brewing for the malt-distillery, but also in that more expeditious way, now in use with some, of reducing the operations of brewing and fermenting to one, and grinding the malt to a fine meal, which is to be kept in the wash during the whole time, and even put into the still with it, and worked together. The stirring may be repeated to great advantage more than once in each operation, as at the affusion of every parcel of fresh water, in the common way, and at any shortly distant times in the short way, in which it is of greater service.

The difference of seasons is found to require some alteration in the direction and management of the business of brewing for the malt-distillery. The water must always be used colder in summer than in winter, and the tincture must be cooled suddenly in close sultry weather, to prevent it from becoming eager or four. The summer season also gives malt an over-forward disposition to ferment, and this impairs the quantity of spirit, and is to be checked by the addition of a quantity of unmalted meal, which, being less disposed to ferment than the malted meal, will restrain and moderate its impetuosity. The action of fermentation works such a change in the body of the tincture or solution, called the wash, as to render it separable by the action of fire, into parcels of matter that are specifically different, and of a nature entirely foreign to what the same liquor would have yielded without the fermentation. With respect to the

proper workings of this liquor, great regard is to be had to the containing vessel. Its purity, and the provision for its occasional closeness, are the things to be principally considered. Though it is necessary that the vessel be perfectly clean, yet in the cleaning of it great care must be taken that no soap, or other unctuous body, be used, for this would check the fermentation in it; and for the same reason, all strong alkaline lixiviatives are to be avoided. Lime-water, or even the turbid solution of quick-lime, however, may be safely used for this purpose; and this is, indeed, particularly proper to destroy a prevailing acid, which is very apt to be generated about the sides and bottoms of those vessels, if the warm air has access to them, and thus prevents the order of the fermentation.

It is a very prejudicial mistake, in the business of fermenting the wash, to suppose that the free concurrence or admission of the external air is necessary to the operation. The contrary is the truth, and a great advantage will be found in practising upon this supposition. A constant influx of the open air, if it does not carry off some part of the already-formed spirit; yet certainly catches up and dissipates the fine subtle oleaginous and saline particles, of which the spirit is formed, and thus considerably lessens the quantity to be procured. This inconvenience is wholly avoided by the way of close fermentation, by which all air, except that which is contained in the vessel, is kept out.

This method of close fermentation is practicable to good advantage in the small way of business; but it requires such a considerable time, that it will never be liked by the large dealers, who are in a manner forced to admit the free air, and thus sustain a very considerable loss in the spirit, only to get the operation over in a proper time. Excepting for the necessity of expedition of this kind among the large dealers, it is certain that this slow and imperceptible vinous fermentation is greatly preferable, on all accounts, to the other.

The operation is known to be over in this close way of fermentation, as soon as the hissing noise ceases, and can no longer be heard on applying the ear to the vessel; and when, on opening it, the liquor is found to be clear, and of a vinous pungent taste; when it is arrived at this state, it should be set by for a time in a cooler place than that in which it was fermented; in this manner it will thoroughly purge itself of its lees, and will become perfectly clear, vinous, and pungent; in this state it should be drawn clear off from the lees, and immediately committed to the still; and by this method a perfectly pure vinous spirit will be procured, much better than that which can be obtained by the common way, which those who work large quantities fall into for the sake of expedition.

The particular intention of the operator may render various other additions necessary; thus some, to dispose the wash to yield more spirit, or to give the spirit a greater degree of pungency and a better flavour, add to it the strong and pungent aromatics; the cheapest chosen for this purpose, and the most used, are the cortex Winteranus, ginger, and grains of paradise.

In the common way, these additions, however, do very little, though, by a proper artifice in the management, they may be made of considerable use. Upon this foundation stands a very instructive method, used abroad, of making geneva *ab origine*, by mixing the bruised juniper-berries among the malt, and brewing the whole together; by this means a compound tincture, or wash, is prepared, which, by fermentation and distillation, affords a spirit much more intimately and homogeneously impregnated with the

essence of the berry than that prepared by our distillers, in the common way of adding the berry to the malt-spirit, and distilling it from them again.

Wash, being of a mucilaginous or somewhat glutinous nature, requires management to prevent its scorching, and make it work kindly in the still: if it should happen to be burnt in the operation, the spirit will have a most disagreeable flavour, and such as can never be got off again, without very great labour, and a particular treatment not known to every body. To prevent this ill effect, there must be three things observed; the liquor, or wash, must be made dilute, the fire must be well regulated, and the whole kept in a constant agitation. The manner of making the wash dilute has been long known among the more judicious distillers in this branch, and they have always found their spirit the purer for it. The fire is easily kept regular, by a constant attendance, and avoiding hasty stirring it, or throwing on new fuel; and the stirring of the liquor in the still is to be effected by means of a paddle, or bar kept in the liquor, till it just begins to boil, which is the time for luting on the head; and after which there is no great danger, but from the improper management of the fire: this is the common way, but it is hard to hit the exact time when to lute down the head; and the doing it either too soon, or too late, is attended with great inconvenience, so that many have found out the other methods, of either putting some moveable solid bodies into the still with the wash, or placing some proper matter at the bottom and sides of the still, which are the places where the fire acts strongest.

There is another inconvenience attending the distilling of malt-spirit, which is, when all the bottoms, or grofs mealy feculence, are put into the still along with the liquor, the thinner part of the wash going off in form of spirit, the mealy mass grows by degrees more and more stiff, so as to scorch towards the latter part of the operation. The method used to remedy this, is to have a pipe with a stop-cock, leading from the upper part of the worm-tub into the still; so that, upon a half or quarter turn, it may continually supply a little stream of hot-water in the same proportion as the spirit runs off, by which means the fear of scorching is taken away, and the operation at the same time not at all retarded. In Holland, the malt-distillers work all their wash thick, with the whole body of the meal among it; yet they are so careful in the keeping of their stills clean, and so regular and nice in the management of their fires, that, though they use no artifice at all on this head, only to charge the still while it is hot and moist, they very rarely have the misfortune to scorch, except now and then in the depth of winter. When such an accident has once happened in a still, they are extremely solicitous and careful to scrape, scrub, and scour off the remains of the burnt matter, otherwise they find the same accident very liable to happen again in the same place. But beyond all the other methods in use on this occasion, would be the working the stills not by a dry heat, but in a *balneum Mariæ*, which might possibly be so contrived by the basin being large, and capable of working a great many stills at once, as to be extremely worth the proprietor's while in all respects. Shaw's Essay on Distillery. See FERMENTATION, and MALT-Distillery.

WASH is also used for the shallow part of a river, or arm of the sea, as the washes in Lincolnshire.

WASH, the blade of an oar, or the thin broad part that is pressed against the water in rowing. See OAR.

WASH-Board, in a Ship, a broad thin plank, fixed occasionally on the top of a boat's side, so as to extend the

height thereof, and be removed at pleasure. It is used to prevent the sea from breaking into the vessel, particularly when the surface is rough, as in tempestuous weather. Falconer.

WASH, in Painting. See WASHING.

WASH-Lime, for boarding, walls, &c., in Rural Economy, that used for covering and preserving such works. An excellent wash for this use is said to be prepared by putting into a tub of six or eight gallons five a quantity of water sufficient to half fill the same; and then adding thereto of clean sharp sand, and of lime *fresh* burnt, in about equal quantities, as much as will make, when well-stirred up and mixed, a wash of moderate consistence. By means of this wash, as soon as it is made, the boarding and walls, &c. of any barns or buildings, are to be passed or laid over, keeping the sand constantly well stirred up, so that the brush may take it up as well as the lime. As the quantity of the wash in the tub decreases, more sand and more lime are, by degrees, to be added in small proportions, being careful to make up no more wash at one time than will be immediately made use of by the workman. The quicker or the more fresh the lime the better, which, if good and proper for the purpose, will make the wash hot; and if it be required to make the wash particularly hard and durable, it will be the best and most certainly effected by making use of boiling water instead of such as is cold, taking care to make it only in such quantity that it can be laid on the boards while hot.

This wash is cheap, and of admirable use, it is said, in many cases of boarding, saving the heavy charge of painting with oil paint.

WASH, in Agriculture, the refuse liquid which is formed and left in many ways and cases; and also that which remains after the distillation of grain for spirit. The former, as well as the latter forts, are much used as the food of swine, whence they are frequently called hog-wash. The wash of the distilleries has likewise been lately found very beneficial and advantageous in the fattening of neat cattle. See HOG, STALL-Feeding, and SWINE.

Any of these liquid matters, when thickened a little with some sort of mealy substance, form good fattening food for young hogs. See HAY, TEA, and SOUP.

Hard, dry, cut fodder, of some kind or other, should constantly too be used with the last sort of wash.

WASH for rough-cast Stone and Wall-Buildings, in Rural Economy, that which is used for preserving and rendering them more durable and handsome. It is said that a highly protecting and ornamental wash for these purposes is formed and prepared by mixing well together four parts of powdered lime, three of good sharp sand, two of powdered wood-ashes, and one of the drossy refuse matter left in the making of iron; making them into a sufficiently fluid state, so that they may be applied by means of a proper brush. The appearance which is thus afforded to such buildings, when they become dry, is that of new Portland stone, and they render the penetrating effects of wet and moisture of little or no disadvantage from whatever quarter they may come.

It may be noticed, too, that great benefit in the way of durability and ornament may be produced in such cases by the cornices, window-soles, door-frames, and other such parts being fanded. The method of doing which is, by first painting them with thickish white paint, and then immediately dashing them with sharp white sea or other sand, by means of a sort of dredging-box: the effect is, it is said, that of an exceedingly good imitation of *stone*. In this way

way they last nearly double the length of time they do in ordinary cases where sand is not employed.

WASH-Off, To, a technical expression used in *Calico Printing*, which denotes the soaking and rinsing of printed pieces in water, in order to dissolve and remove any gum or paste that had been employed with the colours in printing them. For want of this operation, the printed pieces will neither endure the rays of the sun nor moisture. The first shower of rain to which they may be exposed will not fail to wash out the pattern, and reduce them to a worse state than that of plain white calicoes. *Parkes's Ess.* vol. ii.

WASH-A-CUM-MOW, or **CLEARWATER River**, in *Geography*, a river of North America, which runs into the Athapescow lake, N. lat. $56^{\circ} 36'$. W. long. $110^{\circ} 40'$.

WASHBROOK, a river of England, which runs into the Wharf, near Otley in Yorkshire.

WASHEDEMOIAC, a river of New Brunswick, which runs into the St. John, N. lat. $45^{\circ} 47'$. W. long. $66^{\circ} 6'$.

WASHER, in *Rural Economy*, the name of a thin, flat, circular ring, or piece of iron, which is put upon the end of the axle-tree of a cart, waggon, or carriage of any kind, between the linch-pin and the small end of the nave of the wheel, in order to diminish the friction against the nave, to keep the wheel from having too much play, and to prevent the nave from rubbing against the linch-pin, so as to wear away too much. It is a term which is also applied to the thin rings and small pieces of iron that are used for many other purposes, as in the hanging of gates and many other such operations.

WASHES, *The*, in *Geography*, lands on the coast of England, between the counties of Norfolk and Lincoln, which are passable at low water, but overflowed by every tide, called by Ptolemy, *Æstuarium Metaris*. They are dangerous to strangers, who are unacquainted with the quick-lands. The parts which run into the land have particular names; below Spalding it is called Fofdike Wash; below Wilbeach, at the mouth of the Nen, the immediate boundary between the two counties, it is called Crofs-Keys Wash.

WASHILABO, a river of the island of St. Vincent's which runs into Cumberland bay.

WASHING. See **ABLUTION**, **LOTION**, &c.

Washing the feet was a common piece of civility among the Jews, practised in regard to strangers, visitors, &c. at their arrival.

Washing the feet of twelve poor people, is an anniversary ceremony to be performed both by the kings of England and France; in commemoration of our Saviour's washing the feet of his apostles. See **MAUNDY**.

Arnobius, *Adv. Gentes*, lib. vii., mentions a feast in use among the ancients, called *lavatio matris Deum*. See **LAVATION**.

WASHING of Ores. See **DRESSING of ORES**.

WASHING of a Ship, in *Sea Language*, is when all the guns are brought to one side; and the men getting upon the yards, wash her other side, and scrape her as far as they can reach.

WASHING, in *Painting*, is when a design drawn with a pen or crayon has some one colour laid over it with a pencil; as Indian ink, bistre, or the like; to make it appear the more natural, by adding the shadows of prominences, apertures, &c. and by imitating the particular matters of which the thing is supposed to consist.

Thus they wash with a pale red, to imitate brick and tile; with a pale Indian blue, to imitate water and slate; with green, for trees and meadows; with saffron or French

berries for gold and brags; and with several colours, for marbles.

These washes are usually given in equal tints, or degrees, throughout; which are afterwards brought down, and softened over the lights with fair water, and strengthened with deeper colours for the shadows.

The colours which require only to be dissolved in water, are, for red, red ink; for blue, litmus; for green, sap-green and verdigrise in vinegar; for yellow, gamboge, the yellow berry wash and turmeric wash; for purple, the log-wood wash and archil; for brown, Spanish liquorice; and for black, Indian ink.

The yellow-berry wash, which is a solution of the gum of the French berries in water, may be prepared by putting a pound of the French berries in a gallon of water, with half an ounce of alum; boiling them an hour in a pewter vessel, and then filtering off the fluid through flannel or paper. Put them again into the boiler, and evaporate the fluid till the colour appear of the strength desired; or part may be taken out while less strong, and the rest evaporated to a proper body. The turmeric wash is the gum of the turmeric root dissolved in water; it has much the same qualities with the former, except that it is a brighter and cooler yellow; but in order to procure a bright tincture, it must be dissolved in spirit of wine instead of water. For this purpose add 2 oz. of proof spirit to 1 oz. of water, and having put them into a proper phial, add 2 drachms of turmeric root in powder. Shake them well together, and let them stand three or four days, repeating the shaking as soon as convenient, and thus a strong tincture will be obtained. Tincture of saffron is used as a yellow wash with water-colours. This is made by pouring hot water on the best English saffron in a proper phial or other vessel, which should be placed for some time in a heat next to that which would make the water boil, and the tincture should then be filtered through a piece of linen cloth. This tincture is a fine warm yellow; and when very strong, makes a very proper shade for the gamboge or other light yellows that are bright, and it will stand equally well any of the vegetable tinctures.

The zedoary wash may be prepared by boiling one ounce of zedoary root in a quart of water, till the water appears sufficiently tinged to make a stain on paper, of a full yellow colour; and then the fluid must be strained through linen, to free it from the dregs. This wash will be a stronger colour than can be made of turmeric without spirit of wine, and it is a cooler yellow than saffron, though full as bright. It is valuable for many purposes in painting with water-colours, as flowers, yellow draperies, &c. It may be dried in shells, and will afterwards dissolve and spread kindly, with the addition of water.

The colouring of maps, or other prints, is performed, either by spreading opaque colours so thinly on the subject, that the full effect of the printing may appear under them; or by using transparent colours, which stain the ground, and dry away, without leaving any opaque body, which last method is called *washing*. In employing the opaque or semi-transparent colours, care should be taken that no parts be so strongly covered with them as to prevent the distinct appearance of the shades of the printed design; as they are to shew themselves through the colours, and form the shades of the picture made by the colouring.

M. Cochin, in order to produce washed prints much more beautiful than the common, proposes to print upon the colours, instead of applying the colours upon the impression, in the following manner:

Having a plate already engraved, with a figure, in which it is required to introduce two or three colours, as the hat

grey;

grey, the hair brownish, the cloak red, the coat and the stockings of different colours; let another plate of well-polished copper be procured, and fitted to the size of the first: when this ungraved plate is varnished with white varnish, let a proof fresh drawn from the engraved plate be laid upon it, exactly in the place where the engraved plate has made the impression, and then spread two blankets upon the table of the press, and lay the varnished plate upon them, with the proof lying upon it; and having covered them with two or three other blankets, pass them under the roller of the press. When the blankets and proof are taken off the plate, the white varnish will have the same impression with that of the proof, in the manner of a counter-proof; and the outlines of the hat, hair, cloak, &c. must be traced with a very fine needle, and the plate then gently corroded. After this, the varnish should be taken off the plate; and some proofs should be taken from it on strong paper allumed, or upon cartoon, very thin and well beaten; which should be previously moistened, by lying in a damp cellar for a night, or two, or by putting it among the paper moistened in order to be printed. The proofs being made, and the cartoons or paper on which they were printed being dry, the part enclosed in the outline of the cloak should be coloured with a red ground; that within those of the head with a brown ground of bistre, and the same of the rest. The sheet thus coloured must then be put into the cellar, in order to moisten it; and having spread some of the blankets on the table of the press, the coloured sheet must be laid upon them, with the blank side downwards. After having inked all the first plate, that has the entire engraving upon it, in the manner for printing at other times, it must be put upon this leaf with the engraved side downwards, so that the parts of which the outline is marked on the sheet, may exactly coincide with those corresponding to them in the plate; and then two or three blankets being laid over them, the whole must be passed through the rollers. After which, the sheet being uncovered, will be found printed upon the colours, in a manner that renders the effect much more beautiful than that of those printed and coloured upon the printing, as in the common way. *Handmaid to the Arts*, vol. ii. p. 212, &c.

WASHING Colours, a denomination given to such colours as are transparent in water; in contradistinction from those called *glazing colours*, which are pigments possessing the property of becoming transparent in oil.

WASHING over of Colours. The washing or cleansing of some colours may be thus performed:—Take the colours to be washed, and put them, after having been well levigated or pounded, into a vessel of fair water; stir it about till the water be all coloured with it, and if any filth swim on the top of the water, scum it clean off, and when you think the grossest part of the colour is settled at the bottom, then pour off that water into another earthen vessel, that may contain the first vessel full of water four or five times; then pour more water into the first vessel, and stir the remaining colour till the water be thick, and after it is a little settled, pour that water also into the second vessel. Let this be repeated till all the finest of the colour is drawn off, and nothing but coarse gritty stuff remains behind. Then letting the water in the second vessel stand to settle, till it is perfectly clear, pour it off, and reserve the washed colour in the bottom of the vessel for use.

The colours to be thus washed are red-lead, blue and green bice, verditer, blue and green smalt, Spanish brown, yellow ochre, &c.

WASHINGS, or *Washes*, among *Goldsmiths, Coiners*, &c. are the lotions by which they recover the particles of gold

and silver out of the sweep, *i. e.* ashes, earths, sweepings, &c.

This is either performed by simply washing them again and again, or by putting them in the washing-mill.

To make one of these washes, they not only gather together the ashes of the furnaces, and sweepings of the work-houses; but they also break and pound the old earthen crucibles, and the very bricks of which the furnaces are built; little particles of gold, &c. being found to stick to them, by the flying off natural to those metals, when in their last degree of heat.

These matters being well ground, and mixed together, are put in large wooden basons, where they are washed several times, and in several waters, which run off, by inclination, into troughs underneath; carrying with them the earth, and the insensible particles of the metals, and only leaving behind them the larger and more considerable ones, which are visible to the eye, and are finally taken out with the hand without more trouble.

To get out the finer parts, gone off with the earth, they use quicksilver, and a washing-mill. This mill consists of a large wooden trough, at bottom of which are two metalline parts, serving as mill-stones; the lower being convex, and the upper, which is in form of a cross, concave.

At the top is a winch, placed horizontally, which turns the upper piece round; and at bottom is a bung, to let out the water and earth, when sufficiently ground.

To have a wash, then, the trough is filled with common water; into which they cast thirty or forty pounds of quicksilver, and two or three gallons of the matter remaining from the first lotion. Then turning the winch, they give motion to the upper mill-stone; which grinding the matter and the quicksilver violently together, the particles of gold and silver become the more easily amalgamated with it; this work they continue for two hours: when opening the bung, the water and earth runs out, and a fresh quantity is put in.

The earths are usually thus passed through the mill three times; and the same quantity of mercury usually serves all the three times. When there is nothing left in the mill but the mercury, united with the gold and silver which it has amalgamated, they take it out, and washing it in divers waters, they put it in a ticken bag, and lay it in a press, to squeeze out the water, and the loose quicksilver: the remaining quicksilver they evaporate by fire, in a retort, or an alembic. And the metal which remains they refine with lead, or part it with aqua fortis.

WASHING Fruit-Trees and Plants, in *Gardening*, the practice of cleaning and removing insects and diseases from them by such means. It is well known that these sorts of trees and plants are very liable to be infested and injured in these ways by many different kinds of insects, and the diseases which are produced by them, as well as in other ways. It has been found greatly useful in destroying and removing the blue insect, the coccus, and the pine-bug, as well as in curing and clearing the trees of the mildew, honeydew, and some other such affections. The blue insect that breeds on the bark of different sorts of wall-trees has been beneficially treated in some cases by simply washing the trees with stale chamber ley, by means of a garden-engine, they being unnailed for the purpose. This has been done in so severe a frost, it is said, that the liquid was soon converted into ice upon the branches, with much seeming advantage. It does not appear, however, that the applying of the liquor in the time of hard frost is absolutely necessary to the success of the method; as trees washed in fresh weather are equally cleaned and cleared by the use of it. When on apple-trees, the brushing and washing with a mixture formed by soft-soap,

soap, sulphur, and the juice of tobacco, in the quantity of about one pound each to eight pints of soft water, has been used also with benefit. They are to be well mixed together, and shaken well when made use of, being applied all over the trees. The insects will be still more completely removed, it is said, if the earth about the roots of the trees be opened, and some of the liquid poured in, the earth being closed after a little time, as they are found to lodge much about the roots of such trees. It is supposed that summer is the most proper time for this operation, as the juices of the trees are then in motion, and appear to be much more easily acted upon, than when they are in a dormant state. If trees should chance to be got which are suspicious, it would, it is thought, be worth while to wash them all over, and soak their roots some length of time in the above mixture, before planting of them in the places where they are intended to stand and grow.

In the removal of the coccus, and some other insects, from old peach-trees, great advantage has occasionally been found from washing them well, after being brushed and cleaned with strong soap-suds, by means of a sponge dipped in them; and then applying the following composition in a liquid state, or in that of a sort of paint: two pounds of the flowers of sulphur, and the same quantity of soft-soap, well mixed together with as much boiling water as is sufficient to make the whole of the consistence of a paint. The trees are to be payed over with this liquid substance, so as not to miss any part of them, whether old wood or new. And it should be suffered to remain on the trees as long as possible, that it may act the more fully, and in the most perfect manner. It may be applied on the trees at any season of the year, but they are probably the most conveniently dressed in this way in the winter months. It is sometimes necessary to repeat the dressing for several seasons.

The wounds in peach, and other kinds of stone fruit-trees, are likewise said to be effectually prevented from canker, by being laid over with the same composition, and then coated over with tar.

Brushing over peach and nectarine trees alone, is said in some cases too, to be effectual in removing insects from them.

The black insect that attacks the young top-shoots of cherry-trees is said to be effectually destroyed by burning the composition directed below, in small pieces, the size of common eggs, under the trees with damp straw, the smoke being made to pass as much as possible where the insects are the most numerous: and soon afterwards washing the trees, where the state of the fruit will admit of it, well by means of the garden-engine, so as to clear away such vermin, and prevent others spreading themselves on the trees: pitch any quantity with a sixteenth part of powdered orpiment, and the same proportion of sulphur, dissolved over a slow fire in an earthen pipkin, until they be well incorporated and mixed together.

In the destruction and prevention of the pine-bug, the method of washing and soaking that is given below has been found very effectual. A small brush is first prepared with bals-mat, tied on a small flock, which is that at the other end, in order to go down to the under end of the leaves where the bugs harbour most. Then with the brush and water they are to be washed and cleaned very well, after which one pound of the flowers of sulphur is to be put into a common garden-pan full of water; but if a little more, there is no danger of hurting the plants: the pine-plants are to be put into this liquid, and let remain for twenty-four hours; taking care that they are all covered,

which may be done best by putting a piece of board over them, with a small weight upon it: when they have been immersed the above length of time, they are to be taken out, and set on end with their tops downwards, in which way they are to stand until quite dry; when they are to be potted in the usual manner, and put separate.

It is not necessary that as much sulphur-liquid should be made up at once as may be sufficient to dress and cure the whole stock of plants; but that as one quantity of plants are finished and come out, it may be prepared, and another put in. It has not, however, been found to lose the effect from standing. If made up and used as the plants become ready at different times, no defect will be found in the cure of the plants. But when made use of in the winter season, it will be advisable to take the chill off the water, and to keep it in a stove; when convenient to be done in the summer time, the plants will, however, take growth sooner and better. It is not thought advisable to apply the cure to fruiting plants; as by shaking off the earth from their roots, and otherwise going through the operation, the fruiting would be injured too much.

The mildew on peach-trees may be kept under, though perhaps not wholly cured, by washing such as are affected with a mixture of sulphur and lime-water. The mode of applying it is by the garden-engine, with a little soap, or any other matter that may tend to separate it from the trees: this mode cleans them at the time, but it does not prevent the recurrence of the disease. The disease has been successfully prevented, too, it is said, by picking off the diseased leaves as they appeared; and the points of any shoots affected being dipped in water in which black soap was dissolved, they being afterwards well dredged by means of a bellows-pluff, filled with sulphur, and occasionally mixed with Scotch snuff. This work is to be performed in the evening, and the matters washed off with the engine or squirt and water in the ensuing evening, if the state of the trees, in respect to flowering or ripe fruit, do not forbid it. But the disease is to be strictly watched and checked in its first appearance.

The green and blue flies that appear, especially on plum-trees, a few days after the honeydew comes on, may often be got rid of by washing and watering the trees two or three times a week, in a perfect and plentiful manner, when the weather is dry; and while this dew continues upon the trees, adding a little common salt, and a quantity of the decoction of common broom to the water. This mixture, it is said, effectually kills the flies, without injuring the trees, provided that too great a quantity of salt be not added. It is beneficial, too, in preventing the breeding of such insects.

There are many other cases, in which washing with such mixtures may be useful. See the *Scotch Horticultural Memoirs*.

WASHING SEED-WHEAT, in *Agriculture*, a term often applied to the practice of rendering it clean for sale, and sowing by the use of pure water, or such as is impregnated with different substances of various kinds. See *STEERING-SEED*, *SWIMMING*, &c.

WASHING SHEEP, in *Agriculture* and *Rural Economy*, the practice of having the wool of these animals cleaned by washing them in clear running water before they are clipped in the summer season. It is observed by the author of a late work on "Agricultural Chemistry," that in washing sheep the use of water containing carbonate of lime should be avoided; as this substance decomposes the yolk of the wool, which is an animal soap, the natural defence of the wool; and that wool often washed in calcareous water becomes

comes rough, and more brittle. The wool in some breeds of sheep, as those of the finer kind, have it in larger quantity than others. See SHEEP and YOLK.

WASHING Machine. See LAUNDRY.

WASHINGTON, GEORGE, in *Biography*, first president of the United States, the descendant of a respectable family in the north of England, was born in February 1732, on an estate in Westmoreland county, Virginia, on which his great-grandfather, John Washington, settled, after his emigration from England, about the year 1657. Having lost his father when he was about ten years of age, his advantages of education were inconsiderable; but he acquired a sufficient knowledge of mathematics to qualify him for a land-surveyor. In his youth he was grave and thoughtful, regular and diligent in the management of the business assigned him, dignified in his deportment, and exemplary and honourable in his whole conduct. Ardent in his temper, he manifested, at the age of fifteen, an inclination to enter into the British navy, and the place of a midshipman was procured for him; but his mother diverted him from his purpose. In his nineteenth year he was nominated one of the adjutants-general of Virginia, with the rank of major; and in 1753 he was entrusted with a commission which required prudence and resolution. At this time the French were projecting a communication between Canada and Louisiana by a chain of forts, which would have confined the English to the east side of the Alleghany mountains. Washington was the bearer of a letter of remonstrance to the French from Mr. Dinwiddie, the governor of Virginia. He executed the business committed to him, and returned in seventy-eight days. As the French persisted in their plans, the assembly of Virginia raised a body of three hundred men for the protection of their frontiers, and appointed Washington lieutenant-colonel. Hostilities commenced, though war was not declared between Great Britain and France; and Washington, with a detachment of his regiment, falling in with a party of French, surprised and made them all prisoners, after their commander was killed. With an augmentation of force, he proceeded for the purpose of dislodging the French from fort Duquesne; but receiving intelligence that a large force was approaching, he fell back into a stockaded fort, which he had previously erected at a place called Great Meadows, where he was attacked by the enemy. However he defended his post, incompletely fortified, for a whole day, and capitulated with the French commander upon honourable terms.

In 1755 war actually took place, and general Braddock was sent to command in America. Washington, now a colonel, offered to accompany him as a volunteer; and notwithstanding a severe illness, made haste to join the army. The carnage of the day was dreadful, and proved fatal to the general and many of his officers and men; but Washington maintained the most perfect self-possession, notwithstanding the scene he witnessed, and the personal danger to which he was exposed. He brought back the shattered remnant of the army; and his countrymen generally thought, that if he had had the command, instead of a man who was unacquainted with the Indian mode of fighting, the disaster would have been prevented. The assembly of Virginia determined, after the withdrawal of all the regular troops, to raise sixteen companies for the defence of their frontiers, and they entrusted the command with Washington; such was the degree of reputation which he had acquired at his early age! His situation was trying and perilous, an extensive frontier being open to the incursions of a savage enemy; he recommended more vigorous measures, and at length,

when fort Duquesne was evacuated by the French, in 1758, in consequence of the successes of the British troops in the northern colonies, the back-settlements of the southern were secured. When this service was accomplished, Washington retired from the military service with the cordial esteem of his countrymen, and with tokens of respect from the officers of the British army. Soon afterwards he married Mrs. Custis, an amiable and opulent widow; and by the death of an elder brother he obtained an estate on the Potomack, called Mount Vernon, whither he removed, and commenced the life of a country-gentleman; sedulously improving his property by his agricultural skill, exercising the office of judge of the court in the county where he resided, and attending as a representative in the house of burgesses of Virginia. This was the honourable and useful life he led for fifteen years. But after the peace of 1763, contests commenced between the American colonies and the British legislature; and Washington determined in the assembly of Virginia to oppose the claim of the parent-state to a right of taxing its colonies. Accordingly he was elected a member of the first congress, which assembled at Philadelphia in 1774. He was a member of all the committees appointed for arranging measures of defence; and when it was determined to raise a general army, the arduous office of commander-in-chief was unanimously conferred upon him by the deputies of the twelve united colonies, to which Georgia afterwards acceded. He with becoming modesty and diffidence accepted the office, but declined all pecuniary compensation, desiring only the payment of his expenses.

On his first assuming the command, the American army consisted of about 14,500 men, entrenched at different posts near Boston, and opposed to the British army on Bunker's-hill. An army like that of the Americans, consisting of raw recruits, enlisted for a limited time, and furnished by different colonial governments, and very indifferently provided with arms, ammunition, and stores, afforded a discouraging prospect to its commander, and required the exercise of singular talents. Washington seemed to possess such talents. Accordingly, notwithstanding all disadvantages, he was enabled, in March 1776, to commence active operations against the British army at Boston, by fortifying the heights of Dorchester, which commanded both the lines and harbour. The British were soon reduced to the necessity of quitting Boston and removing to Halifax; and the American general was welcomed at the former place as a deliverer. When general Howe, with a strong force, took possession of Staten island, the Americans were posted on Long island, under general Sullivan; but in August they were attacked and defeated with great slaughter. Washington was in the city of New York, endeavouring to preserve and rally the troops that had escaped in a dispirited state from this conflict. But being unequal to a successful resistance to the victorious army, he withdrew from New York to the interior of the country, and having retreated through the Jerseys, found himself at the head of no more than 7000 men. However, he maintained his self-possession and firmness, and determined to retaliate. The first object of his attack was a body of Hessians, stationed at Trenton. Crossing the Delaware, and hastening towards the town, he took them by surprise, and about nine hundred of them laid down their arms, besides others that were killed and wounded. This success was peculiarly fortunate, as the Americans dreaded the ferocity of the Hessians, and their spirits were thus roused to new exertions. Washington gained also an advantage over the British at Prince-town, and by these bold movements they were

obliged to abandon all their posts except two, which they retained to the southward of New York. Sir William Howe commenced the campaign of 1777 with attempts to bring the American army to action; but Washington, apprized of his design, evaded it by his manœuvres. Philadelphia was the next object to which the views of the British were directed: the American commander posted himself on Brandy-wine creek, in order to dispute their passage; and finding it necessary to risk a battle, he suffered a defeat, and was under a necessity of leaving the passage to Philadelphia open to the enemy. Having been reinforced, he made an attack upon the British troops at German-town, but was repulsed with loss, and took up his winter-quarters at Valley-forge, about 25 miles from Philadelphia. The events of this year had proved disastrous, and Washington experienced many difficulties in providing food and clothing for his army; and the people became discontented, alleging, in a tone of loud complaint, the success of general Gates, and the surrender of Burgoyne, as a contrast against his want of success. His patience and forbearance were invincible; he justified his conduct, and evinced his patriotism, by not yielding to a faction at such a critical period. The public voice, however, was in his favour, and thus supported, he determined to persevere. With the commencement of the year 1778, Washington concerted measures with Congress for ameliorating the whole military system. Washington has been called the American Fabius; but enterprising as his own spirit was, he was obliged by circumstances to assume this character. The alliance with France very much improved the situation of the Americans; this obliged the British army to evacuate Philadelphia, and their retreat was harassed, as much as possible, by the vigilance and activity of Washington. By a partial action at Monmouth court-house, they lost some men, and then pursued their march to Sandy-Hook. Washington received the thanks of Congress for his activity in this combat, whilst general Lee incurred censure, and was suspended from his command for a year by the sentence of a court-martial. Washington retired to New Jersey; and by his conciliatory manners and address compromised the differences that subsisted between the Americans and their French auxiliaries.

During the campaigns of 1779 and 1780, no great occasion presented itself for the display of Washington's military talents. The Americans had derived confidence in their expectation of ultimate success from the alliance and co-operation of France. The year 1781 commenced with a mutiny in the Pennsylvanian line of the army, which was occasioned by the inattention of Congress to the redress of their grievances. Washington on this occasion acted with great wisdom, and left the matter in litigation to be settled by the civil authorities, which granted their principal demands. But when the same mutinous spirit was extended to the Jersey brigade, he thought it right to interpose; and by a punishment of the ringleaders, the others were restored to their duty. He took this occasion of urging the different states to make exertions for removing the causes of discontent among the troops. This was a year that called for extraordinary activity. The British were pushing forward their successes with uncommon ardour in the southern provinces, and Virginia was experiencing the calamities of war. Washington was urged to defend his native province; but he knew no private interest in this general contest; and regarding America, rather than any particular district, as his country, he would not be induced to abandon his central post. It was now determined to combine the operations of the American and French forces, and the first object in contemplation was the siege of New York. But this measure

VOL. XXXVII.

was afterwards changed for that of an attempt against the army of lord Cornwallis, posted at York-town. Whilst Washington and Rochambeau kept up the deception of a design against New York, by passing Clinton's army without molestation, and marching by Philadelphia to Williamsburgh, the land and naval forces made an united attack upon the British troops at York-town. Their gallant commander was compelled to surrender his whole force on October 19, which event, in fact, terminated the war on the American continent. Its importance was such in the opinion of Washington, that he issued an order on the following day, that all under arrest should be pardoned and set at liberty, and that a thanksgiving service should be performed with due seriousness in the different brigades and divisions. He then returned, with the greatest part of the army, to the vicinity of New York. The British parliament, at an early period of the year 1782, declared its sense of the impolicy of the war by a vote against further offensive measures. Washington, however, with his customary precaution, urged the necessity of remaining fully prepared for another campaign; but in the course of the year the preliminaries were signed, and the independence of America fully recognized. Discontents prevailed in the army, under an apprehension that its claims for past services would be neglected; and, as an expression of such existing discontents, inflammatory addresses were circulated among the troops. Washington on this occasion exercised his conciliatory powers with wonderful effect. He cautioned the officers, individually, to avoid intemperate measures; and then, at a general meeting convoked by himself, he delivered to them an address, which produced an unanimous determination to trust their cause to the justice of Congress and their country. On the other side, Washington thought it his duty to urge Congress to make an adequate compensation to those who had so well served their country, and his advice was duly regarded. When the army was disbanded, in November 1783, their commander-in-chief took his leave of them by a most affectionate and admonitory address. He also, in the same month, made a public entry into New York, and soon after took a solemn leave of all his officers. The scene is described as equally tender and dignified. "The manly demeanour of the chief, softened by sensibility, filled every eye with tears. After grasping the hand of each in silence, he proceeded to the place of embarkation, followed by the officers in mute procession, with dejected countenances. On entering the barge he turned to his companions in arms, and waved his hat as a last adieu. Many answered with their tears; and all kept their eyes upon him till he was no longer distinguishable. On his way to Annapolis, then the seat of Congress, he delivered to the comptroller at Philadelphia an exact account, in his own hand-writing, of all the public money he had received, the whole amount of which, in eight years, was only between 14 and 15,000*l*. Nothing was charged for personal services. He then proceeded to the Congress, which received him as the greatest and best citizen of the United States. After a suitable address, he resigned his commission into the hands of the president, who in energetic terms expressed the national sense of his high merits. Such were the feelings of public gratitude towards him, that he could have asked nothing which would not readily have been granted; but making no request for himself, his family, or relations, he limited himself to an indirect recommendation to Congress of some young gentlemen without fortune, who had served him as aides-de-camp. He then halted to mount Vernon, where he instantly laid aside the statesman and general for the country gentleman."

Not satisfied with attending merely to his own interest, he took

took pleasure in suggesting and accomplishing any scheme that tended to the improvement of the country. Accordingly, he zealously promoted a plan of inland navigation; and in gratitude for his services, the legislature of Virginia passed an act in order to vest in him 150 shares in the navigation of the rivers James and Potowmac. But this grant he would not accept, as he had resolved to decline all personal recompense for his services; but he consented to the act on condition of appropriating the proceeds to the maintenance of a seminary of learning in the vicinity of each river; which appropriation he confirmed by his last will.

When a general convention was agreed upon for revising the federal system of government, this convention assembled at Philadelphia in 1787, and unanimously chose Washington as president; and when the new form of government was settled, the late commander-in-chief was unanimously elected the first President of the United States, the honour of which election was announced to him at mount Vernon on the 14th of April, 1789. Independently of his reluctance to embark again in the toils of public life, he foresaw peculiar difficulties that would embarrass the measures of government in the first settlement of the American states. Nevertheless, having for many years devoted his time and services to the public cause, he still consulted the welfare of his country, in preference to all considerations of personal tranquillity and retired enjoyment. With these views he accepted the arduous office that had been so honourably assigned to him, and immediately commenced, as he faithfully continued, the discharge of its important duties. "After having steered the vessel of the state," says one of his biographers, "during an unquiet period of eight years, being now in the sixty-sixth year of his age, he thought proper to decline a new election to his high office. He announced this intention in a long and minute address to the people of the United States, replete with the most excellent advice for their future conduct, and the soundest views of their political state. It was a legacy of wisdom, which set the seal to all his past services."—"It was in the beginning of 1797 that Washington resigned his authority to his successor, Mr. Adams; on which occasion, whatever might be the feelings of a few party-zealots, he received abundant proofs of the general esteem and affection. He returned with pleasure to the comforts of domestic life, and resumed his agricultural and literary pursuits. From this state of privacy, however, he was called in the following year by the aggravated injuries of the French rulers, which produced a determination in Congress to arm by sea and land for a defensive war; and in consequence Washington was once more nominated to the chief command of the armies of the United States. The countenance, however, thus assumed, and the subsequent deposition of the Directory by Buonaparte, brought on an accommodation, and all military preparations were at an end."

When the services of this truly "great man," unparalleled perhaps in the history of the world, terminated, his life was hastening to a close. Having exposed himself to the rain, December 13, 1799, in attending to some improvements at mount Vernon, he was seized with an inflammatory affection of the wind-pipe, attended with fever, which baffled the efforts of his physicians, and terminated his life within thirty-five hours after his first seizure, without a struggle, and in the full possession of his reason, in the sixty-eighth year of his age. He left a widow, but no children. We shall close this article with the following delineation of his character by one of his biographers. "His moral and intellectual qualities were so happily blended, that he might seem expressly formed for the part assigned to him on the

theatre of the world. His firm mind, equally inaccessible to the flatteries of hope and the suggestions of despondence, was kept steady by the grand principles of love to his country, and a religious attachment to moral duty. In him even fame, glory, and reputation, were subordinate to the performance of the task imposed upon him; and no one ever passed through the ordeal of power more free from the remotest suspicion of selfish or ambitious designs. Capable of strong and decisive measures when necessary, they were tempered with the lenity which flows from true benevolence. In person he was tall and well proportioned. His form was dignified, and his port majestic. His passions were naturally strong, but he had obtained a full command over them. In the character of his intellect, judgment predominated; to fancy and vivacity he had no pretension; but good sense displayed itself in all that he said or wrote. It was a proof of strong powers of acquisition, that, scanty as his literary education had been, by a careful study of the English language in its best models, he became master of a style at once pure, elegant, and energetic; and few better specimens of public addresses can be shewn than in the products of his pen. Many more brilliant characters appear in the pages of history and biography; scarcely any so thoroughly estimable." Ramfay's and Marshall's Lives of Washington. Gen. Biog.

WASHINGTON, in *Geography*, a county of the United States, in the district of Maine, bounded on the N. by Lower Canada, on the E. by New Brunswick, and on the S. by the Atlantic. The chief town is Machias, which contains 1570 inhabitants. The population of the whole county consists of 7870 persons.—Also, a town of Massachusetts, in the county of Berkshire, containing 942 inhabitants.

WASHINGTON, *Mount*, a town of Massachusetts, in the county of Berkshire, containing 474 inhabitants.

WASHINGTON, a town of New Hampshire, in the county of Cheshire, containing 820 inhabitants.—Also, a town of Vermont, in the county of Orange, containing 1040 inhabitants.—Also, a town of Connecticut, in the county of Litchfield, containing 1575 inhabitants.—Also, a county of New York, which received its present name in 1784, in honour of George Washington, having been before called Charlotte county, when it also included a part of the present state of Vermont. It was organized in 1788 and 1801. It is bounded N. by Essex county, E. by the state of Vermont, S. by Rensselaer and Saratoga counties, and W. by Saratoga and Montgomery. Its form is irregular, being in its greatest length, N. and S. 59 miles, and greatest breadth, 45. The area is about 1612 square miles, or 1,031,680 acres, including the waters. It is situated between 42° 55' and 43° 48' N. lat., and 45° E. and 12° W. long. from New York. It includes 21 towns, of which the capitals are Kingbury and Salem. In 1810 its population consisted of 44,289 persons, and its senatorial electors were 4079. The country round lake George is hilly, and, especially in the northern part, presents summits of 6, 8, 920 to 1100 feet altitude; but the hills are interspersed with valleys, that afford a tolerable good soil for farming. But the southern part contains a large proportion of arable land, with a warm light soil. The agriculture of the southern part of Washington county is very respectable and productive. In the northern part the pine forests supply large quantities of lumber, in logs, square timber, boards, shingles, &c., that descend the Hudson in rafts. Few counties produce more of clothing from household industry. The mineralogy of this county includes slate, limestone, marble, bog iron-ore, lead-ore, and some mineral springs.

springs. Washington sends five members to the house of assembly.

WASHINGTON, a post-township of New York, in Dutchess county; 80 miles S. of Albany; about 7 miles square, and watered by Wappinger's creek. The soil is good for farming, and affords excellent wheat, being under good cultivation. The inhabitants are principally farmers; and there are 80 looms in families, which in 1810 produced 20,750 yards of cloth for common clothing. Near the centre of the township is the handsome village of Mechanic, containing about 20 dwellings, a quaker-meeting, and a school. About 2 miles N.W. from Mechanic is another village, including about 20 houses, a woollen manufactory, and several mills, and called Hartsville. In 1810 the whole population comprised 2854 persons, and 180 electors.

WASHINGTON, a town of New Jersey, in Burlington county, containing 1273 inhabitants.—Also, a town of New Jersey, in Morris county, containing 1793 inhabitants.—Also, a county of Pennsylvania, containing 36,289 inhabitants, of whom 36 are slaves.—Also, a township of Pennsylvania, in the county of Northumberland, containing 438 inhabitants.—Also, a township of Pennsylvania, in the county of York, containing 941 inhabitants.—Also, a township of Pennsylvania, in the county of Franklin, containing 2709 inhabitants.—Also, a township of Pennsylvania, in the county of Indiana, containing 755 inhabitants.—Also, a town of Pennsylvania, in the county of Washington, containing 1301 inhabitants.—Also, a township of Pennsylvania, in the county of Westmoreland, including 1695 inhabitants.—Also, a township of Pennsylvania, in the county of Lycoming, having 675 inhabitants.—Also, a county of Maryland, on the W. coast of the Chesapeake, containing 18,750 inhabitants, of whom 2656 are slaves.—Also, a county of Virginia, bordering on North Carolina, containing 12,136 inhabitants.—Also, a sea-port town of North Carolina, formerly called Bath, situated on the north side of Pamlico river, with a good harbour; 20 miles N.N.E. of Newbern. N. lat. 35° 31'. W. long. 77°.—Also, a county of Ohio, bordering on lake Erie, containing 5991 inhabitants.—Also, a township of Ohio, in the county of Clermont, containing 1527 inhabitants.—Also, a township of Ohio, in Franklin county, including 280 inhabitants.—Also, a township of Ohio, in the county of Miami, containing 787 inhabitants.—Also, a township of Ohio, in the county of Montgomery, including 1584 inhabitants.—Also, a township of Ohio, in Pickaway county, containing 974 inhabitants.—Also, a township of Ohio, in Preble county, containing 440 inhabitants.—Also, a county of Kentucky, including 12,999 inhabitants, of whom 2185 are slaves. Its town of Springfield contains 249 inhabitants, 60 being slaves.—Also, a town of Kentucky, in Mason county. The county contains 11,071 inhabitants, 2065 being slaves; and the town includes 815 inhabitants, 251 being slaves.—Also, a county of North Carolina, containing 3464 inhabitants.—Also, a county of East Tennessee, containing 7740 inhabitants, 850 being slaves.—Also, a county of Georgia, containing 9940 inhabitants, 3513 being slaves.—Also, a town of Georgia, near which is a medicinal spring; 13 miles S.W. of Peterburg. N. lat. 33° 47'. W. long. 82° 16'.—Also, a town of Georgia, in Wilkes county; the county and town containing 14,887 inhabitants, of whom 7666 in the county, and 218 in the town, are slaves.—Also, a county of the Mississippi territory, containing 2920 inhabitants, of whom 900 are slaves.

WASHINGTON, *Town of*, in the territory of Mississippi, containing, together with the city of Natchez and Adams county, 10,002 inhabitants, 459 in Natchez, 182 in Wash-

ington, and 5030 in Adams county being slaves.—Also, a township of Harrison county, in Indiana territory, containing 1257 inhabitants, 6 being slaves.—Also, a city of Columbia, containing 8209 inhabitants, of whom 1437 are slaves. George-town includes 4943 inhabitants, of whom 1162 are slaves. This city is situated on the river Potomack, and intended to be the capital of the United States, and the seat of the Congress. According to the plan, the city is to be divided into squares or grand divisions, by streets intersecting each other from the cardinal points, with diagonal streets from some of the principal parts, as from the president's house to the capitol, and some other points. All houses to be built of brick or stone, with the walls parallel to the streets; and the walls in streets measuring 160 feet in breadth, to be at least 30 feet in height. The area of the capitol, or house for the legislative bodies, is to be situated on an eminence about a mile from the Potomack, and nearly the same distance from the eastern branch. The house for the president to be near the Potomack, within view of the capitol. In different parts of the city, where the principal streets cross each other, are areas in a variety of regular forms; of these fifteen are appropriated to the different states of United America, for the erection of monuments, obelisks, or statues; and on a small eminence, west from the capitol, is to be erected an equestrian statue of general Washington; at the junction of the rivers, a fort is to be erected, with an arsenal and magazines. Most of the streets have been marked out, and the squares divided into lots in the year 1792, since which time some thousand workmen have been constantly employed; 140 miles S.W. of Philadelphia. N. lat. 38° 57'. W. long. 77° 8'.—Also, a county of Columbia, which, exclusive of the city and George-town, contains 2315 inhabitants, 955 being slaves.

WASHINGTON'S *Islands*, islands near the west coast of North America. Captain Dickson discovered these islands in 1787, and called them *Queen Charlotte's Islands*. Captain Gray, of the United States, discovered them in 1789, and called them *Washington's Islands*.

WASHITA, or OUACHITTA, or Ouachitau, called also *Black River*, a river of Louisiana, which is the principal tributary stream of Red river; the latter commencing in the low sandy hills, or Caous mountains, near Santa Fé. Black is now used to designate the united waters of Ouachitau, (properly so called,) Ocatahoolu, and Tenfaw rivers; but Ouachitau having gained a more deserved attention than the other branches, the name of that is used, without impropriety, to designate the valley between the Mississippi, Arkansaw, and Red rivers. This valley is upwards of 350 miles in length, and its broadest part from the Quepa village on Arkansaw, to the heads of Derbene river, 150 wide. It is nearly elliptic in its form, and averages from 70 to 80 miles wide, extending over more than 25,000 square miles of surface, and upwards of 16,000,000 American acres, which contain large tracts of fine arable soil, many places that indicate mineral wealth, and an excellent climate. The principal branch of the Ouachitta takes its source from the mountainous prairies between Red and Arkansaw rivers, about 34° N. lat., and W. long. 95° 30'. The mountains from which it flows are composed of secondary materials: marine exuvia are found every where mixed with the schistus, argillaceous earth, and other matters that compose the face and interior of these rugged mountains. No granitic mass is found; but the whole face of the country indicates marine submersion at some remote period. The Fourche au Cado, Little Missouri, and Saline branches of Ouachitta, rise in the same ridge with the principal stream. The soil round the head of Ouachitta resembles that of the

falt plains of Texas in sterility ; but it improves in quality below the nucleus of the mountains. Indications of metal become more rare, and timber, particularly pine, upland black oak, alh, linden, and logwood, is abundant. The soil is adapted to the culture of small grain, legumes, the potatoes, and almost every plant and herb suitable to the climate. Cotton succeeds on all the arable lands of Ouachitta. Here are also some falt springs of good quality. About N. lat. $35^{\circ} 10'$, Ouachitta is joined by the Saline, and also the Derbene, which rise in N. lat. $32^{\circ} 50'$, and W. long. $92^{\circ} 10'$. About three miles below the Derbene the river Barthelemy falls into it. The last and largest branch of Ouachitta is the Rivière aux Bœufs, or Ox river, which rises in the angle formed between the Missour and the Arkansaw. Below the mouth of the Bœuf river, all the waters which form the Ouachitta being united, the river, though apparently not longer than 200 miles above, becomes much deeper, and may be navigated at all seasons. In this situation, on the same side with Bœuf, Sicily island rises from the bank of Ouachitta. The hill of Sicily is very fruitful, its surface being a black loam. On this island are several settlements. Fourteen miles below the Bœuf, the Ouachitta loses its name by its union with the rivers Tenfaw and Ocatahoolu. The united stream is hence called Black river, which, after a short and very winding course of thirty miles, unites with Red river. Its banks are very fertile, its width about 200 yards, the current gentle, and the water throughout the year deep enough for large boats. Thirty miles below the mouth of Black river, the Red river joins the Mississippi. Red river rises about thirty or forty miles east of Santa Fé, about N. lat. 37° , and W. long. 105° ; and having pursued a course S.E. by E. 450 miles, receives the Falt Ouachitta from the N. This latter river rises in the Caous mountains, N. of Red river, and is a beautiful stream nearly as large. These two rivers form a junction at a small distance below the Panis, or Towiache towns, and about 70 miles lower down receives the Blue river from the N. This latter issues from the Caous mountains, and runs in a course nearly parallel to the Falt Ouachitta. The united waters of these rivers form Red river, now a large stream, turbid and brackish from the waters of Red river, properly so called, and Blue river. The immense column of water brought down by the various streams that form Red river, causes it to overflow its banks during the spring floods. About N. lat. 33° , a chain of lakes commences on each side, near to or farther from the river; and these lakes are the natural deposit of the water, which would otherwise overflow the whole country. The beds of these lakes are much lower than that of the channel of the river. When the waters have been drained by the depression of the river in the fall months, the beds of most of these lakes become dry, and exhibit a meadow of succulent herbage, with channels for the water that continues meandering through them. The Red river enters the Mississippi in N. lat. $31^{\circ} 1'$, and W. long. $91^{\circ} 45'$; and if the Atchafalaya be considered as the continuation of the Red river, it leaves the Mississippi three miles below. See Darby's Description of Louisiana; Philadelphia, 1816.

WASHMINSKER ISLANDS, a cluster of islands near the fourth coast of Labrador. N. lat. 50° . W. long. 60° .
WASIGNY, a town of France, in the department of the Ardennes; 9 miles N. of Rethel.

WASILAX, a town of Sweden, in North Finland; 55 miles S.E. of Björneborg.

WASILISKI, a town of Lithuania; 16 miles S.W. of Lida.

WASILKOW, a town of Lithuania; 30 miles S.W. of Grodno.

WASKEMASHIN, an island in the gulf of St. Lawrence, near the coast of Labrador. N. lat. $50^{\circ} 3'$. W. long. $50^{\circ} 56'$.

WASKLOT, a small island on the east side of the gulf of Bothnia. N. lat. $63^{\circ} 6'$. E. long. $21^{\circ} 20'$.

WASKUACHAOUIPIOU, a river of Canada, which runs into the Saguenay, N. lat. $48^{\circ} 20'$. W. long. $70^{\circ} 18'$.

WASMA, a town of Sweden, in the province of Smaland; 7 miles S.S.W. of Calmar.

WASMUT, a town of Prussia, in the province of Oberland; 14 miles S. of Marienwerder.

WASP, in *Natural History*. See **VESPA**.

Wasps are not unfrequently dangerous and hurtful to many forts of animals by their sting, in consequence of the pain and irritation that are thereby produced. The best remedies in these cases are probably the full use of ammoniated vinegar, or saturnine wasps, as cold as possible to the parts, keeping them constantly wet with them by means of cloths wrung out of them. Such insects are, however, capable of being destroyed in many different ways, as by finding their works and retreats, and smoking them well with any combustible material, but especially sulphur: by putting cyder, verjuice, wine, or any other four or sweet liquid, into short-necked phials, many of them may be readily taken and destroyed; and by laying treacle, sweet apples, or any such substances, in earthen dishes, mixed with a little water, or of any liquid of which they are fond, great numbers of them may be exterminated without difficulty. When pieces of lighted brimstoned rags are thrust into the nests and holes formed by wasps, they should be immediately covered by the foot, or with earth, when they will be speedily destroyed without any efcaping.

In the garden-culture of various kinds of fruit, as well as in the hot-house, viney, and other such houses, wasps are often particularly troublesome, destructive, and rapacious; it is of course necessary to destroy them, and to prevent the means of their depredations in many cases. The best and most effectual means of getting quit of them is that of destroying their nests, which is effected simply by noticing the course of their flight from the garden or place in a quiet sunny day, and pursuing them as far as they can be seen flying, then waiting until others pass, and doing the same until they reach their habitations. The place being thus found and marked, in the evening when they are all in, a lantern and candle, with a match of damped gunpowder, made into a roll on the end of a small piece of wood, is to be provided; it is lighted when at the nest, and burns like a squib, when it is introduced into the hole leading to the nest, the foot being put on it for a few minutes. The ground is then dug until the works are seen, when the whole is wrought together like mortar by means of water. In case the nest happens to be on a bush or tree, the match is put below it, when the wasps soon fall stupified to the ground, and are destroyed without difficulty.

In this way, wasps' nests, in one season, have, it is said, been destroyed to the amount of more than fifty, within the distance of three hundred yards of a garden, and without getting a single sting, or passing a single wasp. They thus diminish every year in number, and if the same method were generally used, there is not the smallest doubt, that much fine fruit would be preserved, and at the same time many honey bees saved, which are now much destroyed by wasps.

By the common mode of hanging up phials against trees and other objects, many wasps may be taken and destroyed too, but the hive is still breeding more: large white glass vessels

vessels of this sort are, however, very useful for destroying the large black flies, which are also so destructive of peaches. Putting a little jam or jelly into them is found to have a good effect in enticing them to enter such bottles.

Cherries, strawberries, raspberries, gooseberries, plums, and many other sorts of fruit, are frequently almost instantly destroyed, as they become ripe and ready for use, by the voracity of wasps.

The prevention of wasps from entering hot-houses, vine-ries, and other houses, where fine fruit is raised, and committing their voracious depredations, has been attempted in different ways, as lately by covering them with a kind of cloth, which is called *serme*, that is found by experience in repeated trials to answer the purpose extremely well. The cloth is made in the form of a sheet or sail to suit the dimensions of the houses, and is bound round the outsidings with a sort of tape. Barking it, as in fish-nets, would be serviceable, but it will do without it. The cloth is about a yard in width, and costs eight-pence or nine-pence the yard. Another kind, a little different, is higher priced.

As soon as the grapes are beginning to ripen, or the wasps make their appearance, it is time to put on the cloth, which is done with small tacks, and only in such a manner as will let the wasps go up and down freely; the cloth will not need to come any farther down than the bottoms of the top sashes. The cloth is so very thin, that it will permit plenty of air to pass, without the wasps attempting to go through. It does not exclude much sun, nor will it hurt the grapes in the smallest degree.

When the hot-house or vine-ry stands by itself, or in the middle of a range, the manner of preventing the wasps from getting in when the door is opened, or when any person is passing from one house to another, is this. The cover being fastened at the top of the door with small tacks, as upon the outside roof, and the sides of it upon small hooked wires, is thus capable of being taken off at one side in such cases; and if the door be wanted to stand open for the sake of air at any time, the same purpose will be answered.

In case the house has sashes in front, the cloth may be nailed upon the outside or inside, according as the sashes shift by the hand, or are drawn up and down by a rope, still giving plenty of air as wanted. A single wasp has never been seen, it is said, to attempt to get in by the tops of the glass.

Various ways are attempted and practised of keeping wasps from grapes. The bunches of grapes are sometimes put in paper-bags; but the exclusion of air causes them to damp off. Gauze bags are also occasionally put upon them, which are still more expensive, and give a good deal of trouble. The above method, however, affords free air and free access at all times, and preserves the grapes in good order: besides, it is pleasant for the owner or others to go into the vine-ry and pull the grapes without being molested by wasps, rather than having it to resemble a hive of bees with the buzzing that is produced by them.

As soon as the fruit is all cut or pulled, the cloth should be taken off, well washed, and then kept in a dry place until wanted again.

Another method of effecting the same purpose, which is perhaps better and more ready in some cases, is that of wire-grates or frames. Where the glass in vine-ries is cross-putted, frames or grates are made three feet square for the top and bottom of every third sash, the sashes being all moveable: these frames or grates are formed so as exactly to fit in between the rafters, and are placed so as that the sashes can move up and down over them, and that there

may not be so much vacuity between them and the frames as to admit a wasp, a groove is cut on the under side of the upper bar of each sash, to admit the rope by which the sashes are hung. When it comes in contact with the under part of the wire-grate or frame next to the wall-plate, there is an aperture to admit the pulley; the end of which inclines downward from the run of the sash, in order to give room for the rope and pulley to work with freedom in opening and shutting.

The frame is made of fir-wood well seasoned to prevent its warping, and is an inch and a quarter thick; the sides and lower end are two inches, and the upper end, where the pulley is inserted, is six inches in breadth. The open space is covered with wire of the size number seventeen, worked about one-eighth of an inch asunder, and inserted into the wood at both ends. There are cross-wires of the size number five, placed at six inches distance from each other, to which the longitudinal wires are warped, in order to keep them firm. In each of the frames, holes are made with small wire turned down, similar, in some measure, to those in the entrance into wire mouse-traps. At these, large phials half filled with four beer are placed. The wasps are eager to get into the grapes by every possible means of entry, and are next enticed by the beer to get into the phials, where they perish in numbers.

The frames or grates are constructed in this open manner in order to admit the air freely, as it is of great importance, especially in the ripening of fruit.

These frames are capable of being made at a very trifling expence; and as they are in use but a very short time in a season, the cost of making new ones will but seldom recur.

WASP-Fly, a species of fly having very much the external figure of a wasp, but harmless, without a sting, and with only two wings.

It is black and yellow on the body, and marked exactly as the wasp, and is produced from a species of the rat-tailed fly-worms. See *DRONE-fly*.

But beside these there is another small fly produced of the pucer-on-eaters, which has extremely the appearance of a small wasp; but is perfectly harmless, and has only two wings. Reaumur, *Hist. Inf.* vol. iv. p. 486.

WASP-Tipula, the name of an insect described by M. Reaumur, and being properly a tipula, or long-legs, though greatly resembling a wasp.

This is produced of a worm found in the earth, lodged in the cavities of old trees; the worm has no legs, but has a regularly figured scaly head. The fly produced from it has the long legs and the mouth of the tipula, with the remarkable double beard which covers it, and which makes the real character of this class of insects; but then the body is short and thick, whereas the bodies of the common kinds are very bony and thin. This, as also the breast, is variegated with streaks of black and yellow, in the manner of the wasp; and its antennæ are very beautifully feathered, and bearded like those of the males of many of the gnat-kind. The head is black, and the legs are yellowish. The wings have a yellowish cast, and near their end have each a large spot of brown. The body of the female of this species is always much thicker than that of the male; and the sexes are easily distinguished by this. Reaumur, *Hist.* of *Inf.* vol. ix. p. 19.

WASS ISLAND, in *Geography*, an island of the Atlantic, near the coast of America. N. lat. 44° 28'. W. long. 67° 30'.

WASSAB, or *WARSHABS*, a country of Africa, on the Gold Coast; the soil is barren, but abounds in gold.

WASSAIL,

WASSAIL, or WAS-HEAL, the salutation of our ancestors on occasion of drinking to each other, signifying "health be to you."

The term is purely Saxon; and though it is now used in a very limited sense, and only at the time of Christmas, it anciently signified mirth and festivity in general; and in this sense it occurs in Shakspere's Hamlet and Macbeth. Dr. Percy also uses it in a general sense; and Ben Jonson personifies Waffel, as "a Songster," &c. In the "Ordinances for the Royal Household," published by the Society of Antiquaries, there is a curious account of the ceremony of waffelling at court on twelfth night in the reign of Henry VII. "When the steward cometh in at the doore with the waffel, he must crie three times, 'waffel, waffel, waffel,' and then the chaplain was to answer with a good fonge."

In the 1st vol. of the Antiquarian Repertory is an account and engraving of an oaken chimney-piece in a very old house at Bexley in Kent, on which is carved a waffel-bowl, resting on the branches of an apple-tree. On one side is the word *Wassail*, and on the other *Senebille*. This is at least as old as the 14th century.

Grofe, in his Provincial Glossary, says, that the custom of throwing toast, and pouring out libations to apple-trees for proving a fruitful year, which seems to be a relic of the heathen sacrifice to Pomona, was called "Waffel:" the term is still applied to the drinking-fongs sung in the cyder-counties on the eve of Epiphany, when that ceremony is performed.

In Holderness, and other parts of Yorkshire, and probably in other counties, it is the custom to carry about with the waffel-cup an image of our Saviour, together with a quantity of roasted apples. The image seems to have been connected with waffelling originally, and to have become an appendage to the waffel-cup. Hence this ancient custom has been restricted to the convivial season of Christmas. But the apples seem to have been connected with it at a much earlier period. The custom also of roasting apples on Christmas eve still continues in some districts. The origin of the term waffel is traced to the story of Vortigern and Rowena, the daughter of Hengist. On their first interview, she knelt before him, and presenting a cup of wine, said, *Hlaford Kyning, Waes-beil*, i. e. Lord king, health be to you! The king being unacquainted with the Saxon language, asked the meaning of the terms, and being told that they wished his health, and that he should answer by saying *drinc beil*; he did so, and commanded her to drink: then taking the cup, he kissed the damsel and pledged her. From this time the custom long remained in Britain, that whoever drank to another at a feast said *Wacht beil*, and he that received the cup answered *drinc beil*. The *waffel-fongs* were sung during the festivities of Christmas, and in earlier times by the itinerant minstrels; of whom, with the practice, some remains may be traced in our present *waits and carols*. One of them is preserved in the British Museum. (Bib. Reg. 16. l. viii.) It is an Anglo-Roman drinking-fong, probably older than the 13th century, and composed when the Norman language was familiar in this country. See *Archæology*, vol. xi. p. 411.

WASSAIL-BOWL. See *GRACE-CUP*.

WASSANAH, in *Geography*, a city of Africa, within sight of the river Zolibib (the Joliba of Park), whither the king of Tombuctoo sent a caravan, accompanied by Sidi Hamet; and where they were welcomed by the king, and lodged in a square inclosure, remaining there two moons, and exchanging their goods for slaves, gold, elephants'

teeth; &c. The river, as Sidi Hamet informs us, which passes by Waffanah, is called Zadi; it flows nearly fourth, and is so broad, that a man can scarcely be seen on the opposite bank. On each side is a ridge of mountains, but separated by an interval on both sides from the river. The city appeared to contain twice as many inhabitants as Tombuctoo; it was surrounded by a very large wall, built of great stones loosely piled up; and a whole day was required to walk round it. The country around it is highly cultivated. The houses are constructed of stones without cement, and roofed with reed and palm-leaves. The king of Waffanah is called Oleekov; he is tall and young; his palace is very large, square, and high, built of stone, with a species of cement. He was said to have 150 wives, and 10,000 slaves; he has also a large army, which fight with guns, spears, bows, and arrows. When he goes out he rides on a huge beast called *il fement* (elephant), and is attended by 200 guards. The people are not Mussulmans, but addicted to various Pagan superstitions; for which reasons, though they are honest, hospitable, and kind-hearted, Sidi Hamet allows the pious wish "that they may soon be driven out of the goodly land." The inhabitants catch many fish; they have boats made of large trees, hollowed out, and capable of holding ten, fifteen, or twenty negroes; and the king told Sidi Hamet that he was soon to take sixty boats and 500 slaves to the great water, where he should sell them to a pale people in large boats, with muskets, powder, tobacco, blue cloth, knives, &c. He said it was a long way, and would take him three moons to get there, and that he should be gone twenty moons before he could return, but that he should then be very rich. Some persons who had seen these pale people, and used to deal with them for slaves and teeth, said, that they lived in great boats, and had guns as big as their bodies, that made a noise like thunder, and would kill all the people in 100 negro boats, if they went too near them. Sidi Hamet said in this place during the months of March and April; and it rained incessantly. Sidi Hamet's narrative, if authentic, is important, in a variety of respects. The description of Tombuctoo (which see) corresponds to that of Adams. We may say the fame of the name Zolibib, answering to the Joliba of Park, Gallu, or Julbi, of Horneman. Horneman also states, that this river on the eastern part of its course is called Zadi, and it there turns rapidly northwards. On the whole, the presumption seems to be in favour of the narration, and it certainly opens very interesting views of the interior of Africa. See Riley's Narrative of his Capture and Adventures in 1815, in Murray's Historical Account of Discoveries and Travels in Africa, vol. i. 8vo. 1817.

WASSAW ISLAND, *Great*, an island in the Atlantic, near the coast of Georgia, 16 miles in circumference. N. lat. 32° 52'. W. long. 81° 8'.

WASSAW ISLAND, *Little*, an island in the Atlantic, near the coast of Georgia, to the south-west of Great Waffaw.

WASSAW SOUND, a bay on the coast of Georgia, between Great Waffaw island and Tybee island.

WASSELLA, a country of Africa, bounded on the north and west by Mandinga and Bambarra, on the east by Kong, and on the south by Guinea. N. lat. 10° 50' to 12° 20'. W. long. 4° 50' to 5° 45'.

WASSEMBERG, a town of France, in the department of the Roer, on the Roer; 9 miles E.S.E. of Ruremond. N. lat. 51° 4'. E. long. 6° 6'.

WASSEN, a town of Switzerland, in the canton of Uri; 13 miles S. of Altorf.

WASSEN'S

WASSEN's Bay, a bay on the east coast of Cochinchina. N. lat. $12^{\circ} 5'$. E. long. $109^{\circ} 6'$.

WASSEN's Point, a cape on the east coast of Cochinchina, and south boundary of Wasfen's bay. N. lat. $12^{\circ} 3'$.

WASSERBILICH, a town of France, in the department of the Forests, at the union of the Sour and Moselle; 15 miles N.E. of Luxembourg.

WASSERBURG, a town and lordship of Germany, belonging to the family of Fugger, situated on a projected point of land in the lake of Constance; 1 mile N. of Buchorn.—Also, a town of Bavaria, with a castle and four churches; the chief trade is in salt; 38 miles W.N.W. of Salzburg. N. lat. $48^{\circ} 3'$. E. long. $12^{\circ} 15'$.

WASSERLEBEN, a town of Germany, in the county of Wernigerode; 4 miles N.W. of Wernigerode.

WASSER-MUNGENAU, a town of the marggravate of Anspach; 4 miles S.E. of Windsbach.

WASSERNDORF, or WECHSELDORF, a town of Germany, in the lordship of Seinhelm; 3 miles S.E. of Mark Breit.

WASSERTRUDINGEN, a town of Germany, in the principality of Anspach, on the Wernitz; 13 miles S. of Anspach. N. lat. $49^{\circ} 2'$. E. long. $10^{\circ} 35'$.

WASSIGNY, a town of France, in the department of the Aisne; 16 miles N. of Vervins.

WASSIHOO, a small town of Africa, in the kingdom of Ludamar, in N. lat. $14^{\circ} 45'$, where the cultivation of corn is carried on to such an extent, that hunger is never known; men and women labouring in concert; 75 miles E.S.E. of Benowm.

WASSILT, a town on the east coast of Gilolo. N. lat. $1^{\circ} 17'$. E. long. $128^{\circ} 6'$.

WASSLONNE, a town of France, in the department of the Lower Rhine; 12 miles W. of Strasbourg.

WAST, a town of France, in the department of the Straits of Calais; 9 miles E. of Boulogne.

WASTARA, a town of Hindoostan, in Bednore; 15 miles W.S.W. of Sacrapatam.

WASTSCHEID, a town of France, in the department of the Meurte; 6 miles S.E. of Sarrebourg.

WASTE, or WAST, *Vastum*, in Law, has divers significations.

It is used for a spoil, made either in houses, woods, lands, &c. by the tenants for life, or for years, to the prejudice of the heir, or of him in reversion, or remainder.

Waste is either voluntary, as by pulling down a house; or permissive, as by suffering it to fall for want of necessary repairs. Whatever does lasting damage to the freehold or inheritance is waste: therefore the removing of waincot, floors, or other things, once fixed to the freehold of a house, is waste.

Waste may also be committed in ponds, dove-houses, warrens, and the like; by so reducing the number of erections therein, that there will not be sufficient for the reversioner when he comes to the inheritance. To cut down trees that are deemed timber, as oak, ash, and elm, and other trees generally used in building, or to lop them, or do any other act by which the timber may decay, is waste. The conversion of land from one species to another is waste; and also to convert one species of edifice into another, even though it is improved in its value. To open the land to search for mines of metal, coal, &c. is waste; and, in general, whatever tends to the destruction, or depreciating the value, of the inheritance, is constituted by the law as waste.

In consequence of the statute of Marlbridge, 52 Hen. III. cap. 23. and that of Gloucester, 6 Edw. I. cap. 5. all tenants for life, or for any less estate, are punishable or liable to be impeached for waste, both voluntary and permissive; unless their leases be made, as sometimes they are, without impeachment of waste, *absque impetitione wastii*; that is, with a provision or protection that no man shall impetere or sue them for waste committed.

The punishment for waste committed was, by common law and the statute of Marlbridge, only single damages, except in the case of a guardian in chivalry, who also forfeited his wardship by the provisions of the great charter, 9 Hen. III. cap. 4. But the statute of Gloucester directs, that tenants in dower, by courtesy, for life, and for years, shall lose and forfeit the place in which the waste is committed, and also treble damages, to him that hath the inheritance. For this purpose a writ of waste is brought by him who hath the immediate estate of inheritance in reversion or remainder, calling upon the tenant to appear and shew cause why he hath committed waste; and if the defendant makes default, or doth not appear at the day assigned him, then the sheriff, with a jury of twelve men, is to go to the place alleged to be wasted, and there inquire of the waste done, and the damages; and make a return or report to the court, upon which report the judgment is founded. But if the defendant appears, and afterwards suffers judgment to go against him by default, or upon a *nihil dicit*, this amounts to a confession of the waste; and the sheriff shall then only make inquiry of the quantum of damages. When the waste and damages are thus ascertained, by confession, verdict, or inquiry of the sheriff, judgment is given, in pursuance of the statute of Gloucester, cap. 5, that the plaintiff shall recover the place wasted, for which he has immediately a writ of seisin, and also that he shall recover treble the damages assessed by the jury.

The redress of this injury of waste is also preventive, by writ of estrepement: and, besides, the courts of equity, upon bill exhibited therein, complaining of waste and destruction, will grant an injunction to stay waste, until the defendant shall have put in his answer, and the court shall thereupon make farther order: which is now become the most usual way of preventing waste. Blackst. Com. book ii. book iii. &c.

Waste is also taken for those lands which are not in any man's occupation, but lie common.

They seem to be so called, because the lord cannot make such profit of them as of his other lands; by reason of the use others have thereof, for passing to and fro. Upon this none may build, cut down trees, dig, &c. without the lord's licence.

Much land of this kind is met with in almost every district of the kingdom, which is very capable of being converted to a state of profitable cultivation without any very great expence, after it has been inclosed. The whole extent of the land yet in the state of waste is very considerable, and stated by different writers, as drawn from the best authorities, at upwards of six millions of acres, four of which at least are supposed capable of being brought into cultivation for the growth of crops of the most useful kinds.

It has been suggested by the writer of an excellent paper on the "production and consumption of corn, &c." in the fifth volume of Communications to the Board of Agriculture, that if this addition of land were cultivated, it would very much extend the productive territory of the country, and that as it must be cultivated chiefly for tillage, would

be a timely and desirable addition to the corn land of the kingdom.

It is, of course, a question of much general interest and importance, whether a considerable portion of the capital employed in the enclosure and improvement of waste land, may not often be more beneficially applied in the amelioration of land already in a state of partial cultivation.

The scarcity of corn, which prevailed throughout the kingdom a few years since, acted, however, it is said, as a powerful stimulus to the enclosure and improvement of waste land in this country, and that the spirit which was then excited has not yet by any means subsided. And it is now perhaps still more necessary, as affording a means of providing a large increase of productive labour for a portion of the working class of society. As there is now a great deal less than a sufficiency of labour for the demand of the country, it would probably be politic in the state to convert a part of such unrequired portion of it to the means of extending the culture and fertility of the territory of the nation. It has been properly suggested, that new land ought not to be improved at the expence, or by the neglect of the old, but in addition to it, and from new resources.

In a subject of this kind, particular circumstances must be regarded. In some waste lands, from their situations and the quality of their soils, they are capable of being brought into a state of high cultivation and improvement, with comparatively but little labour and expence; while, in others, the circumstances are such as to render any attempts at the amelioration of them productive of great expence, and probably of but little profit. Indeed the same quantity of labour and expence which would be necessary to divide and cultivate them, would in all probability raise a much larger proportion of produce, if applied to lands already enclosed, but in an imperfectly cultivated state.

It is remarked, by the able writer of an agricultural report of a northern district, in support of improving waste land, that as there is reason to believe that many landlords, or proprietors of ground, do not advert to the gain of improving such wastes, it may be proper to state it, and to shew that in no other way can money be laid out to such advantage. Whenever it is laid out with judgment, as it always may and ought, the risk is less and the gain greater, it is said, than in manufactures or in commerce. The improver of land is, in the first place, free of all hazard; and in the next place, may be supposed, in general, to gain at least twelve or twenty *per cent.* upon his outlays. The average expence of removing the wetness or improving waste ground is commonly estimated, it is said, to be under three pounds the acre. Now if by these three pounds, land worth only from one shilling to three shillings is raised to fifteen or twenty shillings, the improver has at the lowest rate twelve *per cent.* for his money; or, in other words, by laying out three pounds, he adds fifteen pounds to his stock, as every shilling *per annum* which the acre is improved, is worth at least twenty-five years' purchase. Inclosing and manuring are not reckoned, as lands already in tillage need these ameliorations as well as those that are yet uncultivated. The only expence peculiar to the improvement of waste lands is, it is said, that of draining and reducing the surface to an arable state; and this, it is believed, was stated fully high, as the value of the improvement is probably stated too low. At least this is generally estimated higher, it is said, wherever it has taken place, as might be shewn in numberless instances throughout the kingdom.

In speaking of the same district, the writer farther observes, that it is often said that the soil and climate are more

adapted for producing grafs than corn, but the truth is, that the soil and climate of the greater part of it are well suited for either; and that wherever toil and skill are exerted in raising either, they are sure of being well rewarded. By suppling grafs should be the great object, ought we not, it is asked, to put more of the land there in a capacity for raising it? The meadows there are bad, but we may, says the writer, mend them; they are few, but we may add to them, and almost to any degree we please, and create both pasture for the summer and provender for the winter. By such improvement of our waste lands, the writer says, and by the introduction of green crops, it is possible enough that in half a century some parts of this district might be made to rear more than double the black cattle or sheep that are reared at present. It is impossible to say what the quantity of waste land in this district, it is said, if improved, might one day be made to produce. It is certain that much of it would be found to be more productive than a great part of what is in tillage at present.

Profitable, however, as this business would entirely turn out, both to the individual and to the public, it is to be regretted, the writer thinks, that they who are able are not often disposed to attempt it. Instead of this, they choose, it is said, to buy more, and to enlarge their quantity of wilderness, rather than to improve what they already have. If they would duly weigh these two different plans, they would probably, it is thought, make a different choice. For it is indeed a common observation in this district, it is said, that proprietors seldom make much of farming or improving land.

A statement in the report on the agriculture of the county of Montgomery in North Wales, however, shews that the advantages of improving waste lands is much greater than is suggested in the above detail, considerable as it may appear. It is there said, that Mr. Corbet now draws fifty *per cent. per annum* for the money laid out in improving his peaty or turbary lands; which is the same as buying an estate at two years' purchase. And that were it not for some particular expences attending the inclosing and defending of it, as those of embanking, the profit instead of this would be above one hundred pounds *per cent. per annum*.

In the account of the agriculture of the northern counties, it is stated too, that a spirited farmer there, who many years ago took in lease a tract of fourteen hundred acres of waste land, finds some of the worst of them now very cheap at forty shillings each even in pasture; that one hundred of them are worth more than the whole farm when he took it; and that, though formerly covered with heath, and in a high unsheltered situation, the parts improved were brought, in one or two years, at a moderate expence, to produce as abundant pastures as any near the banks of the Clyde.

It is therefore conceived, by the writer of the report noticed above, that in every view the improvement of waste lands is a gainful business to the owner or undertaker of it. That it is found to be so even in this part of the county, though often so charged, as that the improvement upon an acre of land has from five to ten shillings a year of tithes and poor rates. This, it is said, of itself, would be no small gain in some cases, but which is had there, the writer says, over and above that in the case of their neighbours. It is evident, therefore, it is supposed, that he who is able should lose no time in improving his waste land; and that he who cannot do it otherwise, would find it his interest rather to sell the one half in order to improve the other, than that the work should be left undone. When a proprietor is not disposed, it is said, to improve his waste grounds himself, he ought

ought to give the most liberal encouragement to tenants and the labouring poor to do it for him. The foundation of the encouragement, however, it is thought, should there be certainly a long lease to poor, honest, and industrious labourers; with a small allowance to build a house, and to help them to live until they can raise food to support themselves; after which they should pay interest for the money, and a small rent for the ground. Proprietors, &c. should indeed, it is thought, give any encouragement short of their own loss, rather than allow such lands to lie any longer as they are. It may be noticed here too, that in improving these sorts of land, the open drains or ditches may often be made to serve as fences; so that the expence of inclosing may be saved, which will contribute greatly to the advantage of this sort of improvement.

It is evident, from what has been advanced, that there are different sorts of waste land, which must of necessity require different methods of practical management and working to bring them into a proper state of cultivation, and consequently demand more or less expence in making the improvement which is necessary.

Such lands may, however, for the most part, be arranged and considered under the three general heads stated below.

1. Elevated barren lands, covered with different sorts of coarse plants.
2. Low lands of the swampy, boggy, morassy, and other such watery kinds, infested with various descriptions of coarse vegetable productions.
3. Peaty, mossy, turf, and other such lands, of which there are many different kinds.

Under each of these heads a great many varieties will obviously be met with in the practice of improving them, which are to be constantly kept in view and fully regarded, in order to effect the business in the most easy, cheap, and effectual manner.

First Division of Waste Land.—This comprehends all the varieties and denominations of moory, heathy, mountain, down, and other such lands, however diversified and changed by the particular circumstances of quality, situation, coarse herbage, and other such matters.

In regard to the nature of the soil, and the means of improving it where the ground is covered with fern, heath, furze, and other similar plants, the remarks of Mr. Phillips, a writer on the improvement of waste lands in North Wales, are highly interesting and useful. In speaking of the improving of them there when of the barren mountain kind, and covered with furze and fern, it is said that the thin layer of soil or mould upon these lands seems to have been created and formed by the annual decay and decomposition of portions of the gorse, which is a plant admirably calculated to produce, and afterwards to detain, in spite of rains and storms, the vegetable earth, afforded by such means, upon these steep declivities. Around each bush of the gorse is always found, it is said, a heap, more or less high, of excellent mould or soil; and so completely do the prickles of this plant defend the grasses that grow among it from the attacks of sheep, that the earth produced by the successive decay of vegetable matter constantly accumulates, and renders land, that a few centuries ago would probably have been unproductive, proper for the growth of corn. It is impossible, it is said, to traverse the mountains there, without observing how wisely these things are contrived by Him who provides for us all. The highest mountains of North Wales, where the rock does not every where appear, are clothed with heath. As ages roll by, the soil or earth, produced by the annual decay of portions of the heath, becomes fit to produce gorse. If the water have a ready fall, and

the land be dry, this plant appears in abundance on the most exposed sides of such mountains. Where soil or earth has accumulated in sufficient quantities, the next protector and fertilizer of the mountain is fern. Wherever this plant flourishes, still richer quantities of vegetable earth or mould are, it is said, every year added to the surface soil; and the ground is rapidly prepared for the plough.

The nature, situation, circumstances, and some other points, in respect to the ground, must, in these cases, constantly regulate the modes of clearing the surface, dividing, inclosing, and laying out the lands, as well as the buildings that may be necessary, and direct the kind and extent of the different operations which are afterwards the best and most proper and advantageous to be established and carried on in the improvement of it. Where the land is thin, too much ploughing is mostly, however, to be avoided, though in other circumstances it may, for the most part, be used freely, especially where any sort of suitable ameliorating substances are at hand ready to be applied.

It is stated that a great deal of moorish land, which is covered sometimes with heath, and sometimes with bent grass and *sprouts*, is met with in the district of Argyle, in Scotland, and probably prevails in other northern counties; and that as this sort of land there has commonly a good descent, and rests upon gravel at no great distance from the surface, which is generally a black earth of the peat kind, it may be cultivated with the plough at no great expence. In which case, it is directed that it should first be ploughed in summer, in narrow ridges; and soon after either cross-ploughed, or well broken down in some other manner, as by spades, where it can be done. It should then be covered with lime, or some other proper manure, receive a gentle harrowing, and lie in that state until it get the feed-furrow in the spring. It is found that lime is peculiarly suited to heathy and new land, as, by its caustic quality, it converts these and other vegetable matters into fine mould. The effect of lime upon new land is much greater than upon old. The summer's heat, the winter's frost, and the fermentation caused by the manure, will, in most cases, make it mellow and manageable enough by that time. If, in any case, it should not, it is best, it is said, to let it have another summer-ploughing, and to let it lie until the next year, when the crop will be so much the better as to pay for the delay. After the ground is seeded and harrowed, the plough should be run lightly through all the ridge furrows, in order to carry off superfluous moisture, and keep the ridges dry. With the second crop, it should mostly be laid down with grass-seeds for pasture, and the furrows be well cleaned. If the ground be of a good staple, three crops may, however, be taken, provided the middle one be turnips, with dung. It is said in the twelfth volume of the "Statistical Account of Scotland," that in this way Mr. Barclay, of Ury, has improved three hundred acres of barren land of this sort. This, after the lime given to the first crop, will leave the land in better heart, it is thought, than if only two white crops were taken simply with the lime.

In the above district, the improvement of waste lands of this description is so cheap a purchase, it is said, that even tenants upon a nineteen years' lease, having access to lime, might pursue it to great advantage. A few of them do so, and more, it is expected, will follow their example. Some in the parish of South-end, who belong to the duke of Argyle, have done much of late years in this way, by which their farms and their profits are enlarged, and the face of the district beautified. But the greatest improvement of this kind that has yet taken place there, is that by the late sheriff Campbell, of Stonehall, who rescued mostly from

the state of barren heath a large farm of many hundred acres, which now of itself would be no small estate. And yet it may be said, the writer observes, that this vast improvement cost him nothing; for he used to say that the work always defrayed its own expense. It was besides the means and afforded the pleasure of giving employment to a great number of labouring poor, and of doing much good to all around in different ways, but especially by furnishing feed-corn, which is found to do the best when taken from new lands, a consideration that should more powerfully recommend the improvement of these sorts of land.

In the improvement of this sort of waste land, where the heath and other coarse plants on the surface are considerable, it is the practice with some to apply lime in large proportions some time before the ground is to be broken up, as it is found to have great power and effect in destroying such coarse matters, and in preparing the superficial parts of the soil and ground for the operation of the plough and the action of other tools, and of bringing it into the necessary cultivation. It is a mode which is thought to succeed well, and to be highly useful and advantageous in many such cases.

A large part of an extensive tract of barren heath of no great value near Cardiff, in South Wales, has not long ago been improved to vast benefit at a moderate expense, by break-ploughing, or paring and burning the surface, carefully spreading and turning in the ashes in a light manner, mixing them well with the soil by dragging and harrowing, and then applying lime in not too large a quantity, cropping with wheat, turnips, or some other more suitable crops. In some instances, the lime was mixed with the ashes to better advantage. This, it is asserted, is the cheapest and most effectual method of bringing such sort of waste land into a state of cultivation and improvement.

Though objections have been made to the cultivating of wheat in the first instance, in such cases, it would appear, it is said, to be the most profitable mode of proceeding. This crop should be followed by turnips, or by oats with ray-grass and red clover, but the former is to be greatly preferred in general, especially if the necessary quantity of suitable manure can be procured in a ready manner; when barley with feeds may be tried in succession to the turnips, particularly where they succeed in such a manner as to keep sheep a sufficient length of time on the field. The course of the crops will then run thus: wheat, the stubble carefully turned down in the autumn, then turnips, and these followed by barley or oats, with ray-grass and red clover. The first crop of these grasses grazed by sheep, or other sorts of live-stock, as most convenient. Land thus managed, when broken up a second time, will soon become, without doubt, it is supposed, nearly equal to most other land in the vicinity of it.

It may be necessary in many cases, and on many accounts, to vary the first crop. In some it may be most useful and proper to begin with turnips; in others with oats and feeds, or with the former only. In lands where mucilage appeared deficient, buck-wheat, turned in, has been tried with great success, especially when afterwards mixed with lime and dung. But the above method of beginning with wheat was found the best in all cases where circumstances would permit it. Wheat, when the ground is properly prepared, will always, it is thought, best repay the expense of such preparation; and green leguminous crops, eaten off by sheep or cattle, will afterwards improve the land considerably, even without other means, which should, however, never be neglected where the expense of providing them is moderate. See a tract on the cultivation of waste land in the above district of Wales, by Col. Capper.

Heath land, where the staple is very thin before small stones and gravel are reached, may be improved in somewhat the same way in some cases; and after the surface materials have been reduced and spread out, by nine-bare ploughing it, and sowing it with grass-seeds well harrowed in. By this simple method, the sward soon becomes sweet, good, and productive, the heath that originally covered the ground soon disappearing. Wastes that are naturally poor, thin, and barren, should never, or but in few cases, have corn attempted to be raised upon them in the first instance. Heath lands of this sort intended for sheep-walks may be improved by break-ploughing, burning, and spreading out the ashes upon a certain proportion of them every year; half of such portion being directly prepared for early turnips; the other half for the same crop in the spring. The turnips on the first part, when fed off on the land by sheep, should have the ground they occupied sown after being prepared early in the spring with tares, in the quantity of three bushels to the acre, with a few oats; these to be fed off with sheep also, then sowing turnips again for the spring, which being fed off as before, the land is to be sown with oats and white clover seeds, eight pounds to the acre, with a bushel of good hay-seeds. The clover not to be in any way stocked, after the oats are cut, until the spring. This land, by being hurdled off, where practicable, and fed with sheep for two or three years, will, it is said, become an excellent sward, and form a great improvement, affording the improver vast profit in the increase of the sheep it can support.

There are other modes of bringing waste lands of these different kinds into cultivation, as by planting potatoes in the ridge and other methods, which is well suited to the means of improving small portions by the labouring poor, in many instances, as they often produce good abundant crops, and render the lands soon fit for other purposes, without scarcely any expense being incurred.

The sowing of the seeds of leguminous plants among those of the grass kind, too, has been found not only to increase the herbage much, but to greatly ameliorate the earth of the land in different cases. See HEATH, MOOR, WOULD, &c. ALF PARING and BURNING.

Planting these sorts of wastes with proper kinds of trees may also answer well in many cases, and afford great advantage to the owners. See PLANTING.

Second Division of Waste Land.—This comprises all the sorts and varieties of soft, boggy, and watery land that are formed by the deposition of different rich earthy or other such matters; and is, in many cases, a collection of the rich mud and sediment which is washed down from the higher grounds, so mixed with the recrements of different decayed vegetables of its own growth, and so over-charged with stagnant water, that no sort of animal can scarcely pass upon it. It is a sort of waste land that is, for the most part, more difficult of improvement than heathy moor, or any of the kinds included in the first division, but which will mostly pay better for the expense when it has been accomplished than any of them. It is indeed a sort of land that, when well freed of its wetness, is the richest and most productive of any; nor is the clearing of it of its water in many cases so difficult as may at first be supposed. Sometimes the water which produces the mischief comes from higher grounds, so that it may be easily intercepted, and afterwards be made to serve it, in the way of manure, by being thrown over the surface of it. In other cases, the water is afforded by internal springs, which are easily discovered, when the land has got an outlet on the lower side of it, to which the water thus produced can be conducted

by open cuts as the mud-earthly material subsides. It may then be drawn off in the usual way, and the land converted to valuable pasture or corn crops, as may be the most suitable and proper.

In this manner, and by the application of proper substances of different kinds on the surface when necessary, many considerable tracts of such sorts of waste land in different parts of the kingdom have, within these late years, been brought into an excellent state of cultivation for the production of corn as well as grafs. And besides such advantages, the removal of the stagnant wetness in the lands, in many instances, is of much benefit in promoting the healthiness of the neighbourhoods, by removing the cold and putrid exhalations that proceed from them.

The writer of the tract already alluded to remarks, that the improvement of boggy ground of this sort, in his trials, required more attention, and likewise more expence, to bring it into cultivation, than that of the first division. That in five or six fields, under the management then pointed out and practised, there were small spots of this kind of land, arising from internal wetness on the breasts of the opposite hills, which had been long choked up, and made swamps of a temporary nature some distance around them; but which have been removed by tapping and forming surface cuts from them, to conduct the superfluous internal and the top water, by the side ditches, to the main cuts, and in some particular instances by strong covered or open deep cuts to the same channels or passages. Since this method has been had recourse to, these fields have, it is said, been sown with wheat, and have borne very excellent crops. At the bottom of the hills on the different sides runs a small brook, it is observed, which has been converted into one of the main passages for taking away the wetness of the whole of the waste: on each side of the brook, the earth has been gradually washed down from the adjacent hills, and a quantity of black mould deposited from it, to the depth of about two feet and a half, and in some places three feet: underneath this soil or mould is in general a fine white sand upon a gravel, but in some places the mouldy material only covers a common peat earthy matter. Various trials, it is said, have been made in bringing these different soils or lands into cultivation: with a mixture of lime, a tolerable crop of wheat has been obtained, even from the peat earth part; and on the other, by the same means, abundant crops of oats have been had. It is intended to try if cabbages, by the help of lime and dung in mixture, will thrive in these bottoms. By such means, it is not doubted, but that in the course of a few years these bottom parts will throw up abundant crops of excellent grafs, which, in many places, indeed already begins, it is said, to appear. One half of these boggy bottoms was capable of being ploughed the first year after they had been freed from wetness; the other part was either sown with oats after being dug over, or planted with proper aquatic trees, such as withys and others.

But for wastes of this nature, where there is much coarse, rushy herbage on the surface, and they are considerably dry, the method advised below is suggested as very beneficial and proper. It is, in the months of April and May to pare and burn the surface; and after the matters thus produced are spread equally over it, the ground to be turned over with a very ebb furrow, and at the proper season to be sown with turnips in the broadcast manner. From the almost entire absence of root-weeds, in consequence of the burning, the crop will require little care in dressing by the hoe. The turnips are to be consumed upon the ground, by folding sheep upon it by means of stakes or hurdles. As soon as the land is cleared of the turnips, it is to be ploughed with

a good furrow, and to remain in that state until the season for sowing the same crop again arrives. If well worked, and laid into ridges or flitches of the usual breadth of two feet and a half, the dung produced by the sheep that consumed the first turnip crop will render the land capable of giving a superior crop of the same kind the second season. This second crop, like the first, is to be consumed by folding sheep on the land in the same manner; which being finished, the land is to be ploughed and laid into ridges for a corn crop, which is to be either barley or oats, as the nature of the soil and situation of the lands may be. If rich and well sheltered, they should be cropped with barley; if otherwise, with oats; in either case to be sown off with grafs-seeds for pasture. It is thought that under this process of management the smallest possible expence is incurred, and that the lands, at the end of three seasons only, are thrown into pasture in high condition, while in the course of the process one valuable corn crop, and one good crop of turnips, have been afforded, together with a less valuable one of the same sort; which last, however, may be sufficient to defray all the expence of tillage attending it, over and above that of reducing the coarse surface. The expence of preparing for the second turnip crop, and for the corn crop, will amount to no more than the price of ordinary light tillage; and the lands, from being brought into the state of grafs in high condition, will not only afford abundant profitable pasture, but at the same time be ready, when broken up at a future period, to yield full crops of corn.

In low wet bottoms, another experienced improver of waste lands states too, that the most beneficial mode that has been attempted is, to pare and burn for the same crop to be eaten off by sheep; then to sow oats, and afterwards to lay on five chaldrons of lime to the acre as a preparative for another crop of turnips to be eaten by sheep as before; after which to sow oats, with seeds in the quantity of sixteen pounds of white clover, five pounds of rib-grass, and a quarter of good hay-seeds to the acre. Land so managed, it is said, will carry considerably more stock than it did in its original state. If the water has been completely removed, these seeds may be broken up at the end of two years, or as soon as they appear to decline in productiveness, for wheat, and be put into the four-shift husbandry, namely, turnips after wheat, to be succeeded by barley, clover, turnips, and wheat again. Until the land becomes tired of red clover, there cannot, it is supposed, be a more judicious method adopted for such waste lands than this. When it becomes tired with the red clover, which it will mostly be after two successive rounds, either beans, peas, or seeds, may be substituted. The two former are ameliorating crops, and will be found beneficial where such wastes are of a strong quality of soil, particularly the former, where the land is strong enough for beans. The best substitute for red clover, in such cases, is small seeds for two years, which throws it from the four into the five-shift system.

There are some other methods of improving and bringing these sorts of wastes into cultivation, but which will be seen under their proper heads. See *BOG, SWAMP, MORASS, &c. Also SPRING-DRAINING, and SALT-MARSH.*

Planting with willows and ozers may often be highly profitable in such lands.

Third Division of Waste Land.—This includes all sorts of peaty or mossy lands, from those of the smallest depths to those of the greatest, however different they may be in their qualities, textures, and other circumstances. As they vary very greatly in all these respects, as well as in some others, and in the quantities of moisture or wetness which they contain, it is obvious that there must be great diversity

WASTE.

in the means and methods of cultivating and bringing them into a state of improvement. As there is almost always a degree of wetness in them, which is unfriendly to the culture and growth of all or most sorts of plants which are objects of the farmer's attention, it is mostly necessary, but especially in those of the deeper kinds, to free them as much as possible from the excess of moistness which is present, as a first step towards their improvement. This is effected in different ways by different improvers of wastes of this nature, as will be seen below. After which the surface is to be attended to and rendered as even as may be by some proper means, as the nature of it may direct. It is then to be consolidated and rendered more compact by the application of different sorts of weighty substances of the earthy and other kinds, and by all other means by which it can be promoted. This is particularly necessary where such wastes are of a fungous open quality, and may be effected by any sort of materials of the above kinds which are in quantity and at hand. In different cases, sand, clay, marle, and other such matters, may be met with under such waste lands, and answer the purpose very effectually at but little expence.

There are improvers of wastes of this sort too, especially where they are of the less deep kind, who pare and burn the surface after the land has been well freed from superfluous water, and by means of the ashes often procure tolerable crops of the corn kind, speedily reducing the surface into good order.

It has been observed, that the great point in reducing wastes of this kind to corn lands is, in the first place, to lay them to dry so as to favour vegetation, but not so dry as to deprive the plants as crops of the necessary moisture. This sort of medium is, therefore, to be carefully attended to; as the value of such lands is not unfrequently diminished by the last as well as the first of these causes.

This sort of waste is of such a porous and open quality, that if deprived entirely of its natural moisture, it will, it is said, admit the drought too greatly for the dews to reach.

Waste land of this kind, several feet deep, is said to be made capable of carrying natural clover, and other fine grasses, in some cases, by no other means than removing the wetness, smoothing the surface, and giving a good covering of ditch scourings, and the mud scrapings of the sides of the roads.

In some cases of wastes of this kind resting upon fine clayey or strong loamy bottoms, they are floated away, in case a stream sufficiently strong can be procured for the purpose, in the view of the rich soil underneath being reached and brought into cultivation. This process and practice were probably first suggested and had recourse to by the late ingenious and intelligent lord Kaimes, and most successfully and extensively followed out by his son and successor, in the improving of a very large tract of low waste of this sort in the northern part of the kingdom; which is now made to support numerous families, from being wholly barren and unproductive before.

In other cases of a similar nature, the mossy material is not, it is said, floated down by a stream of water, but only improved upon the surface; which is done by cutting a large canal or passage on that side the waste next the fall, which is intended to convey the water from the field or land. Smaller ditches are then cast, which form the field or land into ridges, which are made of more or less breadth, as the waste may happen to be more or less solid, but all terminating in the great cut or passage. The land of the field is next turned over by digging it, and where potatoes are to be the first crop, they are planted in the lazy bed mode

across the ridges; but in case the first crop is to be grain, the earth or foil of the ridges is turned over the lengthways of them, or in the direction of the smaller cuts or openings.

It is thought by the writer of the corrected Report of the Agriculture of the County of Inverness, in Scotland, that of all the different methods practised for overcoming this sort of waste, and for procuring a first crop, none appears to be so successful as potatoes. The mould or foil expands so easily, it is said, that the root gets room to swell and attain its full size. The stem and leaves of the plant retain the dew better than any culmiferous plant; by which means more nourishment is procured, in case the foil and season be dry, and the decomposition of the cloddy earth is promoted: while on the other hand, if the field or land be rather too much overcharged with water, the alleys or openings along the sides of the beds help to draw away what might prove injurious; and lastly, the planting and covering, with the hoeing and digging up of the crop, work the ground more perfectly into the mouldy state.

It is noticed, that whatever may have been the original colour and texture of this sort of land, it, by being wrought for a few years, acquires the appearance and some of the qualities of loam. It, however, takes a long time, if ever it can possess the strength of it, so as to bear a frequent return to white crops; but by suitable judicious changes of turnips, potatoes, and grass, raised alternately with white crops, it may, it is thought, be made to continue any length of time in a productive state.

Some suppose this kind of waste land is best adapted to the raising of grass; and that, for that purpose, more than of growing corn, it should mostly be improved and brought into cultivation. Clover will grow in it, if it be sufficiently dry, it is said; and rye-grass still better, as it is less delicate. But that the sort of grass that suits it best, is the meadow soft-grass or Yorkshire white. This grows close and quickly, keeps the ground well, and is equally fit for pasture and for hay.

In Lancashire, where extensive improvements of this sort of wastes have lately been effected, and where vast tracts still remain to be improved, the methods of practice in bringing them into such states are in some measure these. In the southern part of the district they are first divided into suitable fields or portions by large open ditches, so cut and formed as to be prevented from being forced in by the pressure of the water that is contained in the land, by which they are freed of a considerable part of it. They have then smaller covered drains formed in them in proper directions for taking off more of the superfluous wetness that may be present, the distances of which are regulated by the nature of the waste, and the quantity of moisture that may be in it. After this the surface is levelled and brought into order by taking off the coarse, hilly, uneven parts, and putting them into large heaps to be consumed in a slow smothering manner, spreading the reduced materials evenly out over the whole, adding a good full covering of clay, marle, or fine lime-stone gravel, some of which are mostly found under the lands.

When they have remained for some time in this situation, they are broken up by a proper plough contrived and prepared for the purpose, by having the irons in a perfectly sharp condition, and by the coulter being so fixed as to operate without resistance. The horses employed as the team in the first breaking up, and sometimes afterwards, are under the necessity of having pattens put upon their hind feet, as this saves the labour of men, except in particular instances of very soft lands of this sort. The cropping is such as has been

been already seen, but the great objects as first crops are oats, turnips, potatoes, and a few others. By these means, this kind of waste is there frequently soon got into a profitable state.

The tracts of waste of this description in the middle part of this district are chiefly, especially where in the wild state, brought into the improved condition, by paring and burning the surface, the application of marl or lime, and the breaking up for oats. The marl is mostly laid on before the other operations take place. Some think this practice answers well, but much remains to be done, and better modes are to be used for the purpose.

In the northern part of the same district, where great improvements of this nature have been well accomplished in deep unfavourable cases, the most improved practice is now, after a proper quantity of large open cuts have been made for taking away the stagnant water, and for promoting the dryness and solidity of the land, to begin with effectual cutting of drains in the land at nine feet distance from each other, made to the width of two feet and the depth of three, below which a deep opening is formed by a long pointed spade, which is left open, but the whole space above it covered and filled in. When the surface is levelled where necessary, and the land wholly ploughed over by beginning on the sides of the drains, and laying the furrow-slices well over them, it is well harrowed lengthways of the ridges. Then in winter, in time of frost, if it can be done, sand or clay is applied in the quantity of three or four thousand single-horse cart-loads to the customary acre, and spread out evenly over the surface, in which state it and the land remain until the beginning of the spring. It is then harrowed well in, and the land ploughed and sown with oats. In the next spring the land is set with potatoes in drills four feet apart, using a little littery dung, and they are kept repeatedly well earthed up. As soon as the potatoes are taken off, wheat and rye are put in upon one ploughing, and good crops afforded.

In the winter afterwards these stubbles are ploughed down, and in the ensuing spring a compost of some kind of heavy material with lime laid on, and the land sown with barley, which affords good crops.

After the barley, turnips are often had with a slight manuring; and the land then laid down with oats, or wheat and fescues.

Less red clover than formerly is now sown, but the quantities of trefoil, white clover, and rib-grass, are increased.

This method of improving such land is found the best, and by far the cheapest, after great experience, by a very intelligent improver of this kind of waste land in that part of the county.

The large open ditches and water-courses first made in these lands are now found best formed there with long slopes on one side, so as to have the appearance of a fort of sunk fences, by which means the whole slopes are rendered capable of being covered with some heavy earthy substance, and of being then sown with grass-seeds, so as to afford a sward to the very water's edge; and thereby to admit stock to lie more sheltered and warm, as well as to afford more pasturage.

The practice of paring and burning is here now never had recourse to in bringing this sort of waste land into a state of improvement. The bringing of it into such a state is, it is thought, a process or business that should proceed in a very gradual and regular manner, as there is much loss and inconvenience in pushing it on too rapidly. In all such attempts, as frost is considered by many as having great power and effect in reducing the particles of such soils into a mouldy

mellow condition, they should be exposed as greatly as possible to its action and influence at the time when it takes place, by being laid up for the purpose. See the *Corrected Report on the Agriculture of the County of Lancaster*.

In different districts of the more northern parts of the kingdom, immense tracts of wastes of this kind are almost every where to be met with. In that of the county of *Argyle*, according to the writer of the account of the state of its agriculture, they are to be found in every parish; and though capable of cultivation and improvement are wholly useless, and of little or no value. They have different depths, as from two or three to eight or ten feet, and differ in size, so that some of them are to be estimated not by the number of acres, but of square miles. They have in some cases every advantage of situation for manure and markets, vast quantities of lime-stone being near on one side, and vast masses of sand and sea-ware on the other; besides many other facilities and conveniences of improvement. There can therefore be no great difficulty in bringing them into such a state, when once it is set about, the means of doing which have been well and ably pointed out, as applicable in different cases, by the writer. It is evident, from what has been already done there, that this sort of waste, though of no utility in its usual state, may be turned to very great account, in many instances, by cultivation. See the *agricultural report of the above county*.

It has been suggested, that by rendering the extensive turf boggy wastes of this country, Scotland, and Ireland fertile and productive, a very great addition is capable of being made to the wealth of the nation, and to the means of subsistence of its population. See *MOSS, PEAT, TURF, &c.*

WASTE MATTERS, Useful as Manure, the refuse materials produced in various ways and by different operations; such are, the blood and offal matters of the slaughter-house, the refuse of the skin and leather dresser, the offals of the tannery and the glue-maker, the waste fat oily matters of some large fishes, (see *WHALE-Blubber*), the waste of soap-makers. See *ASHES, SOAPER'S ASHES, and WOOD-ASHES*.

WASTE OF THE FOREST, is, properly, when a man cuts down his own woods within the forest, without licence of the king or lord chief justice in eyre.

Year, Day, and Waste. See *YEAR, Day and Waste*.

WASTE OF A SHIP. See *WASTE*.

WASTE-BOARD. See *WASH-BOARD*.

WASTE-CLOTHS, in a *Ship of War*. See *FIGHTS*.

WASTE-TREES, in a *Ship*, are those timbers which lie in her waste, or waft.

WASTE-GATES, in *Canals*, are sluices to let off spare water from a canal, mill-dam, &c.

WASTE-WEIR, an over-fall or weir for superfluous water in a canal.

WASTEL BREAD, Wastell. This word, which has puzzled bishop Lowth, in his *Life of Wykeham*, &c. appears, by the *Consuetudines Glauconienfes apud Will. Malm.* to have been a kind of fine bread or rolls, which were served up in our ancient communities when the use of the waffal-bowl was allowed.

WASTERAHS, in *Geography*. See *WESTERAHS*.

WASTERO, a small island on the E. side of the gulf of Bothnia. N. lat. 63° 22'. E. long. 21° 34'.

WASTORELS, or *WASTRELS*, in *Rural Economy*, a term applied to any sort of waste or outcast substances or matters, such as bricks, tiles, slates, and many other such like things, when badly formed, or of a bad kind. The young lambs, pigs, and calves, sold to the butchers, which are improper for keeping as stock, are sometimes also called by this name.

WASTORS,

WASTORS, in our *Statutes*, a kind of thieves so called, and mentioned among robbers, draw-latches, &c.

WASUNGEN, in *Geography*, a town of Germany, in the county of Henneberg, on the Werra; 3 miles N. of Meinungen. N. lat. 50° 41'. E. long. 10° 38'.

WATAGUAKI, a river of Labrador, which runs into the gulf of St. Lawrence. N. lat. 50° 12'. W. long. 60° 5'.

WATAGUAKI *Isles*, a cluster of small islands in the gulf of St. Lawrence, near the coast of Labrador.

WATARA, a town of Hindoostan, in the circar of Cicacole; 14 miles S. of Cossimcootta.

WATARAS, a town of Africa, in the country of Agades; 50 miles N. of Agades.

WATAS, a town of Sweden, in West Bothnia, on the Calix; 50 miles N.W. of Tornea.

WATAUGA, a river which rises in North Carolina, and runs into the Holston, in Tennessee.

WATCH, GUER, a person posted as a spy in any place, to have an eye to it, and to give notice of what passes.

WATCH is also used for a corps de garde posted at any passage; or for a company of guards who go on the patrolle. Some officers are exempted from watch and guard.

In the same sense they say, *night-watch, guet de nuit; watch-word, mot de guet; royal watch, and city watch.*

Chevalier du guet is a name given by the French to the officer who commands the royal watch, &c.

WATCH, *Vigilia*, in *Roman Antiquities*, a division of their night; being the fourth part of the space of time between sun-set and sun-rising, and consequently varying according to the season of the year.

In the Roman army, there were night-guards or vigiles, *viz.* four in every manipulus, who kept guard three hours, and were then relieved by four others: so that there were four sets in a night, according to the four watches. The way of setting this nightly guard was by a tally or tessera, with a particular inscription, given from one centurion to another quite through the army, till it came again to the tribune who first delivered it: upon the receipt of this the guard was immediately set. Besides, they had the *circuitio vigiliæ*, or a visiting of the watch, performed commonly about four times in the night by some of the horse. Upon extraordinary occasions the tribunes and lieutenant-generals, and sometimes the general himself, made these circuits in person, and took a strict view of the watch in every part of the camp.

WATCH, at Sea, signifies the space of time in which one division of a ship's crew remains upon deck, to perform the necessary services, whilst the rest are relieved from duty, either when the vessel is under sail, or at anchor. The length of the sea-watch is not the same in the shipping of different nations. It is always kept four hours by our British seamen, if we except the dog-watch between four and eight in the evening, that contains two reliefs, each of which is only two hours on deck. The intent of this is to change the period of the night-watch every twenty-four hours; so that the party watching from eight till twelve in one night, shall watch from midnight till four in the morning on the succeeding one. In France the duration of the watch is extremely different, being in some places six hours, and in others seven or eight; and in Turkey and Barbary it is usually five or six hours.

A ship's company is usually classed into two parties: one of which is called the starboard, and the other the larboard watch. It is, however, occasionally separated into three divisions, as in a road, or in particular voyages.

In a ship of war, the watch is generally commanded by a lieutenant, and in merchant-ships by one of the mates: so

that if there are four mates in the latter, there are two in each watch; the first and third being in the larboard, and the second and fourth in the starboard watch: but in the navy, the officers who command the watch usually divide themselves into three parts, in order to lighten their duty. Falconer.

WATCH-Glasses, in a Ship, are glasses employed to measure the period of the watch, or to divide it into any number of equal parts, as hours, half hours, &c. so that the several stations therein may be regularly kept and relieved, as at the helm, pump, look-out, &c.

To fit the watch, in Sea Language, is to appoint one division of the crew to enter upon the duty of the watch; as at eight o'clock in the evening.

WATCH, Death. See DEATH.

WATCH, in *Horology*, is a portable machine that measures and indicates the successive portions of transient time. This useful piece of mechanism, when planned on the best scientific principles, and executed in the most perfect manner, contains within itself a collection of inventions, that have exercised the skill of the most ingenious mechanists through a succession of three if not four centuries; and when we contemplate the curiously-contrived and nicely-adjusted means by which the never-varying period of our globe's rotation on its axis is divided and subdivided into hours, minutes, and seconds, we need not be surprised that a *Paley* has selected this curious machine as a striking specimen of human ingenuity.

It is a matter of difficult research to ascertain what artist first reduced the portable spring-clock into the size of a watch, which is supposed to have been first effected in Germany; but it is evident that watches had become common in France before the year 1544, in which the corporation of master clock-makers in Paris had a statute enacted, to ensure to themselves the exclusive privilege of making, and of causing to be made, clocks, alarums, and watches, large or small, within the precinct of the said city.

The small clocks and watches, however, which were made antecedently to the time of Huygens and Dr. Hooke, were very imperfect performers, and professed not to subdivide the hour into minutes and seconds; the double lever, and the balance arising out of it, were very imperfect regulators of the motion, produced in the train of wheel-work by the maintaining power, inasmuch as they were under the influence of various opposing agents, such as friction arising from coarse workmanship, the inertia of matter, resistance of the air, &c.; the consequence of which was, that the weight of the moving balance was to be determined by experiments, such as would be a proper counterpoise to the agency of the main-spring on the moving train, and at the commencement of each returning oscillation, a considerable pause took place, which made a part of the measure of time to be indicated. These inconveniences at length were obviated by the introduction of a balance-spring, which became to the balance what gravity is to the pendulum; and the acceleration given to the moving balance during the first half of the oscillation, is thus sufficient to overcome the resistance opposed to its motion during the second half; and when the shape, length, and strength of the regulating spring are duly proportioned, its isochronal performance approaches very nearly to the regularity of the pendulum. The contest for the honour of this useful invention was warmly disputed between Huygens and Dr. Hooke, for several years subsequently to 1658; but if priority of publication can be considered as a proof of priority of invention, the palm is due to our ingenious countryman.

In our articles CHRONOMETER, CLOCK, COMPENSATION-Balance,

Balance, Dial-Work, ESCAPEMENT, POWER, Maintaining, and REMONTOIR, we have anticipated the consideration of the most material parts of a watch, and have given such a detailed account of most of the varieties that occur in the practical construction of this machine, that little remains to be done in this place, but to describe an ordinary watch, without reference to its history, scientific principles, compensations, or superior workmanship; all which have been amply diffused, and the constituent parts explained by accurate engravings of the corresponding mechanism. We may, however, comprehend in this article the appendages which have been applied to or actuated by the common watch, for the purpose of either amusement or utility in civil society, such as chimes, alarms, striking-work, and repeating mechanism, most of which operate as a drag upon the works, and are therefore never introduced in chronometers, and seldom in watches of the most perfect construction.

Fig. 1. Plate XLIV. of *Horology*, represents the interior works of an ordinary watch with the crown-wheel escapement, as they remain on the pillar-plate when the upper plate of the frame, shewn by fig. 5, is unpinned and removed; and fig. 2, which is a section of the whole frame and of its contents, shews the connection of all the parts, as though the calliper were in one right line. These two figures, by having the same letters of reference, mutually explain each other. The main-spring, which actuates all the wheels and pinions that are called in one general term the movement, is contained in the circular box *a*, seen in different views in the separate figures 1, 2, and 8, in the last of which its parts are given in their detached state, *viz.* the box; the relaxed spring immediately above, lying in a spiral form; the arbor with its pin, on which the interior end of the spring is hooked; and the lid through which the pivot of the arbor penetrates: this spring is forced into the box by a tool on purpose, when it is strong, and then the exterior end is hooked to a pin in the circular edge of the box, so that if the box is made to turn round while the arbor is held fast, the spring begins to coil at the centre, and is thereby wound close round the arbor, and is by this action said to be *wound up*. The same effect would be produced if the box were held fast, and the arbor only were turned; but in the latter case the chain, which requires to be uncoiled from the spring-box as this spring is wound up, would remain unmoved; it is necessary therefore that the box be turned while the arbor is at rest, which is thus effected: one end of the chain is made fast to the side of the spring-box, and the other to the fusee *b*, after being coiled several times round the circumference of the box; then as the square end of the spring-box arbor is held by the small ratchet and click *c*, seen on the reversed face of the pillar-plate in fig. 7, so that it cannot revolve, it is obvious that inserting a key on the square of the fusee-arbor, and turning it in a proper direction, will wind the chain upon the spiral-groove of the fusee, while it is unwound from the box; and during this operation the spring will be coiled up to the centre of the box, or be put into its state of greatest tension for pulling the fusee back again. The rapid motion which the fusee would have in a retrograde direction, when pulled by the whole force of the coiled spring, is prevented by the train of wheel-work and balance thus; the great wheel *d* is not fast to the thick end of the fusee, as appears in the drawings, but carries a click and click-spring *2*, as seen in fig. 3, while the ratchet-wheel, seen in fig. 4, is made fast to the fusee; the consequence of which contrivance is, that while a key applied to the fusee-arbor winds up the watch and fills the fusee-groove with the chain, until the guard driven by it catches the beak at the small end of the fusee;

the click in fig. 3, slides over the sloping teeth of the ratchet in fig. 4, without acting on them, and thus leaves the great wheel *d* at rest, in connection with the pinion *e*, on the centre or minute-wheel arbor; but when the spring acts on the fusee in a contrary direction, the click attached to the great wheel is laid hold of by the teeth of the ratchet, which thus makes it fast to the end of the fusee, so long as the chain is unwinding from the fusee; or, in other words, till the spring wants winding up again, which happens usually once in 28 or 30 hours; but it is commonly wound up once in every 24 hours, more or less. The action of the great wheel *d* on the pinion *e*, is that of a long lever driving a short one; or this wheel may be said to act under a mechanical disadvantage, where an increase of velocity, but a loss of power, is experienced by the pinion; again, on the same central arbor of this pinion *e* is riveted the centre-wheel *f*, which revolves in an exact hour, as we shall see presently, and this wheel drives the pinion *g*, on the arbor of the third wheel *h*, also with a mechanical disadvantage, for the force it imparts to the pinion *i*, on the arbor of the contrate-wheel, is again diminished in the ratio of the diameter of the wheel to that of its pinion; thus, the force of the main-spring is continually diminishing, as it is transmitted through the train, and when the contrate-wheel comes to be actuated, it has just force enough to drive the horizontal pinion on the balance-wheel *l*, so that the alternate impulses given by its teeth to the pallets of the balance-verge are just sufficient to perpetuate the oscillations to the right and left, under all the obstacles of friction, dirt, wear, and the air's resistance. It is a curious fact that this crown-wheel escapement, though the *oldest* that we know of, is still the most in use in common watches, probably from the facility with which it is constructed; for certainly it is more under the influence of the irregularities of the main-spring's force than any other escapement. The properties and action of this escapement have been minutely explained under No. 1. of the article ESCAPEMENT, with reference to fig. 6. Plate XXXI. of *Horology*, to which explanation and figure therefore we request our reader's attention.

In order that the force applied to the pallets of the verge at each oscillation may not sensibly vary, it was found necessary to equalize, as much as possible, the variable forces of the main-spring in its different states of tension; and the most practicable way of doing this has been found to convert the cylinder on the arbor of the great wheel, which would have been proper for a gravitating body, used as a maintaining power, into a figure of a parabolic form, that is, into a solid, generated by the revolution of a parabola, in order that, as the force of the spring becomes greater by increased tension, its action on the great wheel might be lessened in a similar proportion, by a gradual decrease of the radius of the fusee, round which the chain is wound, to impart the force thus modified. Every separate spring, therefore, has not only its average force proportioned to the balance it is destined to actuate, when diminished by transmission through a given train, but requires its *scale* of varying forces to be nicely counteracted in every degree of tension by the *shape* of the fusee; and this is done by means of a tool, called a fusee adjusting-tool, which is nothing more than a lever with a sliding weight attached to the squared end of the fusee-arbor, as represented in fig. 10. Plate XXI. of *Horology*; for when the weight on the lever is an exact counterpoise to the force of the main-spring in every part of the successive revolutions of the fusee, as the spring is wound up by the lever instead of a key, then the shape of the fusee is proper, but not otherwise. Hence, whenever a new main-spring is put into a watch, the fusee ought to be adjusted in the

the fusee-engine accordingly as the adjusting-tool determines. The comparative forces of the spring at the two extreme ends of the fusee may be adjusted by the small ratchet *c*, on the back of the pillar-plate in *fig. 7*; but when the spring is put to a suitable degree of tension to act well at both extremities of the fusee, it must not be altered by the ratchet-click, but the intermediate forces must be equalized by a due shape given to the fusee. We have inflicted the more on this part of the mechanism being attended to, because, as the *primum mobile*, it is the basis of all the other motions. The number of rounds that the spiral of the parabolic fusee may be cut into, depends on the length of the pillars of the frame, or, which is the same thing, on the shallowness of the watch. The French frequently leave out the fusee, and attempt to equalize the forces of the main-spring by tapering it, and with detached escape-ments this mode may sometimes answer tolerably, but with the crown-wheel escapement a fusee is indispensable. Again, the number of teeth in the great wheel, and in the centre pinion, depends on the number of rounds in the spiral of the fusee; in a 30 hours watch, with six turns of the fusee, the

great wheel must have $\frac{30}{6}$, or 5 times as many teeth as the

centre pinion; so that if this has 6 leaves, the wheel must have $5 \times 6 = 30$ teeth; but if 8, then $5 \times 8 = 40$; if the spiral has 7 turns, the great wheel 48, and the pinion 12,

then the time of going will be $\frac{48}{12} \times 7 = 28$ hours; also if

there be $5\frac{1}{2}$ turns on the fusee, 50 teeth in the wheel, and 10 leaves in the pinion, the period of going will be $27\frac{1}{2}$ hours,

or $\frac{50}{10} \times 5\frac{1}{2} = 5 \times 5\frac{1}{2} = 27\frac{1}{2}$; but if 24 hours only were

required as the period, with 6 turns and a pinion of 12, the great wheel would be required to have 48. Thus, when an alteration is made in either the pinion, the wheel, or the turns in the fusee, a corresponding variation may be made in the others, to produce the same period of going, but still the centre-wheel revolves once in an hour. In the commonest watches the pinions have only six leaves each, which do not act so well as pinions of higher numbers; but in the best watches, and in all chronometers, the leaves and teeth are more numerous. The pivot-holes, particularly of the verge and escapement-wheel arbor, have jewels for the purpose of diminishing the friction in the best watches; but detached and remounted escapements are the best correctives of the unequal impulses given through the medium of the train in the different states of its foulness. The potance *m*, and small or counter potance *n*, that hold the pivots of the balance-wheel, are small cocks seen in *fig. 2*, both in their attached and detached states, and are screwed to the top or upper plate within the frame, but the springs, buttons, and joints of the case are not exhibited, as forming no part of the movement. *Fig. 5*, represents the outer face of the upper plate, with the balance *b*, cock *c*, and balance-spring *s*, called the pendulum-spring, from its having the properties of the pendulum; by means of this spring not only is the regulation made steady, but the adjustment for time is effected. In every balance-spring there is a certain length, to be taken as the effective length, by which the going of the watch, to which it is applied, is limited to exact performance, and when this length is determined by experiment, a pin is put in the stud that holds the exterior end, as at 4, in *fig. 5*, to prevent its being altered; but as the variation of temperature will alter the momentum of the moving balance, the effect thereby produced is a loss of time, in the rate, in hot

weather, and a gain in cold, by an alternate increase and decrease in the dimensions of the balance itself, as well as by some alteration in the spring: to remedy this defect, in an ordinary watch, the contrivance shewn in *fig. 6*, is introduced; the wheel *t* is placed under the graduated circle *r*, seen in *fig. 5*, and a circular rack *u*, *fig. 6*, that holds the curb or slit-piece *s*, seen in both figures, is moved by a sliding motion given to it, when a key is applied to the squared arbor of the figured circle, and thus the effective length of the spiral spring is limited by the position of the curb *s*; and accordingly as the key is turned forwards or back, towards the words *fast* or *slow*, engraved on the cock, the shortened or lengthened spring alters the rate of going, till the proper length is found, that suits the season in question. In Harrison's time-piece the curb was moved by an expansion-lever of two metals, that acted by means of the change of temperature; but in the best chronometers of more recent date, the compensating levers constitute the three portions into which the rim of the balance is divided, and the adjustment for time, as well as compensation for temperature, are by means of heavy screws, which form a part of the moving balance. In these more perfect machines, the length of the spring, which is now made helical, or cylindrical, is first determined such, that the long and short vibrations are performed in the same time; and this is called the isochronal length, which is not afterwards altered by subsequent adjustments. But of these niceties we have treated more fully under our long article CHRONOMETER. The last portion of the watch, which demands our explanation, is the dial-work, for producing the hours and minutes; this will be easily understood by a reference to figures 2 and 7: when the pinion, called the cannon-pinion, seen near the minute-hand in *fig. 2*, is inserted on the arbor of the hour or centre-wheel, to which it fits rather tight by friction, it revolves therewith in an hour, and receives the minute or long hand on its protruding squared end; then this pinion drives the wheel *x* round a stud on the pillar-plate, and with it a pinion *w* made fast to its centre; which pinion again drives a second wheel *v* round the tube of the cannon-pinion in twelve hours, and to this the hour-hand is attached. This diminution of twelve revolutions from the cannon-pinion to the hour-wheel might be effected by one pinion driving a single wheel of twelve times its number of teeth; but as the motion must be brought back to the centre of the dial again, two more wheels, or a wheel and pinion, are necessary to be introduced, and these are therefore made a part of the train, and no large wheel or small pinion is wanted, for the ratio 12 : 1 may be more conveniently obtained by two factors, viz. 4 : 1 and 3 : 1; thus, suppose the cannon-pinion to have 15 leaves, its wheel may have $4 \times 15 = 60$ teeth for wheel *x*, and if wheel *v* be made the same its pinion will be $\frac{60}{3} = 20$, and the train $\frac{60}{15} \times \frac{60}{20} = \frac{360}{30} = \frac{72}{6}$ or $\frac{60}{5} = \frac{12}{1}$ or 12; so that when the pinions are fixed upon for the dial-work, the wheels are readily determined, and *vice versa*. Under our term CLOCK-Movement, we have given three tables, containing the several varieties of the three different portions of a clock-movement, which are equally applicable to a watch-movement, and we presume will be found useful to the practical workman, who is disposed to vary his construction to shew seconds, or for other particular purposes. The following table, somewhat differently arranged, was published by W. Shirt, balance-wheel and fusee-cutter, No. 25, Coleman-street, Bunhill-row, London, with which we will conclude this division of our article.

WATCH.

A TABLE of Trains for Watches, shewing the Number of Turns on the Fufee and Teeth in the Balance-wheel, with the Beats in an Hour, and the Number of Seconds in which the Contrate or Fourth Wheel revolves, for the easy Timing of Watches by the Vibrations of the Pendulum.

9 Teeth in the Balance-Wheel.

Second Wheel 58	6	Third Wheel Pinion	60	8	60	6	60	6	60	6	64	6	64	8
Third Wheel 56	6	Contrate Pin.	56	7	58	6	58	6	60	6	60	6	60	8
Contrate Wheel 54	6	Balance Pin.	80	6	52	6	56	6	60	6	60	6	54	6
Beats	14616	in an Hour	14400		15080		16240		16200		18000		17280	
Seconds	39 $\frac{1}{10}$	in which the 4th Wheel revolves	60		37 $\frac{1}{4}$		37 $\frac{1}{4}$		36		36		33 $\frac{3}{4}$	

11 Teeth in the Balance-Wheel.

Second Wheel 48	6	Third Wheel Pin.	54	6	54	6	56	7	56	6	56	6	
Third Wheel 45	6	Contrate Pin.	45	6	50	6	45	6	54	6	56	6	
Contrate Wheel 70	6	Balance Pin.	05	6	60	6	78	6	54	6	55	6	
Beats	15400	in an Hour	16087		16500		17160		16632		17567		
Seconds	60	in which the 4th Wheel revolves	53½		48		60		42½		41½		
58	6	58	6	58	6	58	7	60	6	60	6	60	6
52	6	54	6	54	6	56	6	50	6	52	6	54	6
52	6	52	6	54	6	56	6	52	6	50	6	54	6
15973		16588		17226		17817		15879		15888		16520	
42½		41½		41½		39½		54½		43		41½	
60	6	60	7	60	8	60	8	60	7	62	6	62	6
56	6	56	6	56	7	60	6	60	6	54	6	58	6
50	6	56	6	74	6	78	6	48	6	56	6	52	6
17111		16426		16280		17160		17553		15400		16163	
38½		40		60		60		36		48		49	
64	6	64	6	65	7	70	8	70	7	72	8	80	8
50	6	52	6	62	7	54	7	63	7	64	7	72	8
50	6	52	6	59	7	68	6	58	7	54	6	68	8
16296		17625		15250		16830		16408		16035		17142	
40½		39		43½		53½		40		44½		38½	

13 Teeth in the Balance-Wheel.

Second Wheel 48	6	Third Wheel Pin.	48	6	52	6	54	6	54	6	54	6	
Third Wheel 45	6	Contrate Pin.	45	6	52	6	50	6	52	6	52	6	
Contrate Wheel 66	6	Balance Pin.	68	6	52	6	50	6	48	6	50	6	
Beats	17160	in an Hour	17680		16925		16274		16224		16900		
Seconds	60	in which the 4th Wheel revolves	60		46½		48		46		46		
54	6	54	6	55	6	56	7	56	6	56	6	58	6
52	6	52	6	51	6	45	6	50	6	48	6	50	6
51	6	52	6	51	6	66	6	50	6	54	6	50	6
17238		17576		17219		17160		16851		17188		16824	
46		46		46½		60		46½		46½		44½	
60	6	60	8	60	6	60	6	60	7	60	8	60	6
48	6	48	6	50	6	50	6	54	6	56	7	56	7
48	6	66	6	46	6	48	6	52	6	60	6	66	6
16640		17160		16611		17333		17382		17550		16640	
45		60		43		43		46½		54		52½	
60	8	60	6	62	7	63	7	63	7	64	7	64	7
60	6	60	7	56	7	52	6	60	7	52	6	60	8
54	6	56	7	56	6	51	6	60	7	50	6	60	7
17550		17828		17194		17238		17191		17168		17464	
48		42		50½		46½		46½		46		45½	
70	8	72	8	72	8	74	8	74	8	75	10	75	10
66	8	52	6	70	8	64	8	68	8	72	9	72	9
64	7	52	6	68	8	63	7	68	8	70	7	72	9
17160		16673		17403		17316		17400		15600		12480	
50		44½		52½		48½		60		60		60	

WATCH:

TABLE continued.

15 Teeth in the Balance-Wheel.

Second Wheel 48 6 Third Wheel Pinion						48 6	48 6	54 6	54 6	54 6
Third Wheel 45 6 Contrate Pin.						45 6	45 6	48 6	48 6	48 6
Contrate Wheel 54 6 Balance Pin.						58 6	60 6	46 6	48 6	64 8
Beats 16200 in an Hour						17400	18000	16560	17280	17280
Seconds 60 in which the 4th Wheel revolves						60	60	50	50	50
54 6	56 7	56 7	56 7	56 6	56 7	58 6	58 6	60 8	60 8	60 8
50 6	45 6	45 6	45 6	48 6	60 8	48 6	50 8	48 6	48 6	56 7
48 6	56 6	58 6	60 6	46 6	60 6	46 6	58 6	58 6	60 6	48 6
18000	16800	17400	18000	17173	18000	17786	17520	17400	18000	14400
48	60	60	60	48	60	46½	59½	60	60	60
60 8	60 7	60 8	60 8	60 8	60 6	60 6	60 6	60 6	60 10	60 6
56 7	56 7	56 7	56 7	56 7	60 8	60 10	60 8	60 10	60 6	60 10
56 7	58 7	58 6	60 6	60 7	48 6	48 6	56 7	58 6	60 6	64 8
14400	17044	17400	18000	15386	18000	14400	18000	17400	18000	14400
60	52½	60	60	60	48	60	48	60	60	60
60 8	60 8	62 8	63 7	63 7	64 8	64 8	64 8	64 6	65 7	70 6
64 8	64 8	60 8	54 7	56 7	45 6	60 8	60 8	60 10	56 7	60 10
66 7	70 7	60 6	50 6	56 7	56 6	58 6	60 6	70 8	56 7	48 6
16971	18000	17437	17356	17280	16800	17400	18000	16800	17828	16800
60	60	61½	51½	50	60	60	60	56¼	48½	51½
70 7	70 8	70 8	70 10	72 6	72 8	72 8	72 8	72 8	75 8	81 9
60 10	64 8	64 8	65 8	60 10	64 8	64 8	64 8	65 8	64 8	72 9
70 7	50 6	58 7	60 6	48 6	50 6	54 7	64 8	64 8	64 8	72 9
18000	17500	17400	17062	17280	18000	16662	17280	17550	18000	17280
60	51½	51½	56¾	50	50	50	50	49	48	50

17 Teeth in the Balance-Wheel.

Second Wheel 48 6 Third Wheel Pin.	56 7	60 8	64 8
Third Wheel 45 6 Contrate Pin.	45 6	56 7	60 8
Contrate Wheel 50 6 Balance Pin.	53 6	52 6	60 7
Beats 17000 in an Hour	18020	17828	17485
Seconds 60 in which the 4th Wheel revolves	60	60	60

GW.	SWP.	TNS.	GW.	SWP.	TNS.	GW.	SWP.	TNS.
48	10	6½	60	10	5	55	12	6¾
50	10	6	62	10	4½	56	12	6⅔
52	10	5¾	64	10	4⅓	58	12	6½
54	10	5⅝	48	12	7½	60	12	6
55	10	5⅞	50	12	7½	62	12	5¾
56	10	5⅞	52	12	6½	64	12	5⅝
58	10	5⅞	54	12	6½			

If we divide *double* the product of all the four wheels by the product of all the three pinions, the quotient will be the number of *beats* as given in any of the trains contained in this table; also, if we take the second and third wheels and their pinions respectively, as a compound fraction of an hour, they will give the *seconds* in which the contrate-wheel, attached to the latter pinion, will revolve; thus, $\frac{5}{8}$ of $\frac{2}{3}$ of $60^m = 1^m$, or 60^s , which numbers are consequently proper for a watch that indicates seconds; and if the beats be 18000, or 14400, there will be five or four beats respectively in a second, which are the belt trains for measuring fractional parts of a second.

French Repeater.—The mechanism which constitutes the

repetition portion of a French, and also of a Swiss watch, was originally employed by Tompion, Quare, and other English artists, and is represented by the various figures contained in *Plate XLV. of Horology*; it is easier of construction than the repetition-motion of Stockton, which follows, but is not considered so perfect. We have put the same letters of reference to the detached parts, that stand near them in the larger figures, where they occupy their respective situations; and that the reader may be able to accompany us through our description of the action of the relative parts, we will explain previously the appellations by which the workmen designate these acting pieces. In *figs. 1. and 2.* A denotes the pendant-bow, carried at the end of a cylindrical piece, called the pendant, and the hollow piece, into which it is occasionally pushed, is the pendant-socket; BCD the triple lever is called the *crémaillère*; E is a fixed pulley; and F the hour-nail, by which the number of hours to be struck by the hour-hammer is limited; H is the star-wheel, to which the hour-nail F is fixed fast; I K is the *tout-ou-rien* and G its spring lying on its plane; L and N are the two sets of teeth, that take hold of the hammer-tails, which strike quarters by double blows; O is one of the quarter hammer.

mer-tails, and Q, or Q 5, the other, which is attached to the hammer that strikes also the hours; S is the quarter-fnail that determines the number of quarters to be struck at any time, when the hour-hammer has struck the hours, and has three steps or arcs of different radii, presented successively to the part that acts on, or rather rests on it; 7, 8, is the loose piece attached to, and secured under the quarter-fnail S; *a* is the end of the middle lever of the crémallière; *b* the jumper, that makes the star-wheel jump a whole space when a tooth, in raising it, has arrived at its angular point, so as to give its spring *d* its full tension; *c* is the chain made fast at one end to the crémallière at D, and after passing round the pulley E, attached at the other to a second pulley Z, which is inserted on the arbor of the repeating main-spring, *f* is the quarter-piece spring, pressing on a pin in the quarter-piece M; *h* is the quarter hammer-spring; *i* its counter-spring; *g* the quarter hammer-tail spring; *p* the hour-hammer spring, and *o* its counter-spring; *q* is the hour-hammer quarter tail-spring, and *r* the gathering piece or arm fixed on the arbor of the great wheel of the repeating train of wheels, over the pulley Z, that causes the quarter-piece to act on the hammer-tails, and is the same arbor which we have before called the arbor of the repeating main-spring. These are the pieces of mechanism that lie under the face of the watch, and appear above the frame when the face is removed, together with the dial-work represented by the dotted circles in *fig. 1*, but by unshaded wheels and pinions in *fig. 2*, that the other parts might not be concealed below them. *Fig. 3*, contains the works under the upper plate of the frame, of which the repetition-train (*petit rouage*) only is shaded, the ordinary movement being given in outline. The connection between the pieces exhibited in *figs. 1* and *2*, and the repetition train in the frame, shown in *fig. 3*, is by means of the arbor of the great wheel and its circular rack G, seen in this figure, for this arbor protruding above the upper plate of the frame receives on its square the main-spring of the repeating mechanism, and also the gathering-piece *r*, so that whenever this main-spring, exhibited in *fig. 4*, is wound up, the ratchet on the great wheel, seen in *fig. 5*, allows the great wheel to move with it without the rest of the repeating train; but when the spring unbends itself, and pulls the chain and attached crémallière back, the click of the ratchet catches and actuates the whole train, which terminates with a fly on the last pinion-arbor, as in the striking part of a clock, and thus regulates the velocity with which the hammers respectively strike.

We will now proceed to explain the action of the repeating mechanism, which we have described above, and see how the effect is produced by means that are thus apparently complex. When the pendant has been pushed in slowly a short space, the end *a* of the middle prong of the crémallière, being kept down by the small cock Y, approaches one of the steps of the hour-fnail F, and at the same time pulls the chain, by means of the prong D, round the pulley or friction-roller E, and winds up the main-spring coiled in the box of pulley Z, at the same time making the gathering-piece *r* retrograde from its pin, inserted into the quarter-piece: in *fig. 1* this motion is just commencing from a state of quiescence; suppose now, the retrograde motion of the gathering-piece to take place, while the pendant is pushed very slowly in; and conceive the circular rack on the face of the large wheel within the frame, *viz.* G in *fig. 3*, to be retrograding also, as being on the same common axis; presently the end *a* of the third prong of the crémallière meets with one of the steps of the hour-fnail, and pushes against it; this fnail, and its at-

tached star-wheel, having their common pivot borne by the *tout-ou-rien* at H, communicate the push received by them to this piece, which turning on its centre of motion at I, has its remote or loose end K carried from its quiescent position, notwithstanding the opposing action of its spring; and when considerable force is applied to push the pendant home, this end K, which forms a detent to the quarter-piece at the points of their contact, quits its hold, and leaves the quarter-piece at liberty to be urged by its spring *f*, till its heel-piece *c* drops upon one of the steps of the quarter-fnail, as in *fig. 2*, where it is seen resting on the third step, or shortest arc. At this instant the repeating main-spring begins to relax itself, and brings forward the concealed rack G, (*fig. 3*.) which had retrograded as many teeth only as the hour-spring permitted, before the *tout-ou-rien* was displaced; its nearest tooth to the tail-piece 2, 3, of the hour-hammer R R, catches now this tail-piece, and makes the hammer strike on the circular rim of steel, which is substituted for a bell, and as many blows are given in succession, as there are teeth in the rack to fall against the hammer-tail, while the repeating train is running down; and during the time in which these strokes are going on, the little pin between the hammer-tail spring *p*, and its counter-spring *o*, may be seen moving backwards and forwards, as though it gave the strokes on the counter-spring. No sooner are the hours limited by the hour-fnail struck, than the gathering piece *r* returns with the relaxing spring, till it catches the pin of the quarter-piece, which piece is moveable round a pivot at M, and is now gradually brought back by its pin till one of its teeth N catches O, the tail-piece of the quarter-hammer P, *fig. 3*, and then one of the teeth at L, at the opposite end of the quarter-piece, catches Q the upper tail-piece of the hour-hammer, which instantly repeats the blow with the hour-hammer, and thus as many double blows are given by the two hammers in immediate succession for the quarters, as there are teeth to act on the said tail-pieces, when the quarter-piece begins to return; and this number entirely depends on the step of the quarter-fnail S, on which the heel-piece falls, when the *tout-ou-rien* is displaced; hence if any blow is given, all the blows that the two snails limit will be given, from which necessity, the piece *tout-ou-rien*, (all-or-nothing,) takes its name. But lest the quarter-piece should return by a jerk before the *tout-ou-rien* has produced its full effect, the angular point *m* of the quarter-piece, in its return, slides down the interior face of the *tout-ou-rien*, in opposition to the action of its spring G, while the strokes of the quarters are making, and arrives at the point K, at the termination of the strokes, thus performing the office of a train and fly, after which the *tout-ou-rien* resumes its quiescent position, and its end becomes a detent to the quarter-piece. It is not necessary to describe the action and re-action of the two hammer-tail pieces, which perform their operations, as in the striking work of a clock heretofore described; but it may be proper to shew how the lower tail-piece 3, 4, of the hour-hammer is detached from the rack G, *fig. 3*, while the quarters are struck, by means of the upper tail-piece Q acting with the teeth of the quarter-piece at L only; this will be best understood by a reference to the detached figures in the group denoted by *fig. 6*, as will also the action of several other parts, which we have described and explained as being in their places in *figs. 1* and *2*; the three pieces marked Q 5 are the same quarter tail-piece seen in different views, 2 C 1 R, is a part of the hour-hammer, and its arbor 6 passes the socket of the piece 3, 4, which we have called the lower tail-piece of the hour-hammer, before it receives the upper tail-piece Q on its square;

now the part 3, 4, is that which takes hold of the circular rack *G* in *fig. 3*, and is thus occasionally detached from the said rack; *viz.* its pin 3 ascends through the upper plate of the frame, so that its superior end is visible at 3 both in *fig. 1*, and *fig. 2*, and falls in the way of the extreme end of the quarter-pinion, which, on its return from the quarter-fnail, catches it and turns the piece 3, 4, round the central arbor 6 of the hour-hammer, and thereby takes the end 4 out of the circular rack, while the quarters are being struck, but whenever the hours are to be struck, the proper spring restores the due position of the tail-piece. As the repeating train of five wheels, and as many pinions, are introduced to give motion to the regulating fly, it is of no consequence what the numbers of their teeth be, provided they be duly proportioned to act smoothly, and to produce the requisite velocity for the proper intervals between the successive strokes. The dial-work for hours and minutes is the same as in any ordinary watch, except that the quarter-fnail is attached to the cannon-pinion, and lies under it, so as to partake of its hourly motion, together with that of the minute-hand, shewn in dots, as being above the face, the piece, however, in *fig. 6*, denoted by the figures 7, 8, and called the loofe-piece, (or surpluse,) is also fast by friction to the same hour-arbor, and revolves contemporaneously with the snail and minute-hand, and when its pin 8 meets with one of the points of the star-wheel *H*, it moves it forwards until the angular point on the face of the jumper *b* has passed an opposite point of the star, when it will jump or move at once the remainder of the space; in this star are twelve points, and as the hour-fnail, which has twelve steps, is made fast to it, the snail also jumps to the succeeding step once every hour, while the three steps of the quarter-fnail follow one another by a constant flow motion, keeping pace with the minute-hand. Hence the times at which the respective hours and quarters are to be struck, corresponding with the positions of their proper snails, are guided by the common dial-work, and when once they are duly adjusted, a motion given to the minute-hand, by a suitable key, will always keep both the snails in their requisite positions for regulating the number of hour and quarter strokes, that the face of the clock has indicated by the hour and minute-hands; and in the same way the quarters even of the minute might be repeated, if such addition were deemed desirable. In our *figs. 1* and *2*, we have put the characters of the hours on the rim or edge of the case, as the face is removed, merely to shew how the hands, pointing to the divided spaces, are connected with the snails of the repeating mechanism. From this explanation, it will appear that the movement of the watch is not at all affected by pulling in the pendant, nor yet by the motions of the repeating parts, otherwise than as the heel of the quarter-piece falls against the quarter-fnail carried by the cannon-pinion, and at the moments when the loofe-piece, under this snail, moves the star at its hourly period; but trifling as these obstacles may appear in a common watch, they are seldom, if ever, introduced into a chronometer.

In the construction which we have here described, a large semi-circular rack and pinion are sometimes substituted for the chain and pulleys, in which case the rack is attached to the crémaillère, and the pinion to the arbor of the repeating main-spring; and it is obvious that such a substitution will remove the objection to the liability of the chain's breaking, and the consequent derangement of the works.

English Repeater.—The construction of the repeating motion, called, after the name of its inventor, a *Stockten* motion, differs in many respects from and is very superior to the original repeating motion, which, with a very little alteration

in the mode of arranging its parts, is now generally known by the term *French* motion: this appellation is however improper, since the repeating watch is indisputably an English invention, the merit of which was disputed by Tompion, Quare, and other English watch-makers of celebrity of the last century.

Stockten was an Englishman, but his history, like that of many other ingenious men, is so little known to posterity, that even his ipsosorial appellation is lost, and his birth-place unknown; all that can with any certainty be recorded respecting him is, that he lived in London, and worked for the celebrated Mr. George Graham, watch-maker and F.R.S. the successor to Mr. Tompion, the motions of whose repeaters were always made upon this construction. The houses of Mudge and Dutton, Fleet-street; of Ellicott, Royal Exchange; and of Vulliamy, Pall-mall; who, for many years after the death of Mr. Graham, were the principal makers of repeaters in London, constantly employed this construction of motion; and it is now generally made use of by all the London watch-makers in the manufacture of their best repeaters.

To enumerate very briefly the advantages of this repeating work, its main-spring is wound up by a rack and pinion; from its construction the action of the parts is uniform and gradual, and not depending on several springs, whose actions interfere with each other; and moreover it is susceptible of being made to strike the half-quarters, without inconvenience or additional work.

To underfand the general action of this repeating motion, it is necessary to be well acquainted with its construction, the detail of its parts, the manner in which the different pieces come together, and their separate actions. The pieces composing the pendant work, and the action of the pushing-piece upon the crémaillère, or, as it is generally termed in this construction of a repeating motion, the *rack*; the brass edge, and its use and mode of being fixed to the pillar-plate; the dial, and the manner of fixing it to the brass edge, and the hands; the repeating main-spring and its barrel; the barrel arbor, and the mode of hooking the spring into the barrel; the repeating train of wheels, or, as they are frequently called, the running train, and the situations of the hammers, relative to the wheels between the plates, and their respective uses and actions are all so nearly the same as in the common motion, previously described, that any further description becomes unnecessary: the ratchet, click, and click-spring of the great wheel of the repeating train, are also the same; but the ratchet-wheel *G*, of twelve teeth (*fig. 3. Plate XLV.*) which in the common motion acts upon the hour-hammer, is in this construction of the repeating motion omitted.

In *Plate XLVI. fig. 1.* represents the repeating work complete in its quiescent state, with the wheel *Q* of 48, the hour-fnail *F*, retrograding ratchet *P*, and wheel of communication *R*; and also the lantern-pinion *w*, quarter-fnail *G*, and hour-wheel *S*; by which parts the motion is communicated to the hour-hand, and the hands carried round, perfectly detached from the other parts of the motion.

Fig. 2. represents the repeating work complete, as it appears at the instant of unlocking; the arm *f* of the piece *D* bearing on the hour-fnail *F*, the arm *y* of the quarter-rack on the quarter-fnail *G*, the little all-or-nothing piece *I* disengaged from the piece *K*, and the hammer-tails *L* and *M* in a proper situation to be acted upon by the hour and quarter ratchets *N* and *O*.

Fig. 3. represents merely the rack *A B* and pinion *C*; the piece *D*; and the two all-or-nothing pieces *H* and *I*, in their relative situations to one another on the pillar-plate, the rest of the work being supposed to be taken off.

Fig. 4. represents the pinion C, and the hour and quarter ratchets N and O, separate in plan, and in profile; and also a section of the three together.

Fig. 5. represents the cannon-pinion *w* seen from above, as well as below; and also in perspective, with the quarter-snail G attached to it.

Fig. 6. represents the wheel Q of 48, the hour-snail F, the retrograding ratchet P, and the wheel of communication R, separate in plan, and in profile; and also a section of them together.

Fig. 7. represents the hour-snail F on the wheel Q of 48, and the little spring *z* in the notch of the focket of the hour-snail.

The rack A B (see *Plate XLVI. figs. 1, 2, and 3.*) is the piece first put in motion when the watch is made to repeat, and is that by the action of which with the pinion C of twenty teeth, concealed in *figs. 1. and 2.* by the hour and quarter ratchets N and O, the main-spring of the repeating part is wound up; this rack may be considered as a portion of a very large wheel, whose axis or centre of motion is placed, as near as it conveniently can be, to the edge of the watch: this axis is a hollow tube, passing through a well fitted hole in the pillar-plate, and pivoted into the upper plate; (the reason of its being a tube will be presently shewn;) it is set upright in the frame, and consequently at right angles to the face of the pillar-plate; hence it follows, that the rack, which is also fixed at right angles to its axis, moves parallel to the pillar-plate, and is placed as near the plate as it can be, to move freely without rubbing it; the rack is cut into twenty-two teeth. Immediately connected with the rack are the two pieces D and E, called, the piece D the unlocking-arm, and the piece E the quarter-rack: the use of the piece D is twofold; first, to determine the number of blows to be struck by the great or hour-hammer, by means of its arm *f*, which, when the watch is made to repeat, comes to bear upon one of the steps of the hour-snail F; second, to unlock, or, as it is commonly termed, discharge the striking. This effect is produced, as will be explained hereafter, by a motion of the piece D peculiar to itself. This piece D is attached to the rack, at its greatest distance from its centre of motion, by the screw 1, which screw is tapped into the rack up to a shoulder, leaving a plain part equal to the thickness of the piece D, and as much more as is necessary for the piece not to be bound, between the under side of the screw head and the upper surface of the rack; and the hole in the piece D, through which this screw 1 passes, is made to fit very correctly on the plain part of the screw, upon which it moves as its centre of motion. The quantity of motion of the piece D is determined by a circular hole at its other extremity, through which the axis of the rack passes, somewhat larger than that axis, which, in order to pass through the end of this piece D, and for it to act against, is purposely prolonged above the surface of the rack, a very little more than the thickness of this same piece D: in *fig. 3.* the quarter-rack and the cock *a* are omitted to shew the shape of this piece.

The quarter-rack E, situated above the piece D, has its centre of motion within the centre of motion of the rack A B, or considering the centres of motion of both the pieces as lines, they may, under that supposition, be considered as possessing one common centre of motion: this rack is also fixed at right angles to its axis, which passes through the tube that forms the axis of the rack A B, the whole length of that axis to the upper plate; the under side of this quarter-rack bears upon the top of the tube, or centre of motion of the great rack, which terminates a little above the centre of motion of the piece D, as has been before mentioned; and the upper extremity *e* of the axis of this

piece is pivoted into the cock *a*, *figs. 1 and 2*, which cock is screwed fast to the pillar-plate YZ: in this manner is the quarter-rack confined in its place between the upper end of the hollow arbor of the rack A B, prolonged through the piece D, as before described, and the under side of the cock *a*. The use of this piece is to determine the number of quarters, if any, or the half-quarter, as the case may be, to be repeated after the hour: this effect is produced by the action of one, and one only, of the eight teeth at the end of the rack, on the little *all-or-nothing* piece I; and according to the tooth which so acts, the watch, after having repeated the hour, repeats the half-quarter, the quarter, or the quarter and half-quarter, &c. as shewn by the hands; or if the minute-hand has not passed the 7^m and 30^s after the hour, the first tooth of the eight causes the repeating to cease immediately after the repeating of the hour is completed. Which of the teeth shall act on the little *all-or-nothing* piece is determined by the advance of the quarter-rack, which is regulated by the step on the quarter-snail G, upon which the arm *y* comes in contact, when the watch is made to repeat. The arm *y* is made a separate piece from and fixed to the quarter-rack E, by means of the screw 2, on which screw it moves as its centre of motion, in the same manner as the piece D moves on the screw 1, and is kept in its place by the spring *g*: the reason of this piece being thus made, is to prevent the possibility, in the case of the watch being made to repeat exactly at the quarter, of the repeating work stopping the watch, by the arm *y* holding back the quarter-snail, during the striking of the hours: the arm *a*, which is a portion of the quarter-rack, by its action with the retrograding-ratchet P, brings the hour-snail F into its proper place to receive the arm *f*, of the piece D. The quarter-rack E is kept in its place by the pin 3, tapped into the piece D, which bears against its edge; and is carried forward when the watch is made to repeat, by the action of its spring *b*, which is screwed to its extremity the farthest from the centre of its motion, and set up by its other extremity being confined in a notch in the cock *a*.

The total surface of the piece D rests on the rack A B, and, consequently when, in the act of unlocking, it moves on its centre, or screw 1, its under face rubs on the surface of the rack A B; but the quarter-rack E, on the contrary, is entirely detached from, and does not touch the surface of the piece D, its under side bearing upon the prolonged arbor of the rack A B, through the hole in the piece D; and is kept down by the cock *a*, which bears against the shoulder of its upper pivot, as has been before mentioned. There is what is termed, in the peculiar dialect of watch-makers, a *light* between the under side of the rack and the pillar-plate, and between the under side of the quarter-rack and the piece D; and from their construction, it is evident that they move in planes parallel to one another, and to the pillar-plate.

Having described the rack, and the parts connected with it, we will next in order proceed to the description of the pinion C, and the hour and quarter ratchets N and O attached to it, and also their mode of connection, by which the hammers are raised to cause them to hit the blows, or to *strike*. The larger of the two ratchet-wheels, N, the one next the pinion, has originally been cut into twenty teeth, of which twelve consecutive teeth are left; then three more teeth, at an interval apart from each other, and from the last of the twelve teeth, equal to the space of a tooth; the remainder of the teeth, that occupied the space from the last of the three to the first of the twelve teeth, are taken away. The upper ratchet, O, which acts on the small hammer, has been originally cut into ten teeth, of which only four consecutive

cative are left. The pinion C fits by a long square hole on the arbor of the great wheel of the running train, prolonged through the pillar-plate, which arbor is pivotted into the upper plate, and the cock *b*, which is screwed to the pillar-plate. The hour ratchet, of fifteen teeth, is fitted to this pinion C, by means of a socket, attached to and forming part thereof; and the upper ratchet, of four teeth, is attached by a hole through its centre, in a similar manner to the under ratchet; and the two are firmly held together, and also to the pinion, by means of two screws which pass through them both, and are tapped into the pinion, as represented in section in *fig. 4*; consequently, whatever portion of a circle the pinion is made to revolve by the action of the rack, the two ratchet-wheels necessarily do the same. It may not be amiss to notice in this place, that the arbor of the great wheel passes through the barrel which contains the repeating main-spring; and that the barrel is screwed to the under side of the pillar-plate, and is connected with it exactly in the same manner as in the case of the common repeating motion, and its operation is the same; but the barrel arbor is not pivotted between the upper and pillar-plates, as in the case of the common motion, but into the upper plate and the cock *b*, screwed to the pillar-plate; and the connection between both the hammers and the motion is entirely above the pillar-plate, through the medium of the hammer-tails, as will be explained.

The pieces next to be described are the two hammers, and their connection with the motion. The two pivots or centres of motion of the hammers are generally placed at equal distances from the arbor that carries the pinion C, and perpendicular to the plates, and, consequently, parallel to that arbor, and to one another; they are pivotted into the frame, and their upper pivots are prolonged through the pillar-plate, to receive the hammer-tails, L and M: there is a pin planted in each hammer, at a short distance from its centre of motion, which also passes through the pillar-plate, in which there are notches or flits forming portions of circles concentric with the centres of motion of the hammers, for these two pins to pass through, as seen in *fig. 3*; it is by means of these pins 4 and 5, *figs. 1* and 2, which pass into notches, made on purpose to receive them, in the hammer-tails L, M, that these tails, when acted upon by the two ratchets, in their turn act upon the hammers; were it not for this contrivance, the hammer-tails, when impelled by the ratchets, would turn on the pivots of the hammers, as their centres of motion, without raising the hammers. The hammers are kept to their places by the two hammer-springs *v* and *p*, which press against the pins 4 and 5, that pass through the hammers, below the hammer-tails, and as close to the surface of the pillar-plate as they can be, to be free from the surface of the plate: it is by these springs that the hammers, raised by the action of the ratchet-wheels, are impelled forward to strike; and the stronger they are, provided they are not too strong for the power of the main-spring, the louder will be the blow struck. Immediately connected with the hammers are the hammer-tails L, M, through the agency of which the hammers are raised to strike, by means of the two ratchets N and O; these tails require to be extremely well fitted on the upper pivots of the hammers, prolonged through the pillar-plate, which are their centres of motion, though not so tight but that they will move with ease up and down on those pivots; for on this action depends the whole performance of the motion: the part of the hammer-tail, which, by way of distinction, is called the acting lever or pallet, is that against which the teeth of the ratchets act to raise the hammers, the upper ratchet being the smaller of the two; the lever of

the quarter hammer-tail is left as much longer than the lever of the other hammer-tail, as is necessary for it to reach the ratchet. To prevent the hammer-tails, when acted upon by the ratchets, from turning on their centres of motion, there is, as has been noticed in describing the hammers, a notch in each hammer-tail, to receive a pin planted in each hammer, parallel to its centre of motion, and which pin for this purpose is made to pass through a circular notch in the pillar-plate.

The next piece to be described is the cross-piece, or piece K. The surface of this piece, when at rest, is in a plane parallel to the pillar-plate, and the piece moves upon two pivots, which act in holes in the two small cocks *c* and *d*, screwed, the cock *c* to the foot of the cock *b*, and the cock *d* to the pillar-plate YZ. This piece K is maintained in its place, when the motion is at rest, by the end of the little all-or-nothing piece I, which presses against its arm 8, on the one side of its centre of motion, and by the spring *g*, which presses against the under side of its arm 9, on the other side of its centre of motion, causes it to bear against the little all-or-nothing piece I; the hammer-tail L is maintained in its place, depressed, or raised on its centre of motion solely by the action of this piece K; the hammer-tail M is also depressed in the same manner, but is raised on its centre of motion by the spring *u*, the end of which is made to bear on the under side of the hammer-tail for that purpose; and by the power of this spring it is impelled upwards, and made to follow the piece K, when it is raised by the little all-or-nothing piece I, as before described.

The use of the piece K, when the unlocking takes place, is to depress the hammer-tails on their centres of motion, (the prolonged upper pivots of the hammers) to bring them into the same planes as the hour and quarter ratchets N and O, they being, when the motion is at rest, situated considerably above those planes; and as soon as the striking is finished, to raise up again the hammer-tail L, and by relieving the other tail M from its pressure, suffer it to be raised by its spring *u*. For this purpose the arm *g* enters into a groove, made on purpose to receive it in the hammer-tail L, and the arm *c* is made to bear upon the top of the other hammer-tail M. The action of the piece I will be more fully explained presently.

The pieces next to be described are the large all-or-nothing piece H, and the little all-or-nothing piece I. The upper surface of the piece H is in the same plane, and it is of the same thickness with the piece D, by which it is acted upon: the upper surface of the piece I is on the same plane with the upper surface of the quarter-rack, and as thick as it can be for its under side to be perfectly free from the springs *v* and *p* on the pillar-plate: it is necessarily required to be of a certain thickness, being acted upon by the two pieces E and H. Both the all-or-nothing pieces move on studs, screwed into the pillar-plate, which thus become their centres of motion, the piece H on the stud *r*, the piece I on the stud *i*: it is indispensable that these studs should be perpendicular to the face of the pillar-plate, and the pieces perfectly well fitted upon them: it is moreover absolutely necessary that both the all-or-nothing pieces should, in all situations, be parallel to the plane of the pillar-plate; on which account, the piece H, being a thin piece, is fixed to a socket, the hole through which socket is perfectly well fitted to the stud, and the stud is left as high as it can be, to avoid touching the under side of the dial. The unlocking is effected by the action of the piece D on the piece H, in the following manner: when the pendant is pushed in to make the watch repeat, the arm *f* of the piece D comes into contact with the hour-flail, and causes

causes this piece D to move on its centre of motion, (*viz.* the screw 1); its opposite end is then pressed against the extremity of the *all-or-nothing* piece H, and causes that end of the piece to move in a direction outwards; consequently the other end of the piece H, which presses against the little *all-or-nothing* piece I, is moved inwards: the necessary effect of this motion in the *all-or-nothing* piece H, is, from the shape of the two pieces, to cause the little *all-or-nothing* piece to move outwards from under the arm 8, of the piece K; and this action is called the *unlocking* of the motion. The piece I being thus, by the act of unlocking, disengaged from under the arm 8, of the piece K, this piece K, by the power of the spring *g*, depresses the hammer-tails, and brings them into the same planes as the two ratchets, and consequently into a situation to be acted on by these ratchets: after the striking is completed, the piece I is returned by the quarter-rack into its former situation, and with it the piece K, and the two hammer-tails necessarily resume their situations. It is to be observed, that the *all-or-nothing* piece H acts upon the little *all-or-nothing* piece I, very nearly at its centre of motion *i*, and on the end opposite to that which passes under the arm 8, of the piece K.

We come now to describe the wheels that carry the hands, commonly called the dial-work, and their mode of communication, together with the two snails attached to them, which determine the hour and the quarter, or half-quarter, if any, to be struck.

The arbor of the centre-wheel, which makes one revolution in an hour, is prolonged through the pillar-plate, and on this arbor the pinion *w* is fitted, sufficiently tight to be carried round by the wheel, but not so tight as to prevent its turning on the arbor, the upper end *w* only of the socket of this pinion is seen in *figs.* 1. and 2, but the pinion is fully represented, in *fig.* 5, detached from the pieces with which it is connected. The centre-wheel arbor is turned with a shoulder to receive the bottom of the cannon-pinion's socket, and for it to bear against, in order to prevent the extremities of its four teeth, that stand parallel to the arbor of the wheel from rubbing on the surface of the pillar-plate: the upper part of its socket, above the dial, is squared to receive the minute-hand, and the hand fits down to the shoulder, formed, by the reduction of the original cylinder, into a square. At the bottom of this pinion's socket is a collar turned out of the same piece, of which the pinion is made, purposely to receive the quarter-snail; and to this collar in the same plane with the quarter-rack, is the quarter-snail G fixed by two screws. This snail is cut into eight steps, by which the number of blows to be struck is regulated: if the arm *y* reaches the step next the centre, the striking ceases with the repeating of the hour; if it only descends to the next, or second step, the watch, after having repeated the hour, repeats the half-quarter, which is invariably designated by a single faint blow; if it descends to the third step, the quarter only is repeated; if to the fourth step, the quarter and half-quarter; if to the fifth step, the half hour; if to the sixth step, the half hour and half-quarter; if to the seventh step, the three-quarters; and if to the eighth step, the three-quarters and half-quarter. Under the snail is the cannon-pinion, which communicates the motion to the wheel Q of 48, and through it to the hour-hand, and which, from its singular shape, obtains the name of lantern-pinion. This pinion is of a very peculiar construction, and consists of four upright, equidistant, cylindrical teeth, attached at one end to the under side of the collar, and made out of the same piece of steel that forms the socket and collar above-mentioned, as seen in *fig.* 5.

Above the cannon-pinion, and resting on it, is the hour-wheel S, which makes one revolution in twelve hours; and this wheel carries the hour-hand by means of its socket, which fits on the wheel's socket prolonged through the hole in the centre of the dial. To explain the mode by which this wheel is made to perform one revolution in twelve hours, it will be necessary to describe the wheel Q of 48, so called from being cut into 48 teeth; the hour-snail F, with its ratchet P; and the wheel R of communication to the hour-wheel. These four pieces have one common centre of motion, which is a stud *x*, screwed perpendicularly into the pillar-plate, similar to the studs *r* and *i*; the wheel of 48, to which are attached the other three, is placed as close as it can be to the plate to turn freely. To the centre of the wheel is fixed a long socket, well fitted to the stud, by which means the perfect parallelism of the wheel's plane to the surface of the plate is preserved: from the face of the wheel upwards, equal to the thickness of the hour-snail, this socket is left of a considerable diameter, equal to the hole in the centre of the hour-snail; for on this part of the socket it is that the hour-snail fits, but not so tight as to prevent its turning easily on the socket, while its under side bears on the upper surface of the wheel: above the surface of the snail the socket is reduced in diameter to the size of a common socket. The ratchet P is fastened to the hour-snail by two screws, and thus becomes one piece with it; the centre of the ratchet being cut out a quantity equal to about half its diameter, (see *fig.* 6,) and it is so placed on the hour-snail, that the small circle thus cut out is concentric with its centre of motion. The wheel of communication R (see *fig.* 6.) forms the last of the four; it fits tight, by a hole through its centre, on the socket of the wheel of 48, and on its under side a collar is left, which fits, but not tight, into the space formed by the cutting out of the centre of the ratchet, and which collar bears on the shoulder of the large socket above-mentioned, that is formed by the reducing it from the size, at which it passes through the hour-snail, to the smaller size: in this manner the hour-snail and ratchet are confined between the wheel of Q 48 and the wheel of communication R. To ensure the snail being carried round once in twelve hours by the wheel of 48, and its being preserved in its relative situation with respect to the hour-hand, so that the hour struck shall accord with the hour shewn; and also to ensure the safe bearing of the arm *f*, of the piece D, on the step of the snail, there is a notch in the thick part of the stud on which the snail is fitted, and a corresponding long slit, commencing at the centre of the snail, and extending nearly to its circumference; in which slit is a straight spring *z*, that takes into the notch in the socket, (see *fig.* 7.) the effect of this contrivance is twofold: first, by the action of the spring in the notch it preserves the snail, when not acted upon by the arm *o* of the quarter-rack E, constantly in the same situation relatively to the wheel of 48; and secondly, it allows of its being moved on its centre when required, and at the same time regulates the quantity of that motion by the width of the notch in the socket. The case in which the hour-snail is required to turn on its centre, independently of the wheel of 48, is, when the minute-hand having just past the 60^m, and consequently the hour only being required to be struck, there would, without this peculiar additional motion of the snail, be danger of the arm *f*, which cannot be a line, but must possess width as well as thickness, not coming down safe on the step of the snail it ought to reach, but, by being stopped by the preceding step, of its causing the watch to repeat one hour less than it shews; to prevent this, the arm *o*, of the quarter-rack, when the watch is made to repeat exactly at the hour, and

WATCH.

for some few minutes after, coming into contact with the ratchet, which is situated in the same plane as the arm *o*, causes it, and also the snail, to advance a sufficient quantity to ensure the safe bearing of the arm *f* on the snail, and consequently the correct striking of the watch: this effect, from the construction of the parts as just described, is produced, without disturbing either the wheel *Q* of 48, or the wheel of communication *R*, and consequently without moving the hands. But it yet remains to explain the mode in which motion is communicated to the hour-hand: the cannon-pinion of four teeth, or pins, revolving with the centre-wheel once in an hour, necessarily causes the wheel of 48, in which it acts, and with it the wheel of communication, to revolve once in $\frac{1}{12}$, or twelve hours; and the wheel of communication acting on the hour-wheel, so called because it carries the hour-hand, is of the same size and number of teeth as itself, and therefore causes it and the hour-hand to make one revolution in twelve hours.

The several parts of the motion and their respective uses being now described in detail, it remains lastly that we describe the general action of the whole.

Let us suppose the watch made to repeat in the usual manner, by pushing in the pendant at the three-quarters and a half-quarter past seven o'clock, the rack *A B*, *fig. 2.* by the pressure of the pushing-piece, is carried forward until its further advance is stopped by the arm *f*, of the piece *D*, reaching the seventh step from the exterior point of the hour-snail *F*; at the same time the rack, by its action on the pinion *C*, winds up to a certain degree the main-spring; and the hour and quarter ratchets *N* and *O*, being attached to this pinion, are carried forward with it, or rather, relative to the shape of the teeth of those ratchets, are carried backwards with it: the piece *D*, necessarily advancing with the rack, being immediately attached to it, disengages the quarter-rack *E*, previously kept in its place by the pin *3*, which quarter-rack being disengaged, is by the power of its spring *b* immediately brought forward after the rack *A B*, until it is stopped by its arm *y*, reaching the quarter-snail *G*; but in this case, the watch being to strike the three-quarters and the half-quarter, the advance of the quarter-rack is almost immediately stopped by its arm *y*, coming against the step, the farthest removed from the centre of the quarter-snail *G*: the instant the arm *f*, of the piece *D*, has, by its pressure against the hour-snail *F*, acted sufficiently upon the large *all-or-nothing* piece *H*, the unlocking is effected. By unlocking is meant that portion of the total action of the motion, every time the watch is made to repeat, which consists in the hammer-tails being set at liberty to descend into the same planes the two ratchet-wheels are in. By the action of the piece *D*, with the *all-or-nothing* piece *H*, which in its turn acts on the little *all-or-nothing* piece *I*, this piece *I* is thrown from under the piece *K*; and this piece *K*, being no longer supported by the little *all-or-nothing* piece *I*, has its two arms *6* and *7*, by which the situation of the hammer-tails, on their centres of motion is determined, depressed by the action of the spring *g*, on its arm *9*, until the two hammer-tails are brought into the same planes as the two ratchets *N* and *O*, and are thus placed in a situation to be acted upon by those ratchets, and through them the hammers. The power of the blows struck by the hammers depends on the strength of the hammer-springs *o* and *p*; which power is communicated to the hammers, by the springs bearing against the pins *4* and *5*, planted in them, which pass through the pillar-plate into the hammer-tails: when by the action of the ratchet-wheels on the hammer-tails the hammers are raised, these pins press against the hammer-springs and continue so to do, thus gradually increasing the power of the springs until the hammer-tail escaping from

the tooth of the ratchet, the hammer is by the strength of the spring suddenly thrown forward, and made to strike. The friction of the running-train and of the parts of the motion, added to the resistance of the two hammer-springs, is the whole power the repeating main-spring has to overcome; and the stronger these springs are, provided they are not too strong for the power of the main-spring, the louder will be the blows struck. The number of the teeth of the ratchets that are brought to act on the hammer-tails, is the same as of the hour to be struck, which are determined by the two snails. The unlocking being thus effected, the act of striking commences; the power by which the repeating main-spring was wound up, being removed, the spring immediately uncoils, and returns into its former state, carrying with it the pinion *C*, the two ratchets *N* and *O*, and the rack *A B*; the hammer-tails *L M*, having been depressed, and from the action of the arms *6* and *7* of the piece *K* upon them, continuing in the same planes with the ratchets, are necessarily acted upon by them, and thus is the striking of the hours and quarters effected. The instant the striking is completed, the rack *A B* continuing to return overtakes the quarter-rack *E*, and by means of its pin *3*, carries it with it: at the moment the quarter-rack begins to move, one of its teeth, which tooth is regulated by the quarter or half-quarter that has been struck, acting on the pallet of the little *all-or-nothing* piece *I*, this piece is brought back to its former situation, and through it the piece *K*, and the hammer-tails; and all the pieces of the motion return by the power of the repeating main-spring, into the same situations they were in before the watch was made to repeat.

The mode by which, in this construction of repeating work, the proper number of quarters, and the half-quarter, if any, as shewn by the hands, is struck, is peculiar to itself, and requires to be particularly explained. The hour-snail and the great ratchet are so proportioned to one another, that, as has been before observed, according to the step on the snail, the arm *f* of the piece *D* descends upon; so is the number of teeth of the great ratchet sent back, previously to the unlocking taking place, to engage as soon as the unlocking shall be effected, in the hammer-tail of the hour-hammer: thus, suppose the watch to repeat *twelve*, the arm *f* descends to the twelfth or lowest step of the hour-snail, and at the same time the ratchets revolve a sufficient quantity for the twelve successive teeth, that act on the great hammer-tail, to come into action: if, on the contrary, the watch were required to strike *one*, the arm of the rack would descend to only the first or exterior step of the snail, and the ratchet would revolve a sufficient quantity for the first only of the twelve teeth to come into action with the hour hammer-tail. It is evident, from the above description of the action of the twelve teeth of the great ratchet that act on the hour hammer-tail, that the three teeth in the same wheel which, conjointly with the small ratchet of four teeth, are employed to strike the quarters, must be so situated relatively to the twelve teeth that strike the hours, that when the watch is made to repeat they will precede those teeth, in their advance towards the hammer-tails; otherwise the quarters would be repeated before the hours; for if the action of these pieces is attended to, it will be seen, that, in the act of winding up the repeating main-spring, as many teeth of the two ratchets will pass under the hammer-tails, as are to act on them before the unlocking is effected: consequently, the tooth that first passes under the hour hammer-tail would be the last to act upon it in returning; and every time the watch is made to repeat, the three teeth of the great ratchet,

ratchet, and the four teeth of the small ratchet, must, by being in advance of the other twelve teeth of the great ratchet, be carried forward, and so situated, if not prevented by some external cause, as invariably to occasion the watch to repeat the three-quarters and half-quarter, after the hour, every time the watch is made to repeat. Such effect is prevented taking place by the action of the quarter-rack: the extremity of this rack is cut into eight teeth; (the acting face only of the first tooth being cut, and the remainder of that tooth left solid, to insure the safe action of the little *all-or-nothing* piece I, when the watch has finished striking) and these eight teeth correspond with and are proportionate to the eight steps in the quarter-snail; if the hour only is to be struck, the quarter-snail is so situated with respect to the quarter-rack, that the arm *y*, of the latter, descends to the deepest step in the snail, allowing the first tooth of the eight just to pass the short lever, or, as it is frequently called, *pallet* of the little *all-or-nothing* piece I, and, from the construction of the parts, the quarter-rack is in such a situation, relative to the great rack, that the latter, through the medium of the pin *g*, coming into contact with it, at the instant the last blow of the hour is struck, carries the quarter-rack with it, and causes it to return into its original situation: now the effect produced by the great rack, carrying the quarter-rack back, is, to occasion the latter, by the action of its first tooth on the little *all-or-nothing* piece I, to bring that piece suddenly into the same position it was in before the striking was discharged, and thus to raise the piece K, and consequently the hammer-tails, and to disengage them from the three teeth of the great ratchet that strike the quarters, and also from all the teeth of the small ratchet, which along with the rack-pinion, all now return into their original situation.

We are indebted to Mr. Benjamin Lewis Vulliamy, of Pall Mall, clock and watch-maker to the King and Prince Regent, for this minute description and accompanying plate of the Stocken repeater, which has never before been described, and for which, therefore, we beg to acknowledge our obligation to him.

Elliot's repeating Watch.—A new, cheap, and simple apparatus for repeating the hours and quarters was contrived by J. M. Elliot of Aylesbury-street, Clerkenwell, and published in Nicholson's Journal (vol. vii. 8vo. Series, p. 157.), as being applicable to either clocks or watches. The sketches that are given in the original drawings are not calculated to give a clear conception of the connection of the parts employed; and, therefore, we have given such a new arrangement of the figures, as we trust will enable our readers to comprehend the construction and action of Elliot's mechanism, as applied to a watch. Fig. 1. of *Plate XLVII. of Horology*, exhibits the repeating work of Elliot's watch, published in 1804; and figs. 2, 3, 4, and 5, shew the parts detached, with the same letters of reference as in fig. 1. In this construction, the usual apparatus of wheels, pinions, chains, pulleys, and racks, are dispensed with; and the acting pieces, instead of being spread over the surface of the upper plate of the frame, are arranged concentrically on the axis of the pendant, which is not pushed in, but made to turn round to the right or left, accordingly as the hours or quarters are required to be struck; either of which may precede, or one only may be struck, at the option of the wearer. A A B, in fig. 2, is called the repeating potence, screwed to the upper plate at *x*, in fig. 1, and bears the works surrounding the axis of the pendant C D. The portion for striking the quarters, seen in fig. 3, is attached to the axis *b*; but the part seen in fig. 2, for striking the hours, is on a tube through which the axis

passes, so that each part will revolve separately; a circumstance not adverted to in the original description. The quarter-snail, S, in fig. 1, with its loose piece, the star-wheel and its hour-snail H, the jumper G, and its spring I, with the dial-work Y, are such as we have already described. But the levers or detents M and N, with their springs *r* and *t*, act here with the circular racks on the common axis of the pendant, thus; the pendant socket D, in fig. 2, has a connection with the axis, seen in fig. 5, by means of the pin *f*, on the axis, taking hold of its projecting piece *a*, which may be called the hour-pallet; *e* is the hour-locking snail, in figs. 2 and 4, with its projecting pin, placed without or beyond the repeating potence, and fixed on a socket that surrounds the axis; on which socket also are fixed the repeating wheel *g*, and its ratchet R, with a spiral spring, exhibited in fig. 4; then while the tail-piece *x*, of detent N, of the hour-snail, falls on the proper step of snail *e*, to regulate the number of strokes to be made for the hours, the tail-piece *k*, in fig. 1, of the hammer V, is caught by the sloping teeth of the striking-wheel *g*, and raises the hammer under the plate of the frame, that strikes a circular rim of steel surrounding the works, instead of a bell; but before these strokes will be made, the pendant must be turned round by hand gently and regularly, and continued till all the blows are given: this manual turning, therefore, supercedes the necessity of a repeating train of wheels and pinions. The striking mechanism for the quarters is similar in construction to that for the hours, and is seen detached in fig. 3, where *l* is the pallet; *m*, the locking-snail, with its projecting pin to be caught by the pallet in the retrograde motion of the pendant; *o*, the ratchet-wheel, and *n*, its spiral spring; and lastly, *p*, the contrate wheel for striking the quarters, by means of the second elongated hammer-tail S, while the hammer has its centre of motion at Z. Thus, when the hours and quarters are both struck by the same hammer, as regulated by their respective snails, the springs *n* and *b*, connected with the concentric snails and their ratchets, bring back the acting parts to their original situations, for repeating the same strokes as many times as may be wished, for the purposes of either utility or curiosity. It may be necessary to notice further, that the rim substituted for a bell has a notch cut into it, to admit the arbor of the pendant to pass without obstruction; and that we give this construction without having seen the watch itself, and, therefore, without making any remark on its merits or demerits, further than that it appears to have the recommendations of simplicity and cheapness.

In the same year and month in which this watch was first described, the inventor presented the model of another repeating watch to the Society of Arts at the Adelphi, an account of which is published in the 22d volume of their Transactions, for which he received their bounty of thirty guineas. We have not given a drawing of this second repeater, as being accessible to all scientific men properly introduced to the Society's rooms, and particularly as the mode of using it does not differ from what we have just described, so far as the rotatory motions to be given to the pendant, direct and retrograde, are concerned. In this watch the snails for the hours and quarters, the star-wheel, dial-work, jumper with its spring, and locking detents, are nearly the same as in the other; but instead of the striking-wheels, ratchets, and springs, being on the arbor of the pendant, they are placed on a flat circular rim of steel, that revolves, by means of friction-rollers, round the dial-work on the same plane, to about one quarter of a revolution. This rim is indented about a quarter of its circumference, and is actuated by a beveled pinion, placed on the inner extremity of the

the pendant's axis, which, by being turned to the right or left, will cause either the hours or quarters to strike first, according to the direction of motion; and pins inserted into the plane of the rim, at the side opposite to the indentation, lift the hammer-tail to strike as many blows as the hour and quarter notches made on the inner edge of the rim, and acting with the second arms of the detents, respectively determine. In this mechanism, a chain wound round a barrel containing a spring, and fixed on the pillar-plate, brings the steel rim back again to its original situation, which entirely depends on the position of the snails.

A patent was taken out for a repeating watch by the same ingenious man, dated 30th October, 1806; but as we have not seen the description thereof, we are unable to say how it differs from either of those which we have just described.

Berrollas' Repeater.—Joseph Anthony Berrollas of Denmark-street, in the parish of St. Giles in the Fields, London, took out a patent for what he calls an *infallible* repeating watch, bearing date 31st October, 1808, of which watch we shall give a brief description in this place. In the plate to which we last referred, *fig. 6.* shews the repeating portion of Berrollas' watch, in a state of action; *fig. 7.* shews the calliper of the common movement, hammer, and ring used for the bell; and the detached pieces of the repeating portion are represented singly in the group of *fig. 8.* Like Elliot, Berrollas founds his pretensions to public approbation on the simplicity of his contrivance, and on the consequent cheapness, where the repeating motion by wheels and pinions is dispensed with, and where one hammer only is necessary for striking both the hours and quarters. Though we have not seen the watch we now undertake to describe, yet as it has some peculiarities in its construction, not quite so intelligible as could be wished in the description given in the Repertory of Arts, vol. xiv. p. 364, we will venture to deviate a little from the author's own account. The outside of the watch resembles common watches, except in the pendant, which is mounted with a button, consisting of two parts, C and X: the lower one, X, does not move, and the upper one, C, having an endless screw annexed to it, turns round and comes out to the extent of four turns, and is cut into four turns and a half. The upper part of the button C, being turned to the right, screws off from the lower part X, and operating upon the hour-rack A, can be continued to be unfcrewed until it has struck the hour which the hand indicates, when it cannot be further unfcrewed. The same part C, being afterwards screwed to the left, to bring it back again to join the lower fixed part X, operates upon the quarter-rack B, and quarters are struck in the same manner as the hours, until the part C is completely joined to the part X. The piece W draws piece B back to its former station. The motion is composed of three principal parts, A, B, and C: A contains the hour-rack, B the quarter-rack, and C the pendant and endless screw. The piece C, turning on itself, ascends perpendicularly, and is kept in a proper direction by the piece E, which performs two objects. The interior of it forms the catch-work of the screw, whilst the exterior is fixed by two screws on the pillar-plate; and when the piece C is turned, it acts upon the piece A, and gives it a circular motion, first by means of the piece D D, whose interior is caught in the notch at the extremity of the piece C, while the exterior part of it is caught in the piece A; secondly, by the piece F, which holds the piece D D in a groove; thirdly, by the piece G, which is fixed to the pillar-plate with three screws, and under which the piece A is fixed by means of a pivot, on which it moves. The piece A, being thus moved, catches by means of twelve teeth, cut in its in-

terior part, the piece H, which puts in action the hammer Q, that strikes on the bell-spring R, fixed to the pillar-plate S, as seen in *fig. 6.*

The piece A passes under the piece K, which is a brass bar with two screws to keep piece A from rising. In order to give a free and a steady motion to the piece A, it is operated upon by a pivot fastened to a spring U, placed on the inside of the pillar-plate; which pivot, passing through a hole in the pillar-plate, causes a steady friction under the teeth of the piece A. The piece A is regulated by the star N and hour-snail M, in the common way, with a jumper and spring, when the hours are struck; also the quarter-snail P, the quarter-piece B, and its spring O, regulate the same, when the quarters are struck, through the agency of the forked piece J, which is on the same arbor as the tail-piece H and hammer. The tooth V, on the piece A, falls on one of the steps of the hour-snail, and determines the number of strokes for the hours, when A is turned one way round, and the heel-piece of the quarter-piece near P falls on the quarter-snail, when the motion is given to A in the contrary direction, and thus determines the strokes given for the quarters, while two springs keep the tail-pieces H and J in their respective places; one of which springs, L, is seen upon the plate, and the other is fast to the piece K, not seen. Thus the striking in this watch is produced by manual pressure, as is done in Elliot's watches, and the mechanism differs from that at the rooms of the Adelphi Society only in these respects:—that the motion is produced by a screw, instead of a pinion; and the piece A moves round a pivot at the end of the cock G, instead of being formed into an exact ring to move within friction-rollers.

Alarm, 'larum, or warning Watch.—The watches which we have above described under the denomination of *repeating* watches, can be useful only to persons who are awake, and, therefore, do not answer the purpose of giving previous notice of the approach of any particular hour and minute, at which it may be required to be roused from sleep. This purpose is usually effected by a 'larum clock; but we will now describe how the same thing has been done by some additions to a pocket-watch. We will first describe the former method of adding the warning mechanism to a watch, and then explain the construction lately adopted by Berrollas, and secured to himself by a patent. The old 'larum watch has been so well described by Berthoud, in the first volume of his "Histoire de la Mesure du Temps," p. 66, &c. that we cannot do better than give a similar drawing and description, after omitting his account of the ordinary movement.

In the frame of the watch a spring-box is made fast to the under side of the upper-plate, and has a great wheel, ratchet, and click, to wind up by; but the winding is performed by the key inserted on the square end of the spring-arbor, while the box remains at rest. When the great wheel is made to revolve by the ratchet, it drives two other wheels and pinions, which, with it, constitute the warning train, and is in every respect similar to a repeating train, except that there is an escapement-wheel instead of a fly. This train, therefore, will be the more easily understood, from our preceding description of the striking or repeating train. *Fig. 8. of Plate XLVI.* exhibits so much of the warning mechanism as appears on the exterior face of the upper-plate, and will suffice to explain the construction and action of all the essential parts, if we bear in mind that a part of the warning train and the spring-box are within the frame, of which this plate forms the cover. The arbor of the concealed spring-box is seen at A, bearing a finger that acts with three teeth cut in the semicircle of the circular piece F, pivoted

pivotted into the cock *G*. In the present position, the finger carried by the spring-arbor is resting on the plain or unindented part of piece *F*, and is keeping the spring to its required degree of tension. When the key for winding is applied to the square of this arbor, the teeth of piece *F* regulate the number of turns that the spring requires to be wound, before it comes to its due tension for driving the warning-train. The wheel *n*, under the cock *H*, is on the arbor of the pinion driven, within the frame, by the great wheel, and may be called the second wheel of the warning-train; and the pinion driven by it is on the same arbor as the escapement-wheel *R*, (pivotted also into cock *H*), which is the third or last wheel of the train. The teeth of the escapement-wheel, when put in motion by the main-spring urging it through the train, acts with the two pallets *a* and *b* alternately, which are connected by the portions of two small wheels: that represented by *a* is fast to the square end of the hammer-arbor, concealed in the frame; and the other, *b*, turns on a fixed stud on the plate. The forked piece or angular lever *1 2*, of the piece *b*, embraces the angular end *d* of the warning-detent *d f 4*, which is moveable at *f*, while the remote end *4* presses on a spiral plate *p*, made fast to the wheel of the hours *C*, by the action of the spring *q*. Now as plate *p* revolves once in twelve hours, and has only one step at *o*, the end of the spiral, it is obvious that, when this step comes to the angular point *4* of the detent, this point will drop suddenly towards the centre of the hours-wheel, and at the same instant the angular end *d* will quit the fork *1 2* of the piece *b*, which will now be at liberty to obey the force of the escapement-wheel *R*, exerted on the pallets *a* and *b* alternately; and the concealed semi-circular hammer, on the arbor of pallet *a*, will strike at both ends alternately against the sonorous ring that produces the warning noise, until the finger of *A* has gathered up all the teeth of piece *F*, and is again arrested on the opposite point of the diameter beyond the last tooth. At *x* the piece *b* has a tail-piece, which vibrates between the elastic prongs of the fixed fork *P*, and thus brings back the hammer after each stroke to the right and left; and the frequency and loudness of these reiterated strokes are competent to rouse any person, not too lethargic, from a state of sleep. A small dial-plate lying over the centre of the watch-face, and divided into twelve hours and parts, is so connected with the spiral-plate *p*, that turning this dial to a pointer, made on the short end of the hour-hand, will put the step *o* into a proper situation for making the point *4* of the detent fall at the time required, and will consequently produce the alarm at the time for which the small dial is thus adjusted.

Warning Watch by Berrolas.—In the year 1810 we find J. A. Berrolas residing in Copple-row, Clerkenwell, and taking out a patent, on the 26th of May of that year, for a warning watch of a new construction, which we will next proceed to describe; but the description given of this invention in the Repertory of Arts, &c. is so imperfect, at least to us so unintelligible, that we have been obliged to alter both the drawings and explanation, before we could make the mechanical contrivances understood. The reasons which seem to have induced Berrolas to attempt a new construction of a warning watch, were the inconveniences attending winding up, setting to time, and turning the small dial-plate, all which he professes to have obviated. We have shewn the different parts of this mechanism in several figures in Plate XLIV., which we shall now proceed to explain in our own way. In fig. 10, *a* shews the place of the main-spring, and *b* the fusee of the ordinary works, which are constructed in the common way, but which are not seen in fig. 11, that represents an elongated section of

the warning mechanism and dial-work only. At *c* is the arbor of the warning-spring box, of the great wheel of 60 teeth, and of a ratchet-wheel, which is made of steel with 33 teeth, that catch the tail of the hammer *d*, and make it strike against the circular rim of steel, while the spring *e* brings back the hammer after each stroke. This part of the mechanism is not given in the original drawings, nor yet fig. 11, which explains the action. As the strokes are made by a wheel on the arbor of the spring-box, it was necessary that it should wind five times round, that the blows might be sufficiently numerous and loud for giving the alarm: hence 165 (33×5) strokes are given at once winding, and the first is the loudest, as being urged by the warning-spring, without a fusee, at its greatest degree of tension; an advantage which the inventor seems to have overlooked in his own account. These parts, and also the pinion *f*, are planted within the frame, as seen in fig. 11; but the parts shewn in figs. 9, 13, and 14, are on the exterior face of the upper-plate, agreeably to the calliper given in fig. 9, but acting together, as more clearly represented in fig. 11, where the pivot-holes are supposed to be in a right line, for the sole purpose of explanation. The arbor of pinion *f* ascends through the upper-plate of the frame, and has the wheel *g* attached to it, which drives a second pinion on the arbor of an escapement-wheel *b*; which two wheels are pivotted above into a long cock, screwed to the upper plate; all which positions are clearly seen in fig. 11, as well as the mode by which the motion and force are transmitted from the main-spring *c* to the pallets *i, i*. The wheel *g* has 45 teeth, the escapement-wheel 20, and the two pinions each six leaves. This assemblage of wheels and pinions constitutes the warning-train; but the warning detent, on which much stress is laid by the inventor, remains yet to be described. This detent *k* is seen in two detached positions, in fig. 14, where the parts 1, 2, and 3, are taken off, to render their uses more obvious. The dial-work consists of a cannon-pinion of 12 leaves, the wheel *q* of 36 teeth on the stud, its pinion *r* of 10, and the hours-wheel *n* of 40, which are

common numbers, that may be thus expressed: viz. $\frac{36}{12} \times$

$$\frac{40}{10} = \frac{1440}{120} = 12. \text{ Between the hours-wheel and the}$$

cannon-pinion the ring of the detent *k* surrounds the arbor of the centre-wheel, or rather the tube of the cannon-pinion, but not so as to be tight upon it: on the hours-wheel *n* is a pin projecting above and below its plane, as seen in fig. 13, against which pin the rim of the said ring is pressed by the spring *t*, as seen in fig. 9. Now as the screw 1 takes into the cock 3, made fast to the plate, after it has passed through a hole in the lever of the detent, this screw becomes the centre of motion of the detent, and the pressure of the spring *t* at one end elevates the ring at the other, and with it the perpendicular bar *l*, which reaches to the teeth of the escapement-wheel *b*; so that when the elevation of this bar *l* exceeds the plane of the escapement-wheel, the train will be at liberty to run on, and the hammer will be made to strike a repetition of blows; but while the elevation of the said bar *l* lies in the same plane with the teeth of the escapement-wheel, it will operate as a detent to the train, and silence will be preserved. Above the hours-wheel *n*, and on its tube, revolves a large additional wheel *m*, bearing a circular piece of steel, with an oblong notch cut through it, as seen in fig. 13; and the pressure of the upper end of the pin in the hours-wheel is against this circular steel piece at all times, except when it arrives at the said notch, and then it ascends into it by the downward action of the

spring t , beyond the centre of motion i ; and at this instant the bar h , ascending also, quits the teeth of the escapement-wheel, and suffers the alarm to commence, and to continue until the warning-spring is relaxed. It does not, however, appear by what means the pin of the hours-wheel is disengaged from the oblong hole in the steel circle of wheel m , when the blows of the hammer are finished, unless the second edge of the slit be made sloping; and its continuance there must obviously stop the watch, by preventing the free progress of the hours-wheel. Either the mechanism or the original description must be defective in this part. Within the ring of the pendant is a button, in form of an acorn, which constitutes the head of a steel arbor, terminating with a pinion s , that actuates a contrate-wheel o , which has teeth also on the edge, that drive the double pinion p ; the upper portion of which pinion again impels the large wheel m , that carries the small hand, and also the circular piece of notched steel. This train is introduced for the purpose of setting the warning-hand, which is the shortest of the three seen in *fig. 12*, to the requisite hour on the small fixed dial, without opening the case, and deranging the other hands for shewing hours and minutes in the usual way. At the bottom of the acorn there is a small ratchet-wheel, with a click and spring, seen detached between *figs. 11* and *14*, the use of which is to allow the acorn to turn only in one direction, while the warning-hand is set to its place. It is a condition to be observed in setting the hour-hand, that it lie exactly over the pin in the hours-wheel, and also that the warning-hand lie parallel to the slit of the steel circle, attached to the wheel m . Lastly, the warning mechanism may be put into a state of action, or of inaction, by moving the button v , in the case, to the right or left, so as to fall in the way of the end of the detent k , or to escape it.

Rolling Watch.—After having described various contrivances of watches adapted for the pocket, and contributing to the punctuality with which social intercourse is carried on in civilized life, we proceed lastly to describe the mechanism of a watch, which will measure time only by its descent down an inclined plane, and which therefore is more curious than useful. During the time that various experiments on the laws of moving bodies were made, and applied to the regulation of horological machines by Dr. Wallis, Sir Christopher Wren, Dr. Hooke, Huygens, Leibnitz, Dr. Halley, Sir Isaac Newton, and others, M. de Gennev and the marquis of Worcester contrived watches, the former of which would *ascend*, and the latter *descend* along an inclined plane, by means of a spring coiled up at the centre of the frame, which relaxed as the rolling motion proceeded; but as no explanation had been given of these contrivances in the year 1684, Mr. Maurice Wheeler published an account of a rolling watch, invented by him, in the first volume of Lowthorp's Abridgment of the Philosophical Transactions of London, p. 468, et seq., which account has been copied into other works of science; but which we will abridge, agreeably to our own plan of description. In *fig. 15*, *Plate XLIV.*, let ab be the diameter of the circle $afbb$, standing on the dotted horizontal base bm , on the point b . In this situation, supposing the circle to be an uniform plate of metal, it will remain at rest when placed truly vertical, while the line bm remains horizontal; but make this line to coincide with the inclined line nbs , and the circle will roll down this inclined plane, because the vertical line, or line of direction, de , raised from the point d , which will be the new point of contact, falls behind e , the centre of gravity of the uniform circular plate; so that the portion efd becoming smaller than the portion ebd , the cen-

tre of gravity will be before the bearing point d , and the plate will roll down the plane; and the motion thus produced will have the greater velocity, the more the plane nb is inclined to the horizontal line. But if such a piece of metal g be attached to the portion efd as will form a counterpoise therewith to the larger portion ebd , then the plate will have no tendency to roll, but become stationary, so long as the inclination of the plane, and the position of the additional piece g , remain unaltered; but lessen the angle of inclination, or remove the weight g towards f , and, in either case, the plate will actually ascend, till the weight g , in its new position, balances the new angle of inclination. Also, if the angle be increased, or the weight g be brought nearer to d , in either case the plate will descend; but as the descent of the plate down the increased inclination, by a rolling motion, throws the weight g farther from the point of contact d , the rolling motion will stop as soon as the retrograde motion of the weight shall have produced a counterpoise to the portion ebd of the plate in the new inclined plane.

These premises being granted, we are now prepared to shew how the train of a watch in motion may be made to change the position of an appended weight in such way as to render that weight a maintaining power during the whole time that a cylindrical box, which contains the weight and movement, shall gradually and slowly descend down a corresponding inclined plane, while a pendulous hand or index shall point out the successive hours and parts during the said descent. Let the four wheels and pinions, shewn in *fig. 17*, be placed like the common train of a watch, with the arbor α of the great wheel in the centre of the box, and conceive a balance and escapement to allow one tooth of the last wheel to escape at every alternate oscillation of the moving balance; then let the weight w , at the end of the lever αw , be made fast to the said arbor at the hole α , *fig. 16*, as is seen in *fig. 17*; and let its position be between d and f ; and the tendency of the weight w to come to d , will draw round the great wheel, pivotted to the ends of the box, and give such motion to the train as will keep up the oscillations of the balance; but this motion of the great wheel will be so slow, that it will be scarcely perceptible when the angle of inclination is small; but increase this angle, or alter the position or the magnitude of the weight, and the force will be increased by which the train is actuated; so that by one alteration or other, or all, such a final adjustment may be made, that the box will revolve exactly in twenty-four hours. But before this can be duly effected, the train of wheels must be counterpoised by a load, attached to the box at the opposite side of the centre, so that there may be one common centre of gravity of all the materials, exclusive of the weight w , falling in every position of the box, at the centre of motion of the weight w ; *i. e.* at the arbor of the great wheel round which the box revolves. When this is the case, and the angle of elevation of the plane is nicely adjusted by a screw A , as in *fig. 18*, the regulated train of the watch will allow the weight w to approach d , just as fast as the rolling motion of the box will throw it back, and the equipoise of these two contrary actions of gravity, and of the rotation of the box produced thereby, will keep up an uniform slow motion down the inclined plane. In some constructions detailed in the "Recueil d'Ouvrages curieux de Mathematique et de Mechanique; ou Description du Cabinet de Monsieur de Serviere," a Lyon, 1733, the hours are drawn on the face of the inclined plane, and indicated by the point of contact of the box; but in the watch before us, one end of the box contains the figures from 1. to XII. twice over, and a pendulous hand, made heavy below, and revolving loosely on the pivot of the great wheel, always

always points upwards to the passing hour, as represented in *fig. 18*.

In the work of which we have just given the double title, there are various devices for making balls descend on spiral and zigzag planes in a given time, which are again elevated by a spring, and which indicate the time by the number of their descents; but these matters of curiosity are no longer useful as horological machines in the present state of the science of horology.

Musical Watch.—The works of a watch may be applied moreover to give motion to various devices and pieces of machinery, at the same time that the watch performs its own operations; such as actuating the handle of a planetarium, or orrery, exhibiting the motions of any of the celestial bodies by means of its dial-work, or urging the barrel of small musical chimes: but after the detailed accounts we have given of *PLANETARY MACHINES*, it will only be necessary here to explain how a tune may be played by a musical watch, from which our reader will perceive that the application of similar means to other amusing purposes is equally practicable. In *Plate XLII. of Horology, fig. 4*, exhibits, on an enlarged scale, the internal disposition of a watch-movement, as seen on the pillar-plate from above, when the other plate of the frame is removed, and the watch laid down on its face; the pillars being supposed to be at the circles N, N, N, and N; the box A contains the main-spring; B is the fusee, with the chain or cord winding round it, as it comes from the circumference of the said box; D is the great wheel, and within it are the ratchet, click, and spring, as usual; E is the pinion of the centre wheel, or hour-wheel, F, and is driven by the great wheel as soon as the main-spring is wound up; G is the pinion on the arbor of the second wheel, and is driven by F; and H, that revolves in the same time with the pinion G, is the third wheel, which wheel again actuates a pinion, I, on the arbor of the fourth wheel, K; which here is not a contrate-wheel, because the balance-wheel I is made for the cylinder escapement, which we described under the article *ESCAPEMENT*, N° 8. The arbors of these wheels and pinions pointing upwards to meet the eye, appear only in plan; and the dial-work, lying under the plate, is concealed from view. The parts done only in outline exhibit the calliper of the watch, independently of the musical train, barrel, spring, and other appendages, which are *sketched*, for the purpose of distinguishing this portion from the ordinary movement of the watch. In this figure, the calliper of the musical train and spring-barrel may be observed to lie on one side of the frame; but the mode of their action will be better explained by *fig. 5*, which is a section of the frame, in which the calliper is so altered into a straight line, for the purpose only of explanation, that the effect to be produced may be clearly comprehended. In both the figures, 4 and 5, the great wheel attached to the spring-barrel is denoted by the unit 1, and the wheels that follow, with their respective pinions in the musical train, are denoted by 2, 3, 4, and 5, till we come to the regulating fly, 6, placed on the arbor of the last pinion. This fly performs the same office as in the striking part of a clock, or repeating train of a watch; that is, it regulates the velocity with which the main-spring shall unbend itself, and give motion to the barrel in which it is contained; so that if a quick motion be required, a few wheels and pinions only are necessary, and a light fly; but when the motion is required to be slow, there must be a longer train, or a heavier fly, proportioned to the strength of the main-spring. The interior end of the spring is, as in the common main-spring boxes, hooked to a pin on the arbor *d*, and the exterior end

to the side of the box, so that turning the arbor *d* round by a key, coils the spring into its state of greatest tension, which is adjusted by the notched piece, or ratchet, *e*, which is held to its place by the click and spring in the usual way, as represented in *fig. 6*. Upon the rim or cylindrical side of the box *a*, containing the main-spring, are inserted various pins in parallel lines, but at unequal distances, according to the frequency of the occurrence of the respective notes to be sounded by the corresponding prongs of the forked piece of steel *b c*, in any given tune which is to be played; and the number of prongs must be equal to the number of musical tones and semi-tones to be produced. In the drawing before us the fork has eight prongs, and the notes are produced by the catching of the pins, inserted into the revolving barrel, on the ends of the prongs, which are elastic and tapered, as well as tempered, to produce the requisite succession of tones that are required in the tune to be performed.

The upper pivots of all the arbors of the musical train are callipered in the cock *b b*, while the lower pivots have their holes on the pillar-plate; and upon this cock *b b* the bent detent, or double lever *f e*, with a hook at *e*, is placed so as to be moveable round a screw at the angular point in the middle: the hook of this detent is kept close to the revolving barrel by the pressing spring *i*, and when the tune is finished, a hole is caught on the side of the barrel, free from the pins, by the hook *e*, which slays the motion till the button *g*, in the case of the watch, is pushed in against the tail-piece of the detent, and frees the hook again from its hole, when the tune is repeated nearly in the same manner that chimes are usually performed. (See *CHIMES*.) The parts drawn in perspective in *fig. 6*, represent a construction in which the elastic prongs of the musical fork are bent into a curve, so as to occupy less space than in *figs. 4 and 5*, or to produce more powerful tones where the space will admit of an enlargement of their dimensions. But instead of a barrel containing the main-spring, sometimes a cylinder, A, revolving in the cocks *o* and *p*, contains the pins, as is seen in *fig. 7*, where a pinion on the projecting arbor of the cylinder is actuated by the great wheel attached to the spring-box; and this construction is best calculated for a fork with more tones, and consequently for a tune of greater compass. *Fig. 8* shews how the prong of the fork is caught by the pins in succession, and *fig. 9* explains how a number of double-pronged forks, *b c*, are separately screwed into a frame, *k*, where the difference in the tones is produced by a corresponding difference in the dimensions of the prongs. The hole in which the hook *e* falls is here in the end of the cylinder, but the motion is not stayed thereby; for the slender spring, pressing against it, lays hold of the fly-pinion, when it follows the detent, and thus stops the part that has the greatest velocity, and least power; whereas considerable strain takes place on the barrel when its motion is stopped by the hook of the detent, as in *figs. 4 and 6*. The arrangement in *fig. 4* is best suited for a small watch, but does not produce the most audible tones; and is that which is usually concealed in the *Swiss musical seats*, that have been lately introduced into England: but the cylinder in *fig. 7* is that which the *musical boxes* contain, and which, from its length, is capable of containing two tunes, as well as notes on both the treble and bass clefs. When the elastic prongs are tempered, they are brought to an exact musical scale by grinding with oil-stone dust, and the prongs that require to have their tones much flattened, are made more slender at the end most remote from the cylinder or barrel, where their resistance to motion is diminished, so that the vibrations are rendered less frequent, and the tones less acute. When a
second

WATCH.

second tune is played, the cylinder is pushed into and held in a new situation, as in a barrel-organ.

WATCH-MAKER is a term that might originally denote the maker of a watch out of the rough materials; but this was the case only in the infancy of the art; for when the demand for pocket-watches became so great as to render the manufacture an object of commerce, the consequent division of labour was soon found to facilitate the execution; and each branch of the trade had its appropriate tools and artificers; so that thousands of families have at length been employed and maintained by their respective manipulations, without interfering with the business of their neighbours, who are equally occupied in their respective departments. In this art, the materials are of very little value in their original state; but the workmanship is so various, and requires such delicacy in the management, that, as has been stated to a committee in the house of commons, materials that did not cost sixpence in the state of ore, have been and frequently are manufactured into a watch that is worth 100*l.* and upwards. This view of the subject induced ministers to withdraw their projected plan of taxing watches, as being, in fact, a tax on ingenuity and industry.

We have anticipated much of the subject of watch-making under the articles we have already referred to in horology, for a watch may be considered as a spring-clock in miniature; and what we have said about calculating, calibrating, making, and adjusting the various portions of a small clock, is therefore equally applicable to a watch, except that the balance must be substituted for the pendulum. It may gratify the curiosity of our readers, however, to explain how the labour, we have adverted to, is divided and subdivided into various branches of manufacture; and how persons situated at different parts of the kingdom conspire, without any mutual knowledge of each other, to bring this small piece of mechanism into its finished state.

The best watch-movements are made at Patecote, in Lancashire, by persons called movement-makers, who furnish the movement complete to the London watch-makers.

The following is a list of the principal workmen employed in manufacturing a movement, previously to its coming into the hands of the London watch-maker.

1. The frame-maker, who makes the frame; that is to say, the two plates, the bar, and the potance.
2. The pillar-maker, who turns the pillars, and makes the stud for the stop-work.
3. The cock-maker, who makes the cock and the stop-work.
4. The barrel and fusee-maker, who makes the barrel, great wheel, fusee, and their component parts.
5. The going fusee-maker, who makes the going fusee, (the means by which the watch is kept going while winding up,) when made use of.
6. The centre wheel and pinion-maker, who makes the same.
7. The small pinion-maker, who makes it of wire, previously drawn by another workman, called pinion-wire; the third and fourth wheels, and escapement-wheel pinion; and in the case of repeaters, the pinions of the repeating train of wheels; these are all finished in the engine.
8. The small wheel-maker, who makes the third and fourth wheels, and the wheels of the repeating train for repeating movements, and rivets them to their pinions.
9. The wheel-cutter, who cuts the wheels.
10. The verge-maker, who makes the verge of vertical watches.
11. The movement-finisher, who turns the wheels of a proper size previously to their being cut, forwards them to

and receives them from the wheel-cutter, examines all the parts as they are made, to see that they are as they should be; and finally completes the movement, and puts it together.

12. The balance-maker, who makes the balance of steel or brass.

Note.—The brass balance is preferred to the steel balance by some watch-makers, in consequence of the latter being subject to the influence of magnetism: but others prefer the steel to the brass balance, in consequence of the latter being more influenced by variation of temperature than the former.

13. The pinion wire-drawer, who prepares the pinion-wire; this, however, may be considered as only a branch of the trade of wire-drawing.

The plates and wheels are now all made out of rolled brass; but formerly, when it was to be had, they were made of Dutch brass, it being considered preferable to the English.

The movement, in the state in which it is sent to the London watch-maker, consists of the frame, composed of two plates, connected together by four or five pillars, as the case may be, which pillars are riveted to one of the plates, called the pillar-plate; the wheels, consisting of the great wheel attached to the fusee, the second or centre wheel, the third and fourth wheels, the fusee and barrel, potance and stop-work, which latter are attached to the upper plate, (so called in contradistinction to the pillar-plate,) but the potance screwed to it is between the plates; and lastly, the cock screwed to the outside of the upper plate.

The following is a list of the principal workmen employed on a watch to complete it from the state in which the movement is received from the country.

1. The slide-maker, who makes the slide.
2. The jeweller, who jewels the cock and potance, and, in a more forward state of the watch, any other holes that are required to be jewelled.
3. The motion-maker, who makes the brass edge; and, after the case is made, joints and locks the watch into the case, and makes the motion-wheels and pinions.
4. The wheel-cutter, who cuts the motion-wheels for the motion-maker.
5. The cap-maker, who makes the cap.
6. The dial-plate maker, who makes the dial.
7. The painter, who paints the dial.
8. The case-maker, who makes the case.
9. The joint-finisher, who finishes the joint of the case.
10. The pendant-maker, who makes the pendant.
11. The engraver, who engraves the name of the watch-maker on the upper plate; and also engraves the cock and slide, or index, as the case may be.
12. The piercer, who pierces the cock and slide for the engraver, and afterwards engraves them.
13. The escapement-maker, who makes the horizontal, duplex, or detached escapements; but the escapement of a vertical watch is made by the finisher.
14. The spring-maker, who makes the main-spring.
15. The chain-maker, who makes the chain.
16. The finisher, who completes the watch, and makes the pendulum-spring, and adjusts it.
17. The gilder, who gilds the watch.
18. The fusee-cutter, who cuts the fusee to receive the chain, and also balance-wheel of the vertical escapement.
19. The hand-maker, who makes the hands.
20. The glass-maker, who makes the glass.
21. To these must be added the pendulum-spring wire-drawer,

drawer, who draws the wire for the pendulum-springs, which is almost a distinct trade.

The above are the principal workmen employed in the manufacture of a plain watch; in the manufacture of a repeater, the same workmen are employed, with the addition of the repeating motion-maker, in the place of the maker of the plain motion, who makes the brass edge and motion, and joints and locks or fixes in, which ever way it is done, the watch into its case; and when the repeater is made to strike on bell-springs, the motion-maker makes the springs. Formerly, repeaters were made to strike what was termed dumb; that is to say, a dead blow against the case or cap, or else on a bell, which bell was made by a separate workman, entitled the bell-maker. But the bell-springs have now entirely superseded the old bells. The same spring-maker who makes the main-spring of the watch, also makes the main-spring of the repeating train of wheels.

The springs of a hunting-case are made by a separate workman, called a secret spring-maker. Single cases (not hunting-cases) are frequently made to open with springs: pairs of cases (the old-fashioned box and case) are sprung, lined, and polished by a workman called a springer and liner; the better description of single cases and hunting-cases are polished by a person simply called the polisher: this is sometimes done by women, particularly by the wives of some of the case-makers; and this is the only branch of the trade, probably, in which women are employed in this country.

The compensation-balances for chronometers are sometimes made by the escapement-maker, and sometimes by a separate workman, who confines himself entirely to making compensation-balances.

Plain watch-movements are made of all prices, from 2s. 6d. to 2l. 12s. 6d.; but repeating movements cost from 2l. to 4l. 4s. each, according to their quality. There are many inferior movements, made as low as 21s. a dozen. The lowest prices at which the movements called Lancashire movements are sold, is 7s. for plain, and 2l. 10s. for repeating movements.

The principal London watch-makers order the movements, as above described, of the movement-makers of Prescot, who make them according to the callipers they receive from each maker with their orders. But the ordinary description of movements may be purchased at most of the watch-tool shops in London; one of the chief of which is Fenn's, N° 105, Newgate-street, where every description of clock and watch-makers' tools and engines may also be procured at moderate prices.

At and near Geneva, but chiefly at Locle and Chaux de Fond, in the principality of Neuchâtel, the Swiss watches are manufactured in great numbers. In these manufactories women are very generally employed, and the subdivision of labour is carried still further than in our's; and this concurs with the poverty of the workmen, and other causes, to render these watches cheaper than the English manufacturers can make them. The Swiss watches have accordingly supplanted the English in many countries of Europe. In general, the workmanship of the Swiss watches is exceedingly slight.

WATCH-MAKING is the art of making watches. See WATCH-MAKER.

WATCH-TOOLS are the tools with which watches are usually made, such as vices, pliers, files, hammers, drills, gravers, turning-tools, broaches, turn-benches, balance-tools, spring-tongs, gauges, spring-tools, fusee-adjusting tools, pitching-tools, callipers, screw-plates, burnishers, wire-nippers, screw-drivers, and various others, which would require several

plates to represent them, but which greatly resemble the clock-tools that we have described and explained by a reference to *Plates XIX., XX., and XXI., of Horology.*

WATCH-GLASS, the concavo-convex portion of a glass-sphere usually employed to cover the dial of a watch. The spheres out of which the watch-glasses are cut are blown of various dimensions, according to the degree of convexity required: the edges are then ground to fit the groove of the cover of the watch-case. There is a superior description of watch-glasses, technically called *bottoms*, which are not portions of spheres, but are flat on the top, the edges only being concave. Each of these is cut from a separate piece of hollow glass, blown in the shape of a cone, of which the watch-glass forms the bottom; whence it takes its name. The waste of glass is, therefore, considerable, and the flat glasses are consequently much more expensive than the spherical. The method of converting a circular piece of plain glass into a concave, by a heated convex piece of iron, as recommended by Boyle, (see *Works Abr.* vol. i. p. 135.) is no longer practised in the construction of watch-glasses; but large convex glasses for clock-faces are frequently made in this way.

WATCH AND WARD, in *Law*, constitute one of the principal duties of constables, who, by the statute of Winchester, 13 Edw. I. cap. 4., are appointed to keep watch and ward in their respective jurisdictions. Ward, guard or *custodia*, is chiefly intended of the day-time, in order to apprehend rioters, and robbers on the high-ways; the manner of doing which is left to the discretion of the justices of the peace and the constable; the hundred being, however, answerable for all robberies committed therein, by day-light, for having kept negligent guard.

Watch is properly applicable to the night only (being called among our Teutonic ancestors *wach* or *waada*), and it begins at the time when ward ends, and ends when that begins; for, by the statute of Winchester, in walled towns the gates shall be closed from sun-setting to sun-rising, and watch shall be kept in every borough and town, especially in the summer season, to apprehend all rogues, vagabonds, and night-walkers, and make them give an account of themselves. The constable may appoint watchmen at his discretion, regulated by the custom of the place; and these, being his deputies, have for the time being the authority of their principal. Blackst. Com. book i.

WATCH POINT, in *Geography*, a cape on the E. coast of Rhode island. N. lat. 41° 13'. W. long. 71° 50'.

WATCHER, NORTH, or *Seven Islands*, a cluster of small islands, in the straits of Macassar, near the W. coast of Celebes. S. lat. 0° 27'. E. long. 119° 33'.

WATCHER, SOUTH, a small island in the straits of Macassar, near the W. coast of Celebes. S. lat. 0° 3'. E. long. 119° 24'.

WATCHET, an ancient borough, market, and sea-port town, in the parish of St. Decumans, hundred of Williton and Freemanors, and county of Somerset, England, is situated in a fruitful vale on the verge of the Bristol channel, at the distance of five miles E. from Dunster, 20 miles W. from Bridgewater, and 157 miles W. by S. from London. In the year 918, the Danes under Ochtor and Rhoad landed here, but were attacked by the inhabitants, and routed with immense slaughter. The scene of this victory is marked by three large barrows, called Grab-barrows, in which have been discovered several cells, containing human bones, and a variety of weapons anciently used in war. In 987 the Danes returned, and succeeded in laying waste the town, but did no further injury: about ten years afterwards they made a third descent; and in order to

remove

remove every obstacle to a future landing, they set fire to the houses, and put nearly all the inhabitants to the sword. This place was one of the villas conferred by William the Conqueror on Sir William Mohun, as an appendage to the castle of Dunster. The town of Watchet is now composed of four streets, mostly paved, and containing about 140 houses. It was formerly a place of considerable trade, and had a very large fishery; but now very few vessels belong to the port, and the trade is limited to a trifling freightage of coal, kelp, alabaster, and lime-stone. In the time of Queen Elizabeth the harbour was cleaned out, and a pier built at the expense of the Wyndham and Luttrell families, then joint lords of the manor: this pier was repaired at the beginning of the last century, by the care of Sir William Wyndham; and a duty granted by parliament on all goods imported, has been applied to making good the expense of further reparations. Two fairs are held annually, and a market weekly on Saturdays. The population, in the return of the year 1811, was included in that of the parish of St. Decuman, which comprehends the town of Watchet, the village of Williton, (whence the hundred derives its name,) and the hamlets of Orchard, Donniford, Kentsford, and Stream, and was then stated to contain in the whole 345 houses, and 1659 inhabitants. The church of this parish, which stands on an eminence about a mile to the south of Watchet, is a handsome structure, a hundred and eight feet in length, and forty-eight in breadth, and consists of a nave, two side aisles, and a chapel, with an elegant embattled tower, eighty feet in height at the west end: in the north aisle are several monuments in memory of the Wyndham family.—Collinson's History and Antiquities of Somersetshire, 4to. 1791.

WATCHING. See SLEEP.

WATEEOO, in *Geography*, an island in the South Pacific Ocean, discovered by Capt. Cook in March 1777; lying in S. lat. 20° 1' and E. long. 201° 45'; about six leagues in circumference. It is a beautiful spot, with the surface varied by hills and plains, and covered with verdure. Some gentlemen who landed from Capt. Cook's company, found the soil where they passed the day to be light and sandy. But farther up the country, where a different sort perhaps prevails, was seen from the ship, by the help of glasses, a reddish cast upon the rising grounds. There the inhabitants have their houses; for they could perceive two or three which were long and spacious. Its produce, with the addition of hogs, was the same as that of *Mangea*, which they had last visited. (See *MANGEEA*.) From cir-

cumstances that are recited, it appears that Wateoo can be of little use to any ship that wants refreshment, unless in a case of the most absolute necessity. The natives, knowing now the value of some of our commodities, might be induced to bring off fruits and hogs, to a ship standing off and on, or to boats lying off the reef. It is doubtful, however, if any fresh water could be procured: for, though some was brought in cocoa-nut shells to the gentlemen, they were told that it was at a considerable distance, and probably it is only to be met with in some stagnant pool, as no running stream was any where seen. The manners of these islanders, their method of treating strangers, and their general habits of life, appear to be much like those that prevail at Otaheite, and its neighbouring isles. Their religious ceremonies and opinions are also nearly the same. The language spoken at Wateoo was equally well understood by Omai, and by two New Zealanders. What its peculiarities may be, when compared with the other dialects, Capt. Cook was not able to point out. The natives of this island sprung originally, without doubt, from the same stock, which has spread itself so wonderfully all over the immense extent of the South sea; though from a circumstance mentioned by Omai they put in their claim to a more illustrious extraction; for they dignified their island with the appellation of "Wenooa no te Eatooa," that is, a land of gods, esteeming themselves a sort of divinities, and possessed with the spirit of the Eatooa: and this notion Omai informed our voyagers was entertained by some at Otaheite, and prevailed universally amongst the inhabitants of Mataia, or Osnaburg island. It appears that Omai, on landing in this island, found three of his own countrymen, natives of the Society islands; one born at Matavai in Otaheite, another at Ulitea, and the third at Huahine. By them he was informed, that about twenty persons, of both sexes, had embarked on board a canoe at Otaheite to cross over to the neighbouring island Ulitea; but they were driven by a storm far from their course, and having exhausted their stock of provisions, they passed many days without food or drink. Many of them fell victims to famine and fatigue, and four only survived to reach this island at the distance of 200 leagues from their native abode, by the inhabitants of which the survivors, clinging to their canoe which was overset, were rescued from their danger and distress, hospitably received, and treated with so much kindness, that the three who remained, and who had lived on this island above twelve years, had no inclination to return, though an opportunity now offered itself for this purpose.

END OF VOL. XXXVII.

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