

is unable when Christianity comes to be discussed to conceal his heartfelt dislike. Comparing "superstition" with "superstition," virtue with virtue, vice with vice, Gibbon had formed a deliberate preference for the religion and ethics of ancient Rome. Philosophical students of history, even though they may feel themselves unable to subscribe the Athanasian creed, may now be said to be almost unanimous, however, in finding that the phenomenon called Christianity did mean for mankind a higher conception of truth and a nobler conception of duty.

Upon the famous fifteenth and sixteenth chapters it is not necessary to dwell, because at this time of day no Christian apologist dreams of denying the substantial truth of any of the more important allegations of Gibbon. Christians may complain of the suppression of some circumstances which might influence the general result; and they must remonstrate against the unfair construction of their case. But they no longer refuse to hear any reasonable evidence tending to show that persecution was less severe than had once been believed; and they have slowly learned that they can afford to concede the validity of all the secondary causes assigned by Gibbon, and even of others still more discreditable. The fact is, as the historian himself has again and again admitted, that his account of the secondary causes which contributed to the progress and establishment of Christianity leaves the question as to the natural or supernatural origin of Christianity practically untouched; that question still continues to be agitated, but the battle is fought on a new field and with other weapons than those selected by Gibbon.

Of the original quarto edition of *The Decline and Fall*, vol. i. appeared, as has already been stated, in 1776, vols. ii. and iii. in 1781, and vols. iv.-vi. (inscribed to Lord North) in 1788. In later editions vol. i. was considerably altered by the author; the others hardly at all. The number of modern reprints has been very considerable; but the most important and valuable English edition is that of Milman (1839 and 1845), still more recently enriched under the editorship of Dr W. Smith (8 vols. 8vo, 1854 and 1872). As a curiosity of literature Bowdler's edition, "adapted to the use of families and young persons" by the expurgation of "the indecent expressions and all allusions of an improper tendency" (5 vols. 8vo, 1825), may be specially noticed. The French translation of Le Clerc de Septchènes, continued by Demeunier, Boulard, and Cantwell (1788-1795), has been frequently reprinted in France. It seems to be certain that the portion usually attributed to Septchènes was, in part at least, the work of his distinguished pupil, Louis XVI. A new edition of the complete translation, prefaced by a letter on Gibbon's life and character, from the pen of Suard, and annotated by Guizot, appeared in 1812 (and again in 1828). There are at least two German translations of *The Decline and Fall*, one by Wenck, Schreiter, and Beck (1805-1807), and a second by Sporschil (1862). The Italian translation (alluded to by Gibbon himself) was, along with Spedalieri's *Confutazione*, reprinted at Milan in 1823. Gibbon's *Miscellaneous Works*, with *Memoirs of his Life and Writings*, composed by himself; illustrated from his letters, with occasional Notes and Narrative, published by Lord Sheffield in two volumes in 1796, has been often reprinted. The new edition in five volumes (1814) contained some previously unpublished matter, and in particular the fragment on the revolutions of Switzerland. A French translation of the *Miscellaneous Works* by Marigné appeared at Paris in 1798. There is also a German translation (Leipzig, 1801). It may be added that a special translation of the chapter on Roman Law (*Gibbon's historische Uebersicht des Römischen Rechts*) was published by Hugo at Göttingen in 1839, and has frequently been used as a text-book in German universities. (H. RO.—J. S. BL.)

GIBBONS, GRINLING (1648-1721), a celebrated English wood-carver, was born in 1648, according to some authorities of Dutch parents at Rotterdam, and according to others of English parents at London. By the former he is said to have come to London after the great fire in 1666. He early displayed great cleverness and ingenuity in his art, on the strength of which he was recommended by Evelyn to Charles II., who employed him in the execution both of statuary and of ornamental carving in wood. In statuary one of his principal works is a life-size bronze statue in the court of Whitehall, representing James II. in the dress

of a Roman emperor, and he also designed the base of the statue of Charles I. at Charing Cross. It is, however, chiefly as an engraver in wood that he has acquired a reputation. He was employed to execute the ornamental carving for the chapel at Windsor, the foliage and festoons in the choir of St Paul's, the baptismal fonts in St James's, and an immense quantity of ornamental work at Burleigh, Chatsworth, and other aristocratic mansions. The finest of all his productions in this style is believed to be the ceiling which he devised for a room at Petworth. His subjects are chiefly birds, flowers, foliage, fruit, and lace, and many of his works, for delicacy and elaboration of details, and truthfulness of imitation, have never been surpassed. He, however, sometimes wasted his ingenuity on trifling subjects: many of his flowers used to move on their stems like their natural prototypes when shaken by a breeze. In 1714 Gibbons was appointed master carver in wood to George I. He died at London August 3, 1721.

GIBBONS, ORLANDO (1583-1625), like Johann Sebastian Bach, was the most illustrious of a family of musicians all more or less able. We know of at least three generations of musical Gibbons, for Orlando's father, William Gibbons, having been one of the waits of Cambridge, may be assumed to have acquired some proficiency in the art. His three sons and at least one of his grandsons inherited and further developed his talent. The eldest, Edward, was made bachelor of music at Cambridge, and successively held important musical appointments at the cathedrals of Bristol and Exeter; Ellis, the second son, was organist of Salisbury Cathedral, and is the composer of two madrigals in the collection known as the *The Triumphs of Oriana*. Orlando Gibbons, the youngest and by far the most celebrated of the brothers, was born at Cambridge in 1583. Where and under whom he studied is not known, but in his twenty-first year he was sufficiently advanced and celebrated to receive the important post of organist of the Chapel Royal. His first published composition "Fantasies in three parts, composed for viols," appeared in 1610. It seems to have been the first piece of music printed in England from engraved plates, or "cut in copper, the like not heretofore extant." In 1622 he was created doctor of music by the university of Oxford. For this occasion he composed an anthem for eight parts, *O clap your Hands*, still extant. In the following year he became organist of Westminster Abbey. Orlando Gibbons died before the beginning of the civil war, or it may be supposed that, like his eldest brother, he would have been a staunch royalist. In a different sense, however, he died in the cause of his master; for having been summoned to Canterbury to produce a composition written in celebration of Charles's marriage, he there fell a victim to small-pox on June 5, 1625. Of his life very little is known, but that little is well summed up in the article contributed by Mr W. H. Husk to Dr Grove's *Dictionary of Music and Musicians*, where a complete list of his compositions is also given. His portrait may be found in Hawkins's well-known *History*. The works of Gibbons may be divided into secular and sacred compositions, the latter being by far the most important portion. His vocal pieces, madrigals, motets, canons, songs, &c., are admirable specimens of part-writing, and prove him to have been a perfect master of polyphonus treatment. Many of them are for five voices, a very common number in those days; but pieces for four and for six voices also are by no means rare. To the first-named class belong a *Te Deum* in D minor, two sets of *Proces* and other compositions for church service, also most of the madrigals. We have also some specimens of his instrumental music, such as the six pieces for the virginals published in *Parthenia*, a collection of instrumental music produced by Gibbons in conjunction with Dr Bull and Byrd.

GIBEON, a town famous in Old Testament history, known under the name of El Jib, situated 5 miles north-west of Jerusalem. It is now a small village standing on an isolated hill above a flat corn valley. The famous spring (2 Sam. ii. 13) comes out from under a cliff on the south-east side of the hill, and the water runs to a reservoir lower down. The sides of the hill are rocky, and remarkable for the regular stratification of the limestone, which gives the hill at a distance the appearance of being stepped. Scattered olive groves surround the place. The name is derived from the Hebrew root *gabah*, signifying "prominence," and there are throughout Palestine many ancient sites situate on rocky knolls which receive names (e.g., Gibeah, Geba, Gabe, Gaba—nearly all represented by the present Jeba) derived from this same root.

GIBRALTAR, a British fortress and town in the south of Spain, occupying a grand peninsular headland, which stretches almost due south in a line with the eastern coast of the province of Andalusia, separating the Bay of Algeiras from the open sea of the Mediterranean, and commanding the strait by which the Mediterranean communicates with the Atlantic. Its latitude is 36° 6' 23" N. and its longitude 5° 20' 55" W. The "rock," as the promontory is familiarly called, is about 2½ miles in length, with a varying breadth of from 2 to 6 furlongs. Rising abruptly from the low sandy isthmus which connects it with the mainland to a height of 1200 feet, the main ridge continues south for about 1½ miles, being separated by two transverse depressions, known respectively as the Northern and Southern Quebrada, into three pretty distinct summits—the Wolf's Crag or North Front, the Middle Hill or Signal Station (1255 feet high), and the Pan de Azucar or Sugar Loaf Hill, dominated by O'Hara's tower (1408 feet). This last summit descends somewhat abruptly on the south to the Windmill Plateau, an almost level area about half a mile in length by a quarter in breadth, which, from a height of 400 feet above the sea, slopes south till it is only 300 feet above the sea, and then in its turn sinks abruptly for about 200 feet to the Europa Plateau, which, also sloping seaward, terminates in a cliff about 50 feet high. Towards the east or Mediterranean side the promontory presents as precipitous and inaccessible a front as towards the north, but towards the west the ascent is comparatively gradual though interrupted by longitudinal cliffs and ravines, and a considerable space of fairly level ground at the foot affords a site for the town.

The basement rock of Gibraltar is for the most part a greyish white or pale grey limestone, of compact and sometimes crystalline texture, arranged in beds, but in some places apparently amorphous. Above the limestone is a series of dark greyish blue shales with intercalated beds and bands of grit, sandstone, and limestone; and distributed here and there about the promontory are various limestone breccias, bone-breccias, and calcareous sandstones, as well as loose sand and debris. It is evident that the whole promontory has had an eventful geological history in comparatively recent periods. The limestone and the shales are both of Lower Jurassic age, but the rest of the formations are of much more ancient date. According to the researches of Professors Ramsay and Geikie ("Geology of Gibraltar," in the *Quarterly Journal of the Geological Society*, London, 1878), the oldest superficial accumulation is the unfossiliferous limestone breccia of Buena Vista, which must have been formed under somewhat severer climatic conditions than the present, and when the rock had a wider area of low ground at its base. This period was probably followed by one with a genial climate, during which the promontory, if indeed it was not rather an isthmus between Europe and Africa, was clothed with vegetation and inhabited by a rich mammalian fauna, whose remains are

still found in the Genista caves. Next there came a subsidence of a large proportion of the rock to the extent of 700 feet below the present level, the consequent erosion of ledges and platforms, and the formation of the calcareous sandstones which have incorporated shells of recent Mediterranean species. The process of depression was apparently interrupted by pauses. On its re-elevation, the land was again of greater extent than now; Africa and Europe were perhaps reunited, and the climate was probably genial. By a new depression the rock was brought into its present geographical relations.

Like most masses of limestone formation, the promontory of Gibraltar is honeycombed with caverns and subterraneous passages, and the Genista cave, already incidentally mentioned, is only one of the many to which it owes the title of the Hill of Caves. A special interest attaches to

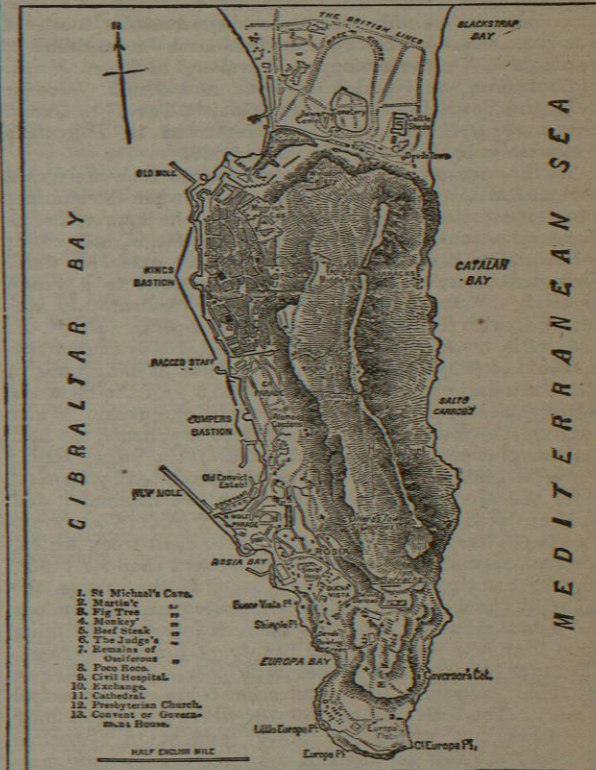


Chart of Gibraltar.

some of them for the palæontological and archaeological remains which they yielded to the explorations of Captain Brome between 1863 and 1868. St Michael's Cave, which is the most frequently visited by strangers, has its entrance about 1100 feet above the sea on the western face of the rock in the line of the Southern Quebrada. A rapid slope of earth gives admission to a hall 200 feet long by 70 feet high, the roof of which appears as if it were supported by massive stalactite pillars; and from this hall access is obtained to a series of four similar caves connected with each other by tortuous passages, the last cave being situated about 300 feet below the surface, and about 400 feet of travelling distance south by west from the entrance. The first of the four was called Victoria cave by its discoverer Captain Brome, and the three others, being more closely associated, received the common name of Leonora's

caves. "Nothing," says Captain Brome, "can exceed the beauty of the stalactites; they form clusters of every imaginable shape—statuettes, pillars, foliages, figures. Even the American visitors have been compelled to acknowledge that, as regards beauty and picturesqueness, even the Mammoth Cave would not come near them." The mammalian remains of the Genista cave have been investigated by Mr Busk ("Quaternary Fauna of Gibraltar," in *Trans. of Zool. Soc.*, vol. x. p. 2, 1877), and found to comprise specimens of a bear, probably *Ursus fossilis* of Goldfuss; a hyæna, probably *H. crocuta* or *spelæa*; various species of cats, from the size of a leopard to that of a wild cat; a rhinoceros similar to the species found in the valley of the Thames; two forms of ibex; and the hare and the rabbit. No trace has been discovered of *Rhinoceros tichorinus*, of *Ursus spelæus*, or of the reindeer, and the only relic of the elephant as yet registered within the peninsula is a perfect specimen of the penultimate upper molar tooth of *Elephas antiquus*. For further details see James Smith of Jordanhill "On the geology of Gibraltar," in *Quart. Journ. of Geol. Soc.*, vol. ii., and G. Busk and Hugh Falconer "On the Fossil Contents of the Genista Cave," in *Quart. Journ. of Geol. Soc.*, vol. xxi., reprinted in Falconer's *Palæontological Memoirs*, London, 1868.

To the voyager entering the straits the rock presents a bare and almost barren aspect, especially when the summer suns have dried up the verdure; but as he approaches he discovers a considerable clothing of vegetation, and closer acquaintance reveals the existence of an extensive flora. Here and there a grassy glen gives shelter to a group of trees, and the villas of the English residents are surrounded with luxuriant gardens and copses. Dr. E. F. Kelaart in his *Flora Calpensis* (London, 1846) enumerates upwards of 400 flowering plants and ferns as indigenous to Gibraltar, and about fifty as introduced. Of the former a few appear to be species peculiar to the rock. White poplars, the cotton-tree, the pepper-tree or pimenta, the ilex, and the pine are the most noticeable of the larger trees; the bella-sombra (*Phytolacca dioica*), introduced by General Don, the aloe, and the prickly pear are common; and on the eastern side of the rock the dwarf palm (*Chamærops humilis*) covers large areas. Among the fruit trees, which, however, are cultivated rather for ornament than for profit, may be mentioned the almond, the olive, the orange, the lemon, the pomegranate, the fig, and the loquat. In January and February many portions of the rock present a charming sight from the profusion and beauty of the wild flowers. The fauna of Gibraltar is naturally poor,—rabbits, foxes, partridges, pigeons, and woodcocks being the principal species. The little Barbary apes, of which every schoolboy has heard, but which not every resident in Gibraltar has seen, are few in number, not more than twenty perhaps, and they usually inhabit the higher and eastern parts of the rock, except when they are driven towards the lower grounds by the cold winds from the north-east. They then do a little damage to the fruit trees; but they enjoy impunity as perfect as that of the storks in Holland or the ibis in Egypt. As to its climate Gibraltar belongs to the subtropical zone, with a dry summer and a rainy season in winter. More than half the rainfall of the year, which only amounts to about 28 or 30 inches, occurs in November, December, and January; and the three months of June, July, and August are hardly refreshed by a shower. The temperature is subject to frequent disturbances: from 93° to 87° is the highest reached (July), and 43° the lowest (February), and the mean for the summer months is from 74° to 79°. In summer the heat is tempered by a sea-breeze which blows from about 10 A.M. till shortly before sunset. Easterly winds or levanters are common from July to November, and during their prevalence every living creature

seems to suffer. Heavy dews and thick fogs occur in autumn, and are as disagreeable as they are unhealthy. In the early part of the present century Gibraltar was notoriously filthy and ill-drained, and epidemic diseases committed great ravages from time to time; but great improvements have been effected, especially through the sanitary commission instituted in 1865. The inhabitants were formerly dependent on the rainfall for most of their water supply, the springs in the rock being both scanty and brackish; but in 1869 an abundant source of fairly good water was found to exist under the sands of the North Front, and pumps and conduits have been constructed for its distribution. In 1876 the quality of the water was reported to be deteriorating. Besides the private tanks, still numerous throughout the town, there are eight bomb-proof cisterns for rain-water, of a total capacity of 40,000 tons. The navy tank, for the supply of ships, holds from 9000 to 11,000 tons.

Gibraltar is emphatically a fortress, and in some respects its fortifications are unique. On the eastern side the rock needs no defence beyond its own precipitous cliffs, and in all other directions it has been rendered practically impregnable. Besides a sea-wall extending at intervals round the western base of the rock, and strengthened by curtains and bastions and three formidable forts, there are batteries in all available positions from the sea-wall up to the summit 1350 feet above the sea; and a remarkable series of galleries has been hewn out of the solid face of the rock towards the north and north-west. These galleries have an aggregate length of between 2 and 3 miles, and their breadth is sufficient to let a carriage pass. Port-holes are cut at intervals of 12 yards, so contrived that the gunners are safe from the shot of any possible assailants. At the end of one of the galleries hollowed out in a prominent part of the cliff is St George's Hall, 50 feet long by 35 feet wide, in which the governor was accustomed to give fêtes. Alterations, extensions, and improvements are continually taking place in the defensive system, and new guns of the most formidable sort are gradually displacing or supplementing the old-fashioned ordnance. The whole population of Gibraltar, whether civil or military, is subjected to certain stringent rules. For even a day's sojourn the alien must obtain a pass from the town-major, and if he wish to remain longer a consul or householder must become security for his good behaviour. Licences of residence are granted only for short periods—ten, fifteen, or twenty days—but they can be renewed if occasion require. Military officers may introduce a stranger for thirty days. A special permit is necessary if the visitor wishes to sketch.

Though the town of Gibraltar may be said to date from the 14th century, it has preserved very little architectural evidence of its antiquity. Rebuilt on an enlarged and improved plan after its almost complete destruction during the great siege, it is still on the whole a mean-looking town, with narrow streets and lanes and an incongruous mixture of houses after the English and the Spanish types. As a proprietor may at any moment be called upon to give up his house and ground at the demand of the military authorities, he is naturally deterred from spending his money on substantial or sumptuous erections. The area of the town is about 100 acres. The public buildings comprise the cathedral of the Holy Trinity, a poor imitation of Moorish architecture; the governor's house, formerly a Franciscan monastery and still familiarly known as "The Convent"; the exchange; the court-house; the civil hospital; the revenue offices; and the garrison library, planned by Colonel Drinkwater in 1793. The library has excellent reading-rooms, and contains from 40,000 to 45,000 volumes. At the north-east corner of the town stand the remains of the Moorish castle. Towards the south the lower grounds are

occupied by the Grand Parade and the Alameda Gardens, laid out by General Don in 1814; and beyond these are the old convict establishment, the dockyard, and the new-mole parade. Further south, at Rosia, is the naval hospital, erected in 1771.

Gibraltar has been a free port since the year 1705,—a distinction which it owes in part to the refusal of the emperor of Morocco to allow the export of materials for the fortifications unless his subjects obtained full liberty of trade. In the early part of the present century the commercial activity of the little colony was remarkably great. While the average value per annum of British manufactures exported to the rest of Spain during the ten years from 1831 to 1840 was less than £385,000, the corresponding average for Gibraltar was more than £486,000; and in the year 1840 the ratio of Spain and Gibraltar was £404,252 to £1,111,176. Since that date there has been comparatively little advance,—the average annual value of all the British and colonial produce and manufactures for the ten years from 1868 to 1877 being £1,074,785. Besides the legitimate trade fostered by the demands of the garrison and the neighbouring cities of Spain, Gibraltar has long had a large contraband traffic especially in tobacco and Manchester goods. Mainly carried on by Spaniards, it continued to thrive in spite of the exertions of the Spanish authorities, and is now kept down mainly to the action of British officials. About 1200 tons of tobacco are sold annually in the Jews' Market; no fewer than eleven houses import upwards of 1000 tons annually; and its manufacture and manipulation give employment, it is said, to about 1550 persons. Fully two-thirds of the tobacco comes from Calcutta and other Indian ports. "Wool, grain, and wax from Morocco, fruit, wine, oil, and other produce from Spain, are sent to Gibraltar for transhipment to England, France, Germany, Belgium, Holland, Portugal, America, ports in the Mediterranean, India, and China." As a port of call, the Bay of Gibraltar has recently increased in importance. Upwards of 5000 vessels enter the port annually, and of these more than half are propelled by steam. The average annual tonnage of the ships that entered between 1871 and 1875 was 2,069,508; and of this no less than 1,594,174 was British. Quarantine was established in 1830. By the shipping act of 1868 the governor was empowered to remove from the register any vessel guilty of a violation of the Spanish revenue laws discreditable to the British flag. In 1865 a duty was imposed on wines and spirits. Great commotion was caused among the mercantile population of Gibraltar in 1871 by a proposed customs ordinance, framed for the suppression of the smuggling. One of its chief provisions was that no tobacco should be exported or imported in vessels of less than 100 tons burden or in packets of less than 80 lb.

The population of Gibraltar in 1840 was 15,554, of whom 11,313 were British subjects and 4241 aliens; and by 1850 it had increased to 15,823, with 3641 aliens. In 1860 the civil population, including foreigners visiting the garrison, amounted to 17,647; but the number of resident inhabitants was only 15,467. According to returns for 1872 the total population was 18,695 (8969 males and 9726 females), the aliens numbering 2241 and the military 6521. The death-rate of the civil population varies from 25 to 31 per thousand, but it is almost always exceeded by the birth-rate. During the five years 1871–1875 the average number of births per annum was 592.4, and of deaths 538.2. Besides the natives, who themselves are of various origin, there are always in the town considerable numbers of Spaniards, Portuguese, and Italians, as well as stray representatives of almost every nationality engaged in the trade of the Mediterranean. Though by the treaty of Utrecht it was specially bargained by Soain that "no leave shall be

given under any pretence whatever either to Jews or Moors to reside or have their dwelling in the town of Gibraltar," the native Jews by 1844 numbered no fewer than 1385.

The greater part of the population is Roman Catholic, but full religious liberty is of course enjoyed. The church of the Holy Trinity was constituted to be a cathedral and bishop's see of the Church of England in 1843. The Wesleyans and the Presbyterians have places of worship. St Andrew's, the new Presbyterian church, was built by the Free Church of Scotland in 1854. A proposal for concomitant endowment of "church bodies for the Anglican and Roman Catholic communities" with the annual sum of £500 was made by the governor in 1876, but it was not sanctioned by parliament. An annual grant to this amount is made to both bodies, but the Government no longer keeps the cathedral in repair. The Roman Catholic bishop of Antioch is vicar apostolic of Gibraltar.

Gibraltar was long an ill-managed and expensive colony; but its expenditure is now sometimes even less than its revenue. During the five years from 1871 to 1875 the average expenditure, increased by several unusual items, was £43,988; and the average income was £42,464. For 1877 the expenditure was £41,585, or £1739 more than the income. The chief sources of the revenue are the port and quarantine dues, the excise on the consumption of wines and spirits, and the ground and house rents,—the three departments yielding respectively on the average from 1871 to 1875 £11,011, £11,512, and £6,206. It is worthy of note that the ground and house rentals have increased from £5629 in 1871 to £7078 in 1875. Among the heavier items of outlay are the governor's salary, which amounts to £5000 per annum, and the judicial and ecclesiastical expenses, which were, on an average from 1871 to 1875, respectively £3909 and £1061. The total cost of the military establishment was, on the average of four years from 1869 to 1873, £315,454,—of which £250,340 was the average cost of the regular troops, £1610 for the jails, and £19,293 for the barracks. The convict establishment was abolished in 1875. At that date it contained 238 prisoners, who were managed on the associated system; and grievous complaints were made of the difficulty of maintaining satisfactory discipline.

*History.*—Gibraltar was known to the Greek and Roman geographers as Calpe or Alybe, the two names being probably corruptions of the same local (perhaps Phœnician) word. The eminence on the African coast near Ceuta which bears the modern English name of Apes' Hill was then designated Abyla; and Calpe and Abyla, at least according to an ancient and widely current interpretation, formed the renowned Pillars of Hercules (Herculis columnæ, Ἡρακλέους στῆλαι) which for centuries were the limits of enterprise to the seafaring peoples of the Mediterranean world. The strategic importance of the rock appears to have been first discovered by the Moors, who, when they crossed over from Africa in the 8th century, selected it as the site of a fortress. From their leader Tarik ibn Zeyad it was called Gebel Tarik or Tarik's Hill; and, though the name had a competitor in Gebel at Fatah or Hill of the Entrance, it gradually gained acceptance, and still remains sufficiently recognizable in the corrupted form of the present day. The first siege of the rock was in 1309, when it was taken by Alonso Perez de Guzman for Ferdinand IV. of Spain, who, in order to attract inhabitants to the spot, offered an asylum to swindlers, thieves, and murderers, and promised to levy no taxes on the import or export of goods. The attack of Ismail ben Perez in 1315 (2d siege) was frustrated; but in 1333 Vasco Paez de Meira, having allowed the fortifications and garrison to decay, was obliged to capitulate to Mahomet IV. (3d siege). Alphonso's attempts to recover possession (4th siege) were futile, though pertinacious and heroic, and he was obliged to content himself with a tribute for the rock from Abdul Melek of Granada; but after his successful attack on Algeciras in 1344 he was encouraged to try his fortune again at Gibraltar. In 1349 he invested the rock, but the siege (5th siege) was brought to an untimely close by his death from the plague in February 1350. The next or 6th siege resulted simply in the transference of the coveted position from the hands of the king of Morocco to those of Yussuf III. of Granada; and the 7th, undertaken by the Spanish count of Niebla, Enrico de Guzman, proved fatal to the besieger and his forces. In 1462, however, success attended the efforts of Alonso

de Arcos (8th siege), and in August the rock passed once more under Christian sway. The duke of Medina Sidonia, a powerful grandee who had assisted in its capture, was anxious to get possession of the fortress, and though Henry IV. at first managed to maintain the claims of the crown, the duke ultimately made good his ambition by force of arms (9th siege), and in 1469 the king was constrained to declare his son and his heirs perpetual governors of Gibraltar. In 1479 Ferdinand and Isabella made the second duke marquis of Gibraltar, and in 1492 the third duke Don Juan was reluctantly allowed to retain the fortress. At length in 1501 Garcilaso de la Vega was ordered to take possession of the place in the king's name and it was formally incorporated with the domains of the crown. After Ferdinand and Isabella were both dead the duke Don Juan tried in 1506 to recover possession, and added a 10th to the list of sieges. Thirty-four years afterwards the garrison had to defend itself against a much more formidable attack (11th siege)—the pirates of Algiers having determined to recover the rock for Mahomet and themselves. The conflict was severe, but resulted in the repulse of the besiegers. After this the Spaniards made great efforts to strengthen the place, and they succeeded so well that throughout Europe Gibraltar was regarded as impregnable.

In the course of the War of the Spanish Succession, however, it was taken by a combined English and Dutch fleet under Sir George Rooke, assisted by a body of troops under Prince George of Hesse-Darmstadt. The captors had ostensibly fought in the interests of Charles archduke of Austria (afterwards Charles III.), but, though his sovereignty over the rock was proclaimed on July 24, 1704, Sir George Rooke on his own responsibility caused the English flag to be hoisted, and took possession in name of Queen Anne. It is hardly to the honour of England that it was both unprincipled enough to sanction and ratify the occupation, and ungrateful enough to leave unrewarded the general to whose unscrupulous patriotism the acquisition was due. The Spaniards keenly felt the injustice done to them, and the inhabitants of the town of Gibraltar in great numbers abandoned their homes rather than recognize the authority of the invaders. In October 1704 the rock was invested by sea and land; but the Spanish ships were dispersed by Sir John Leake, and the marquis of Villadarias fared so ill with his forces that he was replaced by Marshal Tessé, who was at length compelled to raise the siege in April 1705. During the next twenty years there were endless negotiations for the peaceful surrender of the fortress, and in 1726 the Spaniards again appealed to arms. But the Conde de la Torres, who had the chief command, succeeded no better than his predecessors, and the defence of the garrison under General Clayton and the earl of Portmore was so effective that the armistice of June 23d practically put a close to the siege, though two years elapsed before the general pacification ensued. The most memorable siege of Gibraltar, indeed one of the most memorable of all sieges, was that which it sustained from the combined land and sea forces of France and Spain during the years 1779-1783. The grand attack on the place was made on the 13th September 1782, and all the resources of power and science were exhausted by the assailants in the fruitless attempt. On the side of the sea they brought to bear against the fortress forty-six sail of the line, and a countless fleet of gun and mortar boats. But their chief hope lay in the floating batteries planned by D'Arcon, an eminent French engineer, and built at the cost of half a million sterling. They were so constructed as to be impenetrable by the red-hot shot which it was foreseen the garrison would employ; and such hopes were entertained of their efficiency that they were styled invincible. The Count d'Artois (afterwards Charles X.) hastened from Paris to witness the capture of the place. He arrived in time to see the total destruction of the floating batteries, and a considerable portion of the combined fleet, by the English fire. Despite this disaster, however, the siege continued till brought to a close by the general pacification, February 2d, 1783. The history of the four eventful years' siege is fully detailed in the work of Drinkwater, who himself took part in the defence, and in the *Life* of its gallant defender Sir George Augustus Elliott, afterwards Lord Heathfield, whose military skill and moral courage place him among the best soldiers and noblest men whom Europe produced during the 18th century.

Since 1783 the history of Gibraltar has been comparatively uneventful. In the beginning of 1801 there were rumours of a Spanish and French attack, but the Spanish ships were defeated off Algeciras in June by Admiral Saumarez. Improvements in the fortifications, maintenance of military discipline, and legislation in regard to trade and smuggling are the principal matters of recent interest.

See Col. Thomas James, *History of the Herculean Gables*, Lond., 1777; Ayala, *Historia de Gibraltar*, Madrid, 1782, English translation by Bell, Lond., 1845; Ansell, *A Circumstantial Journal of the Blockade and Siege of Gibraltar*, 1779-1783, Liverpool, 1784; Chevalier d'Arcon, *Mémoires pour servir à l'histoire du siège de Gibraltar*, Paris, 1783; Hennen, *Sketches of the Medical Topography of the Mediterranean*, Lond., 1830; Boissier, *Voyage botanique dans la Méditerranée*, Paris, 1839; Major Hort, *Descriptions and Legends of Gibraltar*, Lond., 1839; J. M. Carter, *Select Views in Gibraltar*, Lond., 1846; Sayer, *The History of Gibraltar*, Lond., 1862; *A History of Gibraltar*, with Photographic Illustrations by J. H. Mann, Lond., 1870; Fenton, *Scenes from Gibraltar*, 1872.

GIBSON, EDMUND (1669-1748), bishop of London, the learned compiler of the *Codex Juris Ecclesiastici Anglicani*, was born at Bampton in Westmoreland in 1669. After a promising career at one of the local schools, he was in 1686 entered a scholar at Queen's College, Oxford, where, at the early age of twenty-two (1692), he distinguished himself by the publication of a valuable edition of the *Saxon Chronicle*, with a Latin translation, indices, and notes. This was followed in 1693 by an annotated edition of the *De Institutione Oratoria* of Quintilian, and in 1694 by a translation in two volumes folio of Camden's *Britannia*, "with additions and improvements," in the preparation of which he had been largely assisted by the volunteered aid of various English antiquaries. Shortly after Tenison's elevation to the see of Canterbury in 1694 Gibson was appointed chaplain and librarian to the archbishop, and at a somewhat later period he became rector of Lambeth and archdeacon of Surrey. In the discussions which arose during the reigns of William and Anne relative to the rights and privileges of the Convocation, Gibson took a very active part, and in a series of pamphlets warmly argued for the right of the archbishop to continue or prorogue that assembly. The controversy suggested to him the idea of those researches which resulted in the *Codex Juris Ecclesiastici Anglicani*, published in two vols. folio in 1713,—a work which discusses more learnedly and comprehensively than any other the legal rights and duties of the English clergy, and the constitution, canons, and articles of the English Church. In 1715 Gibson was presented to the see of Lincoln, whence he was in 1723 translated to that of London, where for twenty-five years he exercised an immense influence, being the authority chiefly consulted by the court on all ecclesiastical affairs. While a conservative in church politics, he yet respected the various forms of dissent, and discouraged all attempts to prevent dissenters from worshipping in the manner and according to the principles which they preferred. He exercised a vigilant oversight over the morals of all ranks and classes of the community committed to his charge; and his fearless denunciation of the licentious masquerades which had become highly popular at court finally lost him the royal favour. Among the literary efforts of his later years the principal were a series of *Pastoral Letters* in defence of the "gospel revelation," against "lukewarmness" and "enthusiasm," and on various topics of the day; also the *Preservative against Popery*, in 3 vols. folio (1738), a compilation of numerous controversial writings of eminent Church of England divines, dating chiefly from the period of James II. Gibson died on the 6th September 1748.

A second edition of the *Codex Juris*, "revised and improved, with large additions by the author," was published at Oxford in 1761. Besides the works already mentioned, Gibson published a number of *Sermons*, and other works of a religious and devotional kind. The *Vita Thomæ Bodleii* with the *Historia Bibliothecæ Bodleianæ* in the *Catalogi Librorum manuscriptorum* (Oxford, 1697), and the *Reliquiæ Spelmanianæ* (Oxford, 1698), are also from his pen.

GIBSON, JOHN (1790-1866), sculptor, was born near Conway, in 1790, in very humble circumstances, his father being a market gardener. He is a notable example of one who, with no so-called start in life, carved his way to distinction by the force of a steady purpose and strong will. To his mother, whom he described as ruling his father and all the family, he owed, like many other great men, the energy and determination which carried him over every obstacle. He narrowly escaped emigration to America, the first step towards which took the family to Liverpool, where his mother's will interposed to keep them. He was then nine years of age, and was sent to school. The windows of the print shops of Liverpool riveted his attention; and, having no means to purchase the commonest print, he acquired the habit of committing to ocular memory the outline of one figure after another, drawing it on his

return home. Thus early did he form the system of observing, remembering, and noting, sometimes even a month later, scenes and momentary actions from nature—a habit peculiar in that degree to himself, but of the utmost importance to all artists to practice. In this way he, by degrees, transferred from the shop window to his paper at home the chief figures from David's picture of Napoleon crossing the Alps, which, by particular request, he copied in bright colours as a frontispiece to a little schoolfellow's new prayer-book, for sixpence. At fourteen years of age Gibson was apprenticed to a firm of cabinetmakers,—portrait and miniature painters in Liverpool requiring a premium which his father could not give. This employment so disgusted him that after a year (being interesting and engaging then apparently as in after life) he persuaded his masters to change his indentures, and bind him to the wood-carving with which their furniture was ornamented. This satisfied him for another year, when an introduction to the foreman of some marble works, and the sight of a small head of Bacchus, unsettled him again. He had here caught a glimpse of his true vocation, and in his leisure hours began to model with such success that his efforts found their way to the notice of Mr Francis, the proprietor of the marble works. The wood-carving now, in turn, became his aversion; and having in vain entreated his masters to set him free, he instituted a strike. He was every day duly at his post, but did no work. Threats, and even a blow, moved him not. At length the offer of £70 from Francis for the rebellious apprentice was accepted, and Gibson found himself at last bound to a master for the art of sculpture. Francis paid the lad 6s. a week, and received good prices for his works,—sundry early works by the youthful sculptor, which exist in Liverpool and the neighbourhood, going by the name of Francis to this day. It was while thus apprenticed that Gibson attracted the notice of Mr Roscoe, whose taste in Greek art seems to have been superior to his judgment in Italian history. For him Gibson executed a basso rilievo in terra cotta, now in the Liverpool Museum. Roscoe opened to the sculptor the treasures of his library at Allerton, by which he became acquainted with the designs of the great Italian masters. A cartoon of the Fall of the Angels marked this period,—now also in the Liverpool Museum. We must pass over his studies in anatomy, pursued gratuitously by the kindness of a medical man, and his introductions to families of refinement and culture in Liverpool. Roscoe was an excellent guide to the young aspirant, pointing to the Greeks as the only examples for a sculptor. Gibson here found his true vocation. A basso rilievo of Psyche carried by the Zephyrs was the result. He sent it to the Royal Academy, where Flaxman, recognizing its merits, gave it an excellent place. Again he became unsettled. The ardent young breast panted for "the great university of Art"—Rome; and the first step to the desired goal was to London. Here he stood between the opposite advice and influence of Flaxman and Chantrey—the one urging him to Rome as the highest school of sculpture in the world, the other maintaining that London could do as much for him. It is not difficult to guess which was Gibson's choice. He arrived in Rome in October 1817, at a comparatively late age for a first visit. There he immediately experienced the charm and goodness of the true Italian character in the person of Canova, to whom he had introductions,—the Venetian putting not only his experience in art but his purse at the English student's service. Up to this time, though his designs show a fire and power of imagination in which no teaching is missed, Gibson had had no instruction, and had studied at no Academy. In Rome he first became acquainted with rules and technicalities, in which the merest tyro was before him. Canova introduced him into the Academy

supported by Austria, and, as is natural with a mind like Gibson's, the first sense of his deficiencies in common matters of practice was depressing to him. He saw Italian youths already excelling, as they all do, in the drawing of the figure. But the tables were soon turned. His first work in marble—a Sleeping Shepherd modelled from a beautiful Italian boy—has qualities of the highest order. Gibson was soon launched, and distinguished patrons, first sent by Canova, made their way to his studio in the Via Fontanella. His aim, from the first day that he felt the power of the antique, was purity of character and beauty of form. He very seldom declined into the prettiness of Canova, and if he did not often approach the masculine strength which redeems the faults of Thorwaldsen, he more than once surpassed him even in that quality. We allude specially to his Hunter and Dog, and to the grand promise of his Theseus and Robber, which take rank as the highest productions of modern sculpture. He was essentially classic in feeling and aim, but here the habit of observation we have mentioned enabled him to snatch a grace beyond the reach of a mere imitator. His subjects were gleaned from the free actions of the splendid Italian people noticed in his walks, and afterwards baptized with such mythological names as best fitted them. Thus a girl kissing a child, with a sudden wring of the figure, over her shoulder, became a Nymph and Cupid; a woman helping her child with his foot on her hand on to her lap, a Bacchante and Faun; his Amazon thrown from her Horse, one of his most original productions, was taken from an accident he witnessed to a female rider in a circus; and the Hunter holding in his Dog was also the result of a street scene. The prominence he gave among his favourite subjects to the little god "of soft tribulations" was no less owing to his facilities for observing the all but naked Italian children, in the hot summers he spent in Rome.

In monumental and portrait statues for public places, necessarily represented in postures of dignity and repose, Gibson was very happy. His largest effort of this class—the group of Queen Victoria supported by Justice and Clemency, in the palace of Westminster—we agree with himself in pronouncing his finest work in the round. Of noble character also in execution and expression of thought is the statue of Mr Huskisson with the bared arm; and no less, in effect of aristocratic ease and refinement, the seated figure of Dudley North. He lays down the axiom in his journal that the Greeks represented "men thinking, and women tranquil," and to the departure from this rule we attribute the unattractive colossal statue of Sir Robert Peel in Westminster Abbey. The very animation he has given to the head is too individual to harmonize with the classic drapery, or with the real character of the man. The great statesman is here colloquial rather than eloquent in expression, while the position of the right foot suggests the idea of a walking figure. Great as he was in the round, Gibson's chief excellence lay in basso rilievo, and in this less disputed sphere he obtained his greatest triumphs. His thorough knowledge of the horse, and his constant study of the Elgin marbles—casts of which are in Rome—resulted in the two matchless bassi rilievi, the size of life, which belong to the earl of Fitzwilliam—the Hours leading the Horses of the Sun, and Phaethon driving the Chariot of the Sun. Most of his monumental works are also in basso rilievo. Some of these are of a truly refined and pathetic character, such as the monument to the countess of Leicester, that to his friend Mrs Huskisson in Chichester Cathedral, and that of the Bonomi children. In reviewing the qualities most characteristic of this great artist, that of passionate expression may be said to stand foremost. Passion, either indulged or repressed, was the natural impulse of his art:—repressed as in the Hours leading the Horses of the Sun,

and as in the Hunter and Dog; indulged, as scarcely before seen in the same intensity in the whole range of sculpture, as in the meeting of Hero and Leander, a drawing executed before he left England. Gibson's power of drawing may be pronounced to have been unsurpassed by any modern. He had an iron hand, and used the pen in rapid action with as much certainty as if it had been the graver. Nowhere is the fire of his genius so unmistakably seen as in these first-hand productions. Nor can we wonder that marble, however highly wrought, could never entirely compensate for what was necessarily lost in the translation. Gibson was the first to introduce colour on his statues,—first, as a mere border to the drapery of a portrait statue of the Queen, and by degrees extended to the entire flesh, as in his Venus, and in the Cupid tormenting the Soul, belonging to Mr Holford. In both of these it amounts to no more than the slightest tint. Gibson's individuality was too strongly marked to be affected by any outward circumstances. In all worldly affairs and business of daily life he was simple and guileless in the extreme; but he was resolute in matters of principle, determined to walk straight at any cost of personal advantage. Unlike most artists, he was neither nervous nor irritable in temperament. It was said of him that he made the heathen mythology his religion; and indeed in serenity of nature, feeling for the beautiful, and a certain philosophy of mind, he may be accepted as a type of what a pure-minded Greek pagan, in the zenith of Greek art, may have been. Gibson was elected R.A. in 1836, and bequeathed all his property and the contents of his studio to the Royal Academy, where his marbles and casts are open to the public. He died at Rome in January 1866.

The letters between Gibson and Mrs Henry Sandbach, grand-daughter of Mr Roscoe, and a sketch of his life that lady induced him to write, furnish the chief materials for his biography. A volume of engravings from his finished works renders them very indifferent justice. A volume of facsimiles from his drawings is more worthy of him. (E. E.)

GICHEL, JOHANN GEORG (1638–1710), founder of the mystic sect of Gichtelians or Angelic Brethren, was born at Ratisbon, where his father was a member of senate, on the 14th of March 1638. Having acquired at school, besides an ordinary elementary education, a considerable acquaintance with Greek, Hebrew, Syriac, and even Arabic, he proceeded to Strasburg to study divinity; but finding that the theological prelections of Schmidt and Spener there were not conducive to the growth of his piety, he removed to Spire, where he entered the faculty of law. In 1664 he was admitted an advocate at Ratisbon; but having become acquainted with the Baron von Weltz, an Hungarian nobleman who cherished enthusiastic if not extravagant schemes for the reunion of Christendom and the conversion of the world, he abandoned all interest in his profession, and became an energetic promoter of the "Christenbauliche Jesusgesellschaft," or Christian Edification Society of Jesus, in the interests of which he visited many parts of Germany and Holland. The movement in its beginnings provoked at least no active hostility; but when Gichtel began to attack the teaching of the Lutheran clergy and church, especially upon the fundamental doctrine of justification by faith, he exposed himself to a prosecution which ultimately resulted in sentence of banishment and confiscation (1665). After many months of wandering and occasionally romantic adventure, he in January 1667 reached Holland, and settled at Zwoll, where he co-operated with Breckling, a man who shared his views and aspirations. Having become involved in the troubles of this friend, Gichtel, after a period of imprisonment, was banished for a term of years from Zwoll, but finally in 1668 found a home in Amsterdam, where in a state of poverty (which, however, never became destitution), he lived out his strange life of visions

and day-dreams, of prophecy and prayer. He became an ardent student and disciple of Jacob Boehme, whose works he published in 1682 (Amsterdam, 2 vols.); but before the time of his death, which occurred January 21, 1710, he had attracted to himself a small band of followers known as Gichtelians or Angelic Brethren, who propagated certain views at which he had arrived independently of Boehme. Seeking ever to hear the authoritative voice of God within them, and endeavouring to attain to a life altogether free from carnal desires, like that of "the angels in heaven, who neither marry nor are given in marriage," they claimed to exercise a priesthood "after the order of Melchizedek," appeasing the wrath of God, and ransoming the souls of the lost by sufferings endured vicariously after the example of Christ. The sect, never a numerous one, is said still to subsist in some districts of Holland and North Germany. Gichtel's correspondence was published without his knowledge by Gottfried Arnold, a disciple, in 1701 (2 vols.), and again in 1708 (3 vols.). It has been frequently reprinted under the title *Theosophia Practica*. The seventh volume of the Berlin edition (1768) contains a notice of Gichtel's life.

GIDEON, liberator, reformer, and "judge" of Israel, was the youngest son of Joash, of the "house" of Abiezer, and tribe of Manasseh, and had his home at Ophrah, the site of which is probably to be sought westward of Jordan, somewhat to the south of the plain of Jezreel. Gideon lived at a time when Israel, grown idolatrous, had been brought very low by periodic incursions of the "Midianites" and "Amalekites," nomad tribes from the east of Jordan, who in great numbers were wont to overrun the country, destroying all that they could not carry away. In the beginning of the narrative of his public life he is represented as an unambitious man, quietly engaged in agricultural pursuits, who yet had already distinguished himself as a "mighty man of valour," probably in guerilla warfare against the common foe. According to that narrative, his first exploit worthy of special commemoration was the destruction, by divine command, of the altar of Baal belonging to his father, and of the Ashera beside it, and the substitution of an altar to Jehovah. But immediately before this he had also been summoned by "the angel of the Lord" to undertake, in dependence on supernatural direction and help, the work of liberating his country from its long oppression, and, in token that he accepted the mission, had already erected in Ophrah an altar which he called "Jahveh-Shalom" (Jehovah is prosperity). The great gathering of the Midianites and their allies on the north side of the plain of Jezreel "stretching from the hill of Moreh"; the general muster first of Abiezer, then of all Manasseh, and lastly of the neighbouring tribes of Asher, Zebulun, and Naphtali; the signs by which the wavering faith of Gideon was steadied; the methods by which an unwieldy mob was reduced to a small but trusty band of energetic and determined men; and the stratagem by which the vast army of Midian was surprised and routed by the handful of Israelites descending from "above Endor," are indicated with sufficient clearness in the Scripture narrative, and need not be detailed minutely here. There is some difficulty in following the account of the subsequent flight of the Midianites, which seems to have taken place in two directions,—Oreb and Zeeb making for the lower fords of Jordan towards the south-east, while Zebah and Zalmunna took the upper passage, a little below the place where the river flows out of the Sea of Galilee. Leaving the Ephraimites (who had now risen in force) to deal with the former, Gideon with his 300 appears to have kept up the pursuit of the latter to Nobah and Jogbehah, points beyond Succoth and Penuel, where a bloody contest resulted in the destruction of that portion of the Midianite army, and in the ultimate capture and execution of Zebah and

Zalmunna. Almost simultaneously with these occurrences eastward of Jordan, messengers from Ephraim bearing the heads of Oreb ("raven") and Zeeb ("wolf"), who with their followers had been crushed at "the raven's rock" and "the wolf's den" respectively, announced the completeness of Israel's victory. Having taken unrelenting vengeance on the men of Penuel and Succoth, who had shown a timid neutrality when the patriotic struggle was at its crisis, Gideon returned to his native Ophrah, where he further distinguished himself by his pious magnanimity in refusing the kingship which had been put within his reach—an act of self-denial, however, which, according to the sacred historian, was somewhat neutralized by his subsequent folly in establishing a shrine which proved a snare to all Israel, not excluding his family or even himself. For forty years after the great victory he lived at his own house in Ophrah in considerable wealth and magnificence, yet always in a private station—there being no direct scriptural evidence at least that his judgeship lasted during all that period, or that it ever gave him any position of legally recognized authority. The name of Gideon occurs in Heb. xi. 32, in the list there given of those who became heroes by faith; but, except in Judges vi.–viii., it is not to be met with anywhere in the Old Testament. In 1 Sam. xii. 11 and 2 Sam. xi. 21 (LXX.) he is called Jerubbaal (the reading Jerubbesheth having been introduced into the latter passage in accordance with the usage explained in the article BAAL). The fact that in Judges ix., which appears to be the oldest part of the narrative, he is invariably called Jerubbaal, has suggested to Kuenen and others that this ought to be regarded as his original and proper name, that of Gideon (גִּדְעוֹן, i.e. "hewer" or "warrior," cf. Isa. x. 33) having been a later designation. In confirmation of this it is pointed out that the derivation of גִּדְעוֹן as equivalent to גִּבּוֹר בּוֹ הַבַּיִת ("Let Baal contend against him," v. 32, or "Let Baal contend for himself," v. 31) is much less probable than that which interprets it as precisely analogous with such names as Merib-baal, Jehoiarib or Joarib, Seraiah, Israel, and perhaps also Josadec, all meaning "God fights" or "contends." The nature of the grounds on which it is conjectured that Gideon's conquest of the Midianites was somewhat slower than the narrative on a first reading would lead one to suppose, and that his religious reforms, far from being confined to a solitary act of his early manhood, were rather the principal employment of his later life, is indicated in the histories of Israel by Ewald, Hitzig, and Kuenen. See also especially Wellhausen, *Geschichte*, i. 252 sq.

GIEN, a town of France, at the head of an arrondissement in the department of Loiret, is situated on the right bank of the Loire, 39 miles E.S.E. of Orleans. The Loire is crossed at Gien by a stone bridge of twelve arches, built about the end of the 15th century. The town is the seat of a tribunal of the first instance and of a justice of peace court. The principal buildings are the prison, the hospital, the old castle, originally built by Charlemagne, and reconstructed in 1494 by Anne de Beaujeu, daughter of Louis XI., and the church of Saint Pierre, a modern structure of no particular merit, but possessing an old square tower dating from the end of the 15th century. There are manufactures of serge, leather, and earthenware, and some trade in corn and wine. The population in 1876 was 6493.

GIESELER, JOHANN KARL LUDWIG (1792–1854), one of the most distinguished of the modern school of scientific writers on church history, was born at Petershagen, near Minden, where his father, a man of considerable vigour and independence of character, was minister, on the 3d of March 1792. In his tenth year he entered the orphanage at Halle, whence he duly passed to the university, his studies being interrupted, however, from October 1813 till the peace of 1815 by a period of military service, during which he was

enrolled as a volunteer in a regiment of chasseurs. Having in 1817 taken his degree in philosophy, he in the same year became assistant head master in the Minden gymnasium, and in 1818 was appointed corrector of the gymnasium at Cleves. Here he published his earliest work (*Historisch-kritischer Versuch über die Entstehung u. die frühesten Schicksale der schriftlichen Evangelien*), a treatise which has had considerable influence on all subsequent investigations and discussions of the question as to the origin of the gospels, in so far as it may be considered to have finally disposed of that theory of a "primitive" written gospel to which most critics in the earlier part of the century had inclined. In 1819 Gieseler was appointed a professor ordinarius in theology in the newly-founded university of Bonn, where, besides lecturing on church history, he made important contributions to the literature of that subject in Rosenmüller's *Repertorium*, Stäudlin u. Tschirner's *Archiv*, and in various university "programs." The first part of the first volume of his well-known *Church History* appeared in 1824. In 1833 he accepted a call to Göttingen, where the remainder of his life was spent, marked by few noteworthy events beyond the steady publication of volume after volume of his contributions to historical science. In 1837 he was appointed a consistorialrath, and shortly afterwards was created a knight of the Guelphic order. In the winter of 1853–4 symptoms of failing health began to appear, and towards the end of the session he was able to lecture only occasionally. His death occurred on the 8th of July 1854. The fourth and fifth volumes of the *Kirchengeschichte*, embracing the period subsequent to 1814, were published posthumously by Redepenning (1855); and they were followed in 1856 by a *Dogmengeschichte*, which is sometimes reckoned as the sixth volume of the *Church History*. Among church historians Gieseler continues to hold a very high place. Less vivid and picturesque in style than Hase, conspicuously deficient in Neander's deep and sympathetic insight into the more spiritual forces by which church life is always more or less pervaded, he excels these and all other contemporaries in the fulness and accuracy of his information. His *Lehrbuch der Kirchengeschichte*, in which indeed the text as compared with the notes often occupies a very subordinate place, is invaluable to the student who wishes at each step to be brought into direct contact with all the original sources of information which it is of importance that he should know. The work, which has passed through several editions in Germany, has partially appeared also in two English translations. That published in New York (*Text Book of Ecclesiastical History*, 4 vols.), brings the work down to the peace of Westphalia, while that published in "Clark's Theological Library" (*Compendium of Ecclesiastical History*, Edin., 5 vols.) closes with the beginning of the Reformation. For the life of Gieseler reference may be made to Redepenning's biographical sketch in the fifth volume of the *Kirchengeschichte*, and to Herzog's article in the *Real-Encyclopädie* (of which great work, it may be mentioned, Gieseler was an energetic promoter). Both biographers testify that with the habits of a devoted student he combined those of an energetic man of business. He frequently held the office of pro-rector of the university, and did much useful work as a member of several of its committees. He took a warm interest also in the Göttingen orphanage, where he was a daily visitor, knew all the children personally, and taught them to regard him as a counsellor and friend.

GIESSEN, a town of Germany, capital of the province of Upper Hesse, in the grand-duchy of Hesse-Darmstadt, is situated in a beautiful and fruitful valley at the confluence of the Wiesbeck with the Lahn, 33 miles N.N.W. of Frankfurt. It is the seat of a bailiwick, a high court, and a district penal court. The old streets are narrow and