unmixed with contempt. In truth, there was in his character much to love, but very little to respect. His heart was soft even to weakness: he was so generous that he quite forgot to be just; he forgave injuries so readily that he might be said to invite them, and was so liberal to beggars that he had nothing left for his tailor and his butcher. He was vain, sensual, frivolous, profuse, improvident. One vice of a darker shade was imputed to him, envy. But there is not the least reason to believe that this bad passion, though it sometimes made him wince and utter fretful exclamations, ever impelled him to injure by wicked arts the reputation of any of his rivals. The truth probably is that he was not more envious, but merely less prudent, than his neighbours. His heart was on his lips. All those small jealousies, which are but too common among men of letters, but which a man of letters who is also a man of the world does his best to conceal, Goldsmith avowed with the simplicity of a child. When he was envious, instead of affecting indifference, instead of damning with faint praise, instead of doing injuries slily and in the dark, he told everybody that he was envious. "Do not, pray, do not, talk of Johnson in such terms," he said to Boswell; "you harrow up my very soul." George Steevens and Cumberland were men far too cunning to say such a thing. They would have echoed the praises of the man whom they envied, and then have sent to the newspapers anonymous libels upon him. Both what was good and what was bad in Goldsmith's character was to his associates a perfect security that he would never commit such villainy. He was neither ill-natured enough, nor long-headed enough, to be guilty of any malicious act which required contrivance and disguise.

Goldsmith has sometimes been represented as a man of genius, cruelly treated by the world, and doomed to struggle with difficulties, which at last broke his heart. But no representation can be more remote from the truth. He did, indeed, go through much sharp misery before he had done anything considerable in literature. But after his name had appeared on the title-page of the *Traveller*, he had none but himself to blame for his distresses. His average income, during the last seven years of his life, certainly exceeded £400 a year, and £400 a year ranked, among the incomes of that day, at least as high as £800 a year would rank at present. A single man living in the Temple, with £400 a year, might then be called opulent. Not one in ten of the young gentlemen of good families who were studying the law there had so much. But all the wealth which Lord Clive had brought from Bengal, and Sir Lawrence Dundas from Germany, joined together, would not have sufficed for Goldsmith. He spent twice as much as he had. He wore fine clothes, gave dinners of several courses, paid court to venal beauties. He had also, it should be remembered, to the honour of his heart, though not of his head, a guinea, or five, or ten, according to the state of his purse, ready for any tale of distress, true or false. But it was not in dress or feasting, in promiscuous amours or promiscuous charities, that his chief expense lay. He had been from boyhood a gambler, and at once the most sanguine and the most unskilful of gamblers. For a time he put off the day of inevitable ruin by temporary expedients. He obtained advances from booksellers, by promising to execute works which he never began. But at length this source of supply failed. He owed more than £2000; and he saw no hope of extrication from his embarrassments. His spirits and health gave way. He was attacked by a nervous fever, which he thought himself competent to treat. It would have been happy for him if his medical skill had been appreciated as justly by himself as by others. Nothwithstanding the degree which he pretended to have received at Padua, he could procure no patients. "I do not practise," he once said; "I make it a rule to prescribe only for my friends." "Pray, dear Doctor," said Beauclerk, "alter your rule; and prescribe only for your enemies." Goldsmith now, in spite of this excellent advice, prescribed for himself. The remedy aggravated the malady. The sick man was induced to call in real physicians; and they at one time imagined that they had cured the disease. Still his weakness and restlessness continued. He could get no sleep. He could take no food. "You are worse," said one of his medical attendants, "than you should be from the degree of fever which you have. Is your mind at ease?" "No; it is not," were the last recorded words of Oliver Goldsmith. He died on the 3d of April 1774, in his forty-sixth year. He was laid in the churchyard of the Temple; but the spot was not marked by any inscription, and is now forgotten. The coffin was followed by Burke and Reynolds. Both these great men were sincere mourners. Burke, when he heard of Goldsmith's death, had burst into a flood of tears. Reynolds had been so much moved by the news that he had flung aside his brush and palette for the day.

A short time after Goldsmith's death, a little poem appeared, which will, as long as our language lasts, associate the names of his two illustrious friends with his own. It has already been mentioned that he sometimes felt keenly the sarcasm which his wild blundering talk brought upon him. He was, not long before his last illness, provoked into retaliating. He wisely betook himself to his pen; and at that weapon he proved himself a match for all his assailants together. Within a small compass he drew with a singularly easy and vigorous pencil the characters of nine or ten of his intimate associates. Though this little work did not receive his last touches, it must always be regarded as a masterpiece. It is impossible, however, not to wish that four or five likenesses which have no interest for posterity were wanting to that noble gallery, and that their places were supplied by sketches of Johnson and Gibbon, as happy and vivid as the sketches of Burke and Garrick.

Some of Goldsmith's friends and admirers honoured him with a cenotaph in Westminster Abbey. Nollekens was the sculptor, and Johnson wrote the inscription. It is much to be lamented that Johnson did not leave to posterity a more durable and a more valuable memorial of his friend. A life of Goldsmith would have been an inestimable addition to the Lives of the Poets. No man appreciated Goldsmith's writings more justly than Johnson; no man was better acquainted with Goldsmith's character and habits; and no man was more competent to delineate with truth and spirit the peculiarities of a mind in which great powers were found in company with great weaknesses. But the list of poets to whose works Johnson was requested by the booksellers to furnish prefaces ended with Lyttelton, who died in 1773. The line seems to have been drawn expressly for the purpose of excluding the person whose portrait would have most fitly closed the series. Goldsmith, however, has been fortunate in his biographers. Within a few years his life was written by Mr Prior (1836), by Mr Washington Irving (1849), and by Mr Forster (1848; 2d ed., 1854). The diligence of Mr Prior deserves great praise; the style of Mr Washington Irving is always pleasing; but the highest place must, in justice, be assigned to the eminently interesting work of Mr Forster. (M.)

GOLDSTÜCKER, Theodor (1821–1872), an eminent Sanskrit scholar, was born of Jewish parents at Königsberg on the 18th of January 1821, and, after passing through a prolonged course of study at the gymnasium, entered the university in 1836, where he attended the lectures of Lobeck, Rosenkranz, and Von Bohlen, under the last of whom he began the study of Sanskrit. In 1838 he removed to Bonn, where he heard W. von Schlegel, Lassen, and

Freytag; and after graduating at Königsberg in 1840, he proceeded to Paris, where he heard the lectures and enjoyed the friendship of Burnouf, and where in 1842 he edited a German translation of the *Prabodha Chandrodaya*. From 1846 to 1850 he resided at Berlin, where his talents and scholarship were recognized by A. von Humboldt; in the latter year he was induced, for the further prosecution of his Sanskrit researches, to remove to London, where in 1851 he was appointed professor of Sanskrit in University College. He now began to devote himself to the execution of a new Sanskrit dictionary, of which the first instalment appeared in 1856. In 1861 he published an important monograph, entitled *Panini: his Place in Literature*; and from 1866 he was one of the chief promoters of the Sanskrit Text Society, which had been founded in that year; he was also an active member of the Philological Society, and of other learned bodies. His literary productiveness was not, however, proportionate to the extent and accuracy of his reading; he had "allowed his learning to stifle his creative faculty," and a morbid dread of the risk of making inaccurate or defective statements made him unduly reluctant to communicate to the world the results of his laborious collecting and collating. The dictionary,—so copious as almost to deserve the name of a cyclopædia of Indian archæology,—was never advanced further than to about the middle of the first letter (1864); and whatever else he may have written was published anonymously in various periodicals and works of reference. He died on the 6th of March 1872.

GOLF (in its older forms Goff, Gouff, or Gowff, the last of which gives the genuine old pronunciation) is an amusement so peculiar to Scotland and so prevalent there that—unless curling may be held to dispute the place with it—it may be called, *par excellence*, the national game. There seems little doubt the word is derived from the German *kolbe*, a club—in Dutch, *kolf*,—which last is nearly in sound identical, and might give inference for the game of a Dutch origin.[1]

Golf may be practised on any good stretch of meadow-land, where the grass is not too rank; but the ground best suited for the purpose is a reach of undulating down-country, such as is common on the seaboard,—sandy in soil, and as such covered with a short crisp turf, occasionally broken up by sandholes or "bunkers," and provided, in addition, with a fair supply of gorse or whin. These "bunkers" and whins constitute the main "hazards" of the game, in the avoidance of which skill in it is specially shown; and without a fair provision of them, no golfing "links" or "green" can be held to approach the ideal standard. Small holes, of about 4 inches diameter, are punched in the turf at distances indefinitely variable, but ranging from about 100 to 400 or 500 yards; and from one of these holes into the next in order, a ball of gutta percha of about $1\frac{3}{4}$ oz. weight has to be driven with implements (clubs) of some variety, devised for the purpose. Their variety is determined by this, that while, in starting from the hole, the ball may be *teed* (*i.e.*, placed where the player chooses, with a little pinch of sand under it called a *tee*), it must in every other case be played strictly from its place as it chances to lie,—in sand, whin, or elsewhere,—a different club being necessary in each particular difficulty. These clubs may generally be defined as shafts of wood, with so called *heads* of wood or iron attached.[2] Starting from the one hole, it is the immediate aim of the player to drive his ball as far towards the next as he can. Having got within some moderate distance of it, he proceeds to make his "approach shot," carefully selecting the appropriate implement. When he has reached the "putting green,"—a smooth space carefully chosen for the purpose,—he essays to put (or putt) his ball into the hole; and generally, if he does it in two strokes, he may be held skilful or fortunate. The player who holes his ball in the smallest number of strokes is, as matter of course, winner of the hole. The "approach" and the "putting" are by far the most difficult, critical, and important parts of the game; though no one who is not fairly competent in his driving also is ever in the least likely to take rank as a first-class player. The maximum length of a good driving stroke for a first-class player, not favoured by any exceptional circumstances, may perhaps fairly be stated as something over 180 yards, and under 200. For further details as to the mode and order of playing, the reader is referred to the set of "rules" appended to this article.

The game, in description as above, may not seem very lively or entertaining; and it is to be admitted that, seen for the first time, more especially if played by bungling or indifferent performers, it does not look of much promise. No game, however, stirs a keener enthusiasm in its votaries; and very few people who have ever fairly committed themselves to serious practice of it will be found to deny its extreme fascination. It is a manly and eminently healthful recreation, pursued as it is mostly amid the fresh sea-breezes; while, as exercise, it has this peculiar merit, that, according to pace, it may be made easy or smart at pleasure, and thus equally adapts itself to the overflowing exuberance of youth, the matured and tempered strength of manhood, and the gentler decays of age.

It is uncertain at what date golf was introduced into Scotland, but in 1457 the popularity of the game had already become so great as seriously to interfere with the more important pursuit of archery, and cause the rulers of the realm to sound a note of alarm. In March of that year, it is recorded that the Scottish parliament "decreted and ordained that wapinshawingis be halden be the lordis and baronis spirituale and temporale, four times in the zeir; and that the fute-ball and *golf be utterly cryit doun, and nocht usit*; and that the bowe-merkis be maid at ilk paroche kirk a pair of buttis, and *schuttin be usit ilk Sunday*." It does not appear, however, that to this patriotic decree of their parliament the people paid much attention; and fourteen years afterwards, in May 1471, it was judged necessary to pass another Act "anent wapenshawings," and for opposing "our auld enimies of England." But it seems to have been pretty much as before; *schuttin* was no more *usit*, nor golf the less steadily played because of these decrees of parliament; and accordingly in 1491 a final and evidently angry fulmination is issued on the general subject, with pains and penalties annexed. It runs thus—"Futeball and Golfe forbidden. Item, it is statut and ordainit that in na place of the realme there be usit futeball, *golfe, or uther sik unprofitabill sportis*, but for the commoun gude of the realme, and defence thereof, *that bowis and schuttin be hanted*, and bow-markis maid therefor, ordainit in ilk parochin under the pain of fourtie shillinges, to be raisit be the schireffe and baillies foresaid," &c. This, be it noted, is an edict of James IV.; and it is not a little curious presently to find the monarch himself breaking his own behest, and setting an ill example to his commons, by practice of this "unprofitabill sport," as is shown by various entries in the accounts of the Lord High Treasurer of Scotland (1503–6).

About a century later, the game again appears on the surface of history, and it is quite as popular as before. In the year 1592, the Town Council of Edinburgh "ordanis proclamation to be maid threw this burgh that, seeing the Sabboth day being the Lordis day, it becumis every Christiane to delicat himselff to the service of God, thairfore commanding in our soverane lord's name, and in name of the provost and baillies, that na inhabitants of the samyn be seen at ony pastymes within or without the toun, *upoun the Sabboth day, sic as golfe, &c.*"[1] The following year the edict was reannounced, but with the modification that the prohibition was "in tyme of sermons."

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[1] From an enactment of James VI. (then James I. of England), bearing date 1618, we find that a considerable importation of golf balls at that time took place from Holland, and as thereby "na small quantitie of gold and silver is transported zierly out of his Hienes' kingdome of Scoteland" (see letter of his Majesty from Salisbury, 5th Aug. 1618), he issues a royal prohibition, at once as a wise economy of the national monies, and a protection to native industry in the article. From this it might almost seem that the game was at that date still known and practised in Holland, though it has long since entirely disappeared there.

[2] A complete set of them may number about a dozen:—a driving club, a long, a middle, and a short "spoon" (so called from the face of the club being spooned, or bevelled, to lift a bad-lying ball), and a "putter" (the use of which is explained below) are the clubs formed wholly of wood, while of iron there are—a heavy and a light "iron," a driving and a lifting "cleek," possibly also a "putting" cleek, finally a "niblick," constructed to pick a ball out of some such hole as no other iron can reach.

Golf has from old times been known in Scotland as "The *Royal and Ancient* Game of Goff." Though no doubt Scottish monarchs handled the club before him, James IV. is the first who figures formally in the golfing record. James V. was also very partial to the game distinctively known as "royal"; and there is some scrap of evidence to show that his daughter, the unhappy Mary Stuart, was, in some sort of feminine way, a *golfer*. It was alleged by her enemies that, as showing her shameless indifference to the fate of her husband, a very few days after his murder, she "was seen playing *golf* and pallmall in the fields beside Seton."[2] That her son, James VI. (afterwards James I. of England), was a golfer tradition confidently asserts, though the evidence which connects him with the personal practice of the game is slight. Of the interest he took in it we have evidence in his Act—already alluded to—"anent *golfe ballis,*" prohibiting their importation, except under certain restrictions. Charles I. (as his brother Prince Henry had been[3]) was devotedly attached to the game. Whilst engaged in it on the links of Leith, in 1642, the news reached him of the Irish rebellion of that year. He had not the equanimity to finish his match, but returned precipitately and in much agitation to Holyrood.[4] Long afterwards, while prisoner to the Scots army at Newcastle, before being given up to the tender mercies of the English Parliament, he found his favourite diversion in "the royal game." "The King was nowhere treated with more honour than at Newcastle, as he himself confessed, both he and his train having liberty to go abroad and play at goff in the Shield Field, without the walls."[5] Of his son, Charles II., as a golfer, nothing whatever is ascertained, but his brother, James II., was a known devotee.[6] After the Restoration, James, then duke of York, was sent to Edinburgh in 1681–2 as commissioner of the king to parliament, and an historical monument of his prowess as a golfer remains there to this day in the "Golfer's Land," as it is still called, 77 Canongate. The duke having been challenged by two English noblemen of his suite, or *entourage*, to play a match against them, for a very large stake, along with any Scotch elly he might select, judiciously chose as his partner one "Johne Patersone," a shoemaker—a local *crack* of the day, it is to be presumed. The duke and the said Johne won easily, and half of the large stake the duke made over to his humble coadjutor, who therewith built himself the house mentioned above. With the Revolution royal patronage entirely ceased, to be renewed only in comparatively recent times. In 1834 William IV. became patron of the St Andrews Golf Club (St Andrews, the ancient ecclesiastical metropolis of Scotland, being now, as of old, the most famous seat of the game), and to approve of its being styled in time coming "The *Royal and Ancient* Golf Club of St Andrews." In 1837, as further proof of royal favour, he presented to it a magnificent gold medal, which "should be challenged and played for annually;" and in 1838 the queen dowager, duchess of St Andrews, became patroness of the club, and presented to it a handsome gold medal—"The Royal Adelaide,"—as a mark of her approbation, with a request that it should be worn by the captain, as president, on all public occasions. In June 1863 the prince of Wales signified his desire to become patron of the club, and in the following September was elected captain by acclamation. The engagements of the prince did not admit of his coming in person to undertake the duties of the office, but his brother Prince Leopold, having in 1876 done the club the honour to become its captain, twice visited the ancient city in that capacity. Prince Leopold is himself a keen player, and under his superintendence a green has been laid out in Windsor-park. The ancient game of golf has thus fairly now again become as "royal" as ever it was in its old historic periods.

The later fortunes of the game have been uneventful. While always keeping its hold on the affections of the people, it might readily be shown, that over Scotland generally its tide, till nearly within our own time, was rather an ebbing than a flowing one. While it remained a favourite pastime with some of the aristocracy and gentry who always had a sufficient following where—as instance, in Edinburgh—the due facilities admitted, the general enthusiasm for the sport which lives for us in the old records had certainly disappeared, and over various isolated greens, where playing was at one time constant, it had virtually and sometimes absolutely died out. Its increased popularity within recent years has no doubt been largely due to those general causes which have led to a keener interest in almost every form of out-door amusement, but it is also in some measure to be attributed to greatly extended railway facilities, and to the introduction some thirty years ago of the cheap and durable gutta percha ball to replace the old missile.[7]

It remains to give some little account of the more noted golf clubs and golfing grounds. The most famous of golf clubs, to which primacy is by common consent accorded, is that of the city of St Andrews, instituted in 1754. For various reasons this club has always been of much more than merely local celebrity. Its membership is far more numerous than that of any other; nearly all golfers of note belong to it; and to its spring and autumn meetings they flock from every part of the kingdom. To be winner of a medal at St Andrews is thus the highest honour to which the ambition of the golfer can aspire. A "round," as it is termed, of the links is very nearly four miles; and, extent and quality considered, the green is on the whole unrivalled by any other in Scotland. Of greens in Fife of minor importance, those of Elie and Leven may be noted. Next in importance to "The Royal and Ancient Golf Club of St Andrews" ranks "The Honourable the Edinburgh Company of Golfers," who play over Musselburgh green, one of fair but scarcely supreme quality. The first of its regular series of minutes bears date 1744, and is signed by Lord President Duncan Forbes of Culloden, but the club itself is beyond question very much older. Of other Edinburgh golf clubs may be noted "The Bruntsfield," founded in the year 1760, and the "Edinburgh Burgess," the minute books of which are preserved since the year 1773, though it claims to have date of origin 1735. In East Lothian, besides the good old green of North Berwick, there are of late years two others,—Gullane and Luffness,—and on all three excellent golfing sport is to be had. At the ancient city of Perth, though the ground is but indifferently adapted for it, the old Scottish game has continuously been maintained, and still flourishes. So also in Forfarshire, at the historic green of Montrose, to which in our own time have been added those of Monifeith and Carnoustie, which, from their proximity to Dundee, naturally attract many players; and all three may be ranked as greens of fair quality. At Aberdeen, till very lately, the game had quite died out, but it has now been with more or less of vigour resumed. At Stirling likewise it was extinct, but is now again fairly alive, though under conditions of ground, as at Perth, not quite satisfactory. At Glasgow also, where on the old "Glasgow Green" the game was habitually played, it had lapsed into disuse and even oblivion; but within the last ten years the general resuscitation has reached it, and a spirited club now exists there. If the ground is by no means what might be wished, the Glasgow golfer, by a very easy railway run, can reach the green of Prestwick, near Ayr. The "Prestwick Club" is, by comparison, of recent origin, having been organized mainly by the last earl of Eglintoun, and one or two gentlemen in the neighbourhood, interested like himself in the game. Except for limitation in extent, making it impossible that a large "field" should be accommodated without confusion and even danger, such is the excellence of the ground that, as a "sporting" green, to test play, that of Prestwick is held by competent judges perhaps to surpass all others. A second links has recently been opened at Prestwick, and another at Troon, on the same coast.

The oldest golf club in the kingdom is not improbably that of Blackheath, near London. The old records of the club were unfortunately destroyed by fire at Greenwich, where they were kept, and 1766 is thus the earliest date for which there is documentary evidence. Tradition places the origin of this club so far back as 1608, when King James, with his Scotch following, brought the game south into England. Recently another London club has been started, whose ground of play is at Wimbledon. Neither green is of great merit, but both are much prized and frequented by golfers in and near London. In 1864, at Bideford, in Devonshire, a golfing green was laid out by the well-known Tom Morris of St Andrews, and a club was duly instituted, which has since continued to flourish. This links is one of the finest and most extensive anywhere to be found, and despite the disadvantage of remoteness and difficulty of access, the meetings of the club attract players from all quarters, and are commonly most successful. More lately an excellent green was opened at Hoylake, near Liverpool, and the club here has also prospered greatly. At Crookham in Berkshire, and Alnwick in Northumberland, the game is regularly played; and at the universities of Oxford and Cambridge rival golf clubs have within the last few years been formed. In brief, the game has now thoroughly taken root in England; from year to year it is rapidly spreading, and many fine English players have already passed into the front rank.

In nearly all the British colonies the game has naturalized itself. Golf clubs of old standing exist at Calcutta and Bombay, and more casually over India a good deal of play is to be met with. Wherever Scots congregate in any numbers a golf club is pretty sure to spring up. In Canada and the United States, as in

Australia and New Zealand, many clubs may be found flourishing; and, oddly enough, at Pau in the Pyrenees, a golf club has long existed. An export of clubs and balls to all these golfing dependencies has long formed, and still forms, an important item of the manufacture.

We must not quit the subject without making note of one pleasing innovation. Some six or eight years ago, the ladies took to the game, and since have diligently prosecuted it in large numbers, some attaining no mean proficiency. They have hitherto confined themselves to the "short game," as it is termed, or putting; and where a separate piece of ground has been assigned them, as at St Andrews, North Berwick, and elsewhere, the "Ladies' Links" form a pretty and charming adjunct to the main green.

We append the more important rules of the game, as played by "The Royal and Ancient Golf Club of St Andrews," which, though it has no claim to give law to other clubs, may be accepted as, on the whole, the best authority on the subject:—

I. *Mode and Order of Playing the Game.*—The game of golf is played by two persons, or by four (two of a side), playing alternately. It may also be played by three or more persons, each playing his own ball. The game commences by each party playing off a ball from a place called the *tee*, near the first hole. In a match of four, those who are opposed to each other, and to play off, shall be named at starting, and shall continue so during the match. The person entitled to play off first shall be named by the parties themselves: and although the courtesy of starting is generally granted to old captains of the club, or members, it may be settled by lot or toss of a coin. The hole is won by the party holing at fewest strokes, and the reckoning of the game is made by the terms *odds* and *like, one more, two more*, &c. The party gaining the hole is to lead, unless his opponent has won the previous match, in which case the latter leads off, and is entitled to claim his privilege, and to recall his opponent's stroke should he play out of order. One round of the links, or 18 holes, is reckoned a match, unless otherwise stipulated. If, in a double match, one person shall play twice in succession, he loses the hole.

II. *Place of Teeing.*—The ball must be teed not nearer the hole than eight, nor further than twelve club lengths, except where special ground has been marked by the conservator of the links, which shall be considered the "teeing ground," and the balls shall be teed within and not in advance of such marks. After the balls are struck off, the ball farthest from the hole to which the parties are playing must be played first. When two parties meet on the putting green, the party first there may claim the privilege of holing out, and any party coming up must wait till the other party has played out the hole, and on no account play their balls up lest they should annoy the parties who are putting. No player may play his teed ball till the party in front have played their second strokes.

III. *Changing the Balls.*—The balls struck off from the tee must not be changed, touched, or moved before the hole is played out (except in striking, and the cases provided for by Rules VIII., XVIII., and XIX.); and if the parties are at a loss to know the one ball from the other, neither shall be lifted till both parties agree.

IV. *Lifting of Break-Clubs, &c.*—All loose impediments within a club length of the ball may be removed on or off the course, when the ball lies on grass (see Rules VI. and XII.) When a ball lies in a bunker, sand, or any other hazard, there shall be no impression made, nor sand or other obstacle removed by the club, or otherwise, either on or off the green, before striking at the ball. When a ball lies within a club length of a washing-tub, the tub may be removed, and when on clothes the ball may be lifted and dropped behind them.

V. *Entitled to see the Ball.*—When a ball is completely covered with fog, bent, whins, &c., so much thereof shall be set aside as that the player shall merely have a view of his ball before he plays, whether in a line with the hole or otherwise. A ball stuck fast in wet ground or sand may be taken out and replaced loosely in the hole it has made.

VI. *Clearing the Putting Green.*—All loose impediments, of whatever kind, may be lifted on the putting green or table-land on which the hole is placed (excepting as declared in Rule IV.), which is considered not to exceed twenty yards from the hole. Nothing can be lifted either on the course or putting green, if it is to move the ball out of its position.

VII. *Lifting Balls.*—When, on any part of the course, or off it, or in a bunker, the balls lie within six inches of each other, the ball nearest the hole must be lifted till the other is played, and then placed as nearly as possible in its original position—the six inches to be measured from the surface of the balls. In a three-ball match, the ball in any degree interposing between the player and the hole on the putting green, must be played out.

VIII. *Ball in Water, or in the Burn, and Place of Re-teeing.*—If the ball is in water, the player may take it out, change the ball if he pleases tee it, and play from behind the hazard, losing a stroke. If the ball lies in any position in the burn across the first hole, the player may take it out, tee it on the line where it entered the burn, on the opposite side from the hole to which he is playing, and lose a stroke; or he may play it where it lies, without a penalty. However, should a ball be driven into the Eden at the high hole, or the sea at the first hole, the ball must be placed a club-length in front of either sea or river, the player or party losing a stroke. In playing for a medal, a ball driven into the Eden may be treated as a lost ball.

IX. *Rubs of the Green.*—Whatever happens to a ball by accident, such as striking any person, or being touched with the foot by a third party, or by the fore cady, must be reckoned a rub of the green, and submitted to. If, however, the player's ball strike his opponent, or his opponent's cady or clubs, the opponent loses the hole; or if he strikes himself or his partner, or their cadies or clubs, or if he strikes the ball a second time while in the act of playing, the player loses the hole. If the player touch the ball with his foot, or any part of his body, or with anything except his club, or if he with his club displace the ball in preparing to strike, he loses a stroke; and if one party strikes his opponent's ball with his club, foot, or otherwise, that party loses the hole. But if he plays it inadvertently, thinking it his own, and the opponent also plays the wrong ball, it is then too late to claim the penalty, and the hole must be played out with the balls thus changed. If, however, the mistake occurs from wrong information given by one party to the other, the penalty cannot be claimed; and the mistake, if discovered before the other party has played, must be rectified by replacing the ball as nearly as possible where it lay. If the player's ball be played away by mistake, or lifted by a third party, then the player must drop a ball as near the spot as possible, without any penalty. Whatever happens to a ball on a medal day, such as a player striking his cady, or himself, or his clubs, or moving the ball with his foot or club, or his cady doing so, or the player striking it twice before it stops motion, the player in such cases shall lose one stroke only as the penalty.

X. *Ball Lost.*—If a ball is lost, the player (or his partner, in a double match) returns to the spot, as near as possible, where the ball was struck, tees another ball, and loses both the distance and a stroke. If the original ball is found before the party has struck the other ball, the first shall continue the one to be played.

XI. *Club Breaking.*—If, in striking, the club breaks, it is nevertheless counted to be a stroke, if the part of the club remaining in the player's hand either strike the ground or pass the ball.

XII. *Holing out the Ball.*—In holing, no mark shall be placed, or line drawn, to direct the ball to the hole; the ball must be played fairly and honestly for the hole, and not on your opponent's ball not being in the way to the hole; nor, although lying in the way to the hole, is the player entitled to play with any strength upon it that might injure his opponent's position, or greater than is necessary honestly to send your own ball the distance of the hole. Either party may smooth sand lying around the hole, but this must be done lightly and without pressure, or beating down with the feet, club, or otherwise. If, in holing out, the ball rests upon the flag-stick in the hole, the player shall be entitled to have the stick removed, and if the ball falls in, it shall be considered as holed out; but either party is entitled to have the flag-stick removed when approaching the hole.

XIII. *Unplaying Balls.*—In *Match* playing every ball must be played, wherever it lies, or the hole be given up, excepting when it lies on clothes, in water, or in the bed of the burn (see Rules IV. and VIII.), or in any of the holes, or short holes, made for golfing, in which latter case it may be lifted, dropped behind the hazard, and played without losing a stroke. In *Medal* playing a ball may, under a penalty of two strokes, be lifted out of a difficulty of any description, and teed behind the hazard, and if in any of the golfing holes, it may be lifted, dropped, and played, without a penalty. In all cases where a ball is to be dropped, the party doing so shall front the hole to which he is playing, standing close on the hazard, and drop the ball behind him from his head.

XV. *Asking Advice.*—A player must not ask advice about the game, by word, look, or gesture, from any one except his own cady, his partner's cady, or his partner.

XVIII. *Balls Splitting.*—If a ball shall split into two or more pieces, a fresh ball shall be put down where the largest portion of the ball lies; and if a ball is cracked the player may change it on intimating his intention of doing so to his opponent.

XIX. *Breach of Rules.*—Where no penalty for the infringement of a rule is specially mentioned, the loss of the hole shall be understood to be the penalty.

Golf which, as we have seen, has a history of some interest, has also a literature (copious in verse and prose), and a somewhat amusing anecdotage. In *Golf, a Royal and Ancient Game*, a work issued in 1875 by Mr Robert Clark of Edinburgh, a well-known and accomplished adept, a very careful collection will be found of everything connected with the game which in this form deserves preservation. Through the ready kindness of the author this admirable compendium has been available, and free use has been made of it, in the preparation of this article. (P. P. A.)

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[1] *Records of the City of Edinburgh.*

[2] *Inventories of Mary Queen of Scots*, preface, p. lxx., 1863.

[3] Anonymous author of MS. in the Harleian Library.

[4] See *History of Leith*, by A. Campbell. 1827.

[5] *Local Records of Northumberland*, by John Sykes, Newcastle, 1833.

[6] Robertson's *Historical Notices of Leith.*

[7] The old ball was, roughly, a circlet of leather, stitched together in sections, and stuffed as hard as a stone with feathers. It was about twice the price of the present ball, and almost incomparably less durable.

GOLGOTHA. See Jerusalem.

GOLIUS, Jacobus (1596–1667), Orientalist, was born at the Hague in 1596, and studied at Leyden, where in Oriental languages he was the most distinguished pupil of Erpenius. In 1622 he accompanied the Dutch embassy to Morocco, and on his return he was chosen to succeed Erpenius (1624). In the following year he set out on a Syrian and Arabian tour from which he did not return until 1629. The remainder of his life was spent at Leyden where from that date he held the chair of mathematics as well as that of Arabic until his death, which occurred on September 28th, 1667.

His most important work is the *Lexicon Arabico-Latinum*, fol., Leyden 1653, which, based on the *Sihah* of Al-Jauhari, has only recently been superseded by the corresponding work of Freytag. Among his earlier publications may be mentioned editions of various Arabic texts (*Proverbia quædam Alis, imperatoris Muslemici, et Carmen Tograi, poetæ doctissimi, necnon dissertatio quædam Aben Synæ*, 1629; and *Ahmedis Arabsiadæ vitæ et rerum gestarum Timuri, qui vulgo Tamerlanes dicitur, historia*, 1636). In 1656 he published a new edition, with considerable additions, of the *Grammatica Arabica* of Erpenius. After his death, there was found among his papers a *Dictionarium Persico-Latinum* which was published, with additions, by Edmund Castell in his *Lexicon Heptaglotton* (1669). Golius also edited, translated, and annotated the astronomical treatise of Alfragan (*Muhammedis, filii Ketiri Ferganensis, qui vulgo Alfraganus dicitur, Elementa Astronomica Arabice et Latine*, 1669).

GOLLNOW, a town in the Prussian province of Pomerania, government district of Stettin, is situated on the right bank of the Ilna, 14 miles N.N.E. of Stettin, with which it has communication by steamer. It possesses two suburbs, and has manufactures of linen and woollen goods, copper wares, ribbons, paper, and tobacco. Gollnow was founded in 1190, was raised to the rank of a town by Barnim I. in 1268, and in 1314 received Lübeck rights. It was formerly a Hanse town, and came into the possession of Prussia in 1720. The population in 1876 was 7913.

GÖLNITZ, or **Göllnitz** (Golniczbánya), a mining town of Hungary, on a river of the same name, in the county of Szepes (Zips), about 18 miles south-west of Eperies, 48° 51′ N. lat., 20° 59′ E. long. In the vicinity are iron and copper mines, which, with the forges, and the nail and wire factories, &c., afford employment to most of the inhabitants. It is the seat of a mining council and tribunal, has Roman Catholic and Protestant churches, post and telegraph offices, and a high school. In 1870 the population amounted to 5205, composed of Magyars, Slavs, and Germans. Gölnitz was formerly a royal free town; its chief importance now is as a mining centre.

GOLOVNIN, Vasily Mikhailovich (1776–1831), a Russian vice-admiral, was born April 20, 1776, in the village of Gulynki, in the province of Ryazan, and received his education at the Cronstadt naval school. From 1801 to 1806 he served as a volunteer in the English navy. In 1807 he was commissioned by the Russian Government to survey the coasts of Kamchatka and of Russian America, including also the Kurile Islands. Golovnin sailed round the Cape of Good Hope, and on October 5, 1809, arrived in Kamchatka. In 1810, whilst attempting to survey the coast of the island of Kunashir, he was seized by the Japanese, and was retained by them as a prisoner until October 13, 1813, when he was liberated, and in the following year he returned to St Petersburg. Soon after this the Government planned another expedition, which had for its object the circumnavigation of the globe by a Russian ship, and Golovnin was appointed to the command. He started from St Petersburg on the 7th September 1817, sailed round Cape Horn, and arrived in Kamchatka in the following May. He returned to Europe by way of the Cape of Good Hope, and landed at St Petersburg, September 17, 1819. He died July 12, 1831.

Golovnin published several works, of which the following are the most important:—*Journey to Kamchatka*, 2 vols., 1819; *Journey round the World*, 2 vols., 1822; and *Narrative of my Captivity in Japan*, 2 vols., 1816. The last has been translated into French, German, and English. A complete edition of his works was published at St Petersburg, 1864, in five volumes, with maps and charts, and a biography of the author by N. Grech.

GOLTZ, Bogumil (1801–1870), humorist and satirist, was born of a German family settled at Warsaw, March 20, 1801. At the age of seven he was taken by some friends to Königsberg, and after studying at the gymnasium was placed under the care of a country clergyman near Marienwerder. He next went to the gymnasium of Marienwerder, and finally returned to Königsberg. In 1817 he began to learn practical farming on an estate near Thorn; but the strong desire which he felt for scientific culture led him, five years later, to the university of Breslau. There he at first entered upon the study of theology, but he did not pursue it, selecting instead philosophy and philology. The next year he bought an estate near Thorn, married the daughter of a Prussian officer, and applied himself to the duties of a farmer. He did not succeed; and after other equally unsuccessful experiments in the same line in Poland and Prussia, he retired in 1830 to the small town of Gollub, and devoted himself to literary studies. Sixteen years of meditative seclusion passed away; and then, having taken up his abode at Thorn, he gave to the world the first fruits of his studies and reflexions in the charming poetic *Buch der Kindheit* (1847), in which he delineates the incidents and impressions of his own childhood with a tender feeling like that of Jean Paul. The dates which he gives in this narrative are inconsistent with those which he furnished for the memoir in Brockhaus's *Conversations-Lexikon*; and a chronological difficulty is thus created which perhaps it may not be possible to solve.

The *Buch der Kindheit* was speedily followed by a satirical and polemical epistle against Ronge and the friends of enlightenment, which he entitled *Deutsche Entartung in der lichtfreundlichen und modernen Lebensart*. For the purpose of enlarging his experience of men, and of amassing stores of material for his art as humorist and reformer of human life and society, he undertook a course of extensive travels, visiting Germany, France, England, Italy, and Egypt. In 1850 he published *Das Menschendaseyn in seinen weltewigen Zügen and Zeichen*. This was followed by another poetically conceived work on his own early life, entitled *Ein Jugendleben: Biographisches Idyll aus Westpreussen* (1852), and by *Ein Kleinstädter in Aegypten* (1853). In his next work, *Der Mensch und die Leute* (1858), he especially displays his peculiar powers in profound and acute sketches of various races of men. It is a book of enduring value. His *Die Deutschen*, consisting of a series of studies on the history and peculiarities of the genius of the Germans, appeared in 1860. His other works are *Zur charakteristik und Naturgeschichte der Frauen* (1859), *Typen der Gesellschaft* (1860), *Die Bildung und die Gebildeten* (1864), *Vorlesungen* (1869), and *Die Weltklugheit und die Lebensweisheit mit ihren correspondirenden Studien* (1869). Goltz is a follower of Jean Paul, and has many of the characteristics of his master; but he takes a lower place as literary artist, wanting Jean Paul's creative imagination. He died at Thorn, November 11, 1870.

An interesting essay on Goltz was contributed by the poet, Rudolf Gottschall, to *Unsere Zeit*, new series, 1871.

GOLTZIUS, Hendrik (1558–1617), a Dutch painter and engraver, was born in 1558 at Mülebrecht, in the duchy of Juliers. After studying painting on glass for some years under his father, he was taught the use of the burin by Dirk Volkertsz Coornlert, a Dutch engraver of mediocre attainment, whom he soon surpassed, but who retained his services for his own advantage. He was also employed by Philip Galle to engrave a set of prints of the history of Lucretia. At the age of twenty-one he married a widow somewhat advanced in years, whose money enabled him to establish at Haarlem an independent business; but his unpleasant relations with her so affected his health that he found it advisable in 1590 to make a tour through Germany to Italy, where he acquired an intense admiration for the works of Michelangelo, which led him to surpass that master in the grotesqueness and extravagance of his designs. He returned to Haarlem considerably improved in health, and laboured there at his art till his death, January 1, 1617. Goltzius ought not to be judged chiefly by the works he valued most, his eccentric imitations of Michelangelo. His portraits, though mostly miniatures, are master-pieces of their kind, both on account of their exquisite finish, and as fine studies of individual character. Of his larger heads, the life-size portrait of himself is probably the most striking example. His "master-pieces," so called from their being attempts to imitate the style of the old masters, have perhaps been overpraised. In his command of the burin Goltzius is not surpassed even by Dürer; but his technical skill is often unequally aided by higher artistic qualities. Even, however, his eccentricities and extravagances are greatly counterbalanced by the beauty and freedom of his execution. He began painting at the age of forty-two, but none of his works in this branch of art—some of which are in the imperial collection at Vienna—display any special excellences. He also executed a few pieces in chiaroscuro. His prints amount to more than 300 plates, and are fully described in Bartsch's *Peintre-graveur*, and Weigel's supplement to the same work.

GOMARUS, Francis (1563–1641), professor of theology at Leyden, was born at Bruges on the 30th January 1563. His parents, having embraced the principles of the Reformation, emigrated to the Palatinate in 1578, in order to enjoy freedom to profess their new faith, and they sent their son to be educated at Strasburg under John Sturmius. He remained there three years and then went to Neustadt, whither the professors of Heidelberg had been driven by the elector-palatine because they were not Lutherans. He did not stay long at Neustadt, but crossed to England towards the end of the year 1582, and entered first the university of Oxford, where he attended the lectures of John Raynold, and then the university of Cambridge, where he attended those of William Whitaker. At Cambridge he received his bachelor's degree in June 1584, and thence proceeded to Heidelberg, where the faculty had been by this time re-established, and continued his studies there for two years more. He was called to be minister of a Reformed church in Frankfort in 1587, and laboured there till the congregation was dispersed by the persecution of the year 1593. In 1594 he was appointed professor of theology at Leyden, and before going thither received from the university of Heidelberg the degree of doctor. He taught quietly at Leyden till 1603, when Arminius came to be one of his colleagues in the theological faculty, and began to teach Pelagian doctrines and to create a new party in the university. Gomarus immediately set himself earnestly to oppose these views, in his classes at college, and wherever he found opportunity. He became the leader of the opponents of Arminius, who from that circumstance came to be known as Gomarists. He engaged twice in personal disputation with Arminius in the assembly of the estates of Holland in 1608, and was one of five Gomarists who met five Arminians or Remonstrants in the same assembly in the following year. On the death of Arminius shortly after this time, Vorstius, who sympathized with his views, was appointed to succeed him, in spite of the keen opposition of Gomarus and his friends; and Gomarus took his defeat so ill that, rather than have such a man for his colleague, he resigned his post, and went to Middleburg in 1611, where he became minister of a congregation and gave public lectures. From this place he was called to a chair of theology at Saumur, where he remained four years, and then accepted a call as professor of theology and Hebrew to Gröningen, where he stayed till his death on 11th January 1641. He took a leading part in the synod of Dort, assembled in 1618 to judge of the doctrines of Arminius. He was a man of ability, enthusiasm, and learning, a considerable Oriental scholar, and also a keen controversialist. He took part in the translation of the Old Testament into Dutch in 1633, and after his death a book by him called the *Lyra Davidis* was published, which sought to explain the principles of Hebrew metre, and which created some controversy at the time, having been opposed by Louis Capel. His works were collected and published in one volume folio, in Amsterdam in 1645.

GOMBROON, another name for Bender-Abbasi (*q.v.*).

GOMER, the eldest son of Japhet (Gen. x. 2), and an ally of Gog (Ezek. xxxviii. 6), has usually, since Calmet's time, been identified with those Cimmerii who, originally inhabiting the districts to the N.E. and N. of the Black Sea and Sea of Azoff, at an early period began to penetrate as far as to Asia Minor, and in the 7th century B.C. overran Lydia, though without leaving permanent traces of their presence. This identification, however, is to be met with in none of the older writers. Josephus understands the Galatians of northern Phrygia to be intended; and Gimmeri or Gamir was, in the language of the ancient Armenians, a usual designation for their neighbours the Cappadocians (see Dillmann on Gen. x. 2; whose authority is Kephalion, in the Armenian version of the *Chronica* of Eusebius, ed. Aucher). It is not impossible that an intimate ethnological connexion between the Cappadocians of Kephalion and the Cimmerians of Homer may ultimately be established; but meanwhile it is important to observe that the three sons of Gomer, as named in Gen. x. 2, admit of a tolerably definite localization. Ashkenaz, who has sometimes been identified with the Germans, is almost certainly the same as the Ascanians, a very ancient tribe of northern Phrygia (*cf.* Strabo, xii. 4, 5, *sqq.*, and note the juxtaposition in Jer. li. 27). Riphath has nothing to do with the Rhipæan mountains, with the Carpathians, or with Niphates, but, as Josephus has pointed out, is to be identified with Paphlagonia; as Bochart has shown, the name probably survives in Ῥήβας, the designation of a river in Bithynia, and in Ῥηβαντία, a district situated on the Thracian Bosphorus. Although Togarmah is by Josephus interpreted as equivalent to Phrygia, there is a considerable amount of ancient testimony in favour of its identification with Armenia. It is possible that the same root is actually at the basis of the two words; at all events the connexion is assumed in the account which the Armenians themselves give of their legendary history.

GONDA, a district of Oudh, lying between 26° 46′ and 27° 50′ N. lat., and between 81° 35′ and 82° 48′ E. long., bounded on the N. by the lower range of the Himálayas, on the E. by Basti district, on the S. by Fyzabad and Bara Banki, and on the W. by Bharaich, and having an area of 2824 square miles.

Gonda presents the aspect of a vast plain with very slight undulations, studded with groves of mango trees. The surface consists of a rich alluvial deposit which is naturally divided into three great belts known as the *tarái* or swampy tract, the *uparhár* or uplands, and the *tarhár* or wet lowlands, all three being marvellously fertile. Several rivers flow through the district, but only two, the Gogra and Rápti, are of any commercial importance, the first being navigable throughout the year, and the latter during the rainy-season. The country is dotted over with small lakes,