In executing it, however, he took care to make the terms as advantageous for England as possible, and to make express provision that the Spaniards should in nowise be allowed to interfere in the government of the country. After the coming of Cardinal Pole, and the reconciliation of the realm to the see of Rome, his influence suffered some eclipse, though he still remained in high favour. How far he was responsible for the persecutions which afterwards arose is a debated question. There is no doubt that he sat in judgment on Bishop Hooper, and on several other Protestants whom he condemned to the flames. But being placed on a commission along with a number of other bishops to administer a severe law, it does not appear that he could very well have acted otherwise. On the bench he is said to have used every effort to induce the accused to make concessions and accept a pardon; and a remarkable instance of his clemency is recorded by the church historian Fuller, who, notwithstanding his prejudices, acknowledges a debt of gratitude to him for preserving one of his own ancestors from the persecuting zeal of others. It would seem, moreover, that when he saw the results of the cruel proceedings against heretics, he very soon got tired of them. The persecutions raged with the greatest vehemence during his absence at the Calais peace conferences in 1555, and when he came back he declared he would have no further hand in them, so that those afterwards apprehended in his diocese were removed into that of London in order to be adjudged to the flames. In October 1555 he again opened parliament as lord chancellor, but towards the end of the month he fell ill and grew rapidly worse till the 12th November, when he died about the age of seventy-two.

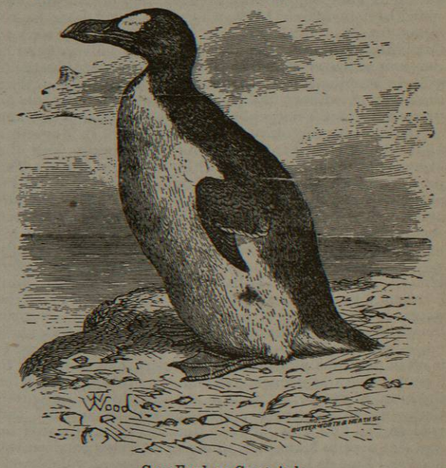
Perhaps no celebrated character of that age has been the subject of so much ill-merited abuse at the hands of popular historians. That his virtue was not equal to every trial may be admitted, but that he was anything like the morose and narrow-minded bigot he is commonly represented there is nothing whatever to show. He has been called ambitious, turbulent, crafty, abject, vindictive, bloodthirsty, and a good many other things besides, not quite in keeping with each other; in addition to which it is roundly asserted by Bishop Burnet that he was despised alike by Henry and by Mary, both of whom made use of him as a tool. How such a mean and abject character submitted to remain five years in prison rather than change his principles is not very clearly explained; and as to his being despised, we have seen already that Henry VIII., at least, did not consider him despicable. The truth is, there is not a single divine or statesman of that day whose course throughout was so thoroughly consistent. He was no friend to the Reformation, it is true, but he was at least a conscientious opponent. In doctrine he adhered to the old faith from first to last, while as a question of church polity, the only matter for consideration with him was whether the new laws and ordinances were constitutionally justifiable.

His merits as a theologian it is unnecessary to discuss; it is as a statesman and a lawyer that he stands conspicuous. But his learning even in divinity was far from commonplace. The manual set forth in 1543 by royal and parliamentary authority, entitled *A necessary Doctrine and Erudition for any Christian Man*, was chiefly from his pen; and at a later date he was the author of various tracts in defence of the Real Presence against Cranmer, some of which, being written in prison, were published abroad under a feigned name. Controversial writings also passed between him and Bucer, with whom he had several interviews in Germany, when he was there as Henry VIII.'s ambassador.

He was a friend of learning in every form, and took great interest especially in promoting the study of Greek at Cambridge. He was, however, opposed to the new method of pronouncing the language introduced by Sir John Cheke, and wrote letters to him and Sir Thomas Smith upon the subject, in which, according to Ascham, his opponents showed themselves the better critics, but he the superior genius. In his own household he loved to take in young university men of promise; and many whom he thus encouraged became distinguished in after life as bishops, ambassadors, and secretaries of state. His house, indeed, was spoken of by Leland as the seat of eloquence and the special abode of the muses.

He lies buried in his own cathedral at Winchester, where his effigy is still to be seen. (J. GA.)

GARE-FOWL[1] (Icelandic, *Geirfugl*; Gaelic, *Gearbhul*), the Anglicized form of the Hebridean name of a large sea-bird, formerly a visitor to certain remote Scottish islands, the GREAT AUK of most English book-writers, and the *Alca impennis* of Linnæus. Of this remarkable creature mention has been already made at some length (BIRDS, vol. iii. pp. 734, 735), but since the species has a mournful



Gare-Fowl, or Great Auk.

history and several egregious misconceptions prevail concerning it, a few more details may not be unacceptable, particularly as many of them have been hitherto confined to works not easily accessible to the general reader, and the presumed extinction of the bird gives it especial interest. In size it was hardly less than a tame Goose, and in appearance it much resembled its smaller and surviving relative the Razor-bill (*Alca torda*); but the glossy black of its head was varied by a large patch of white occupying nearly all the space between the eye and the bill, in place of the Razor-bill's thin white line, while the bill itself bore eight or more deep transverse grooves instead of the smaller number and the ivory-like mark possessed by the species last named. Otherwise the coloration was similar in both, and there is satisfactory evidence that the Gare-fowl's winter-plumage differed from that of the breeding-season just as is ordinarily

[1] The name first appears, and in this form, in the *Account of Hirta* [St Kilda] *and Rona*, &c., by the Lord Register, Sir George M'Kenzie, of Tarbat, printed by Pinkerton in his *Collection of Voyages and Travels* (iii. p. 730), and then in Sibbald's *Scotia Illustrata* (1684). Martin soon after, in his *Voyage to St Kilda*, spelt it "Gairfowl." Prof. Owen has adopted the form "Garfowl," without, as would seem, any precedent authority.

the case in other members of the family *Alcidæ* to which it belongs. The most striking characteristic of the Gare-fowl, however, was the comparatively abortive condition of its wings, the distal portions of which, though the bird was just about twice the linear dimensions of the Razor-bill, were almost exactly of the same size as in that species—proving, if more direct evidence were wanting, its inability to fly.

The most prevalent misconception concerning the Gare-fowl is one which has been repeated so often, and in books of such generally good repute and wide dispersal, that a successful refutation seems almost hopeless. This is the notion that it was a bird possessing a very high northern range, and consequently to be looked for by Arctic explorers. How this error arose would take too long to tell, but the fact remains indisputable that, setting aside general assertions resting on no evidence worthy of attention, there is but a single record deserving any credit at all of a single example of the species having been observed within the Arctic Circle, and this, according to Prof. Reinhardt, who has the best means of ascertaining the truth, is open to grave doubt.[1] It is clear that the older ornithologists let their imagination get the better of their knowedge or their judgment, and their statements have been blindly repeated by most of their successors. Another error which, if not so widely spread, is at least as serious, since Prof. Owen (*Encycl. Brit.*, ed. 8, xvii. p. 176; *Palæontology*, p. 400) has unhappily given it countenance, is that this bird "has not been specially hunted down like the dodo and dinornis, but by degrees has become more scarce." Now, if any reliance can be placed upon the testimony of former observers, the first part of this statement is absolutely untrue. Of the Dodo all we know is that it flourished in Mauritius, its only abode, at the time the island was discovered, and that some 200 years later it had ceased to exist—the mode of its extinction being open to conjecture, and a strong suspicion existing that though indirectly due to man's acts it was accomplished by his thoughtless agents (*Phil. Trans.*, 1869, p. 354). The extinction of the *Dinornis* lies beyond the range of recorded history. Supposing it even to have taken place at the very latest period as yet suggested—and there is much to be urged in favour of such a supposition—little but oral tradition remains to tell us how its extirpation was effected. That it existed after New Zealand was inhabited by man is indeed certain, and there is nothing extraordinary in the proved fact that the early settlers (of whatever race they were) killed and ate Moas. But evidence that the whole population of those birds was done to death by man, however likely it may seem, is wholly wanting. The contrary is the case with the Gare-fowl. In Iceland there is the testimony of a score of witnesses, taken down from their lips by one of the most careful naturalists who ever lived, the late John Wolley, that the latest survivors of the species were caught and killed by expeditions expressly organized with the view of supplying the demands of caterers to the various museums of Europe. In like manner the fact is incontestable that its breeding-stations in the western part of the Atlantic were for three centuries regularly visited and devastated with the combined objects of furnishing food or bait to the fishermen from very early days, and its final extinction, according to Sir Richard Bonnycastle (*Newfoundland in* 1842, i. p. 232) was owing to "the ruthless trade in its eggs and skin." No doubt that one of the chief stations of this species in Icelandic waters disappeared, as has been before said (BIRDS, *loc. cit.*), through volcanic action—

> "A land, of old upheaven from the abyss
> By fire, to sink into the abyss again"—

and that the destruction of the old Geirfuglaskér drove some at least of the birds which frequented it to a rock nearer the mainland, where they were exposed to danger from which they had in their former abode been comparatively free; yet on this rock (Eldey = fire-island) they were "specially hunted down" whenever opportunity offered, until the stock there was wholly extirpated in 1844, and whether any remain elsewhere must be deemed most doubtful.

A third misapprehension is that entertained by Mr Gould who, in his *Birds of Great Britain*, says that "formerly this bird was plentiful in all the northern parts of the British Islands, particularly the Orkneys and the Hebrides. At the commencement of the present century, however, its fate appears to have been sealed; for though it doubtless existed, and probably bred, up to the year 1830, its numbers annually diminished until they became so few that the species could not hold its own."

Now of the Orkneys, we know that Low, who died in 1795, says in his posthumously-published *Fauna Orcadensis* that he could not find it was ever seen there; and on Bullock's visit in 1812 he was told, says Montagu (*Orn Dict. App.*), that one male only had made its appearance for a long time. This bird he saw and unsuccessfully hunted, but it was killed soon after his departure, while its mate had been killed just before his arrival, and none have been seen there since. As to the Hebrides, St Kilda is the only locality recorded for it, and the last example known to have been obtained there, or in its neighbourhood, was that given to Fleming (*Edinb. Phil. Journ.*, x. p. 96) in 1821 or 1822, having been some time before captured by Mr Maclellan of Glass. That the Gare-fowl was not plentiful in either group of islands is sufficiently obvious, as also is the impossibility of its continuing to breed "up to the year 1830."

But mistakes like these are not confined to British authors. As on the death of an ancient hero myths gathered round his memory as quickly as clouds round the setting sun, so have stories, probable as well as impossible, accumulated over the true history of this species, and it behoves the conscientious naturalist to exercise more than common caution in sifting the truth from the large mass of error. Americans have asserted that the specimen which belonged to Audubon (now at Vassar College) was obtained by him on the banks of Newfoundland, though there is Macgillivray's distinct statement (*Brit. Birds*, v. p. 359) that Audubon procured it in London. The account given by Degland (*Orn. Europ.*, ii. p. 529) in 1849, and repeated in the last edition of his work by M. Gerbe, of its extinction in Orkney, is so manifestly absurd that it deserves to be quoted in full:—"Il se trouvait en assez grand nombre il y a une quinzaine d'années aux Orcades; mais le ministre presbytérien dans le Mainland, en offrant une forte prime aux personnes qui lui apportaient cet oiseau, a été cause de sa destruction sur ces îles." The same author claims the species as a visitor to the shores of France on the testimony of Hardy (*Annuaire Normand*, 1841, p. 298), which he grievously misquotes both in his own work and in another place (*Naumannia*, 1855, p. 423), thereby misleading an anonymous English writer (*Nat. Hist. Rev.*, 1865, p. 475) and numerous German readers.

Since the former notice of this species in the general article BIRDS (*ut supra*), the only important contribution to our knowledge of it that has appeared is a paper by Mr John Milne, published in *The Field* newspaper, and since reprinted for private circulation. This gentleman visited Funk Island, one of the former resorts of the Gare-fowl, or "Penguin," as it was there called, in the Newfoundland seas, a place where bones had before been obtained by Stuvitz, and natural mummies so lately as 1863 and 1864. Landing on this rock at the risk of his life, he brought off a rich cargo of its remains, belonging to no fewer than fifty

[1] The specimen is in the Museum of Copenhagen; the doubt lies as to the locality where it was obtained, whether at Disco, which is within, or at the Fiskernäs, which is without, the Arctic Circle.

birds, some of them in size exceeding any that had before been known. His collection has since been dispersed, most of the specimens finding their way into various public museums in this country.

A literature by no means inconsiderable has grown up respecting the Gare-fowl. Neglecting works of general bearing, few of which are without many inaccuracies, the following treatises may be especially mentioned:—J. J. S. Steenstrup, "Et Bidrag til Geirfuglens Naturhistorie og særligt til Kundskaben om dens tidligere Udbredningskreds," *Naturh. Foren. Vidensk. Meddelelser* [Copenhagen], 1855, p. 33; E. Charlton, "On the Great Auk," *Trans. Tyneside Nat. Field Club*, iv. p. 111; "Abstract of Mr J. Wolley's Researches in Iceland respecting the Gare-fowl," *Ibis*, 1861, p. 374; W. Preyer, "Ueber *Plautus impennis*," *Journ. für Orn.*, 1862, pp. 110, 337; K. E. von Baer, "Ueber das Aussterben der Thierarten in physiologischer und nicht physiologischer Hinsicht," *Bull. de l'Acad. Imp. de St Pétersb.*, vi. p. 513; R. Owen, "Description of the Skeleton of the Great Auk," *Trans. Zool. Soc.*, v. p. 317; "The Gare-fowl and its Historians, *Nat. Hist. Rev.*, v. p. 467; J. H. Gurney, jun., "On the Great Auk," *Zoologist*, 2d ser. pp. 1442, 1639; H. Reeks, "Great Auk in Newfoundland," &c., *op. cit.*, p. 1854; V. Fatio, "Sur l'Alca impennis," *Bull. Soc. Orn. Suisse*, ii. pp. 1, 80, 147; "On existing Remains of the Gare-fowl," *Ibis*, 1870, p. 256; J. Milne, "Relics of the Great Auk," *Field*, 27 March, 3 and 10 April 1875. Lastly, reference cannot be omitted to the happy exercise of poetic fancy with which the late Prof. Kingsley was enabled to introduce the chief facts of the Garefowl's extinction (derived from one of the above-named papers) into his charming *Water Babies*. (A. N.)

GARESSIO, GARESSO, or GAREZZO, in Latin *Garexium*, a town of Italy about 18 miles S.E. of Mondovi, in the valley of the Tararo. The Roman remains which are discovered from time to time bear witness to its high antiquity; during the Middle Ages it was the seat of a marquisate, which in 1509 was sold to the Spinola family, and its double walls gave it some importance as a defensible position. Besides a castle, it possesses three old monastic buildings, one of which, the Carthusian convent of Casotto, is an edifice of much magnificence. Population in 1870 nearly 7000.

GAR-FISH is the name given to a genus of fishes (*Belone*) found in nearly all the temperate and tropical seas, and readily recognized by their long, slender, compressed and silvery body, and by their jaws being produced into a long, pointed, bony, and sharply-toothed beak. About fifty species are known from different parts of the globe, some attaining to a length of 4 or 5 feet. One species is common on the British coasts, and is well known by the names of "long-nose," "green-bone," &c. The last name is given to those fishes on account of the peculiar green colour of their bones, which deters many people from eating them, although their flesh is well flavoured and perfectly wholesome. The Skipper (*Scomberesox*) and Half-beak (*Hemirhamphus*), in which the lower jaw only is prolonged, are fishes nearly akin to the gar-pikes. See ICHTHYOLOGY.

GARGANEY [1] (North-Italian, *Garganello*), or SUMMER-TEAL, the *Anas querquedula* and *A. circia* of Linnæus (who made, as did Willughby and Ray, two species out of one), and the type of Stephens's genus *Querquedula*. This bird is one of the smallest of the *Anatidæ*, and has gained its common English name from being almost exclusively a summer-visitant to this country, where nowadays it only regularly resorts to breed in some of the East-Norfolk waters called Broads, though possibly at one time found at the same season throughout the great Fen-district. About the same size as the common Teal (*A. crecca*), the male is readily distinguished therefrom by its peculiarly-coloured head, the sides of which are nutmeg-brown, closely freckled with short whitish streaks, while a conspicuous white curved line descends backwards from the eyes. The upper wing-coverts are bluish-grey, the scapulars black with a white shaft-stripe, and the wing-spot (*speculum*) greyish-green bordered above and below by white. The female closely resembles the hen Teal, but possesses nearly the same wing-spot as her mate. In Ireland or Scotland the Garganey is very rare, and though it is recorded from Iceland, more satisfactory evidence of its occurrence there is needed. It has not a high northern range, and its appearance in Norway and Sweden is casual. Though it breeds in many parts of Europe, in none can it be said to be common; but it ranges far to the eastward in Asia—even to Formosa, according to Swinhoe—and yearly visits India in winter. Those that breed in Norfolk arrive somewhat late in spring and make their nests in the vast reed-beds which border the Broads—a situation rarely or never chosen by the Teal. The labyrinth or bony enlargement of the trachea in the male Garganey differs in form from that described in any other Drake, being more oval and placed nearly in the median line of the windpipe, instead of on one side, as is usually the case.

[1] The word was introduced by Willughby from Gesner (*Orn.*; lib. iii. p. 127), but, though generally adopted by authors, seems never to have become other than a book-name in English, the bird being invariably known in the parts of this island where it is indigenous as "Summer-Teal."

GARHWÁL, a district of British India, in the Kumáon division, under the jurisdiction of the lieutenant-governor of the North-Western Provinces, situated between 29° 16′ 15″ and 31° 5′ 30″ N. lat., and 78° 18′ 45″ and 80° 8′ E. long, and bounded on the N. by Chinese Tibet, on the E. by Kumáon district, on the S. by Bijnor district, and on the W. by Independent Garhwál or Telri. Garhwál district consists almost entirely of rugged mountain ranges running in all directions, and separated by narrow valleys, which may almost be described as gorges or ravines. The only level portion of the district consists of a narrow strip of waterless forest, between the southern slopes of the hills and the fertile plains of Rohilkhand. The highest mountains are in the north of the district, the principal peaks being Nandá Devi (25,661 feet), Kamet (25,413), Ircoul (23,382), Dunagiri (23,181), Badrinath (22,901), and Kedarnath (22,853). The Alaknanda, one of the main sources of the Ganges, receives with its affluents the whole drainage of the district. The river is regarded as of peculiar sanctity, and is annually resorted to by thousands of devout Hindus. At Deoprayág the Alaknandá joins the Bhágirathí, and thenceforward the united streams bear the name of the Ganges. Navigation is impracticable in all the rivers, owing to the velocity of their currents, and the existence of shoals and rapids. Cultivation is principally confined to the immediate vicinity of the rivers, which are employed for purposes of irrigation; but out of a total estimated area of 5500 square miles in 1872, only 209 were returned as under cultivation. Agriculture, however, is carried on with great skill and industry, by terracing out the hill sides. Wheat, rice, and *manduá* are the staple crops, the surplus produce being exported to Tibet. Tea planting is also carried on under European supervision.

The census of 1872 disclosed a population in the Garhwál district of 310,288 (115,745 males and 154,537 females), distributed among 3944 villages and 57,293 houses. The Hindus numbered 308,398, or no less than 99·3 per cent. of the population, the Mahometans 1799, and Christians 85. The two great Hindu temples of Badrináth and Kedarnáth, which lie hidden among the recesses of the snowy range, attract large numbers of pilgrims, who considerably add to the prosperity of the district. No place in Garhwál contains as many as 5000 inhabitants. Srinagar is the largest town, but the administrative headquarters is at Paumi. Trade is principally carried on with Tibet, by way of the Mána and Níti passes, sheep and goats being used as beasts of burden. The chief exports are grain, *gur*, cloth, and tobacco; the imports salt, borax, wool, gold, and precious stones. Good hill roads, from 10 to 12 feet in width, intersect the district in every direction, the total length being about 1000 miles. The land revenue in 1875 amounted to £9555. Only a small force of regular police is stationed at headquarters, and there is little crime of any kind. Education has made greater progress among these mountain valleys than in the plain districts beneath them. In 1875 73 schools afforded education to 3609 pupils.

Garhwál originally consisted of 52 petty chieftainships, each chief with his own independent fortress (*garh*). Between 400 and 500 years ago, one of these chiefs, Ajai Pál, ruler of Chandpur, reduced all the minor principalities under his own sway, and founded the Garhwál kingdom. He and his ancestors ruled over Garhwál and the adjacent state of Tehri, in an uninterrupted line till 1803, when the Gúrkhás invaded Kumáon and Garhwál driving Prithimán Sáh, the Garhwál chief, into the plains. For twelve years the Gúrkhás ruled the country with a rod of iron, until a series of encroachments by them on British territory, led to the war with Nepál in 1814. At the termination of the campaign, Garhwál and Kumáon were converted into British districts, while the Tehri principality was restored to Pridhimán Sáh, whose grandson still holds it. Since the annexation, Garhwál has rapidly advanced in material prosperity. Cultivation has rapidly increased, and the spread of tea-culture has opened the country to British capital and enterprise, which are converting this long harassed tract into an important and wealthy district.

GARLIC (Greek, *σκόροδον*; Latin, *Allium*; Italian, *Aglio*; French, *Ail*; German, *Knoblauch*), *Allium sativum*, Linn., a bulbous perennial plant of the tribe *Hyacinthineæ* of the natural order *Liliaceæ*, indigenous apparently to the south of Europe and to the East, having entire, obscurely keeled leaves, a deciduous spathe, a bulbiferous globose umbel, and whitish flowers, with exsert pistil and stamens. The bulb, which is the only part eaten, has membranous scales, in the axils of which are 10 or 12 cloves, or smaller bulbs. From these new bulbs can be procured by planting out in February or March. The bulbs are best preserved hung in a dry place. If of fair size, twenty of them weigh about 1 lb. To prevent the plant from running to leaf, Pliny (*Nat. Hist.*, xix. 34) advises to bend the stalk downward, and cover with earth; seeding, he observes, may be prevented by twisting the stalk. Garlic is cultivated in the same manner as the SHALLOT (*q. v.*). It is stated to have been grown in England before the year 1548. The percentage composition of the bulbs is given by Mr E. Solly (*Trans. Hort. Soc. Lond.*, new ser., iii. p. 60) as water 84·09, organic matter 13·38, and inorganic matter 1·53,—that of the leaves being water 87·14, organic matter 11·27, and inorganic matter 1·59. The bulb has a strong and characteristic odour, and an acrid taste, and yields an offensively smelling oil, essence of garlic, identical with allylic sulphide $(C_3H_5)_2S$ (see Hofmann and Cahours, *Journ. Chem. Soc.*, x. p. 320). This, when garlic has been eaten, is evolved by the excretory organs, the activity of which it promotes. From the earliest times garlic has been used as an article of diet. It formed part of the food of the Israelites in Egypt (Numb. xi. 5), and of the labourers employed by Cheops in the construction of his pyramid, and is still grown in Egypt, where, however, the Syrian is the kind most esteemed (see Rawlinson's *Herodotus*, ii. 125). It was largely consumed by the ancient Greek and Roman soldiers, sailors, and rural classes (*cf.* Virg., *Ecl.*, ii. 11), and, as Pliny tells us (*N. H.*, xix. 32), by the African peasantry. Galen eulogizes it as the rustic's *theriac* (see F. Adams's *Paulus Ægineta*, p. 99), and Alexander Neckam, a writer of the 12th century (see Wright's edition of his works, p. 473, 1863), recommends it as a palliative of the heat of the sun in field labour. "The people in places where the simoon is frequent," says Elphinstone (*An Account of the Kingdom of Caubul*, p. 140, 1815), "eat garlic, and rub their lips and noses with it, when they go out in the heat of the summer, to prevent their suffering by the simoon." "O dura messorum ilia," exclaims Horace (*Epod.*, iii.), as he records his detestation of the popular esculent, to smell of which was accounted a sign of vulgarity (*cf.* Shakespeare, *Coriol.*, iv. 6, and *Meas. for Meas.*, iii. 2). In England garlic is seldom used except as a seasoning, but in the southern countries of Europe it is a common ingredient in dishes, and is largely consumed by the agricultural population. Garlic was placed by the ancient Greeks on the piles of stones at cross-roads, as a supper for Hecate (Theophrastus, *Characters*, Δεισιδαιμονίας); and according to Pliny garlic and onions were invocated as deities by the Egyptians at the taking of oaths. The inhabitants of Pelusium in Lower Egypt, who worshipped the onion, are said to have held both it and garlic in aversion as food. Garlic possesses stimulant and stomachic properties, and was of old, as still sometimes now, employed as a medicinal remedy. Pliny (*N. H.*, xx. 23) gives an exceedingly long list of complaints in which it was considered beneficial. Dr Sydenham valued it as an application in confluent smallpox, and, says Cullen (*Mat. Med.*, ii. p. 174, 1789), found some dropsies cured by it alone. The volatile oil has proved efficacious in indigestion, and in some stages of bronchitis, especially in the acute form of the disease in infants, also in chronic colds, and as a rubefacient and nervine tonic; and poultices of the pounded pulp are recommended for the convulsions and suffocative catarrh of infants (Wood, *Treat. on Therapeutics*, p. 451, 1874). With lemon-juice garlic has also been resorted to for the cure of diphtheria (*Brit. and For. Med.-Chir. Rev.*, 1860, i. p. 281). The wild "Crow-Garlic" and "Field Garlic" of Britain are the Linnean species *Allium vineale* and *A. oleraceum* respectively.

See Phillips, *Hist. of Culinary Vegetables*, vol. ii.; Pereira, *Materia Medica*, vol. ii. pt. i.; M'Intosh, *The Book of the Garden*, vol. ii., 1855, p. 29.

GARNET (German, *Granat*; French, *Grenat*), a mineral the name of which is derived from the Latin *granatum*, the pomegranate, or, as Lydgate calls it, "garnet appille" (see Halliwell, *Dict.*, i. p. 392), on account of the resemblance of its granular varieties to the seeds of that fruit. Several sorts of garnets, with other stones, seem to have been included under the terms *ἄνθραξ* and *carbunculus*, employed by Theophrastus and Pliny. Garnet occurs in crystals, mostly dodecahedral or trapezohedral, very rarely octahedral,[1] of the isometric, regular, or cubical system, also in pebbles and grains (as in alluvial deposits), and massive, with a granular or coarse lamellar structure. It varies in diaphaneity from transparent to nearly opaque; is red, red-brown, or black in colour, less frequently white, yellow, pink, or green; has a vitreous to resinous lustre, a white streak, dodecahedral cleavage, hardness of 6·5 to 7·5, specific gravity of 3·15 to 4·30,[2] and an uneven sub-conchoidal fracture; and is brittle and sometimes friable, or, in the compact crypto-crystalline varieties, tough. Before the blowpipe it gives a brown, green, or black (often magnetic) glass, which hydrochloric acid decomposes, with the separation of gelatinous silica. Previous to melting, the mineral is but little affected by the acid. The least fusible forms are the lime-iron garnets. It has been shown by Professor Church that, although unaffected by exposure to a full red heat for a quarter of an hour, iron garnet may by fusion have its specific gravity lowered from 4·059 to 3·204. By almost complete fusion a specimen of almandine garnet examined by him had its specific gravity increased from 4·103 to 4·208. Long-continued ignition effected only a slight increase in the density of various specimens of lime garnet (see *Journ. Chem. Soc.*, vol. xvii. p. 388). Garnets, which through the isomorphism of their constituents are extremely variable in chemical composition, are silicates of the general formula $R''_3R^{iv}_2.Si_3O_{12}$, or $3R''O,R^{iv}_2O_3.3SiO_2$, in which $R'' =$ calcium, magnesium, iron, and manganese, and $R^{iv} =$ aluminium, iron, and chromium. Occasionally rarer metals

[1] See Max Bauer, "Ueber die selteneren Krystallformen des Granats," *Zeitschr. der deut. geolog. Ges.*, Bd. xxvi., 1874, pp. 119–37, pl. i.

[2] On the specific gravity of several varieties of garnet, see Prof. A. H. Church, *Geological Mag.*, new ser., vol. ii., 1875, p. 321.

are present; yttrium, for instance, has been found in garnets from Brevig, Norway. Three principal groups have been recognized, called, according to their chief sesquioxide basic components, alumina, iron, and chrome garnets, which have the general formula $R''_3Al_2.Si_3O_{12}$, $R''_3Fe_2.Si_3O_{12}$, and $R''_3Cr_2.Si_3O_{12}$, respectively. These are further classed, by the predominance of one or other of their contained protoxides, into numerous subordinate groups, as lime-alumina garnet, $Ca_3Al_2.Si_3O_{12}$, *e.g.*, grossularite, topazolite, and essonite; magnesia-alumina garnet, comprising pyrope, the typical specimens of which contain a small percentage of chromium; iron-alumina garnet, *e.g.*, almandite, common garnet in part, and allochroite; manganese-alumina garnet, as spessartite and romanzovite; lime-iron garnet, which includes andradite, melanite, or black garnet, which may be titaniferous, as at Frascati, and pyreneite, aplome, and common garnet in part; lime-magnesia-iron garnet $(CaMg)_3Fe_2.Si_3O_{12}$, or bredbergite; and lime-chrome garnet, or ouvarovite. Colophonite, a yellow-brown to honey-yellow or almost pitch-black mineral, with a resinous lustre, commonly considered to be a lime-iron garnet, according to Wichmann and Des-Cloiseaux must be regarded as for the most part granular vesuvian.

Garnet is a wide-spread mineral, and is found in micaceous, talcose, chloritic, and hornblendic schists, and in syenitic gneiss, syenite, granite, dolomite, and crystalline limestone; sometimes as pyrope, in serpentine; also in felspar-porphyry, and in volcanic rocks. In Cornwall it is met with chiefly in greenstone, or in close proximity thereto. It is an essential ingredient of the rock eklogite. Grossularite, a greenish to grey-green garnet, is found at Rezbanya in Hungary, and the Wilui river, Siberia; topazolite and essonite at Mussa, Piedmont, the latter also in Ceylon, Piedmont, and Elba; pyrope in Bohemia, and at Zöblitz in Saxony; and almandite in Ceylon, Pegu, Brazil, and Greenland. Spessartite is obtained at Haddam, Ct., and elsewhere; melanite in Vesuvian and other lavas; aplome at Breitenbrunn and Schwarzenberg in Saxony; the fine green garnet ouvarovite chiefly at Saranovskaja, 14 versts from Bissersk in the Urals, and at New Idria in California; and white garnet in the Urals. Numerous other localities for garnet might be mentioned. Precious garnet, almandite or almandine (so termed, it is said, from being cut at Alabanda in Caria, whence the appellation *alabandicus* employed by Pliny), essonite or cinnamon-stone, grossularite, grossularia, or gooseberry stone, and pyrope or Bohemian garnet are the varieties of the mineral employed as gems. They are shaped by means of garnet powder or emery on a copper wheel, and polished on lead with tripoli. Carbuncles are almadine garnets cut *en cabochon*; when of large size, and free from black spots, they may be worth as much as £20 apiece. The deep red or precious garnet often has a density close to that of the ruby, for which stone it has been sold. The Syriam or Pegu garnets, possibly the *amethystizontas* of Pliny (*Nat. Hist.*, xxxvii. 25), commonly designated amethystine or oriental garnets, vary in colour from a deep red to a violet-purple, and may occur 3 inches in diameter. They are usually cut with four large and four small facets, and may fetch very high prices, a single specimen, of a fiery-red hue, measuring 1 inch by $\frac{7}{8}$ inch, having been sold for £40, and another, of octagonal form, for £140. Pyrope is a dark hyacinth-red to blood-red gem, much esteemed in Austria, Transylvania, and Turkey. Viewed by transmitted light it appears of a yellowish-red tint, more especially at the edges. Essonite, yellow to hyacinth-red in colour, is a softer and more fusible garnet than the other kinds used in jewellery. It is commonly called hyacinth, and has frequently been mistaken, as also sold, for true hyacinth or jacinth, which is a zirconium silicate, and may be distinguished by its density of 4·05–4·75, that of essonite being about 3·60–3·66. The garnet was much used as a jewel in ancient times. Antique intaglios on garnet are recognized by their usually fragmentary condition, due to their brittleness, and by a softness of colour, imparted to them by time, which defies imitation by even the ablest artists (Castellani). The bust of Hadrian in the Odescalchi museum, the Venus Genetrix in the cabinet of Abbé Pullini at Turin, and the representation of Sirius on the celebrated Marlborough stone, are among the finer examples of engraving in garnet. Garnet, where abundant, has been used in the smelting of iron ores. For polishing purposes it is sometimes substituted for emery. The large dull-coloured "carbunculus of India," according to Pliny (*l.c.*), used to be hollowed out into vessels that would hold as much as a pint. Garnet has been obtained as a furnace-product, and otherwise artificially. What is known as "white garnet" is the mineral leucite.

See Bischof, *Chemical Geology*, vol. ii. chap, xxxiii., and vol. iii. p. 348; C. E. Kluge, *Hdb. d. Edelsteinkunde*, Leipsic, 1860; Emanuel, *Diamonds and Precious Stones*, 3d ed., 1867; A. Schrauf, *Hdb. d. Edelsteinkunde*, Vienna, 1869; A. Castellani, *Gems*, 1871; J. D. Dana, *A System of Mineralogy*, 5th ed., pp. 265–72, New York, 1874; C. F. Naumann, *Elemente der Mineralogie*, 10th ed., by Dr F. Zirkel, pp. 532–5, Leipsic, 1877. On so-called garnets from the river Bobrowska, Urals, see Church, *Mineralog. Mag.* ii., 1879, p. 191. (F. H. B.)

GARNIER, Germain (1754–1821), an able writer on political economy, was born at Auxerre, on 8th November 1754. He was educated for the law, and obtained when young the office of *procureur* at Chatelet. He acted for some time as secretary to Mme. Adelaide, aunt of Louis XVI., and by his fine presence and manners acquired considerable reputation and power at court. On the calling of the states-general he was named as deputy for Chatelet, and in 1790 he appears to have been a member of the monarchical club in Paris. After 1792 he withdrew to the Pays de Vaud, and did not return till 1795. In public life, however, he seems to have been singularly fortunate. In 1797 he was on the list of candidates for the Directory; in 1800 he was prefect of Seine et Oise; in 1804 he was made senator; and from 1809 to 1811 he acted as president of the senate. After the restoration he obtained a peerage, and on the return of Louis XVIII., after the Hundred Days, he became minister of state and member of privy council. He died at Paris, 4th October 1821. Garnier was somewhat advanced in years before he began to take any interest in political economy; his previous efforts in literature had been of an altogether different kind. At court he was, when young, noted for his facile power of verse-writing, and he translated Mrs Radcliffe and Mrs Montague.

Garnier is best known by his admirable translation, with notes and introduction, of Smith's *Wealth of Nations* (1st ed 1805, 2d ed. 1822), and by his *Histoire de la Monnaie* (2 vols., 1819), which contains much sound and well-arranged material. His *Abrégé des Principes de l'Econ. Polit.* (1796) is a very clear and instructive manual. Of high value also is the *Description géographique, physique, et politique du départe ment de Seine-et-Oise* (1822), drawn up from his instructions. Other works are *De la Propriété* (1792), and *Histoire des Banques d'Escompte* (1806).

GARNIER, Marie Joseph François (1839–1873), usually called Francis Garnier, a French officer and explorer, was born at St Étienne, July 25, 1839, and perished by assassination in Tong-king, December 7, 1873. He entered the navy, and after voyaging in Brazilian waters and the Pacific he obtained a post on the staff of Admiral Charner, who from 1860 to 1862 was campaigning in Cochin-China. After some time spent in France he returned to the East, and in 1852 he was appointed inspector of the natives in Cochin-China, and entrusted with the administration of the town of Cho-len or Sho-len. It was at Garnier's suggestion that the Marquis de Chassoloup-Laubat determined to send a mission through Laos to Tibet, but as he was not considered old enough to be put in command, the chief authority was entrusted to Captain Doudart de Lagrée. In the course of the expedition—to quote the words of Sir Roderick Murchison addressed to the youthful traveller when, in 1870, he was presented with the Victoria Medal of the Royal Geographical Society of London—from Cratieh in Cambodia to Shanghai 5392 miles were traversed, and of these 3625 miles, chiefly of country unknown to European geography, were surveyed with care, and the positions fixed by astronomical observations, nearly the whole of the observations being taken by Garnier himself. Volunteering to lead a detachment to Talifu the capital of Sultan Suleiman, the sovereign of the Mahometan rebels in Yunnan, he successfully carried out the more than adventurous enterprise. When shortly afterwards Lagrée died, Garnier naturally assumed the command of the expedition, and he conducted it in safety to the Yang-tze-Kiang, and thus to the Chinese coast. On his return to France he was received with enthusiasm. The preparation of his narrative was interrupted by the Franco-German war, and during the siege of Paris he served as principal staff officer to the admiral in command of the eighth "sector." His experiences during the siege were published anonymously in the feuilleton of *Le Temps*, and appeared separately as *Le Siége de Paris, journal d'un officier de marine*, 1871. Returning to Cochin-China he found the political circumstances of the country unfavourable to further exploration, and accordingly he went to China, and in 1873 followed the upper course of the Yang-tze-Kiang to the waterfalls. He was next commissioned by Admiral Dupré, governor of Cochin-China, to Tong-king to found a French protectorate or a new colony. On November 20, 1873, he took Hanoi, the capital of Tong-king, and on December 7th he was slain.

The narrative of the principal expedition appeared in 1873, as *Voyage d'exploration en Indo-Chine effectué pendant les années* 1866, 1867, *et* 1868, *publié sous la direction de M. Francis Garnier, avec le concours de M. Delaporte et de MM. Joubert et Thorel*, 2 vols. An account of the Yang-tze-Kiang from Garnier's pen is given in the *Bulletin de la Soc. de Géog.*, 1874. His *Chronique royale du Cambodje* was reprinted from the *Journal Asiatique* in 1872. See *Ocean Highways*, 1874, for a memoir by Colonel Yule.

GAROFALO, Benvenuto. See Tisio.

GARONNE, the ancient *Garumna*, a river of southern France, which rises in the Spanish Pyrenees not far from the massif of Maladetta, flows through the fine gorge called the Val d'Aran, partly loses itself under the calcareous rocks that form the gulf of Clédes, enters France near the Pont du Roi, and proceeds in a general north-west direction till it falls into the Bay of Biscay. Rafts can be sent down the river from the Spanish frontier; boats can pass with the stream from the confluence of the Salat to Toulouse; from Toulouse downwards regular navigation with boats can be maintained; and seafaring vessels can sail up as far as Castets, 32 miles above Bordeaux. At Bec d'Ambes, near the confluence of the Dordogne, the river widens out to a breadth of from 2 to 4 miles, and takes the name of the Gironde. This estuary presents an almost uninterrupted succession of islands and banks, which divide it into two nearly equal branches, and render the navigation somewhat difficult. At the mouth stands the famous tower of Cordouan, which dates from 1584–1610, and ranks as one of the finest lighthouses on the coast of France. The current at Toulouse, when the water is at its lowest, amounts to 1271 cubic feet per second, but in the ordinary state of the river it is 5297 cubic feet. During ordinary flood it rises about 25 feet; but in exceptional cases, as in 1855 and 1856, this increases to 28 or even 30 feet, and as the banks of the river are low the inundations are very extensive. The principal affluents on the right are the Salat, the Ariége, the Tarn, the Lot, the Dropt, and the Dordogne; and on the left the Neste, the Bouge, the Save, the Gimoné, the Gers, the Baise, and the Ciron.

GARONNE, Haute-, or Upper Garonne, is one of the frontier departments in the south of France, being continuous with Spain along the line of the Pyrenees. To the N. lies the department of Tarn-et-Garonne, to the E. are those of Tarn, Aude, and Ariége, and to the W. those of Gers and Hautes-Pyrénées. The form of the department is very irregular. Its greatest length is 99 miles from N.E. to S.W., and its greatest breadth about 56 miles; but its area only amounts to 629,000 hectares, or 2428 English square miles. The northern portion is a fertile but mountainous stretch of country, with continual interchange of hill and valley nowhere thrown into striking relief; while towards the south the land rises gradually to the Pyrenees, which there attain a height of upwards of 11,000 feet. All the streams by which the department is watered—the Neste, the Salat, the Lers, the Logue, the Touche, &c.—belong to the system of the river from which it takes its name. Except in the mountainous region the climate is mild, the mean annual temperature being rather higher than that of Paris. The rainfall, which averages 23 inches at Toulouse and 26 at St Gaudens, is distributed over 125 days. The winds are often violent. Thick forests of oak, fir, and pine exist in the mountains, and furnish timber for shipbuilding. The arable land (360,241 hectares, or 890,207 acres) is well adapted for the cultivation of wheat, maize, and other grain crops; and the produce of cereals is generally much more than is required for the local consumption. Oats, buckwheat, barley, flax, colza, and potatoes are all grown; fruit is plentiful, and about 54,000 hectares, or 133,441 acres, are occupied by vineyards, though the wine is only of medium quality. As pasture land is abundant, a good deal of attention is given to the rearing of cattle and sheep; and owing to the mountainous character of the southern region asses and mules are favourite beasts of burden, and may be estimated at 24,000 in number. Iron, lead, copper, and coal are among the mineral productions, as well as marble, both white and variegated, granite, freestone, lime, and slate. The manufactures are various though not individually extensive, and include iron and copper utensils, earthenware, woollen, cotton, and linen goods, leather, paper, watches, mathematical instruments, &c. Railway communication is furnished by the line from Bordeaux to Cette which passes by Toulouse, and there sends off branch lines leading to Albi, Auch, Foix, St Giron, and Bagnères de Luchon. The Canal du Midi traverses the department for 32 miles. There are four arrondissements—Toulouse, Villefranche, Muret, and St Gaudens, subdivided into 39 cantons and 585 communes. The chief town, Toulouse, contained 120,208 in 1875; but there is no other town of even 5000 inhabitants in the department, the largest being St Gaudens with 4087. The population of Haute-Garonne in 1801 was 405,574, including the arrondissement of Castelsarrasin with 60,545 inhabitants, which was detached in 1806; in 1851 it was 481,610, and in 1875, 477,730.

GARRICK, David (1716–1799), the greatest actor of his age, and the most successful of English theatrical managers, was descended from a good French Protestant family of Bordeaux which had settled in England on the revocation of the edict of Nantes. His father, Captain Peter Garrick, was on a recruiting expedition when his celebrated son was born at Hereford on February 19, 1716–17. The captain usually resided at Lichfield on half pay, but, in order to benefit his large family, he accepted an offer to proceed on service to Gibraltar, in place of a brother officer who was desirous of returning to England. This kept him many years absent from home, and the letters written to him by "little Davy," acquainting him with the doings at Lichfield, are highly interesting memorials of the future Roscius. In his nineteenth year, after receiving a good education at the grammar school of Lichfield, David was sent to the establishment at Edial, opened in June or July 1736 by Samuel Johnson, his senior by seven years. The Edial academy was shut in about six months, and on the 2d of March 1736–7 master and pupil, Johnson and Garrick, left Lichfield for London, the one to commence the study of the law, and the other to try his tragedy of *Irene*—Johnson, as he afterwards said, "with twopence halfpenny in his pocket," and Garrick "with three-halfpence in his." Seven days afterwards, however, Garrick was entered of Lincoln's Inn, but after remaining for a few months in London, he resided for some time with Mr Colson, a distinguished teacher at Rochester afterwards Lucasian (professor at Cambridge). Captain Garrick, who had returned from Gibraltar, died about a month after his son's arrival in London. Soon afterwards a rich uncle, a wine merchant at Lisbon, in his will left David a sum of £1000, and he and his brother entered into partnership as wine merchants in

London and Lichfield. The concern was not prosperous—though Foote's assertion that he had known Garrick with three quarts of vinegar in the cellar calling himself a wine merchant need not be taken literally—and before the end of 1741 he had spent nearly half of his £1000. His passion for the stage completely engrossed him; he tried his hand both at dramatic criticism and at dramatic authorship, and made his first appearance on the stage late in 1740–1, *incognito*, as harlequin at Goodman's Fields, where Woodward, being ill, allowed him to take his place during a few scenes. When the manager of the same theatre, Giffard, took a party of players to Ipswich, Garrick accompanied them, and there made his first essay as an actor under the name of Lyddal, in the part of the black Aboan (in Southerne's *Oroonoko*). His success on the provincial boards determined his future career. On the 19th of October 1741 he made his appearance at Goodman's Fields in the character of Richard III., and gained the most enthusiastic applause. His staid and sedate brother, and his sisters at Lichfield, were scandalized at this derogation from the provincial dignity of the family; and Garrick, greatly distressed at the shock they had received by the intelligence (which, however, he expected), hastened to give up his interest in the wine company. Each night added to his popularity on the stage. He was received by the best company in town. While his Richard was still calling forth general admiration, he won new applause in Lear and Pierre, as well as in several comic characters (including that of Bayes). Glover ("Leonidas") attended every performance; Lyttelton, Pitt, and several other members of parliament had shown him the greatest civility. From December 2d he appeared in his own name. Pope went to see him thrice during his first performances, and pronounced that "that young man never had his equal as an actor, and he will never have a rival." Before next spring he had supped with "the great Mr Murray, counsellor," and hoped to do so with Mr Pope through Murray's introduction, while he was dining with Halifax, Sandwich, and Chesterfield. "There are a dozen dukes of a night at Goodman's Fields," writes Horace Walpole. *The Lying Valet* being at this time brought out with success, the honours of dramatic author were added to those of the stage. His fortune was now made, and while the managers of Covent Garden and Drury Lane resorted to the law to make Giffard close his little theatre, Garrick was engaged by Fleetwood for Drury Lane for the season of 1742. In the meantime, having very advantageous terms offered him for performing in Dublin during part of the summer, he went over to that city, where he found the same homage paid to his merit which he had received from his own countrymen. From September 1742 to April 1745 he continued at Drury Lane, after which he again went over to Ireland, and remained there the whole season, as joint-manager with Sheridan, in the direction and profits of the theatre-royal in Smock Alley. From Dublin he returned to England, and fulfilled a short engagement in 1746–7 with Rich at Covent Garden. This was his last series of performances as a hired actor; for in the close of that season Fleetwood's patent for the management of Drury Lane expired, and Garrick, in conjunction with Lacy, purchased the property of the theatre, together with the renovation of the patent, and in the winter of 1747 opened it with a strong company of actors, the prologue for the occasion being written by his old preceptor Johnson.

For a time, at least, "the drama's patrons" were content with the higher entertainment furnished them; in the end Garrick had to "please" them, like most other managers, by gratifying their love of show. Garrick was surrounded by many players of eminence; and he had the art, as he was told by Miss Clive, "of contradicting the proverb that one cannot make bricks without straw, by doing what is infinitely more difficult, making actors and actresses without genius." The naturalness of his own acting was its great charm. As Churchill says in the *Rosciad*, which remains the chief literary monument of Garrick's pre-eminence among his fellows, he who is "pleased with Nature, must be pleased with thee." Booth, Quin, and the old tragedians were remarkable for a style of stately declamation, sonorous, and often graceful and impressive, but wanting the versatility and rapid changes of passion that, when exhibited by Garrick, at once captivated the audience. "It seemed," said Richard Cumberland, "as if a whole century had been stepped over in the passage of a single scene; old things were done away, and a new order at once brought forward, bright and luminous, and clearly destined to dispel the barbarisms of a tasteless age, too long superstitiously devoted to the illusions of imposing declamation." Garrick's French descent and his education may have contributed to give him the vivacity of manner and versatility of conception which distinguished him as an actor; and nature had given him an eye, if not a stature, to command, and a mimic power of wonderful variety. The list of his characters in tragedy, comedy, and farce is large, and would be extraordinary for a modern actor of high rank; it includes not less than seventeen Shakespearean parts. As a manager, though he committed some grievous blunders, he did good service to the theatre and signally advanced the popularity of Shakespeare's plays, of which not less than twenty-four were produced at Drury Lane under his management. Many of these were not pure Shakespeare; but not every generation has the same notions of the way in which he is best honoured. He purified the stage of much of its grossness, and introduced a relative correctness of costume and decoration unknown before.

After, about the year 1745, escaping from the chains of an unreturned passion for the beautiful but reckless actress "Peg" Woffington, Garrick had, in 1749, married Mademoiselle Violette (Eva Maria Veigal), a German lady who had attracted the admiration of the court of Vienna as a dancer, and was patronized in England by the countess of Burlington. This lady Garrick called "the best of women and wives," and he lived most happily with her in his villa at Hampton (acquired by him in 1754, and adorned by the famous Shakespeare temple), whither he was glad to escape from his house in Southampton Street. Their union was childless, and Mrs Garrick survived her husband, living in great respect until 1822. Having sold the moiety of his theatre for £35,000, Garrick took leave of the stage by playing a round of his favourite characters—Hamlet, Lear, Richard, Lusignan, and Kitely, as the graver; Archer, Abel Drugger, Sir John Brute, Benedick, Leon, and Don Felix, as those of a lighter cast. He ended the series with Don Felix (in *The Wonder*) on June 10, 1776. But he was not long to enjoy his opulent and well-earned repose, for he died in London on the 20th of January 1779. He was buried in Westminster Abbey with imposing solemnities, and amidst an unexampled concourse of people of all ranks. Johnson, whose various and not always consistent criticisms on Garrick are scattered through the pages of Boswell, spoke warmly of the elegance and sprightliness of his friend's conversation, as well as of his liberality and kindness of heart; and his death, which came upon him unexpectedly, "eclipsed," Johnson said, "the gaiety of nations, and impoverished the public stock of harmless pleasure." But the most accurate and discriminating character of Garrick, slightly tinged with satire, is that drawn by Goldsmith in his poem of *Retaliation*. As a literary man Garrick was very happy in his epigrams and slight occasional poems. He had the good taste to recognize, and the spirit to make public his recognition of, the excellence of Gray's *Odes* at a time when they were either ridiculed or neglected. His dramatic pieces (*The Lying Valet*, *Lethe*, *The Guardian*, *Miss in her Teens*, *Irish Widow*, &c.), and his alterations and adaptation of old plays, which together fill four volumes, evinced his knowledge of stage effect and his appreciation of lively dialogue and action; but he cannot be said to have added one new or original character to the drama. He was joint author with Colman of *The Clandestine Marriage*, in which he is said to have written his famous part of Lord Ogleby. The excellent farce, *High Life below Stairs*, appears to have been wrongly attributed to Garrick, and to be by Townley, a clergyman. As a matter of course he wrote many prologues and epilogues.

Garrick's correspondence (published, with a short memoir by Boaden, in 2 vols. 4to), and the notices of him in the memoirs of Hannah More and Madame D'Arblay, and above all in Boswell's *Life of Johnson*, bear testimony to his general worth, and to his many fascinating qualities as a friend and companion. The earlier biographies of Garrick are by Arthur Murphy (2 vols. 1801) and by the bookseller Tom Davies (2 vols., 4th ed., 1805), the latter a work of some merit, but occasionally inaccurate and confused as to dates. Mr Percy Fitzgerald's *Life* (2 vols. 1868) is full and spirited. A charming essay on Garrick appeared in the *Quarterly Review*, July 1868. (R. CA.—A. W. W.)

GARRISON.

WILLIAM LLOYD GARRISON, whose name is inevitably identified with the struggles which led up to the abolition of slavery in the United States, was born in Newburyport, Mass., December 10, 1805. Every surrounding of his youth contributed to the development of sturdy and sterling qualities of character. His birthplace had been the scene of heroic deeds, and had echoed to the voices of religious martyrs. His father was a sea-captain of great bravery and ability, and his mother belonged to the persecuted sect of Baptists, so that he took in the ideas of courage in personal danger and hate of oppression almost with his earliest food. It was a period so near the Revolutions in America and France that love of liberty and patriotism still moved the best minds to consideration of the questions of the day which were concerned in problems of the government and rights of the people. It is not strange, then, that with the Declaration of Independence ringing in his ears, with his heroic and ascetic ancestry and his superior mental endowments, he should see the injustice of slavery, and early array himself against such an institution, and be enabled to speak with a voice of thunder in the cause of those in bondage.

But, like many another leader, he had to come up through the ranks. Long hours of the day, while still a child in years and strength, he sat with great thoughts indefinitely forming in his brain, but trying conscientiously to learn the trade of shoemaker, to which his mother had apprenticed him. This was so distasteful to him that he next tried cabinet making, and then the art of printing, a trade that fascinated him at first, and afterwards afforded him the means of supplying the lack of college education. As he picked up the small pieces of lead he learned to spell, to form sentences of his own, and the power of words to convince and convict. The papers on which he worked as a printer contained many anonymous articles written in the composing stick of William Lloyd Garrison. He had his own views, even then, on all the political and ethical questions of the day, and expressed them in articles for his own paper, "The Newburyport Herald," and for various papers published in Boston. After mastering the printer's trade he launched his little boat—"The Free Press"—in his native town; but, probably because its tone was too high it was not patronized, and the ambitious young enthusiast had to abandon both his paper and his town and seek a wider field in Boston with "The National Philanthropist." This was the first paper ever established to teach the evils of intemperance and preach the new gospel of total abstinence. He was but twenty-five years of age at the time, and the custom of serving wine on the table was followed in the best of houses, so that he must have had, even so young, a finely developed taste for the martyrdom of espousing unpopular causes. That he was to be a radical in all the ideas he ever advanced was forecast in the motto he chose for his paper—"Moderate drinking is the down-hill road to drunkenness."

The political situation at this time, 1828, seemed to young Mr. Garrison to demand the election of John Quincy Adams as President, and, with the ardor already characteristic of him, he bent all his energies to this purpose. Going to Bennington, Vt., he started a campaign paper supporting Mr. Adams, but did not neglect his "total abstinence" evangelizing, and found room in his large heart and brain for still another idea; no less a one than the emancipation of the slave. The columns of the little "Journal of the Times," under Garrison's editorship, and Benjamin Lundy's "Genius of Universal Emancipation," published in Baltimore, were the only mediums for the dissemination of these ideas in the country. But the message sent out by them was uncompromising, and caused no little discussion among public men. Already it was whispered around that this Garrison was an uncomfortable man to have about; that he threatened to upset things, and confused preconceived ideas.

It was inevitable that Garrison and Benjamin Lundy should come together, and that an ideal partnership should be formed. Mr. Lundy was a Quaker, simple-minded, full of zeal and unselfish devotion, and with a serene conviction that he was following the guidance of the Spirit. He travelled, lectured and edited his little sheet, which appeared but once a month, and carried the light of liberty into the very capitol and confused and confounded the law-makers, who held slaves in the very seat of liberty. After the inauguration of Adams, Mr. Garrison went to Baltimore, assumed the editorship of "The Genius of Universal Emancipation," and immediately began to issue the paper weekly. He also changed its tone, making it radical and aggressive. He demanded immediate emancipation of all slaves, and would accept no compromise. He preached that if slavery was wrong, it was fundamentally wrong, and should be abolished at once. Mr. Lundy's teaching looked to the gradual freeing of the slaves; he believing that to be the only way to accomplish the result to the injury of no one concerned. But Mr. Garrison, from the first moment of conviction, had got at the root of the matter: the system was wrong, and the very laws of the Creator demanded that it should be righted—not some other time, but now. So the paper appeared expressing both the radical views of Mr. Garrison and the conservative ones of Mr. Lundy, each signing his own articles. Garrison's forcible arguments and unqualified demands made an instant impression, and created some alarm. Almost under the windows of Mr. Garrison's office was the great slave market of Baltimore, and his utterances in the paper struck blows directly on the auctioneer's block, and were a menace to the commercial prosperity of the city.

As an immediate result Mr. Garrison was exceedingly unpopular, and was feared and hated at the same time. The converts that had been made by Mr. Lundy's mild doctrine were timid, and were frightened into withdrawal of their support of the paper by the aggressive policy of this new agitator. Even the most ardent and faithful adherents of the abolition idea were not ready to admit the feasibility of immediate emancipation, and considered Garrison's ultraism the rankest nonsense and folly, believing he would defeat his own object by his radical doctrines.

But that Mr. Garrison was right in his estimate of the amount of public sentiment that slumbered, and needed only to be awakened by his clarion voice was amply proven. Within a few months abolition was discussed from one end of the land to the other. This audacious man had to be stopped, and op-