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# Typographia,

OR THE

Printers Instructor:

INCLUDING AN ACCOUNT

of the

ORIGIN OF PRINTING,

Biographical Notices of the Printers of England, from Caxton to the close of the Sixteenth Century:

A Series of

# Ancient and Modern Alphabets,

DOMESDAY CHARACTERS:

Together with

An Elucidation of every Subject connected with the Art.

#### By J. JOHNSON, PRINTER.

Blest Invention, to God alone the praise? For gilling man this noble Art to raise; From thee what benefits do men possess? The Palpit, Bar, and Stage all now concies: Trace the Historic page and view the time, Before then visited ournative clime; The want of thee kept Arts and Commerce low, Without thy aid, how filtle could we know? Thou art the means by which we gain redress, Our Nation's bulwark is, "The British Press."

Vol. II.

Published by Messrs, Longman, Hurst, Rees, Orme, Brown & Green, Paternoster Row, London.

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HARVARD UNIVERSITY LIBRARY

# ADVERTISEMENT.

J. JOHNSON embraces this opportunity of filling up the present page, by announcing to the Admirers of the Typographic Art, and the Profession in general, that he has now a subject in hand, which he flatters himself will not only eclipse all his former productions, but likewise any piece that has ever yet appeared before the Public as a Typographic Specimen; it will consist of an arch, in perspective, supported by ten pillars, in the centre will be a monument to the memory of William Caxton, as the father of printing in this country, together with the names of the principal early nursers and improvers of our Art; the whole will be executed with brass rules and flowers: the size will be eighteen and a quarter, by thirteen inches, which will be printed on fine drawing paper. The above will appear in the course of the present Summer.

<del>HERRICH KARTON</del>

#### EXPLANATION OF THE ENGRAVED TITLE

The design surrounding the inscription is a rich ancient screen placed before a chapel or shrine, the windows and ornaments of which are seen above. Upon the canopies which crown the screen, appear the Rose and Portcullis, the badges of King Henry VIII., who, in the year 1535, authorized the printing of the first English Bible: Vide Vol. I. page 465. Beneath is a representation of the Court of King Henry. taken from the frontispiece of Grafton's edition of Halle's Chronicle of 1548; with the Sovereign de-livering Bishop Coverdale's Bible above alluded to into the hands of Archbishop Cranmer, and Thomas Cromwell Earl of Essex to publish it abroad. This group of figures is imitated from Hans Holbein's frontispiece to the Great Bible by Thomas Cranmer, Archbishop of Canterbury, published in 1539. Between this scene and the inscription of the Title are four panels,

containing the Armorial Ensigns of celebrated Printers, namely, John Guttemburg, John Faust, the family of the Elzevirs, and that of the Ald i. At the sides of the inscription tablet, stand the effigies of John Guttemburg, the received inventor of printing, on the left; and Aldus Manutius, the inventor of Italic letter on the right. Below the inscription are the Armorial Ensigns of the Cities of Mentz, Strazburg, and Haerlem, the three places which lay claim to having had the most ancient printing executed in Beneath these shields is them. shewn the interior of a Library particularly rich in early Typography, the Bodleian at Oxford; and on th sides of it are the arms of four of it's most eminent patrons, namely, Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester, son to King Henry IV.; Sir Thomas Bodley, John Selden, and Richard Gough, Esqs.



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# Tyvogravhia:

OR

## THE PRINTERS' INSTRUCTOR.

Though hard's our task, we fearlies tread this ground, More chings was, "Mo work is proposed found." Bubblished thus, we now proceed to state, 2 Porth' use of men, what to our Art relate: Should th' fastishous Critic vainly try.

Our best enders ours with his jaundic'd eye,
These question let us ask, to set him right,
The question let us ask, to set him right,
The state of the st

In performing this part of our duty, we shall endeavour, to the utmost of our humble ability, to explain every thing in as concise and clear a manner as possible; at the same time we shall omit nothing, however trivial, that may be connected with this important subject. In doing this, we are fully aware that some will condemn such minutiae as unnecessary: but, let us ask, is it requisite, because a few are acquainted with it, that the information should be withheld from others? It is a subject which cannot fail to interest the general reader, and particularly so all the admirers of the Typographic Art.

When any one pronounces a printing-office as complete, it ought to be considered as a mere compliment, because, in a strict and literal sense, no office can deserve this epithet, unless it is furnished with all the fusil metal types for both modern and ancient languages: we believe that scarcely any office can boast the appellation. In truth, to supply these almostunnecessary founts would only waste a man's property; it is sufficient for a printer to have suitable types for the language of the country where he resides.

#### CHAP. I.

#### PROPERTIES AND SHAPES OF TYPES.

THE Types, or Letters, most generally used for printing in England, are termed Roman, Italic, and Old English, or Black Letter.

#### ROMAN LETTER.

ROMAN letter has long been held in the highest estimation; and is the national character not only of this country, but also of France, Spain, Portugal, and Italy. In Germany, and the kingdoms and states which surround the Baltic, letters are used which owe their foundation to the Gothic character; but even in those nations works are printed in their own language with Roman letters. The reason why the Germans, and those who patronize the Gothic characters, have not altogether rejected them for the Roman, has been chiefly owing to their apprehensions of sharing the fate of the primitive printers, who suffered greatly in their attempt, from the dislike then evinced by the learned to works which had been printed in that character. This compelled them to return to their old mode of using the Gothic, to which men of literature were more accustomed, from its resemblance to the writings of the monks, which at that time were held in great veneration. the superstition of the age, the lower classes were easily prevailed on to reject whatever had the least appearance of infringing on menastic influence.

The same reason may be assigned why the Dutch still adhere to the black letter in printing their books of devotion and religious treatises, while they make use of the Roman in their curious and learned works.

In Sweden much greater improvements have been made, which is principally owing to the countenance and support of men of authority, learning, and taste.

# Typographia....3

We may reasonably hope, from the pleasing aspect of the present age, when mankind have dared to burst the fetters of prejudice and superstition, being determined to exercise their better judgment, and adopt plans more congenial to true taste, that the Roman character will be universally employed in all civilized states.

The Roman letter, it may be concluded, owes its origin to the nation whence it derives its name; though the face of the present and the ancient Roman letters materially differ, from the improvements

they have undergone at various times.

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The Germans and their confederates differ from us in calling those letters Antiqua, which we, as well as the French and other nations, term Roman. An inquiry into the cause of this distinction can be of small importance, further than it might prove a desire in the Germans to deprive the ancient Romans of the merit of forming those letters.

That good Roman makes the best figure in a specimen of typography, cannot be disputed; and this superiority is greatly improved by the founders of the present day. A printer, in his choice of type, should not only attend to the cut of the letter, but also observe that its shape be perfectly true, and that it lines or ranges with accuracy. The quality of the metal of which it is composed demands also his particular attention. The ingenious Mr. Moxon says,

"That the Roman letters were originally intended to be made to consist of circles, arches of circles, and straight lines; and that therefore those letters that have these figures either entire, or else properly mixt, so as the course and progress of the pen may best admit, may deserve the name of true shape."

By attending to the above mathematical rules, the letter-cutter may produce Roman characters of such harmony, grace, and symmetry, as will please the eye in reading; and, by having their fine strokes

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and swells blended together in due proportion, will excite admiration in those who may take the pains of comparing the smaller with the larger sized letters. But to assert possitively what foundery can boast of true shaped letters would be speaking with too much presumption; since it is agreed, even by able penmen, that none can strike two letters of the same signification, so as, upon the strictest examination, to have the same likeness. If, therefore, it is impossible to write a true duplicate upon paper, it may be excused in those who attempt it in steel: for, were it practicable to copy so as to make it impossible to discover the least deviation from the original. letter-cutters too would then be able to supply accented letters, and such as are contained in ligatures. of the exact shape and symmetry with those of the main alphabet, though even these should have nothing but the fancy of the artist in support of their being true shaped.

We are aware that a variety of opinions exist respecting true-shaped letters; therefore we shall abstain from entering into a controversy upon that head, being persuaded of the impossibility of bringing a number of persons into the same way of thinking. As the Germans are justly entitled to the merit for the invention of typography and metal types, so are the Dutch famed for their improvement of the latter: which was held in the highest estimation for many years, till they were rivalled by our countrymen; from which period Dutch letter ceased to be imported for our use.

It is equally important that types should have a deep face, which will depend upon the depth of the punches, their hollows being in proportion to the width of the respective letters, and likewise that the punches are sunk into the matrices; for should there be a defect in this respect, the letter, of course, will have a shallow face, and prove unprofitable to the purchaser, as was the case in France, where printers had very great reason to complain of the shallowness of the letter cast by their founders. And though this, at present, is not the case in England, it may nevertheless be observed, that some of our Roman lower-case sorts are not equally fortified to endure the weight of the press, especially in founts of the less sizes, where the a, e, s, w, are worn out before the other sorts are materially injured; which few sorts, were they re-cast, and the old ones thrown out, would render a fount serviceable for a series of good standard works.

The composition of type metal depending entirely upon the discretion of the founder, and a considerable difference prevailing among them, often to the detriment of the printer, to whom it is a matter of great import that his type should repay him ample interest for its immense expense, we shall refer again to the ingenious Mr. Moxon, who has particularised the species and quantities of ingredients he made use of:

"To 28th of metal, it required 25th of lead, mixed with 3th of iron and antimony melted together."

In Germany, steel, iron, copper, brass, tin, and lead, are incorporated with each other by means of antimony; and the quality of this metal is such, if properly prepared, that it will not bend, but break like glass; it is harder than tin and lead, something softer than copper, and melts sooner than lead. How

<sup>\*</sup> With respect to the above defects in letter, M. Fertel, a St. Omers' printer, has inveighed against them in the following terms:

<sup>&</sup>quot;We seed not weeder that our pressures the see to look better; for if the pure is not to simply our or the see to look better; for if the pure is not to simply our or the see to look better; for if the pure is not to simply our or the see to the letter is presently filled up; the pressure then, with his bodkin, turns graver, but with such an unsteady hand, and with so little pressured, that he more bursts than clears the letter. If all our characters the medium of the see the seed of the seed

#### 6.... Typographia.

the metal is prepared in Holland is not precisely known; but there is sufficient reason to suppose that it differs both from the German and English.

Besides the three principal properties which we have mentioned, the following (like Satellites to good letter) are not undeserving the purchaser's examination, who ought to take notice.

 Whether the letter stands even, and in line; which is the chief good quality in letter, and makes the face thereof sometimes to pass, though otherwise ill-shaped.

- Whether it stands parallel; and whether it drives out
  or gets in, either at the head, or the foot, and is, as
  Printers call it, battle-arsed; which is a fault that cannot be mended but by rubbing the whole fount over
  again.
- Whether the thin lower-case letters, especially the dots over the i and j, are come in casting.
- Whether the break is ploughed away and smoothened.
   Whether it be well scraped, so as not to want rubbing down by the compositor.
- 6. Whether each letter has a due proportion, as to thickness; and whether they are not so thin as to hinder each other from appearing with a full face; or so thick as to occasion a gap between letter and letter.

7. Whether it be well bearded: which founders in France are obliged to do, to their own disadvantage, on account of their shallow letter.

 Whether it have a deep and open, single or double nick, different from other founts of the same body, and in the same printing house.

We cannot too strongly urge the advantage to be derived from letter having a deep nick, and also that the nick should differ from other founts of that body in the same house. This may appear a trifling consideration; but in a large fount the difference in weight will be considerable, and consequently a saving to the purchaser. A deep nick is an advantage to the compositor, from its more readily catching the eye than a shallow one, and consequently greatly facilitates him in his business.

The Prench and Dutch put a shallow narrow nick to their letter; the former, to be singular, place the nick on the back of the letter.

# Cppographia....7

#### ITALIC LETTER.

For the invention of this letter we are indebted to Aldus Manutius, by birth a Roman, who erected a printing-office in Venice, 1496, where he introduced the Roman types of a neater cut, and gave birth to that beautiful letter which is known to most of the nations in Europe by the name of Italic; though the Germans, and their adherents, show themselves as ungenerous in this respect as they did with the Roman, by calling it Cursiv, in order to stifle the memory of its original descent, and deprive the Romans of the werit due to their ingenuity.

In the first instance it was termed Venetian, from Manutius being a resident at Venice, where he brought it to perfection; but not long after it was delicated by the state of Italy, to prevent any dispute that maje that arise from other nations claiming a priority, as was the

cuse concerning the first inventor of printing.

Italic was originally designed to distinguish such parts of a book as might be considered not strictly to belong to the body of the work, as Prefaces, Introductions, Annotations, &c. all which sub-parts of a work were formerly printed in this character; so that at least two-fifths of a fount was comprised of Italic letter.

At present it is used more sparingly, the necessity being supplied by the more elegant mode of introducing extracts within inverted commas, and poetry and annotations in a smaller-sized type. It is often serviceable in displaying a title-page, or distinguishing the head or subject-matter of a chapter from the chapter itself. To plead the necessity of Italic to distinguish proper names of persons and places, would be altogether needless; and argue, that the present age is less capable of apprehension than our forefathers, who knew the sense and meaning of words before Italic existed, at a period when one tind of type served for the title, body, and all the other parts of a work.

# 8.... Trpographia.

That this character was not designed to distinguish proper names, nor for several other uses to which it has been applied, can be readily proved, even from works printed in this country. Many have considered it as depriving Roman of its beauty, by loading it with Italic words and terms of common signification and meaning; and have thought it inconsistent to intermix letter of an erect position with that of an oblique inclination.

What Roman letter suffers by being interlarded with Italic, is of equal importance to this, when it is invaled by the former: because Roman having a much bolder appearance than Italic of the same body, takes advantage of the soft and tender face of the latter; which, in England, has arrived to a high degree of perfection. Is it not a pity that two such significant budies as Roman and Italic, of which neither stands in need of the other, should often be so maimed, that it is difficult to discover which of them is most entitled to our decided preference?

It would be a desirable object, if the use of Italic could be governed by some rules. We shall here recommend to those authors who appear so solicitous, by their frequent introduction of Italic, that the beauty and essence of their writings may not be lost, to trust a little more to the discernment and understanding of their readers. That the frequent use of Italic is useless, and generally

<sup>♣</sup> Upon the establishment of the Roman character, the Germans used it for proper names and words of Latin. But if the English adopted their idea, and put is similar words in Italic, they are not upon an equal footing with the former; the Roman and German being of a parallel position, but Italic of an oblique inclination. The mixture of types has been attributed to the fancy of some author, whose work abounded with proper names either of persons or places; and, in order that such words might be more readily seen inthe text, which would save him the trouble of reading over the whole work when he had occasion to make out an Index of the names contained in the matter, the names would appear more conspicuous to the reader, by being in a different character. That such a contrivance may have afterwards been looked upon as an improvement; or the printer may lave supported the same, to make more use of his Italic, seems not altogether improbable.

#### Covogravdia....9

absurd, cannot be doubted. The compositor is materi ally retarded, by moving from one case to another.

It is too often made use of to mark emphatical sentences or words, but without any direct rule. It destroys in a great measure the beauty of printing, and often confuses the reader where it is improperly applied, who, pausing to consider why such words are more strongly noted, loses the context of the sentence, and has to revert back to regain the sense of his subject,

Not only does Italic confuse the reader, but the bold face of the Roman suffers by being contrasted with the fine strokes of the Italic; that symmetry and proportion is destroyed, which it is so necessary and desirable to preserve, the former being a parallel, the latter an oblique position. Nor can we discover for what purpose it was at first introduced into the body of a work, in names of persons, places, dates, &c. unless that might have been thought an improvement, which the better judgment of the 18th century, much to its credit, considers otherwise. Were gentlemen informed of the inelegance occasioned by a mixture of Italics, they would dispense with it.

Let it not be imagined, from what has been said, that we enter our protest against the necessity of Italic in every instance; its utility must be allowed in critical and satirical works, &c. where the sense requires a distinquishing mark on a particular word or subject: we wish to be understood as not arguing against the use of

Italic, but the abuse of it.

Italic, if justly formed, discovers a particular delicacy, and requires considerable mathematical nicety in the letter-cutter to keep the slopings within the degree requisite for each body. But this is not always attended to, as a want of uniformity is too often observed in two lower-case letters of a particular sort coming together, which require an hair space between them to prevent their riding, and occasions an unpleasant gap.

# 10 . . . . Typographia.

#### BLACK LETTER.

This letter, which is used in England, descended from the Gothic characters: it is called Gothic by some; and Old English, by others; but Bristers term it viack Letter, on account of its taking a larger compass than either Roman or Italic, the full and spreading strokes thereof appearing more black upon paper. On the instruduction of the Roman character, its use began to decline, and it was seldom used except in Law works, particularly Statute Law; it was at length expelled from these, and only made its appearance in the heads of Statutes, &c.

According to the predictions of all our predecessors, it was reasonable to conclude that it would, ere this, have been banished from every office, and consigned to rest in Oblivion's tomb, with its parent the Gothio, which, in the primitive time of printing, was the established character, and prevailed against the Latin; which had been first introduced in Spain, by Alphonsus VI. 1080, when that Prince put an end to writing in Gothic characters throughout his dominions. This opinion might have been fulfilled, had not our founders produced the above modern Black; which so captivated the printers, that it immediately became in general use, being cast in all the various sizes, both Full-faced and Open.

Upon the gradual improvement of metal types, our Founders (emulating each other) in addition to their plain two-line letters, commenced cutting open letters of almost every size: yet here their exertions did not end, they have now taken [nearly] the whole range of Fancy, in bringing forward ornamented letters of every size and description, together with a new character, which they term Egyptian: this latter is all the rage at present, particularly in placards, jobs, &c.

#### CHAP. II.

#### THE DIFFERENT SIZES OF PRINTING LETTERS.

THE several bodies to which printing letters are cast in England, are nineteen in number, viz.

- 1. Diamond.
- 2. Pearl.
- 3. Nonpareil. 4. Minion.
- 5. Brevier. 6. Burgeois.
- 7. Long Primer.
- 8. Small Pica. 9. Pica.
- 10. English.

- 11. Primer. 12. Great Primer.

  - 13. Paragon.
    14. Double Pica.
    15. Two-lines Pica.
    16. Two-lines English.

  - 17. Two-lines Great Primer.
    18. Two-lines Double Pica-
  - 19. French Canon.

#### REGULAR-BODIED LETTER.

THE class of regular-bodied letter takes in, viz. Great Primer, English, Pica, Long Primer, Brevier, Nonpareil, and Pearl: but to those which go before them, viz. French Canon, Two-lines Double Pica, Two-lines Great Primer, Two-lines English, Twolines Pica, and Double Pica, we will give the name of Title-letters; considering that the first three sorts are used in titles of books, and in jobs, only, to make emphatical words or lines appear more conspicuous. And as to the three other sizes, they are mostly used in heads, and for jobs; though they, and even Twolines Great Primer, sometimes serve for short Dedications, or Prefaces, to works of a large size.

Among the Title-letters, Two-lines Pica being looked upon as a letter of no general use, and very apt to be mixed with Double Pica, but few printers are fond of it; especially as they find that the difference between Two-lines Pica and Double Pica, as well in face, as body, is but inconsiderable; and that of the two, the latter is fittest for poems, prefaces, and other introductory parts of a work.

That Double Pica is not the right name for that letter, no printer will disown, because its depth an-

#### 10 . . . . Typographia.

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- 4. Minion.
- 5. Brevier. 6. Burgeois.
- 7. Long Primer.
- 8. Small Pica. 9. Pica.
- 10. Euglish.

- 12. Great Primer.
  - 13. Paragon.
  - 14. Double Pica.
    15. Two-lines Pica.
    16. Two-lines English.

  - 17. Two-lines Great Primer.
  - 19. French Canon.

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THE class of regular-bodied letter takes in, viz. Great Primer, English, Pica, Long Primer, Brevier. Nonpareil, and Pearl: but to those which go before them, viz. French Canon, Two-lines Double Pica, Two-lines Great Primer, Two-lines English, Twolines Pica, and Double Pica, we will give the name of Title-letters; considering that the first three sorts are used in titles of books, and in jobs, only, to make emphatical words or lines appear more conspicuous. And as to the three other sizes, they are mostly used in heads, and for jobs; though they, and even Twolines Great Primer, sometimes serve for short Dedications, or Prefaces, to works of a large size.

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## 12....Cppographia.

swers to Two-lines Small Pica, and ought, for that reason, more properly to be called Double Small Pica: which gives us room to suppose, that the same letter which now answers to two lines of Small Pica. has been also cast to the depth of two lines of Pica; but, being judged too small-faced for that size, it has been reduced to two lines of Small Pica.\*

#### IRREGULAR-BODIED LETTER.

THE several sorts of irregular-bodied letters are, Paragon, Primer, Small Pica, Burgeois, Minion, and Diamond. We call them irregular, because they are of intermediate sizes to letter of regular bodies; a standard for which, no doubt, was fixed by former printers and founders.

What has been mentioned about Two-lines Pica. may be equally said of Paragon, and the rest of irregular-bodied letter, viz. that they may be spared in a printing-house well provided with fusil materials of regular bodies: for none can well plead their necessity, but such as are sure to reap a benefit from being furnished with them. For the rest, irregularbodied letter is apt to cause confusion in a printinghouse, and is therefore the less countenanced by most printers. But because irregular-bodied letter of the smaller sizes sometimes serves the ends of proprietors of standing and selling copies, this seems one reason that it has been attempted; otherwise the sizes of printing letter would not perhaps have been carried lower than Brevier.

Among the irregular bodied sorts of letter none has taken so great a run as Small Pica; and very considerable works have been done in that character, &c. It is a letter, indeed, which was not taken

The London type-founders have latterly cut a letter on Two-lines Pica body, which they term a regular size, between Double Pica and Two-lines English, for which see our Specimen.

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much notice of before it appeared in Chalmers's Cyclopædia; but it has raised its reputation ever since, and is now become the favourite character to do voluminous works in; partly, because it is a round and legible letter, and partly because it takes in considerably more matter than Pica---the very best size for printing letter. In the mean time the purchasers of works printed in Small Pica have the advantage; for they have more than an adequate value for their expenses, especially if the matter is useful and entertaining.

#### DIFFERENCE OF SIZES IN LETTER9.

THOUGH all founders agree in the point of casting letter to certain bodies, yet, in the article of casting each body always to one and the same size, they differ; insomuch that not only founders of different places, but of the same residence, and even each in particular, often wary in height and depth; \* both

<sup>\*</sup> In our frequent conversations with type-founders upon tl. is subject, we find that they invariably blame the printers for the errors into which the whole trade has fallen: indeed, we candidly acknowledge that there is too much truth in the charge. The founders ground their argument upon the printers refusing to adopt their suggestion of fixing a standard, at the time the long s was abolished; the latter would not consent, when having new founts, to lose their old spaces and quadrats: thus were the founders record the printers. We shall, uncertain road, to the of the cathodist of the printers. We shall, uncertain road, to the fit the cathodist of the printers. We shall not never the printers of the printers. We shall shall the latter, namely, of one of the sample 1 Lundon printers ordering the late Mr. Jackson to make montides of every size considerability of the latter, namely, of one of the sample of printers ordering the late Mr. Jackson to make montides of every size considerably below the then acknowledged standard to paper, the professed object of which was, to avoid borrowing or lending sorts; this plan is now considerably increased, so that the founders are continually put to the inconvenience of altering their moulds, both as to herbit to paper and depth of body, in order to accommodate the whim to caprice of this or that particular printer. But this is not the only evil, the latter no doubt are waiting for the sorts during this alteration; the next day comes another printer For imperfections, then the mould is to be re-altered to what it was originally, and he also compelled to wait the unavoidable delay? I thus, with these perpetual deviations, not only is the printer retarded in his business, but he not unfrequently get his sorts eat in some of these wrong moulds, which, when mixed with his fount, prove destructive to the whole. Had the Dutch founders acted upon this plan, how could

#### 14.... Typographia.

which seem rather to have increased: but whether the founder (to make his letter more weighty), or the printer, (to grace it with more distance between the lines) has occasioned this digression from the former sizes, we shall not scrufinize; but only suppose that it commenced with the time when English printers were obliged to furnish themselves with good letter from abroad.

Few offices, of any extent, are without two or three founts of a particular size letter, cast by different founders. It often occurs, that a sort may be short in one, of which there is a superfluity in the other; but, from their different face, &c. cannot be used together; in this case, not only an expense is incurred, but a delay occasioned to the work from the time it necessarily takes to cast imperfections.

This is not the only inconvenience. In the best regulated offices, it is impossible to prevent founts from being mixed, which occasions loss of time to the compositor, who, if he be a careless man, will not take the trouble to put the sorts in their proper places when marked in his proof, but will commit them to the old metal box, for the benefit of the founder, to the serious injury of the printer.

Another, and very considerable fault, may be alleged against the founders, who seem to have

imperfections, or even founts, have been obtained from them with any degree of accuracy, independent of the delay! No: they had one fixed and underviating standard, which they copied from the Germans, for all their sizes, and which they continue to this day. We shall close this note with an observation of net observed practical letter-founder, who, when speaking of the above defects, remarked, that the present system is had, and most extructive; that the founders were all wrong together; and, in order to obtain perfection, every thing at present in the business should be destroyed, when they should commence again with a settled, first, underviating standard for every [now regular, or irregular] size. Till this is done, we cannot expect to see any thing like perfection; but must acknowledge that the art, instead of advancing has made a retrograde motion:

#### Typographia....15

neglected, in their zeal to produce beautiful specimens, that exactness as to the depth of their types, which is so essentially necessary. We lately witnessed, in a fount of new letter, where a particular sort was run down the side of the same number of lines in the body, a variation of at least one-third of its own depth. This is fatal to table work, as it entirely destroys that nicety surguisite in justification.

That the size for each body of letter was fixed, and unalkerably observed, by our ancient letter-founders, seems to be out of doubt; or the ingenious author of Mechanic Exercises would not have given us a table of the sizes of letter, in his time, without reservation. In order, therefore, to see the difference between the depth of letter in Mr. Moxon's time and that which is cast at present, we shall insert this author's own table of sizes, in which he has carried the number of m's, or (which is equally the same) lines of matter of each body of letter to the length of 12 inches, or one foot; which we shall observe in our counter-table, similar to Mr. Moxon's.

 Pearl
 184

 Nonpareil
 150

 Brevier
 112

 Long Primer
 92

 Pica
 75

 English
 60

 Great Primer
 50

 Double Pica
 38

 Two Lines English
 38

 Trench Canon
 174

These are all the bodies of letter noticed by the above author, from which it appears, that in his time printers were not incumbered with so many different founts as they are at present; for now there are seven sorts of letter more than are exhibited in the preceding table, viz. Minion, Burgeois, Small Pica, Para-

# 16 .... Tryographia.

gon, Two-lines Pica, Two-lines Great Primer, and Two-lines Double Pica. For, if these seven sorts had then existed, Mr. Moxon would not have failed to have mentioned them, as he does Small Pica; concerning which he says:

"We have one body more which is sometimes used in England, that is, a Small Pica; but I account it no discretion in a master printer to provide it, because it differs so little from the Pica, that unless the workmen be more careful than they sometimes are, it may be mingled with the Pica, and so the beauty of both may be spoiled." Hence we may guess what little regard was had for that one irregular-bodied letter, Small Pica, by not giving it a place with the others in the table. How much less value, therefore, would Mr. Moxon have set upon our Minion, Burgeois, and Paragon, had he ever seen them. We will first compare the depth of the seven additional sorts of letter, proportionable to the sizes in the foregoing table, and then give the sizes of all the bodies of letter which are now extant.

Diamond, then, whereof two lines answer to the depth of one Burgeois,\* would, according to Mr. Moxon, have required 200 m's, or lines, to the length of one foot.

Minion, which has English for its two-line letter, would have required 132 m's.

Burgeois	100
Small Pica	76
Primer	56
Paragon	
Two-lines Pica	37 1
Two-lines Great Primer	
Two-lines Double Pica	19

Diamond, like all other sizes, differs both in face and body;
 some founders cast a small-faced Pearl upon a Diamond body,
 others have a Diamond which differs from the Pearl both in face and body, as much as the latter does from Nonpareil. Two lines of some Diamond will answer to one of Burgeois, others are rather smaller.

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#### Eppographia....17

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Thus would the sizes of these nine sorts of letter have run, had they been cast one hundred and thirty years ago. And now we have reduced them to the standard which they had at that time. Here follows our counter-table, which will shew how far our present sizes of letter differ from the former.

Two-lines Double Pica . . 201 Two-lines Great Primer . . 264 Two-lines English . . . . . Two-lines Pica . . . . . . 25 Double Pica . . . . . . . . . . Paragon . . . . . . . . . . . . 444 Great Primer . . . . . . . . 51 ± English . . . . . . . . . . . Pica . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . Small Pica ...... Long Primer . . . . . . . . . . . . Burgeois . . . . . . . . . . . Brevier . . . . . . . . . . . 1124 Minion - . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . Nonpareil . . . . . . . . . . 143 Diamond . . . . .

This is the state of our modern sizes of letter. The table is drawn up to shew the size which each body of letter, here specified, now has; but let us not conclude from thence, that each fount of letter is always cast to one and the same size in its body. Were this the case, we should not take the liberty to say, that whoever was the author of casting founts of the same body to different sizes, has no room to boast that he has improved printing; but has done so much hurt to it, that the ill consequences thereof would he too many here to enumerate.

und he too many here to enumerate. How apparent is the harm and confusion which the

Although we have given the above standard of sizes, still we must repeat (as we have before observed in the note at page 13, ante,) that none of the founders have a regular standard, but that all of them possess moulds of various sizes.

## 18.... Typographia.

differing in the size of letter of the same body is able to produce! and that therefore it ought to be made a rule, that each of the different bodies of letter should always be cast to the same height, depth, and line, by letter-founders of the same place, at least. whether such a reformation would be cheerfully made by founders, is a question, unless they were urged to it by a joint agreement of the most considerable printers, who always are furnished with more than one fount of the same name; and who consequently run the greater hazard of having the beauty of their letter quite destroyed, if sorts of one fount should be made use of in another which is not of the same size. As ocular, therefore, as the mischief is, which arises from different sizes to the same body of letter, so demonstrable is the reciprocal benefit which would result to printers and founders, from casting each body of letter to one and the same size. then, would not be at the expence of so many moulds--the more current founts might always be casting and dressing, because they would suit every one who should have occasion for a fount of them; and by keeping a fount-case contrived for that purpose. and always supplied with sorts, Printers might be instantly served with what they should want, without borrowing. Another advantage would be found. when a printing-house should happen to be sold, that the letter of it would stand with another fount of the same body, to be used either by itself, or to be mixed, provided they should agree together as to wear.

Thus, by stating the conveniencies which would arise from an uniformity in casting each body of letter to the same fixed size, it will be needless to particularize the contrary effects; since, without much speculation, every one may guess of what detriment

#### Typographia....19

it must be to a printing-house which has several founts of the same body, but which differ in their sizes: the consequence must be, that the length of pages (though of the same number of lines) as well as of furniture, will vary according to each size; neither will rules, leads, reglets, &c. cut to any number of m's of one fount, answer to a measure of the same number of m's of another fount, which is either deeper or shallower in size. Nor is it possible to prevent letter from mixing, which is cast in the same matrices, and which has hardly any difference in the nick. These are some of the unavoidable consequences which arise from having different founts of the same body, not of one and the same size. The reasons, therefore, which are given in defence of this irregularity, ought rather to be regarded as subterfuges to support an argument which may be quashed, without leaving it to the approbation of a professed printer.

To have regard that the face of letter be proportionable to its body, is the letter-cutter's province: we are therefore of opinion, that the different sorts of irregular-bodied letter owe their existence to accident; and suppose, that a letter may have been cut, the face whereof happened to prove too large for one of the regular-bodied sizes, and too small for another; and that therefore the founder used the expedient of casting it to an intermediate body, which we will suppose to have been Paragon: and this turning out a handsome letter, the founder, no doubt. recommended it as an improvement to some good printer, who had the complaisance to allow the And this founder to be the best judge in this case. accident might lead the way to introducing intermediate sized letter between other regular bodies: hence we have, between Pica and Long Primer,

#### 20 . . . Cypographia.

Small Pica; between Long Primer and Brevier, Burgeois; and between Brevier and Nonpareil, Minion. Of Paragon it may be further remarked, that it was cast to be the intermediate letter between [real] Double Pica and Great Primer, till Small Pica coming in, the real Double Pica (as we before observed) was reduced to a two-line letter of Small Pica; and real Double Pica, or Two-lines Pica, substituted by a new letter, cut on purpose. For the rest, Paragon is a letter not met with in many printing houses neither abroad nor here, where it has lately been introduced, and has now a place among the other beauties in our type-founder's specimens.

What Irregular-bodied letter is particularly to be admired for is, that each has been out here purposely for their respective bodies; whereas in France their La Philosophie, or Small Pica, is cast in the identical matrices of Cicero, or Pica; their Gaillarde, or Burgeois, in those of Long Primer, and their Mignone, or Minion, in the same as Brevier: so that the outting of Punches for three sorts of regular bodied letter, serves there for as many of irregular body.\*

<sup>\*</sup> A saving way, similar to this, was attempted by M. Jalleson, who was a letter founder, from Germany, and lived in the Oid Bailey, where he printed the greatest part of an Hebrew Bible, with letter of his own casting; but was, by adverse fortune, obliged to finish it in Holland. He, from three sets of punches, proposed to cast six different bodies of letter, viz. Brevier and Long Primer from one; Pica and Eaglish from another; and Great Primer and Double Pica from a third. Accordingly, he charged his Brevier, Pica, and admit of; and in order to make some alterations the bodies would admit of; and in order to make some alterations the designed to cut the ascending and descending letters to such a length as should shew the extent of their different bodies. But though he had cast founts of the three minor sorts of letter, he did not bring the rest to prefection here.

### CHAP. III.

A FOUNT OF LETTER, AS CONSIDERED BY LETTER FOUNDERS.

A COMPLETE fount of letter is comprised under nine heads, in which is contained the following sorts:

A B C D E F G H I J K L M N O P Q R S T U V W X Y Z Æ Œ.

2. Small Capitals.
ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQ
RSTUVWXYZƌ.

abcdefghijklm nopqrst

uvwxyzæœ&.

12345 07890.
5. Points, Sc.
7. () [] \* + 2 6 [] ¶.

- 6. Four kinds of spaces . . 7. M and n quadrats.
- 8. Large quadrats, two, three, and four m's.
- 9. Accents.

These are the ordinary sorts cast to a fount of letter, and which the founders divide into long, short, ascending, descending, and kerned letters.

### LONG LETTERS.

LONG LETTERS are those which take up the whole depth of their bodies, and are both ascending and descending, such in the Roman, as Q and J, in letter of the old cut; but in the Italic, besides these capitals, f is a long lower-case letter.

### SHORT LETTERS.

SHORT LETTERS are all such as have their face cast on the middle of their square metal, by founders called shank, as, a, c, e, m, n, o, r, s, u, v, w, x, z, all which will admit of being bearded above and below their face, both in Roman and Italic.

## 22.... Tppographia.

#### ASCENDING LETTERS.

ASCENDING LETTERS are all the Roman and Italio capitals; in the lower case, b, d, f, h, i, k, l, t.

#### DESCENDING LETTERS.

DESCENDING LETTERS are g, j, p, q, y, in Roman and Italic. Ascending letters, in founts of the old cut, when they happen to stand under descending letters, are liable to be damaged; to prevent which the compositor should vary his spaces.

#### KERNED LETTERS

KERNED LETTERS are such as have part of their face hanging over either one or both sides of their square metal or shank. In Roman, f and j are the only kerned letters; but in Italic, d, q, j, L, y, are kerned on one side, and f on both sides of its face.

Casting of the above sorts being attended with considerable trouble, accounts for the founders sending so few of them in a fount of letter, when in fact they require a larger number than their casting bill specifies; their beaks being liable to accidents. especially the Roman f, when at the end of a line. Kerned letters of the Italic, especially f, q, j and y, are also subject to the same risk.

Most Italic capitals are kerned on one side of their face; but none ought to be more attended to than F, T, V, W, and Y, that their angles may not fall upon an ascending letter, that may stand next to them.

The kerning of letters, it must be owned, may serve many good purposes; of which the following

are not altogether undeserving notice:

1. In mathematical and algebraical works, where letters, figures, &c. are expressed according to the signification which they have either over or under them, and might be put more safely over or under

## Eppographia....23

kerned characters, than be justified to them, which would render the composing of algebra more easy, and the work would have a more solid appearance.

In etymological dictionaries, the vowels, as well of large as of small capitals, might be kerned, to make room for the accent which governs the pronunciation of a word, whereby the separation which the acute makes between each letter, would be prevented.

3. In Hebrew, one alphabet kerned on one side, and another on both sides, with vowels cast in the nature of Greek accents, would make room for the proper vowels to be put under consonants more readily than by justifying them, in separate lines, to their places. But kerned letters will not afford proper room for vowels and accents too, therefore the accents are justified over and under the respective places, when their quality is expressed.

That some founders have been more liberal than ethers in kerning letters, appears from the care they have shewn in preventing the Italic capital A from causing a gap, where it is preceded by capital letters which are not kerned; especially when they stand after F, P, T, V, W, and Y, from which the A separates itself more perceptibly than from any of the other letters. The foregoing should (properly) be kerned, in order that their propensities may cover the back of the protruding angle of A.

These are the classes into which the letterfounders divide the sorts of a fount, without in-

cluding accented letters.

#### DOUBLE LETTERS.

DOUBLE LETTERS were originally formed for the convenience of one kerned letter joining with another, as in the instance of a ff, fi, fi, &c. as their



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beaks would inevitably receive damage unless they were cast in one piece.

Of the number formerly used few now remain, and those permitted only through necessity, as the fi, ff, fl, ffi, and fil. The introduction of the round s, instead of the long, is an improvement in the art of printing equal, if not superior, to any which has taken place of late years, and for which we are indebted to the ingenious Mr. Bell, who introduced them in his edition of the British Classics. They are now generally adopted, and the founders scarcely ever cast a long f to their founts, unless particularly ordered. Indeed, they omit it altogether in their specimens, wisely judging that the fewer ascending or descending letters are introduced, the more their types shew to advantage. They are placed in our list of sorts not to recommend them, but because we may not be subject to blame from those of the old school, who are tenacious of deviating from custom. however antiquated, for giving a list which they might term imperfect.

The late Lord Stanhope, among his other improvements in printing, of which we shall have occasion to speak hereafter, has formed a scale for casting a fount of letter, differing completely from those of the regular founders: he abolishes altogether the double letters now in use, which he effects by cramping the beak of the f in such a manner as to permit any ascending letter to stand next to it; and introduces a number of other ligatures, which, it is asserted, will save much time to the

compositor, from their more frequent use.

Judging from former times, when ligatures, such as ra, ta, as, is, us, &c. were used, and abolished because they encumbered the compesitor, who, so far from thinking they expedited him in his work, took

## Tppographia....25

every opportunity of committing them to the old metal box, we much fear the Stanhopian introduction of an, in, of, &c. will not be found to meet with a

much more favourable reception.

From every consideration of advantage to master printer, we would advise the dispensing with every sort but what is really necessary, for this, though not the only reason-they cannot avoid having, at times, men in their employ who are careless in their business. It has been asserted, that the greater the number of boxes in a case, the more harbours there are for pie, which is proved by daily experience; and that the boxes formerly appropriated for (now discarded) double letters, should be thrown into the general case, which would reduce its size, and prevent the careless workman from disposing of his pie, and most frequently very useful sorts, in these spare receptacles: to this we shall answer, that if all the boxes were appropriated for useful sorts, the above objections would vanish, (because the compositor would not find his advantage in having them buried with pie) this we hope to sufficiently prove in our scale of an improved case, in which we have considerably multiplied the number of boxes.

The expense, likewise, in casting a fount of letter with such a number of heavy sorts, will be considerable, when it is considered that the damaging of one letter is the destruction of two, and will operate very strongly in favour of what we have taken the liberty to suggest. With pleasure we allow our tribute of praise to the late Lord S. for the attention he has paid to the improvement of the art, and we should have no objection to his plan for abolishing the double letters attached to the f, provided it could be done without destroying the beauty

of that character.

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## 26.... Tppographia.

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4.1444

THE NUMBER OF EACH SORT CAST TO A BILL OF PICA, ROMAN AND ITALIC.

This part of our work might be extended to a considerable length, were we to enter into the minutise of the different sorts requisite to form a complete fount for every language printed in the Roman character; but as this would be carrying us beyond our limits, we shall confine ourselves to the improved scale of the present day, calculated for our own language, to which imperfections may be afterwards cast, so as to render the fount serviceable for any other. The Latin and French require more of c, i, l, m, p, q, s, u, and v, than the English; but until such sorts become really necessary, it would be useless to cast them. When a work is completed for which such extra sorts were required, it may then be proper, to prevent their remaining inactive, to cast up to them-by which means the fount will receive considerable increase when employed again in the English language.

A perfect scale is of the greatest importance and utility, as it, in a great measure, does away the necessity of casting imperfections, which too often differ from the original fount, sometimes in thickness, in height, or depth, when cast in moulds of the same body, but not of the same cut. This is a serious evil, and particularly destructive to a fount of letter. It reflects discredit not only on the founder but the printer, in the eminion of those unacquainted with the profession, who consider every defect as an error of the press. A careful compositor has it in his power to detect those defects; but when it is considered that such discovery will perhaps retard him in the pursuit of his business, it cannot be a matter of much surprise, that he should permit them to pass without observation. It should

be an invariable rule with master printers to examine imperfections before they go into the hands of the compositor, that by timely precaution they may prevent not only the injury to their founts, but the destruction of that symmetry in the lining of the letter, so essential to the beauty of printing. Good press-work will immediately point out the most

trivial defect in this respect.

The system of hurrying works through the press. lately adopted by most booksellers, by dividing them among a variety of houses, is a great enemy to uniformity. In some instances that expedition may be absolutely necessary; but care should be taken that the founts completely correspond. It is not unusual to discover, in volumes so divided, one to contain mere lines in a page than another; or, if the number of lines are the same, the page differs in length ;--or should the type agree in depth, it is more than probable that it varies in thickness;—all of which proclaim a glaring want of uniformity, without which the typographic art cannot be said to have arrived to a great degree of perfection.

But the complaint does not rest so much against dividing works by volumes, as by proportioning a single volume into more houses than one. Expedition can scarcely justify this practice, from the inconvenience arising, not only to the printer, but to the public. An instance lately occurred of a work so divided (a prayer-book), where the first part was printed with long s's, and the last part with round, independent of other deviations; this is a sufficient proof that the system is injurious; and it is to be hoped, that this rage for extraordinary expedition will not long continue. But, to return :-

Letter founders call 3000 lower case m's a bill, and proportion all other sorts by them; so that a

## 28 . . . . Typographia.

whole bill of Pica makes 500 lbs.—1500 m's or half a bill, 250 lbs.

Formerly a fount of letter, weighing 500lbs. was considered a good-sized fount; but now, so much has printing increased, that double that weight

barely acquires the appellation.

If we look into the primitive state of Printing, we find that the professors of the art were obliged to have large founts of letter, on account of printing their works in quires of three, four, and even five sheets; whereas now, a fount of half that force will serve to do business more expeditiously, by printing in single sheets; so that very large founts are not of equal advantage to every printer; but only such as are sure to do long and voluminous works: considering that the larger the fount is, the greater are the imperfections: which, were they always to be cast up to, would make a fount of enormous weight, yet not perfect at last. Neither is it of service to letter, if one part is kept long out of use, while another part is worked briskly round. Sometimes a very large fount makes negligent correctors, when they know how far a fount goes, and therefore give themselves no concern about returning proofs, till they find that the whole fount is set up, and that the workman can go no farther. In such case the intention of having large founts is frustrated, and the compositor as well as pressman are prejudiced in their endeavours; whereas a tolerable large fount of letter, and a regular dispatch of proofs, is beneficial to master and men. Yet ordinary founts will not always suit printers that are known to be capable of giving work a quicker dispatch than usual, on account of their being provided with extraordinary founts of letter, and employing a number of hands; which, though attended with very great charges to the

printer at first, nevertheless, make amends for them, provided those heavy bodies of letter are always kept in motion. In the mean time, every printer ought to consult with himself about the scope and nature of the business which he sets out for, and have his letter cast accordingly: for it can hardly be supposed that he who shall have particular occasion for large letter only, should lay his money out upon such founts as are required for book-work, which ought to be large and complete, if the owner of them proposes to signalize himself for being furnished with ample materials for expediting work of every description.\*

We shall now give what is reckoned by the founders a regular bill, perfect in all its sorts --- for though what is termed a common fount has neither small capitals, accented letters, nor Italic, vet so rarely is a fount of the present day ordered without them, that we rather leave it to the option of the printer to omit them in this scale on giving his order, should he be so inclined, and proportion their weight to the other sorts, than not to present the bill in as complete a form as possible :--

\* Upon this subject, we find that a fount of English, at Paris, which formerly set up about twelve sheets of a Surgeon's Case, in 4to. was much admired on account of its extraordinary weight; this observation drew the following remark from one of our predecessors :--

cessors:—"But, how much would their admiration be brightened, were there to see here.
"But, how much would their admiration be brightened, were there to see here.
"But, how the brightened being the seed of the brightened being the brightened brighte

of founts of various iscussive in Daham Cair boats the possessors, of founts of various iscussive which would far eclipse the greatest wonder noticed above; one example, we trust, will be sufficient be prove our assertion: what would they not hink, if they saw Mesars. Hansards fonuts of English and Picc, the Informed, will setup between three and four hundred sheets of foo scap folio, and that the latter will extend to nearly six hundred sheets of the above: they have also most of the other founts of very considerable extent.

# 30....Tppvaraphia.

# A Bill of Pica Roman, and Half a BOMAN.

	-				
	ff 400			A 300	
b1600		,		в 200	
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# Cypographia....31

# Bill of Italic, weighing 800lbs.

ITALIC.

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p340 ä.	20 P80					
g 100	201036					
r1240	20 R80					
s1600 ö.	208100					
t 1800 ü.	20 T130					
u 680 c						
ν 240	490 V60	* Large quadrate are not included in this bill;				
w 400		the various sizes may be estimated at 801bs.				
x 80	X36					
y400	Y60	N. B. Although we have given this scale for				
z 40	Z16	the propertion of each sort, still we must ob-				
& 40	1/258	serve, that founders dif- fer also in this respect,				
21,420	UB	which is another proof of the want of a uniform				
	2132	system in their business.				

## 32.... Topographia. .

A plan has been suggested, and we believe acted upon by some master printers, in ordering a fount of letter---to desire a certain portion of it to be sent home complete --- while the other part they reserve to be cast afterwards, as imperfections---by which means they are enabled to ascertain the state of their fount in an early stage, and make it perfect without going beyond the weight they originally intended, or incurring additional expense.

This mode carries with it strong grounds for recommendation; but we shall leave it to the judgment of those who may think it worthy their attention, as we have not seen it carried into execution. We mention it, conceiving it essentially necessary, in a work of this nature, to let no observation pass unnoticed that may, in the remotest degree, be considered useful or important.

Printers divide a fount of letter into two classes.

1. The upper case \ sorts.

The upper case sorts are capitals, small capitals, accented letters, figures and references.

The lower case consists of small letters, double letters, points, spaces, quadrats, &c. each of which we shall treat of under distinct heads.

### CAPITALS.

THE use of capitals has been considerably abridged of late years; and the antiquated method of using them with every substantive, and sometimes even with verbs and adverbs, is now discontinued. They are considered, in the present day, as necessary only to distinguish proper names of persons, places, &c. There are, however, some particular works in which authors deem it essential to mark emphatical words with a capital; in such cases, and there can be no

general rule to guide the compositor, we would recommend the author always to send his copy properly prepared in this particular, to the printer, or he will become liable to the charge the compositor is allowed to make for his loss of time in following his alterations. The method of denoting a capital, or words of capital letters in manuscript, is by underscoring it with three distinct lines.

Capitals, of whatever body, if they are well proportioned, look well in titles, inscriptions, &c. but it requires taste and judgment in the com-

positor to display them to advantage.

The mode of spacing lines set in capitals is now laid aside: in some particular instances it may be necessary, in order to prevent two lines from being the same length in a title-page.

#### SMALL CAPITALS.

SMALL CAPITALS are in general only cast to Roman founts,\* and are used for the purpose of giving a stronger emphasis to a word than can be conveyed

to it by its being in Italic.

They are likewise used for running heads, heads of chapters, &c. instead of Italic, according to the fancy of the printer.—The first word of every section or chapter is generally put in small capitals, after a small neat cock-up letter. They are likewise of considerable service in the display of a title-page, particularly in setting the catch lines.

The small capitals C, O, S, V, W, X, Z, so closely resemble the same letters in the lower case, t as to

<sup>\*</sup> Some of our founders cast Italic Small Capitals to most, if not the whole of their founds.

the anoie of their rounds.

I Smith has suggested, in order to prevent the mixture of the above with the lower-case, that they should either be cast somewhat thicker, or have a different nick: in support of which, he mentions having seen a letter at Dantzie, which had the nick on the uppercase sorts placed higher than that on the lower.

## 34....Covogravhia.

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require particular care to prevent their mixing. as the difference can only be ascertained by their being cast thicker than the others.

In manuscript, small capitals are denoted by having two lines drawn under them.

#### ACCENTED LETTERS.

THOSE which are called accented by printers, are the five vowels, marked either with an

> Grave...... à è ì ò ù Cirumflex ..... A ê î ô û Diæresis . . . . . . . . ä ë ï ö ü Long ...... ā ē ī ō ū Short ..... ă ĕ ĭ ŏ ŭ

Those who call accented letters all that are of a particular signification, on account of their being distinguished by marks, reckon the French c. the Spanish fi, and the Welch & and \$\dagger\$, in the class of accented letters, though not vowels. As the longs and shorts are used only in particular works, they are not cast to a fount of letter unless ordered.

### VOWELS MARKED WITH AN ACTIVE.

THE five vowels marked with acutes over them. it is probable, were first contrived to assist the ignorant monks in reading the church service, that by this means they might arrive to a proper and settled pronunciation in the discharge of their sacerdotal functions; and, by accenting the vowels afterwards in printed books, instruct others to conform to them in giving words their proper sound; which, though it seems to be an ancient institution, is still observed in France, where the vowels in the Latin columns of their common prayer-books are accented, in order to support an uniformity in the

pronunciation. Some of our English etymologists have adopted the same method in their dictionaries, by placing an accent over, or next to the vowel which governs the sound and pronunciation of a word; but as authors differ in this point, it will be difficult to accomplish their design, unless they can first agree to uniformity in accenting, and afterwards find out an expedient to establish their joint The French have done this most conclusion. effectually, by accepting the Latin in their massbooks, as the most proper vehicle to make the pronunciation of the Roman church-language more universal-an instance not unworthy of imitation in other nations. How essentially would such a plan of accenting enhance the beauty and sublimity of the church service, which is too frequently mangled and mutilated by inaccurate and injudicious readers.

Among the acuted vowels, the é is the most considerable with the French, by whom it is used and abused according to the fancy of the writer, though it is confined to rules as well as other letters of which the following are the most general:—

Where it sounds open and clear, at the end of words, as in bonte, sante, piete.

Where it sounds sharp, and the voice is to be raised, as in prédecesseur, prédestine.

In adjectives or participles of the feminine gender, which end in two e's, as une maison bien reglée.

In preterits of the first conjugation, as, j' ai

pensé, j' ai aimé, j' ai desiré.

Where it takes off the sound of the safter it, as in *Echevin*, *Ecaille*, *Ecarter*, *témoigner*, instead of writing eschevin, escaille, escarter, tesmoigner; which is become obsolete.

Thus we find, that besides the e, acuted letters are of no use in French orthography; and none of

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them in the English, save that the acuted i ó û, may, upon occasion, serve in etymological dictionaries among small capitals, and save kerning them; which, however, cannot be done to A and E. Those must be kerned, or otherwise cut and cast, with an accent over them, on purpose, unless it is thought passable to place the accent at the side of a vowel; in which case the former ought to be very thin, especially if small capitals are cast to bear off each other.

#### VOWELS MARKED WITH A GRAVE.

THE a marked with a grave is used in several other languages besides the Latin and French, though we shall confine ourselves to these two, as being the principal languages which prove beneficial to our English presses. The a with a grave is used, in Latin,

When it stands for a word by itself, as à patre, à matre.

In adverbs, to distinguish them from adjectives, or prepositions of the same termination, as *infrà*, suprà, adverbs—infra, supra, prepositions.

è has a grave when it stands for a word by itself,

as redit è scholà.

è, ò, ù, have a grave to distinguish adverbs and conjunctions from adjectives and prepositions of the same termination, as doctè, meritò, udversùs, secundum, adverbs—docte, merito, adversus, secundus, secundus, secundum, adjectives—verò, conjunction; vero adjective.

In French,

a has a grave in là, when it is an adverb, as il est logè là. But la has no grave when it denotes the article of the feminine gender; as la femme, la sœur.

a has a grave when it is a particle before the dative case, as i' donné à lui, il a dit à lui.

Also, when it stands before the infinitive mood, as facile à faire, propre à manger.

Likewise, when it stands before the names of places, as il est alk à Paris, il s'en va à Luons.

a has a grave in the word voilà.

But a has no grave where it comes after a y, as

il y a un Dieu, il y a des hommes scavans.

Neither has a a grave when it makes a word of itself, but at the same time derives from the verb avoir, to have; as il a bon tems à se promener, where the first a is not accented, because it derives from avoir; whereas the other a has a grave, because it stands before the infinitive mood.

The e has a grave in words whose last syllable has an open and sharp sound, as in excès, procès, succès, exprès, and the preposition dès, to distinguish it from des, which denotes the genitive of the plural number. But some put an acute in the above words, instead of a grave, and allow either to be right.

u has a grave in the word où, where it means where, as où êtes vous?

But u has no grave when it stands for or, as sou-

haitez vous de boire du vin ou de la bière?

Neither has u a grave, when it stands for either, as je partira ou pour Paris ou pour Dieppe—I shall go either to Paris or to Dieppe.

In English, e is marked with a grave in poetry, to prevent its being taken for the e feminine, which, not being sounded, would shorten the measure of the verse, were the e not marked to be pronounced; as in these lines. viz.—

Cithæron, Dindymė, in ashes mourn, And Mycalė, and proud Olympus, shine. Bæotia for her Dircè seeks in vain.

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VOWELS MARKED WITH A CIRCUMFLEX.

THE circumflexed vowels are used in the French more than in the Latin language.

In Latin,

4 and û are chiefly made use of.

a is circumflexed where it distinguishes the ablative from the nominative case, of the first declension, as nominative musa, ablative musa, unles a preposition stands before it; which shews the case without any other sign or distinction.

Also, where the preterperfect of the first conjuga-

tion is contracted, as amásti for amavisti.

In French.

a is circumflexed where it retrenches the safter it, as château, châtiment, instead of formerly writing chasteau, chastiment.

.e, i, o, u, are circumflexed where they have an safter them, which they shew to be cut off, by assuming a circumflex; as does

é in fête, Evêque, être, êtes, and many others.

l in maitre, epitre, connoitre, &c.

6 in Apôtre, côte, vôtre, &c.

ú in brûler, coûtume, coûteau, soûtenir. &c.

But s maintains its place in pasteur, gestes, distribuer, posterité; and in all other words where the safter a vowel sounds clear and open; and where retrenching it would occasion a vitiated pronunciation.

### VOWELS MARKED WITH A DIÆRESIS.

THE vowels which are marked with two dots, or a discresis, over them, are properly but three, ë, ï, ü, though ä and ö ought not to be omitted in casting. Their use is, to separate one vowel from another, and to prevent their being taken for diphthongs; but the rules for placing the discresis being as unsettled as many others relating to accented letters, we will not

# Topographia. .... 39

presume to fix upon any, but recommend it to authors to mark them in their copy, according to their own, or their favourite grammarian's fancy, since it is not required of a compositor to concern himself about matters that are in dispute among pedagogues. In the mean time, particular care ought to be taken in poetical works not to omit putting the diæresis where the dividing of two vowels makes two different syllables; otherwise, two vowels together may be taken for a diphthong, and make the verse fall short of its measure, as might have happened to the lines underneath, had no diæresis been used to prevent it, viz.

The swans that in Cäyster's waters burn. In flames Caïcus, Peneus, Alphens, roll'd. The Tanaïs smokes amid his boiling wave.

### SHORTS AND LONGS.

SHORTS, as well as longs, are invented to shew the accent, sound, and quantity of syllables. They are thiefly used in classical dictionaries, and in scanning of Latin verses, after their syllables have been brought into feet, and marked with shorts and longs according to the measure of the verse. Thus, an adonic verse has two feet, an hexameter six, a pendameter five feet; which consist either of two or three syllables. Two syllables, both long, are called a spondee; a foot, whose first syllable is long and the last short, is a trockæus; and three syllables, viz. the first long and the other two short, is a dactyle.

THE FRENCH C, SPANISH II, AND WELSH WAND S.

THE C à la queue, or c with a tail, is a French sort,
and sounds like ss, when it stands before a, o, u,
as in ca, garçon; whereas a common c, before the
same vowels, is pronounced like a k. To make a
tail to a capital C, the figure 5, of a small size, with

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the upper stroke cut off, is not improperly used, or a note of interrogation with the dot taken away.

The n marked with a stroke over it, is used in the Spanish, and pronounced like a double n, or rather like ni; but short and quick, as in España. It is a sort which is used in the middle of words, but yery rarely at the beginning.

In the Welch language, wand y, as well as the other circumflexed letters, are used either to direct the pronunciation, as in yngwydd, in presence; ynghyd, together: or else, for distinction sake, as, mwg, a nug: mwg, smoke: hvd, to, nntil: hvd, length.

Having shewn, in as brief a manner as possible, the use made of accented letters, though we could have wished to have taken less notice of some, which are ranked among the obsolete sorts invented by sholastics, as signs and symbols, to impress upon their pupils the rudiments of grammar; we shall conclude by recommending to those authors who still maintain their necessity, in works designed for the learned, to be particular in sending their manuscript properly accented, according to their fancy—as the compositor should not deviate from his copy, or make alterations, without being paid for his loss of time.

#### NUMERAL LETTERS.

EVERY letter in the alphabet was used to denote some number by the Greeks and Orientals, and each letter denoted a less or greater number, as it was nearer or more remote from the first letter in their alphabetical order; and no letter, which in the order of the alphabet stands after another, ever denoted a number less than the letter that stands before it. If the Romans, who derived their letters originally from the Greeks, had derived also their numeration by letters, it is in the highest degree probable, that these

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particulars would have been the same in both; but as not one third of the Roman letters are numerals, so neither is the numeral value of those that are so, more or less, according to their place in alphabetical order; because D and C, which stand among the first letters of the alphabet, and M and L, whose station is in the centre, are of much greater numerical value than X and V, which are near the end.

But it has been supposed that the Romans used M to denote 1000, because it is the first letter of Mille, which is Latin for 1000; and C to denote 100, it being the first letter of Centum, the Latin term for 100. Some also suppose, that D being formed by dividing the old M in the middle, was therefore appointed to stand for 500, that is, half as much as the M stood for when it was whole; and that L being half a C. was, for the same reason, used to denominate But upon what just principle can any person imagine, that 1000 and 100 were the numbers which letters were first used to express? And what cause can be assigned why D, the first letter in the Latin word Decem, 10, should not rather have been chosen for 500, because it had a rude resemblance to half an M? But if these questions could be satisfactorily answered, there are other numerical letters which have never vet been accounted for at all. We therefore think these considerations render it probable, that the Romans did not, in their original intention, use letters to express numbers at all; the most natural account of the matter appears to be this-

The Romans probably put down a single stroke I, for one, as is still the practice of those who score on a slate, or with chalk; this stroke they doubled, trebled, and quadrupled, to express two, three, and four, thus II, III, IIII. So far they could easily number the minums or strokes with a glance of the

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eye; but they found, that if more were added, it would be nesessary to number the strokes one by one; for this reason, when they came to five, they expressed it by joining two strokes together in an acute angle, thus V, which will appear the more probable, if it be considered that the progression of the Roman numbers is from five to five, that is, from the fingers of one hand to the fingers of the other. Ovid has touched upon the original of this in his Festorum, lib. iii. and Vitruv. lib. iii. c. 1, has made the same remark.

After they had made this acute angle V, for five, they then added single strokes to the number of four, thus VI, VII, VIII, VIIII, and then, as the minums could not be further multiplied without confusion, they doubled their acute angle by prolonging the two lines beyond their intersection, thus X, to denote two fives, or ten. After they had doubled, trebled, and quadrupled this double acute angle, thus XX, XXX, XXXX, they then, for the same reason which induced them to make a single angle first, and then to double it, joined two single strokes in another form, and instead of an acute angle, made a right angle L, to denote fifty. When this was doubled. they then doubled the right angle, thus I, to denote one hundred, and having numbered this double right angle four times, thus II, III, IIII, when they came to the fifth number, as before, they reverted it, and put a single stroke before it, thus II, to denote five hundred; and when this five hundred was doubled, then they also doubled their double right angle, setting two double right angles opposite to each other, with a single stroke between them, thus III. to denote one thousand: when this note for one thousand had been repeated four times, they then put down III for five thousand :

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TIII, for ten thousand; and IIII, for fifty thousand.

That the Romans did not originally write M for one thousand, and C for one hundred, but square characters, as before shewn, we are expressly informed by Paulus Manutius; but the corners of the angles being cut off by transcribers for dispatch, these figures were gradually brought into what are now called numerical letters. When the corners of III were made round, it stood thus, CIO, which is so near the Gothic 10, that it soon deviated into that character; so that II having the corners made round, stood thus 12, and then easily deviated into L also became a plain C by the same means; the single rectangle which denoted fifty, was, without any alteration, a capital L; the double acute angle was an X; the single acute angle a V consonant; and a plain single stroke, the letter I. And thus these seven letters, M, D, C, L, X, V, I, became numerals.

As a further proof of this assertion, let it be considered, that CIO is still used for one thousand, and IO for five hundred, instead of M and D; and this mark, (A) is sometimes used to denote one thousand, which may easily be derived from this figure, III, but cannot be deviations from, or corruptions of, the Roman letter M.

The Romans also expressed any number of thousands by a line drawn over any numeral less than one thousand; thus, V denotes five thousand, LX sixty thousand: so likewise M is one million, MM two millions, &c.

Upon the discovery of printing, and before capitals were invented, small letters served for numerals, which they have done ever since; not only when the Gothic characters were in their perfection,

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but even after they ceased, and Roman was become the prevailing letter. Thus, in the time of printing in Gothio characters, i h T I c h m were, and are still, of the same signification with capitals, when used as numerals. But here it should be observed, that the capital J is no numeral letter, though the lower-case j is as often and as significantly used as the vowel i, especially where the former is used as a closing letter, in ij iij hij hij hij hij hij, &c. though it is as right not to use j's at all, unless it were out of respect to antiquity; for in Roman lower-case numerals, which are of more modern date, the j is not regarded, but the i stands for a figure of 1, whereever it is used numerically.

### ARITHMETICAL FIGURES.

THE above figures are nine in number, besides the cypher, or nought, which, though of itself of no signification, makes a great increase in the figure to which it is joined, either singly or progressively.

Figures require a founder's particular care to cast them exactly an n-thick, and to a true parallel, as the least deviation, where a number of them come together in table-work, destroys their arrangement, and causes an inconvenience in the justification, which cannot be altered without considerable loss of time, and frequently baffles the skill of the most ingenious compositor.

The excellence of figures does not consist in their having soft and fine strokes, but rather in such circles and lines as bear a proportion with the strength of the face. The improvement which has recently taken place, and is now generally adopted, of casting them to a fuller face than formerly, must be allowed to add considerably to their appearance, and to the beauty of the work in which they may be used.

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Printers, at one time, thought it a great impropriety to use erect figures in Italic matter, judging that the obliquity of that character would be intercepted by them, and therefore had figures cast of the same inclination; but this peculiarity is entirely laid aside in England, though it still prevails in some parts abroad.

#### SCRATCHED FIGURES.

THOUGH scratched figures are at present not used with us, yet, as their existence is not entirely done away, it might be construed an omission were we not to notice them, and specify in what particular they were formerly thought of utility.

They were used in that species of arithmetic called division, and are still considered in Germany, and other foreign parts, as essentially necessary; the dividing and divided figures being scratched as soon as they have been adjusted by subtraction and

multiplication.

Having made some observations upon the numeral letters of the Romans, and on modern arithmetical figures, we will shew the manner adopted by the Greeks and Hebrews, of numerating in their characters, as well for the satisfaction of the curious, as for the instruction of those who may have occasion to become acquainted with them.

### GREEK NUMERALS.

INSTEAD of seven letters used by the Romans, the Greeks employed their whole alphabet, and more than the alphabet; for they contrived three symbols more, and made their numerals to consist of twenty-seven sorts, which they divided into three classes; the first, to contain units; the second, tens; and the

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third, hundreds. Accordingly the first class consists of the nine following numerals, viz.

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Sold apply

3 4 5 6 7 8 9

In this class, it may be observed, the Greek ft. or Stigma, is made an auxiliary numeral letter, to stand for 6, and is called enionmov.

The second class includes the nine numerals which express tens, viz.

20 30 40 50 60 70 80

In this second class, a particular symbol, resembling much an inverted Hebrew lamed, serves to express 90, though others use an y in the room of it, to which, as well as the former, they give the name of koppa.

The third class contains the numerals which carry hundreds with them, and are

100 200 300 400 500 600 700 800 900

In this class the additional symbol which stands for 900, is a compound of a pi and a sigma, for which reason it is called sanpi; though others represent it by a mark like this, 3.

To raise numbers to thousands, nothing else is required than to begin the alphabet again, and to mark each letter with a dot, or an acute under it, in the following manner:

1000 2000 3000 6000 10,000 100,000

Still higher numbers are noted with double acutes under them; thus,

1,000000 2,000000 3,000000, &c.

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The manner of joining these numerals may be learned from the following example:

11 23 104 1005 1754
14 xy ed 41 4116

Besides the above manner of counting by lowercase letters, the Greeks make choice of six capitals to express sums by.

> Π Δ Η Χ΄ M 5 10 100 1000 10.000

Among the numeral letters, the pi is peculiar, for admitting the delta, eta, chi, and mu, into its centre, and for giving such an incorporated letter five times the value which it has of itself; as,

∆ 5 times 10 are 50.

H 5 times 100 are 500.

X 5 times 1000 are 5000.

M 5 times 10,000 are 50,000.

To these inclosed numerals any part and quantity may be added, according to the value which is contained in each of the six numeral letters exhibited in the preceding page.

It should be observed, that when a numeral letter is marked at the top, it shews it to be a fraction; as,

One-fourth. One-fifth. Five-eights.

### HEBREW NUMERALS.

THE manner of counting by letters is derived from the Hebrews, who for that purpose made use of the letters of their alphabet, without the assistance of other symbols. Accordingly, the letters which express units, are,

9 8 7 6 5 4 3 % 1

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The following contain tens, viz.

90 80 70 60 50 40 30 20 10

And these underneath, hundreds, viz.

900 800 700 600 500 400 300 200 100

In joining Hebrew letters for numbers, it is a rule to put the letter of a greater signification before a character of a less; as,

> רסו קה צג לא יב 12 31 93 105 266

The numeral signification of the five final letters is sometimes expressed by compounds; as,

תתק על א תת על ף תש על ז תר על ם הק על ך 500 600 700 800 900

N with an acute over it, stands for 1000: but where the contents of a sum amount to above 1000, the letter to the right hand shews the order of thousands, and the N is doubly accented; thus

> הא גא בא 2000 3000 8000

And if hundreds are added to them, the doubleaccented & is omitted, and only a common letter put at the beginning, to intimate the order of thousands; thus,

חרג ותש ות רש כק 2100 4300 6400 7700 8203

In printed books and letters the Jews date their years (after the creation of the world) without putting an n at the beginning, to imply 5000, and only set down the hundreds, and parts, of which their years consist above the thousands. But in this case

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they seldom forget to put the letters pay after the date, which is to inform the reader, that the date thus abridged, is according to the minor supputation.

In writing 15, the Jews choose to do it by 70, instead of 71, because these last letters are used in Jehovah; and therefore they think it a profanation of the Lord's name, if the said letters should be used for numerals. Neither do they express 16 by 12, but make use of 72, because the two letters, jod and vau, are likewise comprehended in the word Jehovah.

#### REFERENCES.

REFERENCES are all such marks and signs as are used in matter which has either side or bottom notes, and serve to direct the reader to the observations which are made upon such passages of the text as are distinguished by them, and demand a reference of the same likeness to be put to the notes, by which the matter is illustrated, or otherwise taken notice of.

References which are used in works with notes to them, are variously represented, though oftener by letters than other characters. Accordingly, some put common letters between parenthesis; thus (a), (b), (c), &c. Others, again, choose to see them betwixt crotchets, as [a], [b], [c], and so on to the end of the alphabet; instead of these, some begin the notes of every page with (a), in which they are as right as the former; and have this advantage besides, that the order of references is not so liable to be interrupted as by going through a whole alphabet. Were we authorised to vary from the customary mode of practise, we should recommend literal references to begin with every eves page, if it has notes; and to carry them no further than to the

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last note in the opposite uneven page; by which means the order of the references would appear at one view, and any irregularity in them rectified without much trouble.

Instead of letters, whether capital or lower-case, figures are used in the same manner, and also with equal propriety; for the one as well as the other are of like signification, when used for the same purpose : - but the references which look the neatest. besides being the most proper, are superior letters, or else superior figures; for both were originally contrived and intended to be employed in matter that is explained by notes, whether by way of annotations, quotations, citations, or otherwise. Nevertheless, we observe that superior letters are not used upon every occasion, but chiefly in large and lasting works, which have sometimes more than one sort of notes, and therefore require different references; in which case not only superior letters, but also such marks are used as never were designed to serve for references. Another reason why superior letters are not used upon all occasions, is, that they are often objected to by gentlemen who choose to read copious notes first, and then refer to the text, where they fancy superior letters not conspicuous enough to be readily discovered. And, indeed, superiors of the smallest size are not only inconvenient to the reader, but also troublesome to the pressman, who is ambitious to make them come off clear, notwithstanding their disadvantageous situation. But, to abide by the title of this article, what are called references by printers, are the following:-

Asterisk Donble Dagger | Parallel | Dagger | Section | Paragraph T

The above are the names and figures which founders reckon among the points, and are denomi-

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nated references by printers; these characters were designed to serve for other purposes than those to which they have been applied, as will appear from their respective functions.

 The Asterisk is the chief of the references, and presents itself most readily to the eye, on account of having its figure on the top, and leaving a blank below, which makes it a superior.

In Roman church-books, the Asterisk divides each verse of a psalm into two parts; and marks where the responses begin: which in our Common Prayer Books is done by placing a colon between the two parts of each verse.

They are sometimes used to supply the name of a person that chooses to pass anonymous. They also denote an omission, or an hiatus, by loss of original copy; in which case the number of asterisks are multiplied according to the largeness of the chasm; and not only whole lines, but frequently whole pages, are left blank, and marked with lines of stars.

In satyrizing persons in pamphlets and public papers, the asterisk is of great service; for it is but putting the first letter of a person's name, with some asterisks after it, and ill-natured people think they may characterize, and even libel, their betters, without restriction. Metal Rules also serve for the above purposes as well as Asterisks.

2. The Dagger, originally termed the Obelisk, or Long Cross, is frequently used in Roman Catholic church-books, prayers of exorcism, at the benediction of bread, water, and fruit, and upon other occasions, where the priest is to make the sign of the cross; but it must be observed, that the long cross is not used in books of the said kind, unless for want of square crosses, (1), which are the proper symbols for the before-mentioned purposes;

and are used besides in the Pope's briefs, and in mandates of archbishops and bishops, who put it immediately before the signature of their names. But the square cross is not reckoned among references of which we are speaking; whereas, the long cross answers several purposes; for, besides serving instead of a square cross, it also answers for a signature to matter that has been either omitted, or else added, and which is intercalated after the work is gone beyond the proper place for it. But the chief use which is made of the dagger, is by way of reference, where it serves in a double capacity, viz. the right way, and inverted.

3. The Double Dagger is a mark crowded in to

make one of the improper references.

4. The Parallel is another sign which serves for a reference, and is fit to be used either for side or

bottom notes.

5. The sign which implies the word Section, is a sort likewise seldom employed, because in a work which is divided into chapters, articles, paragraphs, sections, or any other parts, they are commonly put in lines by themselves, either in large capitals, small capitals, or Italic, according to the size of the work. But the sign of section is sometimes used in Latin notes, and particularly such as are collected from foreign books, which generally abound with citations, because their introduction induces the reader to account his author very learned.

6. The Paragraph is a mark which formerly was prefixed to such matter as authors designed to distinguish from the mean contents of their works; and which was to give the reader an item of some particular subject. At present, paragraphs are seen only in Bibles, where they shew the parts into which a chapter is divided, and where its contents

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change. In Common Prayer Books, paragraphs are put before the matter that directs the order of the Service, and which is called the Rubric: because those lines were formerly printed in red. Otherwise it is a useless sort, and unfit to serve for a reference, as long as there are others which have not that antique appearance.

Thus we have shewn, that the symbols which are used as references, were designed for quite different purposes. We are therefore of opinion, that it would not have been one of the least improvements, had some other marks been devised which should have appeared in a more becoming shape than the above references, and more perspicaous than superiors of the least size.

### LOWER-CASE SORTS.

HAVING already considered the lower-case alphabet, it will be unnecessary to dwell long on this head, we shall therefore merely notice those sorts which have not been already treated on. Those termed lower-case sorts are, the small letters of the alphabet, double letters, points, the crotchet and parenthesis, spaces and quadrats. Of these i, v, x. l. c. are numeral letters, and are generally used in notes: the d, or m, seldom appear in lower-case numerals, though their power is not inferior in calculation to capitals, as they are governed by the same rules.

<sup>\*</sup> It will be seen by the scheme of the old cases, that the small k, sb, sk, and st, (when long s's where used,) held situations in the apper-case; but, according to our improved scale, the above are abolished, as well as the transposition of some others into the lower-case, in order to admit room for many additional and useful sorts.

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#### POINTS.

THEY consist of a comma, semicolon, colon, period or full-point, note of interrogation and note of admiration.

Points are not of equal antiquity with printing. though, not long after its invention, the necessity of introducing stops or pauses in sentences, for the guidance of the reader, brought forward the colon and full-point, the two first invented. In process of time, the comma was added to the infant punctuation, which then had no other figure than a perpendicular line, proportionable to the body of the letter; these three points were the only ones used till the close of the fifteenth century, when Aldus Manutius, a man eminent for the restoration of learning, among other improvements in the art of printing, corrected and enlarged the punctuation, by giving a better shape to the comma, adding the semicolon, and assigning to the former points a more proper place; the comma denoting the smaller pause, the semicolon next, then the colon, and the full-point terminating the sentence. The notes of interrogation and admiration were not introduced till many years after.

These points are allowed to answer all the purposes of punctuation, though some pedantic persons have suggested the propriety of increasing them, by having one below the comma, and another between the comma and semicolon. So far are we from imagining that such an introduction will meet with encouragement, that we confidently expect to see the present number diminished, by the total exclusion of the colon, a point long since considered unnecessary, and now but seldom used.

Perhaps there never existed on any subject, among men of learning, a greater difference of

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opinion than on the true mode of punctuation, and scarcely can any two people be brought to agree in the same method; some making the pause of a semicolon where the sense will only bear a comma; some contending for what is termed stiff pointing, and others altogether the reverse.

The want of an established rule in this particular is much to be regretted. The loss of time to a compositor, occasioned, often through whim or caprice, in altering points unnecessarily, is one of the greatest hardships he has to complain of in the

progress of his profession.

Scarcely nine works out of ten are sent properly prepared to the press; either the writing is illegible, the spelling incorrect, or the punctuation The compositor has often to read sentences of his copy more than once before he can ascertain what he conceives the meaning of the author, that he may not deviate from him in the punctuation; this retards him considerably. But here it does not end-he, and the corrector of the press, though, perhaps, both intelligent and judicious men, differ in that in which few are found to agree, and the compositor has to follow either his whim or better opinion. The proof goes to the author-he dissents from them both, and makes those alterations in print, which ought to have rendered his manuscript copy correct.

Some compositors do not possess so perfect a knowledge of punctuation as others; to such the hardship becomes greater; the loss of time to them will be very considerable. The author should, in the first instance, send his copy properly prepared to the press. He must be the most competent judge of the length and strength of his own sentence, which the introduction of a point from another might

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materially alter, a circumstance not uncommon, as instances have occurred where a single point has completely reversed the meaning of a sentence.

The late Dr. Hunter, in reviewing a work, had occasion to censure it for its improper punctuation. He advises authors to leave the pointing entirely to the printers, as from their constant practice they must have acquired a uniform mode of punctuation. We are decidedly of this opinion; for unless the author will take the responsibility of the pointing entirely on himself, it will be to the advantage of the compositor, and attended with less loss of time, not to meet with a single point in his copy, unless to terminate a sentence, than to have his mind confused by commas and semicolons placed indiscriminately, in the harry of writing, without any regard to propriety. The author may reserve to himself his particular mode of punctuation, by directing the printer to point his work either loosely or not, and still have the opportunity of detecting in his proofs whether a misplaced point injures his sentence. The advantage resulting from this method would ensure uniformity to the work, and remove in part from the compositor, a burthen which has created no small degree of contention.

Having considered it our duty to enter thus fully on a subject that so materially c neems the compositor, we will proceed to the points themselves; not with the view of laying down any rule, which we conceive impracticable, but for the purpose of explaining each in its proper order. An uniform and correct mode of pointing must be acquired by the compositor from practice and attention.

The comma, which is considered the first, from its requiring the shortest pause, its time being till you can reckon one, is more frequently used and

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misapplied than any of the other points. Its unnecessary introduction often involves the reader in perplexity; and its omission blends sentences that should be kept distinct—and in unskilful hands, may pervert the meaning of the author, and render it ridiculous. The most acceptable mode seems to be what is termed easy pointing, which certainly has the advantage of not confusing the render.

The comma, having the first place in every sentence, though, strictly speaking, it may be considered a junior stop, governs the order of all the others; therefore, the ready way to uniform pointing, is to acquire a perfect knowledge of this key to

punctuation. \*

Commas are used to denote extracts or quotations from other works, in dialogue matter, or any passages or expressions not original, by inverting two of them, and placing them before the passage quoted, and closing such passage with two apostrophes. These are termed inverted commas; and when used, a thin space is sufficient to keep them free from the matter. The method of running them down the sides to the end of the quotation, has been found inconvenient, particularly where a quotation occurs within a quotation, or a speech within a speech; the proper method of distinguishing which is, by placing a single inverted comma, and running one down the side till such extra quotation is concluded, which cannot well be done when the double commas are also run down. Such extra quotation

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<sup>•</sup> It must be acknowledged, that all subjects are not pointed ailke; as some require more stops than others. For instance, familiar discourtes, or historical and narrative subjects, do not take up so many points as explanatory matter; and that, again, not so many as English Statute Law-but, fortusately for us. that mispointing is not of the same consequence with mismomer; otherwise, where wond be the end of Law-quibbles!

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to be concluded with a single apostrophe: \* or should both quotations close together, put three apostrophes, t observing after the first to place a thin space.

Inverted commas owe their origin to Mons. Guillemet, a Frenchman, who, it may be supposed. was no friend to Italic, they being intended to supersede the use of that letter. As an acknowledgement for this improvement, his countrymen call them after his name. :

A single comma inverted is used as an abbrevistion to the word Mac. as in the instance of M'Gowan.

The Semicolon is allowed double the space of time for its pause to the comma, and may be consi-

It has been observed, that double commas are frequently mis-applied, when they are placed before an extract, or the substance of a passage, drawn out to corroborate an author's argument; in which case, such extracted matter would be best known by having which case, such extracted matter would be best known by having single inverted commas herore it, as zerbal quotations are marked by dopble ones. Besides this proper use of the above, some authors choose to place the former be'ore such of their own discourse as they would have particular notice taken of; though they might succeed in their aim, without using double commas, and as ueither double or single ones are proper to distinguish an author's own matter from that before described, it has been suggested, that an inter from that before describer, it has been suggested, that an in-verted full poin, or colon, or a comma standing in its proper position would answer the purpose better. B, using either of the above signs, the reader would instantly be informed which is a verbal quotation, by being double comma'd; which a collected, or extracted one, by being single: comma'd; and which an author's own select matter, by having one of the above points.

t The Germans, as well as the French, put the sign of quotation always according to the folio either of an even, or uneven page. Thus, in an even page, the former put two commas in their proper position, at the beginning of lines; but use them inverted in uneven pages; which doubte commas French founders cast in a piece, on the middle of their square metal—the proper situation for their particular signification. In the mean time, the placing of inverted commas according to the folion of odd and even pages, witnesseth, that they formerly were not comprised in the measure of the work, but were justified, like marginal notes, abstracted from the matter; till it was thought prudent for every man to make his work as easy

to himself as possible.

The word Guillemets is ridiculed by the Germans, who bave nick-named them gense augen, or geese-eyes; which, though it wants seriousness, is nevertheless an appellation by which they are known to both printers and writers in Germany. dered an important point of punctuation; it enforces what has been illustrated by the comma, and allows the reader an opportunity to acquire a perfect view of the sentence, before it is terminated by the full point.

The colon, whose allowed time is till the reader can count three, has been superseded in almost every instance, either by the semicolon, ellipsis line, or metal rule, and in some cases by the comma; neither is its utility in figure-work any longer acknowledged.

The full point is used to terminate a sentence, and its pause is double the time allowed to the semicolon. It is also used in abbreviations, but then loses its effect as a full stop in the punctuation, unless at the end of a sentence. Some authors, enemies to the introduction of many points, will even emit the semicolon after an abbreviation, leaving the full point an indefinite pause to the discretion of the reader.

Full points are sometimes used as leaders in tables of contents, figure-work, &c. but dotted rules are much better for this purpose, from their uniform appearance, as they not only supply the place of full points and quadrats, but save considerable time in

the composition.

The sign of interrogation needs not to be explained; for the very appellation tells us, that it is a mark which is used to shew where a question is proposed, that gives room for, or demands, an answer-

It is not only proper, but also requisite, that every interrogation or question should begin with a large letter, whether capitals are used in the matter, or not; according to the method which is observed in our Bibles, where, as well interrogatives as responses, besides the beginning of sayings, allocutions, &c. are intimated by a large capital letter.

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The sign of admiration, or exclamation, likewise explains itself by its name, and claims a place where surprise, astonishment, rapture, and the like sudden emotions of the mind are expressed, whether upon lamenting or rejoicing occasions.

The sign of exclamation is put after the particles Ah! Alas! O! &c. though the last is not always of that force to be attended by the exclamatory symbol; but is softened by a comma, to enforce what follows, and to make the admiration more complete.

The admirative part of a paragraph, as well as of the interrogatory, is always to begin with a capatal

letter.

Exclamations are sometimes mistaken for interrogations, and vice versa; care should, therefore, be taken in examining to which of these two variations the one or the other inclines.

All the points, except the comma and the full stop, have a hair space placed between them and the matter, to distinguish them; the comma and full point not lining with the depth of the face of the letter, do not require any space to bear them off.

The m metal-rule, though it cannot be denominated a point, is frequently used in peculiar works; sometimes as a substitute for the comma, at others for the colon; and is found particularly serviceable in rhapsodical writing, where half sentences frequently occur.\*

<sup>\*</sup> With respect to punctuation, Smith observes, that

<sup>&</sup>quot;To perfect onseelf, therefore, in placing commun right, is the ready way to fair pointing; but to set down rules for arriving to it, would be endeasouring in via; since practice is the surest guide. Neither is it supposed, that those who initiate themselves for the Art, should be so destitute an not to understand pointing, even according to the rules of spelling-books. But to have done with the commun, even according to the rules of spelling-books. But to have done with the commun and the state of the stat

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HYPHEN, OR DIVISION.

To divide words or syllables with propriety is an important part of a compositor's business. It will exercise his judgment, and demands particular attention, as authors must leave the use of the hyphen to the discretion of the printer.

The difficulty that formerly existed as to the proper method of dividing syllables, arose from the controversies in which authors were continually engaged on the subject of orthography. Without being able to establish a criterion, each arrogated to himself the adoption of his own particular mode, to

the subversion of uniformity and propriety.

The Dictionary of Dr. Johnson is now looked up to as the highest authority, and the labour of that great man appears to have been crowned with complete It has silenced those pedantic clamours and divided opinions, which distracted the attention of the compositor, and he is now able to solve any difficulty, by a reference to this excellent standard of English orthography. Authors of the present day seldom interfere with what is now deemed the provirce of the printer: they will generally allow him, from his practice, to be a pretty competent judge of orthography, and therefore not object to his mode of spelling, though it may vary from their own. To the compositor this is an advantage of considerable importance, as it allows him to observe a system in his spelling, and enables him, at the same time, to acquire the proper use of the division, in which he should be careful not to suffer a syllable of a single letter to be put at the end of a line, as a-bide, e-normous, o-bedient, &c. except in marginal notes, which, from their narrow measure, cannot be governed by this rule. The terminating syllable of a word should not be allowed to begin a line, as ed, &c. the hyphen

# 68....Cpragraphia.

being the thickness of one of the letters, the measure most, therefore, be narrow indeed, or the line very closely spaced, that will not admit the other. A compositor, who studies propriety and neatness in his work, will not suffer an unnecessary division, even in a narrow measure, if he can avoid it by the trouble of over-running two or three lines of his matter.

In large type and narrow measures, the use of the division may admit of an excuse; but, in that case, care should be taken that they do not follow each other. In small type and wide measures, the hyphen may generally be dispensed with, either by driving out or getting in the word, without the least infringement on the regularity of the spacing. The habit once acquired of attending to this essential point, the compositor would find his advantage in the preference given to his work, and the respect attached to his character, from his being considered a competent and careful master of his business. The appearance of many divisions down the side of a page, and irregular spacing, are the two greatest defects in printing.

It is proper, if possible, to keep the derivative, or radical word, entire and undivided; as occur-

rence, gentle-man, respect-ful, &co.

The hyphen, or division, is likewise used to join two or three words together, which are termed compounds, and consist frequently of two substantives, as bird-eage, love-letter, &c.; likewise what are termed compound adjectives, as well-built house, handsome-faced child, &c. But compounds are sometimes made of words that were never intended for such; therefore, to acquire a competent knowledge of them, does not depend upon fancy, but exercises the judgment in discovering the rise and

# Eppegraphia .... 63

fall of the tone, which is an adjunct: and whether that and the preceding appellative may not be joined into one word, rather than make a compound of it.

The prepositions after, before, over, &c. are often connected with other words, but do not always make a proper compound; thus, before-mentioned is a compound when it precedes a substantive, as, in the before-mentioned place; but when it comes after a noun, as in the place before mentioned, it should be two distinct words.

Divisions are sometimes used in table-work, indexes, or contents; but, like the full point, they are now generally superseded by dotted rules; for they will not always come off clear, and frequently cut the paper, unless worked with care.

Divisions should not be east of too thick a body; their principal use is in justifying and correcting, therefore they cannot be too thin to be serviceable; they do not require a very bold stroke, except for spelling-books, for which they are generally cast on purpose.

#### PARENTHESIS AND CROTCHET.

THE use of the parenthesis is to enclose such words or sentences of a period as make no part of the subject, yet at the same time strengthen the argument; which, however, would read smoothly on were the enclosed matter taken away.

Parentheses are not now so generally used as formerly: authors place their intercalations between commas, which make them equally as intelligible as though they were inclosed between parentheses, and look much neater in print; but where parentheses are used, should a point be requisite to mark the sentence, it is placed after the parenthesis, the intercalation not being reckoned any part of that

# 64 . . . Typographia.

sentence; as, for instance, My Lord (said I), I will tell your Lordship. &c.

Crotchets are so seldom made use of now, that they require little notice: both parentheses and crotchets were formerly used to inclose folios, &c.; but the modern method of putting folios in full-faced figures, unattended, leaves the crotchet scarce a duty to perform.

#### APOSTROPHE.

THE apostrophe is called a sign of abbreviation, its appearance often ejecting some letter or letters from the word to which it is attached, particularly in poetry, where it often contracts two syllables into one, to give a verse its proper measure; to this the vowel e yields oftener than any other letter, as alledg'd, chang'd, &c. Sometimes it cuts off a vowel at the beginning of words, as 'bate, 'scape, 'squire, &c.; sometimes a syllable, as 'prentice; but these, and many other abbreviations, are common only in poetical works, and are under the arbitration of the author, who best knows where such contractions serve his purpose.

The menosyllables the and thre are sometimes shortened, but without any appearance of propriety to justify the curtailment, as they retain the same sound, and therefore the apostrophe cannot assist

the versification.

The genitive case of the singular number is generally known by having 's for its termination.

All quotations, which are denoted by beginning with inverted commas, are closed with apostrophes. There is no space required between the apostrophe and the matter.

# Cypsgraphia....65

#### QUADRATS.

An m-quadrat is the square of the letter to whatever fount it may belong; an n-quadrat is half that size. In casting of m and n-quadrats, the utmost exactness is necessary; they also require particular care in dressing, as the most trifling variation will instantly be discovered, when ranged in figure-work, for which purpose they are much used; and unless true in their justification, the arrangement is confused to such a degree, that all the pains and ingenuity of a compositor cannot rectify it. The same observation will hold good with respect to figures.

M-quadrats mostly begin paragraphs, \* by an indention of the first line; one of them is likewise the proper space after a full-point, when it termi-

nates a sentence in a paragraph.

N-quadrats are generally used after the semicolon, colon, &c. and sometimes after a curved letter; but the use of the n-quadrat in spacing must be guided by circumstances.

Two-m, three-m, and four-m quadrats, are likewise cast for break and white lines, but particularly for poetry, on which account it is essentially necessary that they be cast to the exact depth of the letter, otherwise the matter will stand uneven where a number of them come together.

The inconvenience arising from founts of the same body not agreeing in depth, is great, where the quadrats, through necessity, are sometimes mixed. It is a serious evil, and much to be deplored, that some method cannot be adopted to check it. A particular work will sometimes require

Formerly paragraphs were always indented with an m quadrat; but of late years some printers prefer using an m and n for narrow measures, and two, three, or even four m's for wide measures, which certainly must be acknowledged to be an improvement, because the space is then sufficient for the reader's eje to notice a paragraph on a single glance.

more quadrats than were originally cast to the letter it is done in—recourse is then had to the founder, though at the time there may be a sufficiency in the honse, of the same body, but a different fount, which do not exactly range, and consequently cannot be used. The printer is thus put to unnecessary expense, and, even then, it is a hundred chances to one if they do not get mixed. When they are afterwards used for ranging matter, this defect will occasion much trouble and loss of time. But this is a trifling inconvenience, compared with others, many of which we have before noticed. It is astonishing, that a system so destructive and irregular should have been permitted so long to exist.

Riglets of the same body as the letter of the work, are sometimes used for white lines, instead of quadrats; but, from their being often wetted, they are apt to swell, and of course cannot be depended on; it would be better, therefore, to use space leads, which are cast from 4, 6, and 8, &c. to a Pica, and from 4 m's to any length required.

#### SPACES.

THE use of spaces is to separate one word from another, so that the reading may appear easy and distinct. To enable the compositor to space even, and to justify with nicety, they are cast to various thicknesses.

Five to an m-or five thin spaces; four to an m-or four middle spaces; three to an m-or three thick spaces;

and two to an m-or two n-quadrats,

which may with propriety be reckoned among the number of spaces, since they are used in the matter with them. Besides these, there are what are called hair spaces, cast remarkably thin, and found particularly useful in justifying lines and assisting uniformity in spacing.

#### CHAP. IV.

#### RULES.

RULES are of three descriptions, vis. brass, metal, or space rules; the former are made by printers' smiths and joiners, and the latter are east by typefounders.

Brass rules ought to be exactly letter-high: if, therefore, founts differ in height to paper, from the regular standard, those rules, accurately made, are rendered useless; for if they are higher than the letter, they come off black and broad; and, besides hindering the adjoining letters from appearing, they cut both paper and tympan. On the other hand, if they are lower than the letter, they do not appear at all, especially if they are thin, and stand between matter without scaleboard at their aides; which (in particular cases) may be left out in Roman letter; yet in mixt matter, or Italio, a scaleboard at least is required before and after a thin brass rule, to prevent its touching upon d, f, l, at the fore-side, and upon f, g, j, p, s, y, at the hind-side.

Brass rales being commonly cut to the leagth of sixteen inches, their equality, as to height, from end to end, is not always to be depended on, and therefore should be tried; which is done by holding the foot, and afterwards the face-side of the whole length apon an even imposing stone, and observing whether light can be discovered beyond the rule and the stone, which, if it appears, proves the rale faulty, and shews where it drives out in height, and occa-

sions a hollowness in some other place.

The face of the rules ought also to be attended to, that it may be of an equal bold, or else tender look, according to the size of the letter or figures.

look, according to the size of the letter or figures with which they are used. But a great difference

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appears in this particular, when we find it necessary to piece them; a compositor, therefore, when he is driven to this necessity, should endeavour to dress the shorter pieces, in order that they may ap-

mear as one length.

The thickness of rules for table-work should be proportionable to their face, without so much shoulder as shall hinder a cross rule from joining a perpendicular line; since it is a maxim. "That rules (in table-work) shall fall upon and touch rules:" which, if followed, has a good effect.

#### METAL RULES.

METAL RULES, like quadrats, are cast to m's, from the size of one to four, sometimes six m's, and are used in schemes of accounts, to direct and connect each article with its summary contents, where they stand opposite, and distant from each other.

Sometimes metal rules stand for naughts, in columns of figures, where the rule should not exceed the extent which figures require. Thus, in a column of four n's. a two-m rule is answerable to them: and where the numeral contents of a column do not amount to above hundreds, a single m rule will answer.

Metal rules made to line and join accurately. are very useful, as they serve not only for rectilinear, but also perpendicular progressions, where no other rules are to touch them. But though they have shouldering sufficient to bear them from the matter, they require, nevertheless, a scaleboard, or, if it will admit, a riglet before and after them, that they may run straight, and meet with nothing that can throw them out of line.

Sometimes a rule stands for a sign of repetition, in catalogues of goods, where it implies ditto; and

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in catalogues of books, where a rule signifies ejusdem, instead of repeating an author's name, with the
title of every separate treatise of his writing; but
it must he observed, that no sign of repetition, more
than ditto, ejusdem, or idem, must be at the top of a
page; but that the name of the author, or merchandize, must be set out again at length; and if their
series continues, to denote the continuation thereof,
at every article, by a rule of three or four m's, so
as to range, instead of extending the rule to the different lengths of names.

A metal rule likewise stands for to, or till; as, chap. xvi. 3—17. that is, from the third to the seventeenth verse. At other times, it serves for an index, to give notice, that what follows it is a corollary of what has preceded; or otherwise matter of

import and consequence.

# SPACE RULES.

SPACE RULES are not always of the same thickness, though two of them generally answer to the depth of a Pearl body. But this is not of so much moment as their being of a neat look, and made to join well; when this is the case they may be considered valuable sorts. These lines are cast to various widths, from one m to six, to whatever body ordered, and are, in intricate rule work, from their joining more exact, neater than brass rule, less expensive, and more convenient to the compositor.

Particular care should be taken that brass rule be of equal thickness with the space rule, otherwise

they will not range in line.

#### BRACES.

BRACES are chiefly used in tables of accounts, and aimilar matter, that consists of a variety of articles,

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which would require much circumlocation, were it not for the method of tabular writing, which is practised in England to much greater perfection

than in any other nation.

Braces stand before, and keep together, such articles as are of the same import, and are the sub-divisions of the preceding articles. They sometimes stand after, and keep together, such articles as make above one line, and have either pecuniary, mercantile, or other posts after them, which are justified to answer to the middle of the brace.

The bracing side of a brace is always turned to that part of an article which makes the most lines.

Braces are sometimes used in the margin to cut off a chronological series from the proper notes of the work. They are generally cast to two, three, and four m's, but can be made larger if ordered. When there is occasion for them larger, middles and corners are used with metal rules, so that the brace may include any space.

Middles and corners, as well as metal rules, require to be cast with great exactness, that when joined they may appear as one piece; their shoulders, in dressing, should be planed away, so that the beard may not prevent the face from meeting.

Middles and corners are convenient in genealogical works, where they are used the flat way; and where the directing point is not always in the middle, but has its place under the name of the parent, whose offspring stands between corner and corner of the brace inside, in order of primogeniture.

#### SUPERIORS.

As we have already treated of superior letters and figures under the head of references, it will not be necessary to take further notice of them here, than

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# Eppographia....71

to observe, that they should contain no mere than the bare alphabet, without any double letters. Neither ought the j to be used as a reference, on account of its being a descending letter. A larger number should be east of the first eight sorts; a less of the second, and a still less quantity of the third eight sorts; because it often happens that references begin with a in every page; though sometimes they are continued to the end of a chapter, or other division of a work; in which case they may run the length of the alphabet.

The same rule may be observed in respect to superior figures, more of the first five being used than of the others, except the nullo, which may be

used as a degree in geometrical works.

#### FRACTIONS.

FRACTIONS, or broken numbers in arithmetic, are seldom cast to any other bodies than those of Pica, Small Pica, Long Primer, Burgeois, and Brevier. The Pica is equal to two Nonpareil bodies, and the Long Primer to two Pearl.

The separatrix, or rule between the numerator and denominator, was formerly joined to the foot of the first: but it is considered that the figures of 3, 4, 5, 7, 9, are thereby cramped, and for that reason it is now cut to run in the top line of the denominating figure, which is a considerable improvement.

The goodness of fractions does not consist in their having a small and fine face, but rather, in their having a small and clear. The improvement which has taken place in the appearance of our modern figures, ought to be followed in the casting of fractions:—In works where they are used, they should appear clear and conspicuous, independent of the propriety of preserving their proportion.

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Where a fraction happens with large-bodied figures, such as Great Primer, and upwards, it is usually set out at length, unless Nonpareil figures can be conveniently had, which may be justified with the same neatness as fractions cast to the body.

#### QUOTATIONS.

QUOTATIONS are cast to two sizes, and are called broad and narrow. They require to be dressed and finished with as much care as any other sort, that they may stand true upon all occasions. in size according to the standard of the foundery where they are cast, which is highly improper; as they should be governed by a regular standard as well as every other sort, and to that standard pressioiners ought to cut their furniture; but we are sorry to observe so little attention paid to this important part of the joiners' business, who follow too much in the steps of the letter-founder, and cannot decide on, and adhere to, a standard gauge for their furniture. This want of uniformity gives the compositor much trouble in making margin, and, with all his care, a form will sometimes go to press imperfect in this respect, which is immediately discovered on laying on the reiteration. The pressman has then to unlock the form in order to make register; from this, a dispute will too frequently arise between him and the compositor; and, what is still worse, from frequent unlocking on the press, the pages will suffer some derangement, so that the most skilful corrector's endeavours to send a work perfect to press, will thereby be frustrated.

Quotations should not be cast so high as they sometimes are, for no other purpose than to encrease their weight; if they are above the height of a quadrat, they will black the paper; and the pressmen,

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who are generally not very patient in remedying what may obstruct the progress of their work, generally apply to the sheep's-foot, by which means they are rendered useless.

Justifiers are east for broad and narrow quotations, to all sizes, from Double Pica to Pearl inclusive, for the purpose of ranging the side note with its proper text; in doing which, great care is requisite, especially where there are many in a page.

#### TWO-LINE LETTERS.

THEY are now cut to the following bodies, Pearl, Nonpareil, Mission, Brevier, Burgeois, Long Primer, Small Pica, Pica, English, &c. and are found extremely useful in titles, the beginning of chapters, &c. A specimen of the different sizes will be given in its proper place.

#### FLOWERS.

AT one period flowers were held in the greatest estimation, and the skill and ingenuity of the compositor was often put to the test in forming facs and devices to grace the head pages of his work; their disuse, of late years, may be attributed to either of the following causes: first, the heavy expense incurred in the purchase of them; \* secondly, the want of taste evinced by the founders in the selection of their patterns, t which, certainly, are little cal-

\*\* We feel fully persuaded, that were we to submit the whole of the type-founders' specimens of flowers to the judgment of artists' for tueir selection, that they would reject more than nine-tenths' of them as unsuitable to the taste of a British public; again, we con-

<sup>\*</sup>We never could reconcile to our minds why the founders should charge flowers double the price of type; there certainly can be no reasonable ground for this: they urge, in justification of it, the small quantity sold, and the number cut which never pay the expense; admitting this, what is the cutting of two punches, in comparison with that of a complete fount of letter! which is certainly liable to the same chances of sale.

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culated to suit the general taste of a refined public, who are in the daily habit of beholding some of the most beautiful productions of the Fine Arts.

It has been observed, that

"Master printers have now reason to rejoice, that the present improved mode of printing has eased them of the burden of expensive founts of flowers and cases."

A few years since, so great was the rage for novelty and alteration, that some printers were not content with merely the exclusion of flowers, but they stript their works of every article which had the least appearance of ornament; even rules of every description were banished from their proper stations in title-pages, heads, &c. To make up for the rules, which were necessary to mark the separations, they were compelled to throw in additional spaces, which white paper had certainly a very unsightly appearance; but this new-fangled rage did not long continue, and it was with some reluctance that they would consent to the re-introduction of them in certain cases, and thus, by degrees, rules have again resumed their necessary functions.

The founders have nearly taken the whole range of fancy in the cutting of different types; but they have not kept equal pace in the improvement of flowers, which, with all their defects, are now held in great estimation, and we are convinced that they would again come into pretty general use, were the founders to improve by the hints which we have here presumed to suggest.

sider that they act improperly in not casting every flower to the full depth of the body, because the printer would then have a much greater scope for his fancy; he could either have his lines close, or spaced, according to circumstances; whereas, upon the present system, he is prevented from using flowers which inglit form an excellent border, were it not for the great separation occasioned by each lower having a large beard.

#### CHAP. V.

# NAMES OF LETTER, AND THEIR BEARINGS

HAVING already treated upon the properties and shapes of types, and of all the sorts contained in a complete fount of letter, with some observations on the use and proper application of them; together with the inconveniences to which both the typefounders and printers are daily exposed (particularly the latter) from the present, and now vastly encreasing, irregular practise of casting type, we are fully persuaded, that this growing evil cannot be too strongly reprobated by every lover of the art, whose chaste eye is perpetually offended, when glancing on a page, by some glaring defect or other; particularly in the mixture of type, which, though of the same body, is widely different in the face, as well as being sometimes too high to paper, and at other times too low; either of which defects are equally bad. For these improprieties, from which we firmly believe that scarce any work is exempt, both parties are highly culpable; and we sincerely wish, for our own sakes as well as that of our patrons and admirers, that this pernicious system was entirely abolished. Had the founders any just reason for deviating from the standard of the Dutch. which had been first proved and established by the [Germans] inventors? The alterations, from whatever motives they were made, certainly redound not to the credit of either the adopters or the first promoters. We shall now leave the founders and printers to reflect upon what we have advanced, and pursue our course, by endeavouring to explain the origin of the names of the various sized letters.

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-	Names of the vario	Names of the various Sizes of Letter, in England, France, Germany and Hollund.	gland, France, German	ny and Holland.	-
-	ENGLISH.	FRENCH.	GERHAN.	DUTCH.	
-	*	Le gros Double Canon Le Double Canon	Imperial Real		
_	1. French Canon 2. Two lines Double Pica	Le gros Canon Le Trismeriste	Missal	Groote Kanou	
-	3, Two lines Great Printer	Les deux Points de gros	Canon	Kanon	
	4. Two lines English	Le Petit Canon	Roman	Dubbelde Augustyn	
-	o. I wo mines I new	ou la Palestine		Danger Medican	
=	6. Double Piea	Le gros Paragon	Text, or Secunda	Dubbelde Dessendigan	
-	7. Paragon	Le petit Paragon	Paragon	Paragon	
-	8. Great Primer	Le gros Romain	Tertia	Text	
-	9. English	Le Saint Augustin	Mittel	Augustyn	
-	11. Small Pica	La Philosophie	Brevier, or Rheinbender	Dessendian	
_	12. Long Primer	Le petit Romain	Corpus, or Garmond	Garmond	
-	13. Burgeois	La Gaillarde		Burgeois	
-	14. Brevier	Le petit Texte	Petit, or Jungfer	Brevier	
-	15. Minion	La Mignione	Colonel		
=	Nonnonoil	In Namentillo	N	Nonnarail	

difference between a maji kened fenel, when east upon full-charged Diamond lody; (which has frequenty been the cashin Loadon) and this best is true, the fear may differ and probable I fam be acknowledged for neptrior, in point of symmetry does not this beated Eady. It is true, it is then it like the original in the initial in the like in th \* Independent of the above sizes, we have just been informed, that Mr. Miller, of Edinburgh, has introduced another, which he estimates by the name of Rudy; it is a size between Penyl and Dianomd. Now, let us ask the experienced printer, what is the of its being mixed with either or both of the other bodies to which it is so nearly allied

Nonpareil

Colonel

La Mignione La Nonparcille La Parisienne, ou Sedanoise

6. Nonpareil Diamond

7. Pearl

# Evvocravila. . . . . 77

French Canon is confessed to have been first produced by some artizan of that nation, and employed in some work relating to the canons of the church; to which the German title. Missal, likewise alludes.

The sizes marked 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, have their names from the respective bodies, of which the depth of two m-quadrats answers to one of the double sizes. But we must here take notice, that our Double Pica falls in with what the Germans call Secunda, from which it follows, that there should be a Prima: but because we have met with no letter of that name. we conclude that Prima, being a size larger than Secunda, and happening to answer afterwards to two lines of English, Prima lest its first name, and was turned into that of Roman. Besides, that Double Pica goes in Germany by the name of Secunda. that letter is also called Text; as we cannot assign the reason for it, we shall leave it to connoisseurs to observe which of the primitive books has its text printed in that character.

Paragon is the only letter that has preserved its name, being called so by all the printing nations. Its appellation shews, that it was first cut in France: and at the same time gives us room to suppose, that the state of well-shaped letter there was at that time but indifferent; because, when Paragon happened to turn out a letter of better shape than the rest, it received the name of perfect pattern, which the word

Paragon implies.\*

<sup>\*</sup> It will probably be asked, why should we commence with Great Primer (in its own type) without giving the higher sizes ! to Great return (in its own type) without giving the higher sizes? to which we shall answer, it rarely occur that works are printed in larger type than the above body; and the width of our page being so small, would not admit of our introducing type of a larger size, without a glaring infringement upon typographical order. Yet, we must acknowledge that we consider it necessary to present our rea-ders with a view of the regular gradations of types, which will more properly appear in our spectnase.

Great Primer, in Germany, is called *Tertia*, and is therefore one of the major sizes of letter which, in the infancy of the Art, served for printing several works of consideration, and particularly the Bible; on which account it is by some called Bible Text.

English is called *Mittel* by the Germans, and *St. Augustin* by the French and Dutch; both which names might be productive of considerable argument; the word *Mittel* bear-

ing the same meaning with Middle, intimates, that the former sizes of letter were seven in number, the centre of which being English, with Prima, Secunda, and Tertia, ranging on one side, and Pica, Long Primer, and Brevier, occupying the other. As to the name of St. Augustin, as it is designated by the French and Dutch, we understand that the writings of that Father were the first works done in that size letter; but whether the first or the last have a right to claim the honour of the performance, we shall leave to the decision of others.

Pica is another letter that admits of having particular notice

taken of it, on account of its being called Cicero by the French and Germans; for as the preceding size was distinguished by the name of St. Augustin, so has this been honoured with that of Cicero, on account of the Epistles of that writer having been first done in letter of this size, in which we are not left to mere conjecture, but have tradition on our side: for, in the year 1704, it was asserted by a compositor, then upwards of seventy years of age, whose authority, though allowed to rest on hearsay evidence, deserves notice, when we consider the early period the assertion was made, and that no contradiction has prevented its belief, as well as the probable reason why founts should be named after the works for which they were first used; therefore we have only to trace

this relation two or three lives back, and we shall be brought to the time when it was considered an undoubted fact. This point ascertained, why the Pica body acquired the name of Cicero, it may open a fair field for conjecture on most of the other disputed bodies, and may enable those who feel interested in the controversy to decide whether the Germans or the French were the first who dedicated the letter of this body to the name of Cicero on the before-mentioned account.

Small Pica, being of an irregular body, takes its name here from its inferiority to Pica. But in France they assign the invention of this body of letter to Philosophie; for which, indeed, they may have their reason, considering that their Cicero and Philosophie are of one and the same face; from which we conclude, that they did not consider Small Pica

worth cutting with a face proportionable to its body; and that the cramping of Cicero to Philosophie, was done with no other view than to get in upon the former. This we venture to suggest, though we can form no idea why the Germans give this letter the name of Brevier.

Long Primer. Upon the same supposition, that some bodies of letter took their names from works in which they were first employed, we are induced to believe that the Germans gave the name of Corpus to this character, on account of their Corpus Juris being first done in this size, as it is still continued in that letter; but whether Garmond is the name of the author, or what signification else it bears, we have no items of. In contradistinction of the French Gros Romain, they call this size letter Petit Romain, conformable to the distinction that is made between Great Primer and Long Primer in England.

Burgeois is a letter of an irregular body, and has hitherto been received accordingly. By its name it seems to have first come from France, having been dedicated to the master printers there. Gaillarde is a letter of the same body, but has the face of Petit Romain.

# Typographia....83

Brevier takes its name from being first used for the Breviary, a Roman Catholic Churchbook, which is commonly printed in this character. It is also called Petit; and Jungfer, or Maiden Letter, by the Germans, on account of its comeliness.

Why this letter was denominated Minion, we have not yet been informed; probably it was held in great estimation on its first introduction, and consequently received the title of [Darling] Minion.

Little can be observed with respect to this character: why it received the name of Nonpareil no one has yet ventured to investigate, it is therefore most probable that the appellation was given on account of its extraordinary smallness in proportion to those letters at that time in general use.

With respect to this size we are left in the same situation as the last-menthoned, consequently we shall again renture at a suggestion for the name which it has received: it is probable that the success of the foregoing induced the founders to attempt cutting another letter upon a smaller body; and as this was, undoubtedly, a greater advance to perfection, it, of course, was designated Pearl.

Even the minteness of the type just mentioned, did not deter the founder from attempting one upon a still smaller coale, in which they have succeeded even beyond the most surgius expectation, for which they are just positive to great even the state of the value. We are of opinion that their efforts at further minten must have cease, naless they will undertake to furnish mankind with eyes possessing all the qualities of a magnifying glass.

It is necessary to observe, that the foregoing gradation of types, from Great Primer to Diamond inclusive, were not cast by one and the same founder; still this is not of the least consequence, when it is considered that the founders have various faces to the type of each body, consequently it would have not only been improper to have made a selection of those which might agree as to the regular gradation, but it would also have been attended with a waste of time, and an unnecessary expense; therefore we thought proper to take those which were immediately at our command.

# 84 . . . Tppographia.

THE PROPORTION WHICH ONE BODY OF LETTER
BEARS TO ANOTHER, AS TO DEPTH
AND WIDTH.

# It is a point of the ut-

tion which one body of letter bears to another; without a possession of this knowledge, he is unable to form an accurate judgment as to the size of the type most suitable for a work that is intended to be confined within a given number of sheet; neither can he form a correct opinion as to the extent of a work, unless he possess a rule whereby to guide his calculation as to the quantity of copy which the proposed type may either take in, or otherwise drive out.

Independently of the letters which are cast upon these bodies, the founders, in order to accommodate the whims and fancles of the printers, cast one sized type upon another bedy: wis. Asopartile see an Minise body, and a Minise man an Nosparetile see

# Small Pica on a Pica

and vice versa; as well as all the other sizes, either in ascending or descending order: when a large face is cost upon a small body, the intention is not only to take in, but at the same time to give the type a bold look; when

a amaller upon a larger body, the object is not only to gain in width, but also to give the page a light airy appearance.

We trust that the above contrast will furnish the reader with a pretty clear idea as to the proportion which one type bears to another, but he must keep in mind that they were not selected as being in regular gradation, but taken indiscriminately.

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# Cypographia....85

The difference between the several hodies of letter, as to depth, from Great Primer to Brevier, inclusive. •

		mmm

E E	[ E E E E			e a
Gr. Pr. Eng.		8. P. L. P.	63 - 72	60 - 75
4 - 5	63 - 70	14 15	10 - 80	64 - 80
8 10	72 80	28 30	77 - 88	65 85
12 - 15	81 90	42 45	84 - 96	72 - 90
16 20	90 100	\$6 — 60	91 - 104	76 - 95
20 - 25	99 - 110		FO - 114	80 - 100
24 - 30	~0~	84 90		****
28 - 35	Pica S. P.	98 105	L. P. Bre.	
32 40	7 - 8	1112 - 120		
36 - 45	14 - 16	126 - 135	8 - 10	
40 50	21 - 24	140 - 150	10 15	
44 - 55	28 - 32	154 - 165	16 - 20	
48 60	35 — 40	168 180	20 — 25	
<b>52</b> 65	42 - 48	~ ~ 0 ~		
56 70	49 - 56			
0	56 - 64			
Eng. Pica 9 10	70 - 80			
7 7 7 1	77 - 88			
	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •			
				108 - 96
				117 — 104
40 50	A9 113	DO - 64	56 - 10	126 - 112

<sup>•</sup> We insert the above and the following proportions, which one letter bears to another, as they stood in Smith's time; which may, in fact, be considered as something like a standard: they remained nearly in that state, with little variation, till 1800, when the double telters were generally abolished; if from which period, nothing but confusion ensued; because the founders, when they commenced cutting new founts with the round s, in order to secure the printers who purchased type from them, varied the letter both in height and depth; therefore, endless would be the task, were we to attempt to give the bearings of the types at present in use, because, as we have before observed, not only do respective founders vary, but as great a difference exists in each individual foundry.

<sup>†</sup> Mr. John Beil arst made this improvement, about 1796-6.

# 86 . . . Typographia.

The difference between the several bodies of letter, as to depth, from Brevier to Great Primer, inclusive. •  ### ### ### ### ### ### ###########				
Bur. Bre. 75 - 60 72 - 63 15 - 14 60 - 54				
112 - 126 70 - 56 64 - 56 50 50 - 45				
104 — 117 65 — 52 56 — 49 S. P. Pica 40 — 86				
30 - 103 60 - 48 48 - 42 30 - 27				
08 - 99 98 - 4* 40 - 85 06 06 20 - 18				
30 - 30 30 - 40 32 - 23 88 2- 10 - 9				
12 - 81 48 - 80 24 - 21 80 -0				
64 - 72 40 - 82 16 - 14 50 Eng Gr Pr.				
50 - 03 85 - 20 8 - 7 64 50 70 - 56				
48 - 54 30 - 24				
40 - 45 25 - 20 L.P. S.P. 40 - 48				
32 - 36 20 - 16 180 - 168 40 - 24 55 - 45				
24 - 21 13 - 14 165 - 154 82 - 20 50 - 40				
16 - 16 10 - 150 - 140 84 - 81 45 - 36				
8 - 9 5 - 4 135 - 126 16 - 14 40 - 32				
120 - 112 8 - 7 85 - 28				
Bre. L. P. Bur. L. P. 105 - 98 30 - 24				
100 - 80 112 - 98 90 - 84 Pica Eng. 25 - 20				
95 - 78 104 - 91 75 - 70 100 - 90 20 - 16				
00 - 72 06 - 94 60 - 56 00 01 - 10				

<sup>\*</sup> In the last work upon this subject, a scale was introduced for measuring the depth of letter from Great Primer to Nonpareil; this was the invention of Mr. H. Bryer, and rules for this jurpose were made by Mr. Bleuler: we should have inserted a similar scale, had we not been convinced of its inutility. If letter were cast, as it ought to be, to a mathematical standard, such a scale would be of the greatest consequence: a certain number of mis, unquestionably, should be allowed to a foot, as three barley corns to an inch: viz. Plca 72 mis, and all others in the same proportion; whereas, we now have halfs and quarters included: from such a system, what can we expect but confusion? They may vary the face of the letter as they please; but, as to height to paper and depth of body, the printers should insist upon their keeping to a true mathematical standard.

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ue let The two preceding schemes are given to point where one size of letter falls even with another, either in ascending or descending order; thus, every ninth line of English agrees with every tenth line of Pica, and so on, in the ascending order; and by reversing the scale, every ten lines of Pica occupy the same place with nine lines of English in the descending order, according to the second scheme. But because casting off copy requires more than to know how much one letter either drives out, or gets in, upon another in depth; it is, therefore, essential that we should exhibit their bearings also, in respect to width.

In order to prove what we have before advanced respecting the variations in the depth of type, we shall give an example, by inserting a line of Long Primer m's from three of the geatest founders:—

# 

The great difference in body here exhibited, not only applies to Long Primer, but also to every other size; how liable then is the founder to take a wrong mould, when casting either additions or imperfections to a found? surely a system fraught with such destruction ought to be discouraged by the whole body of printers, as detrimental to their interests.

The following scheme exhibits the proportion which one size of type bears to another in width, from Great Primer to Diamond inclusive: the limitation of each line is marked by an inverted full-point, and the number of letters contained in each is given at the end. The length of the line is divided into six parts, five four m's, and one of two m Pica.

# Does not this 'divine Art,' which has enlightened t. Does not this 'divine Art,' which has enlightene Does not this 'divine Art,' which has enlightened the wor 46 Does not this 'divine Art,' which h ... Does not this 'divine Art,' which has enlightened the world, justl Does not this 'divine Art,' which has enlightened the world, justly des

Does not this ' divine Art,' which h'm enlightened the world, justy deserve our encouragement, in preference to all other inventions! 168

Does not this 'divine Art,' which h's enlightened the world, justly deserve our encouragement, in preference as

Does not this 'divine Art,' which has enlightened the world, justly deserve Does not this 'divine Art,' which has enlightened the world, justly deserve ou Does not this 'divine Art,' when has enlightened the world, justly deserve our encouragem

\* Although we have given the above as the proportion which one size of type bears to another in width; yet it is necessary observer, that it must be then with certain limitations, became each founder has lette of every size, that will eliabet drive out or get in with others of the same body; therefore it is impossible for us to present our readers with a regular gradation of the different sizes.

This scheme is also of use in casting off copy; for if we divide the width of a manuscript into equal marts, we can more readily compute our copy, by observing how many parts are required to a line in print. The parts thereof into which we divide our copy for mensuration, ought to be suitable to the size of it; viz. wider for what is written in folio, and closer for that which is written in quarto. or in octavo. These equal parts are drawn out upon a piece of paper answering to the length of a line of writing; and having first tried how many parts of manuscript go to a line in print, we may find how many lines of writing will make even lines in print : which, when found, will make it easy to cast off for pages, forms, or sheets. And, to mention another convenience there is in dividing the lines of copy into equal parts, it will assist us in writing that varies; in which case we may allow as many parts to a line in print as we think proper. But because we do not expect that our scheme will meet with a general reception, we shall leave every one to his choice, and present another mode which is now usually adopted for casting off copy.

As this article tears so close an affinity to the casting off copy, will not be improper to intro-

duce it in the present chapter.

#### CASTING OFF COPY.

To cast off manuscript with accuracy and precision, is a task of a disagreeable nature, which requires great attention and mature deliberation. The trouble and difficulty is much encreased, when the copy is not only irregularly written (which is too frequently the case), but also abounds with interlineations, erasures, and variations in the sizes of paper. To surmount these defects the closest application and

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# 90 .... Typographia.

attention is required; yet, at times, so numerous are the alterations and additions, that they not unfrequently baffle the skill and judgment of the most experienced calculators of copy. Such an imperfect and slovenly mode of sending works to the press (which is generally attended with unpleasant consequences to all parties) cannot be too strongly deprecated by all admirers of the art.

The first thing necessary is to take a comprehensive view of the copy, and to notice whether it is written even, if it has many interlineations, &c. also the number of break lines, and whether divided into chapters and sub-heads, in order that allowance may be made for them in the calculation, so that the plan of the work may not afterwards be infringed on. These observations should be entered as a memorandum, on a separate piece of paper, to assist the memory, and save the trouble of re-examining the

manuscript.

This preparation being made, we then take that part of the copy for our calculation which comes nearest to the general tendency of the writing, and reckon the number of words contained in one line, previously counting a number of separate lines, so that the one we adopt may be fair average; we then take the number of lines in a page, and multiply the one by the other, which we again multiply by the quantity of folios the manuscript copy may contain, and thus we are put in possession of the amount of the words contained in the work, with as little loss of time, and as much accuracy as circumstances will admit; the necessary allowances should then be made for break lines, chapters, insertions, &c. according to the observations previously made on the memorandum.

If the information has been furnished, what size

# Typographia....91

letter the work is to be done in, and what the width of the page, we make our measure accordingly, and after composing a few lines of the manuscript copy, are enabled to form an opinion what number of words come into each printed line; we then take the length of our page, generally to double the number of m's contained in a single line, and multiply the one by the other, which produces the information we had previously gained from the adoption of the same mode on the manuscript page; we compare their results, and if the manuscript drives out, we multiply the print by a larger number than the last folio of the writing, and so vice versa; if the print drives out, we multiply it by a less, until we bring the number of words to agree; the multiplier on the printed calculation will shew what will be the last folio of the printed volume, which we divide into sheets according to the given size of the work, and we are then in full possession, whether it will bear to be leaded, or the chapters begin pages, &c. or whether it must be made up close, the measure widened, the page lengthened. or the size of the letter reduced.

Should the size of the page and letter be left to the opinion of the printer, with no other order than the number of sheets the work is intended to make, from following the above mode he will be enabled pretty accurately to give his directions;—but as it is necessary, on a subject like the present, to be as clear in our observations as possible, we will exemplify what has been laid down. We are supposed to have made our remarks upon the manner of the writing as directed, and we take the number of words in a line of manuscript at 20, the lines in a page at 50; we multiply 50 by 20, which will produce 1000 words in a page; we then multiply 1000

# 92....Conggraphia.

by 422, which are supposed to be the number of folios in the manuscript, and we shall find it contain 422,000 words.—The work being printed in Pica 8vo. 20 m's measure, and each line containing 10 words, each page 40 lines—the case will stand then.—

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422	} <sup>200</sup> \ 400
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422000 words in MS.	15 page

ts.

Having ascertained the number of sheets the work will make, and that number being sufficient for two volumes, they are divided accordingly. But should the author wish to have his work comprised in one volume, it is requisite to be prepared with the sized type and measure which may accord with his inclination. By referring to the preceding scale of proportions, and placing the Brevier by the side of the Pica body, we find that a page will contain sixty-two lines instead of forty, and the same difference in the width, which will be one half more than the former calculation. We therefore multiply 62 by 15 words in a line, one half added to the 10 in Pica, which will give 930 words in a page; multiply that by 454, it will produce 422,220 words: 454 will therefore be the last folio. should the volume be printed in Brevier, which will be 28 sheets and six pages. In works that are to be leaded, the calculation must be made according to the thickness of the leads in the house in which the

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work is to be printed, as they are apt to vary; suppose we take leads three to a Brevier; consequently, in a work similar to the foregoing, we should add one-third for leads, which will drive it out to 604 pages, or 37 sheets, 12 pages, this being more than a volume-generally contains; if it should be thought so, the measure may be widened and the page lengthened.

As there are two methods of casting off copy, we shall conclude this article with the one laid

down in former grammars :-

"After having made the measure for the work, we set a line of the letter that is designed for it, and take notice how much copy will come into the line in the stick. whether less or more than a line of manuscript. And as is is seldom that neither one nor the other happens, we make a mark in the copy where the line in the stick ends, and number the words that it contains. But as this is not the safest way for casting off close, we count not only the syllables but even the letters that are in a line in the stick, of which we make a memorandum, and proceed to set off a second, third, or fourth line, till a line of copy falls even with a line in the stick. And as we did to the first line in the stick, so we do to the other, marking on the manuscript the end of each line in the stick. and telling the letters in each, to see how they balance against each other. This being carefully done, we begin counting off, each time, as many lines of copy as we know will make even lines in the stick: For example, if 2 lines of copy make 3 lines in print, then 4 make 6, 6 make 9, 8 make 12, and so on, calling every two lines of copy three lines in print.

"In like manner we say, if 4 lines make 5, then 8 make 10, and so on, comparing every four lines of copy

to five lines in print.

"And in this manner we carry our calculation on as far as we have occasion, either for pages, forms, or sheets.

"The foregoing calculations are intented to serve where a line of print takes in less than a line of copy, and therefore where a line of print takes in more than a line of copy, the problem is reversed, and instead of saying, if 2 lines make 3, we say in this case, if 8 lines of copy

## 94....Cppographia.

make 2 lines in print, then 6 lines make 4, 9 make 6, 12 make 8, and so on, counting three lines of copy to make two lines in print. In this manner we may carry our calculation to what number of pages, forms, or sheets, we will, remembering always to count off as many lines of copy at once, as we have found they will make even lines in the stick. Thus, for example, if 5 lines make 7, the progression of 5 is 10, 15, 20, &c. and the progression of 7 will be 14, 21, 28, &c.

"In counting off copy after this manner, we take notice of the breaks; and where we judge that one will drive out, we intimate it by a mark of this \( \subseteq \) or this [shape; and again, where we find that a break will get in, we invert the mark thus \( \subseteq \) or thus ]. And to render these marks conspicuous to the compositor, we write them in the margin, that he may take timely notice of,

and keep his matter accordingly.

"We also take care to make proper allowance for heads to chapters, sections, paragraphs, &c. and mention in the margin what depth of lines is left for each, in case

their matter varies in quantity.

"In examining the state of the copy, we must observe whether it has abbreviations, that we may guard against them in casting off, and allow for them according to the extent of the respective words, when written out at length."

We trust that the foregoing observations upon this subject, will convey a sufficient idea as to the best mode of casting off copy; still these remarks more properly apply to regular written, as well as thoroughly revised copy. Upon this point, Smith justly observes—

"But how often one or more of these requisites are wanting, compositors can best tell; though very few will imagine, that among men of learning there should be some, who write after such a manner, that even those who live by transcribing, rather shun than crave to be employed by them: no wonder, therefore, if compositors express not the best wishes to such promoters of printing. But it is not always the capacious genius that ought to be excused for writing in too great a hurry; for sometimes those of no exuberant brains affect uncouth writing, on purpose to strengthen the common notion, that the more learned the man, the worse is his

### Cypographia....95

[kand] writing; which shews, that writing well, or bad, is but a habit with those that can write."

He then observes, that copy which is written without order or method, is of equal injury to the author as the compositor; especially if there are more than one kind of notes, in which case it frequently happens, that the text, notes, and additions, are so jumbled together, that it is with great difficulty one can be distinguished from the other: the casting off such copy is next to an impossibility. To remedy these evils, he suggests the following:—

 They choose black ink, and white paper, to write their copy on; and consider, that it contributes much to make a manuscript look fair, though it should not prove so in all other respects.

2. They fix upon the size in which they propose to write their copy, either in folio, or in quarto; because

an octavo is too soon filled.

 If the matter has marginal notes, they leave margin for them accordingly, to mark them in their proper places.

4. They do not over-charge the paper, by writing to the very edges and ragged extremities of it. but leave

room at least to mark memorandums.

5. They write the mean matter of the work on one side, viz. the right-hand side of the paper: and leave the left-hand side for bottom-notes, additions, and other incidental emendations. But some who are still better methodists in writing for the press, divide each side of the paper into two columns, filing one with text matter, and leaving the other column for insertions, alterations, notes, ôc.

6. They take care to put proper references to such places of the text as are illustrated by notes; and another of the same shape before the note that illustrates a passage.

7. They choose such marks and symbols for references as present themselves readily to the eye; such as letters and figures between parentheses, or crotchets; astrono-

mical signs, and other the like characters.

8. They use no abbreviations or contractions; and if they have accustomed themselves to any, they draw them out, and, together with their explanation, send them with the copy, to serve the compositor in setting such abbreviated words at length.

### CHAP. VI.

### ORSERVATIONS ON COMPOSING.

Being now arrived at that portion of our work which more immediately concerns the young practitioner, we deem it highly requisite to offer a few remarks on the attitude or position which it is necessary that he should acquire upon his first introduction to the department of composing.

Although this essential point has been passed over with little notice by most writers upon this subject, still (so great are the evils resulting from ill-contracted habits, which naturally keep pace with our growth), we cannot avoid pointing out a few instances of the sure consequences attendant on them. There are many persons now employed in the art, who frequently, with great justice, inveigh in strong terms against the conduct of those unto whose care they were first entrusted, for suffering them to contract those ill-becoming postures which are productive of knock knees, round shoulders. and other deformities. It is deeply to be regretted, that those who undertake so important a charge, are not better qualified to fulfil that duty: instead of suffering the tender shoot to grow wild and uncultivated, when the pruning-knife, in a gentle hand, with a little admonition, would have checked its improper growth, and trained it in a right course.

What to a learner may appear fatiguing, time and habit will render easy and familiar; and though to work with his cases on a level with his breast. may at first tire his arms, yet use will so inure him to it, that it will become afterwards equally unpleasant to work at a low frame. His perseverance in this mode must be strengthened by the reflection, that it will most effectually prevent his becoming round

# Cypographia....97

shouldered, a distinguishing mark by which compositors are in general known, especially if they are above the common stature. This method will likewise keep the body in an erect position, and prevent those effects which result from pressure on the stomach.

The standing position should be easy, with the feet not too much spart; neither should the idle habit of resting one foot on the bed of the frame be encouraged, or standing with one foot bent inwards, the certain forerunner of deformity. The head and body must be kept perfectly steady, the arms alone performing the operations of distributing and composing.

The question still remains undecided with many masters, as to the most proper part of the business that should first engage the attention of the learner without confusing his ideas; various methods are adopted, each following the mode he thinks best. Sorting pie is generally the first employment, and afterwards to set it up, which unquestionably gives the youth a strong insight into the nature of the business, makes him acquainted with the different sizes of type and the method of composing, and prepares his understanding for the comprehension of whatever direction may be given him when he is put to the case. We shall, however, follow the method generally adopted, which is that of first teaching him the nature of the cases, a knowledge easily acquired by attention.

Since the general adoption of round, in the room of long s's, many cases have been made upon a plan different from the original ones. We shall first give the old cases, then those in general use; afterwards, the late Lord Stanhope's plan; and,

lastly, those which we have adopted.

UPPER CASE.—(Upon the Old Plan.)

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Lower Case.—(Upon the Old Plan.)

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100....Cypographia.

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# Eppographia....101

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Although we have great these cases as being those most in general use, yet it is necessary to observe, as we have before remarked that they partially differ in many bouses, particularly with respect to the spaces, formerly, one or its obsuses differed from the rea, but they have now altered them to the greatest plan.

UPPER CASE.—(Upon the late Earl Stanhope's Plan.)

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Upon the late Earl Stanhope's Plan.

We beg to call the reader's particular attention to the typographical execution of the cases upon the late Earl Stanhope's plan, which, certainly, must be acknowledged a great curiosity in the art; we could expect no less from the joint abilities of his Lordship and his compositor, Mr. James Fergusson: to them time was no object, and to their united talents were added a machine peculiarly adapted for cutting rules, which had cost his Lordship an immense sum; this was on advantage not possessed by any printer. These cases, with the following remarks, were printed in one large octavo page:—

First. The nine logotypes now in use are omitted. They are proposed to be printed with separate types, thus: ff, fii, fl, fii, fl, &c. instead of ff, fi, fl, &c. instead of ff, fi, fl, &c. In 20 pages of Enfield's Speaker, (namely, from page 71 to 90, both inclusive,) those logotypes occur only 95 times, viz.

PRESENT LOGOTYPES.

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Secondly. Eight new logotypes are introduced. Their regular and frequent occurrence expedite the process of composition in a very considerable degree; for, in those same 20 pages, the new logotypes would save to the compositor no less than 3073 lifts, viz.

STANHOPE LOGOTYPES.

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Thirdly. The introduction of the new logotypes, and the great imperfection of the various existing arrangements of composing cases, have caused the above new and very superior arrangement to be adopted.

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# Cppographia....105

Fourthly. The front side of each box of the lower case is made sloping, instead of upright; which shape is convenient both to the view and to the hand of the compositor, and it enables him to lift the types with the same rapidity and ease when the boxes are nearly empty as when they are full. The types are much better preserved from wear, by means of this shape. It also allows the lower case to be made deeper than usual; so that, two of them contain as much as three lower cases on the old construction. At the bottom of each box of the upper case, the internal front arras is filled up.

The saving of time is of immense importance, especially in all cases where dispatch is particularly required. The new cases are, by experience, found to save full one day out of six to

the compositor.

Fifteen boxes on the left-hand side of the upper case are represented empty. They are intended for the sorts which are sometimes used for particular works; such as, accented letters, mathematical marks, &c.

As the asterisk, or star, [•] is very liable to be filled with ink at press, it is intentionally excluded from among the reference marks.

With all due deference to the great abilities of the late Lord S. and for whose bright talents no person could entertain a higher respect, yet, in this particular instance, we must beg to dissent from him: we feel persuaded, that his Lordship would not have presented these transmogrified cases as an improvement, if he had been possessed of a real practical, instead of a theoretical, knowledge of the art. In our humble judgments, even the old cases are far superior—they undoubtedly possessed much greater advantages; for instance, the apostrophe is nearer to the d and s, not thrown under hand in the

left corner; the v and w. whose stations were near the composing-stick, are placed in the right hand corner, and the semicolon is, unnecessarily, brought two removes from its old situation. We cannot see any advantage gained by the transposition of the f, y, h, i, s, p, and y, they unquestionably possessed stations equally advantageous upon the old plan. What greater proof of his Lordship's want of practical knowledge, than in his recommendation of the mixture of spaces? such an idea is condemned by all experienced printers. With respect to the logotypes, we discountenance them in toto, as we shall shortly explain. The re-arrangement of the capitals are not attended with the advantages which he anticipated; his idea was, that the A. B. C. &c. in the first row, are in greater request than the other capitals: now, we will ask, is not the T as frequently used as the A, or any other capital letter? and does not the P. R. S. W, as often occur, as most of the capitals of the alphabet? besides, even admitting it to be otherwise, is it not more natural that they should follow in regular succession, rather than run in a backward direction? Again, what greater impropriety, than that of placing the capitals and small capitals in an angular direction? Must it not tend to confuse a compositor, when he has to reach near double the distance for a small capital, that he has for a capital? The figures, instead of running from left to right (the most natural course), are placed in an ascending direction; surely they ought to follow in the same way as the capitals? Are the braces, by being brought near the hand, considered to occur more frequently than the dashes? So much for his Lordship's improvement of the cases !

We shall now offer a few observations upon the remarks of his Lordship:—first, he intended to

# Cppographia....107

discard the double letters and diphthongs; to accomplish which he proposes to cramp the beak of the f, by which means he destroys its comely look, and, gives it every appearance of a battered letter! If the diphthongs are to be thrown aside, how is the printer to manage with respect to Latin works, and particular words, in which they are indispensible?

Secondly. His Lordship here gives one example (probably selected) of the frequent occurrence of his eight logotypes, in which he states the immense saving to the compositor; \* in this, again, we must beg leave to differ, because our experience tells us otherwise: even admitting it to its fullest extent, would the printer study his own interest by their adoption? would not the injury of one letter be the loss of two? where, then, would be the saving?

Thirdly. He next dwells upon the advantages of the logotypes and his improved cases, in preference to the old mode; this we have answered.

Fourthly. He then explains the nature of his improved cases, which are not only intended to contain more letter, but also to save it from wear; the cases may possess these advantages, but would they counterbalance the extra expense? the cases upon the present plan are found to contain sufficient, and what necessity is there for encreasing them?

We should be glad to know where they have been proved, "by experience, to save full one day

out of six to the compositor?"

The spare boxes on the left-hand side evince his Lordship's want of practical knowledge; the compositor must lose a considerable time in the removal of the sorts, besides their liability to injury: and would not this system greatly tend to create pie?

This logo system was once attempted at the Times office, but soon abandoned; it was found that the hands could get through more work by the old process, than by the proposed improvement.

108....Cppographia.

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UPPER CASE .-- ( Upon J. Johnson's Plan.)

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Tresaranhia....109

the chemes of our cases for the approbation of the members of the Typographic Art. This arrangement first took place when we call our purpless for a private purpose), at Lee Princy, in Kent, in 1813, since which they have been acknowledged in London, and their very great superiority has been acknowledged by all those compast ons who have butherful occur and the transfer and we trust that their opinious will be further confirmed by It is not upon a theoretical opinion, but from practical experience, that we have here presumed to offer he following remarks: -

# 110 . . . . Typographia.

By introducing the present [improved] schemes of our cases, we do not flatter ourselves that the plan will meet with even a partial, much less a general adoption. So powerful are the effects of prejudice in favour of old customs, that we are fully persuaded many would raise their voices against us, even though they should partially acknowledge the great advantages to be derived, both by the employer and the employed, from their adoption. We are far from imagining that the hints, which we have here ventured to suggest, respecting our arrangement of the types, is all that could possibly be wished, yet we feel pleasure in having advanced one step out of the beaten track, while journeying to the summit of perfection; therefore, we shall now leave the remainder of the task to be executed by more able hands.

It now becomes necessary that we should point out a few of the advantages resulting from the adoption of our cases, in doing which we shall not side with either party, being fully convinced, from their interests being so reciprocally blended together, that it is impossible for one party to receive a benefit without the other participating in it.

That we may not be charged with too great boldness in making the above assertion, we shall now instance a few examples, in confirmation of that doctrine: First—It will be seen, by a reference to the schemes of the old cases, that there are no compartments allotted for any of the following sorts: viz. superior letters, longs and shorts, middles and corners for braces, m and n rules, m and dotted rules, braces, fractions, \$\psi\$, \$\psi\$, and \$\psi\$, and \$\psi\$, these most useful and valuable sorts were always lodged in separate cases, and the compositor is obligated to quit his frame, whenever such sorts occur in the

## Typographia....111

course of his work: it most frequently happens, particularly in large establishments, that such extra cases do not remain for any length of time in the same situation, consequently, the compositor has the disagreeable task of searching for them imposed upon him; this is most commonly attended with a very considerable loss of time: but, what is still worse, after having at length obtained the object of his solicitude, to his great mortification, he finds it entirely stript of those very sorts in which he stands most in need. He then applies to the overseer, and informs him of his wants; when he very properly receives for answer, that such sorts must then be in the house, as they were recently used in such a particular work; he is then brought to this alternative, he must either search for them amongst the pie in the other cases, or, what is still worse, he must turn for them, in which case it not unfrequently happens, before his proof can go out, that he is requested to look for them again; the employer being unwilling to re-cast such materials, from a conviction that he once had them. At length, a considerable delay having occurred, the author becomes importunate and urges the printer, who is then necessitated either to cast or borrow them.

Secondly—In consequence of the above want of sorts, three parties are injured; namely, the author suffers a delay in the production of his work; the printer has his business retarded; and the poor compositor, who is least of all able to bear the burthen, has his valuable time unnecessarily frittered away! It will possibly he asked, what we conceive to be the origin of this evil? we can answer this question without the least hesitation—upon the present plan of the cases we can point out no remedy for the disease; it ever must occur, while any of the

## 112.... Typographia.

boxes remain unoccupied: it is well known, that there are some compositors who will not stir out of their frames to convey to their proper stations, such extra sorts as may occur in the course of their distribution, consequently, they are thrown into the spare boxes; and it not unfrequently happens, even with the most careful, that such letters or words, which do not immediately belong to the case into which they are distributing, are placed for the moment in the vacant boxes, when, even by a shake of the frame or any trifling accident they get thrown down, it is a great chance if they are thought of more. The next person who uses the cases may do the same, or even worse, and thus the most valuable sorts become buried. Would it be reasonable to expect that a compositor, for the use of a pair of cases for a short period, should lose his time to clean them after another? By having the cases laid according to our plan, with every box filled with useful sorts, the compositor would find his advantage in keeping them clean; thus are their interest reciprocal, because the employer not only saves his money and forwards his business, but also the compositor the disagreeable labour and loss of his precious time.

It requires no argument to prove, that the shorter the distance the fingers have to reach, the sooner they grasp their object; consequently, those letters most in request cannot be brought too near the hand. Some may consider the distance from one box to another too trifling to demand our notice; so it really is, in an abstract point of view; but when that space, however short, is multiplied by the number of times which the hand has to travetse over the case in the course of one day, much less a week, it would make this comparative trifle amount to a space almost beyond credibility.

### Copporantia....113

First.—The transposition of the capitals and small capitals, from the higher to the lower compartments of the upper case, can scarcely be considered an alteration, although it is attended with considerable advantage, because we have not broke in upon their regular alphabetical arrangement.

Secondly—The introduction of the figures into the lower case, we feel persuaded, will meet with general approbation; although we are aware that some may raise an objection to our curtailment of the lower case e box, still in this instance it was indispensible: but all such objections can be very easily answered. It is well known that spaces must be removed when the case is filled beyond what the general boxes will moderately contain—and how much more trouble would it be at the same time, to take out a handful of e's, and place them upon a piece of paper under the frame? this, almost a momentary business, is all the labour that would be required to surmount every obstacle which might possibly be advanced on that score.

Distribly—By dividing the three higher tiers of boxes in the upper case, we gain compartments over the small capitals for the whole of the accents, including both longs and shorts—for two, three, and four m braces, the six references, and the three first fractions. Over the capitals we have room for a complete fount of superior letters, middles and corners for braces, m and n metal rules, m and n dotted rules, df, fb, £, and ; likewise the diphthongs, at and a:—by dividing the two boxes following the capital Z, we not only provide for the parenthesis and crotchet, but also the small z, and \$; the removal of the z has made room for the k in the lower case, to which it more properly belongs, from its frequent occurrence. It will be observed, that by

# 114 . . . . Typographia.

dividing the two boxes between the small capitals, z and j, we make room for the capital and small capital diphthongs—thus, every box being supplied with useful sorts, the former receptacles for pie are

no longer to be found.

Fourthly-The boxes in the lower case formerly appropriated for the v, x, z, are thrown into one. in which we have placed the u: the t is removed into the old station of the u; the t box is separated into three compartments, for the purpose of containing the middle, thin, and hair spaces :- the double fli and fil boxes are made one, into which are deposited the v-the fli box receives the q, which is removed nearer to the u, because the latter always follows the former—the old & box admits the x, and the k occupies the vacant a box -- the fli and fll are lodged in the old if and fi boxes-the points are removed one degree to the right, that is, the semicolon takes the place of the discarded fl-and the apostrophe and i are deposited over the s box :- thus we have completely filled every box of the lower case.

Having briefly explained the few alterations which we have thought proper to make in the arrangement of the cases, in proof of which we beg leave to offer some further remarks respecting the disposition of the various spaces. It will be seen, that when the long s, &c. were used, only one of the quarter boxes was allotted for middle, thin, and hair spaces, which were placed in the upper case; so that, admitting it to have been capacious enough to contain them, the compositor was obliged to reach over the lower case with every space, when justifying his lines: this, unquestionably, occasioned considerable delay; to remedy which, on the abolition of the long s, &c. each compositor suited his particular fancy, by putting them in one

## Typographia....115

or other of the spare boxes; yet this only partially remedied the evil, because the spaces were still distant from each other, whereas they ought to have been close together to be of real advantage. Considering the number of times which a compositor has to change his spaces in the course of only one day, and that, for every one of them his hand must cross the case in different directions, because they are laid in a triangular form, this must strike even a casual beholder, much less a practical printer, as being attended with a very considerable unnecessary waste of time. There are compositors, particularly many of those employed upon newspapers, who accustom themselves to distribute nearly the whole of their spaces into one box-by this mode they consider that time is saved in composing; well it may, when they pay little or no regard to even spacing-to such men, no distinction of spaces are known, thick, middle, thin, hair, and even n quadrats, are indiscriminately jumbled together, and whichever happens to lie uppermost goes first into the composingstick, and this is probably followed by one of a much smaller size; should these spaces fill out the line, he proceeds on, if not he changes a few of them, these he has to search for out of the general vortex: such a slovenly practise cannot be too strongly reprobated. The bringing all the spaces close together, under the hand, is, of itself, sufficient to guarantee any other alterations which we may think proper to make, even admitting that such alterations fell short of the advantages which we had before anticipated. It is upon this score that we rest our claim to indulgence, for having presumed to set up our humble ideas, in opposition not only to the present printers, but also to those deceased worthies from whom we derived our knowledge of the Art.

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116....Cppographia.

IMPROVED FOUNT UPPER CASE.

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IMPROVED FOUNT LOWER CASE.

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### 118 .... Typographia.

### LAYING OF CASES.

THIS process consists in filling the cases with the respective sorts contained in a new fount of letter.

After having ascertained the weight of the fount, and provided ourselves with a sufficient number of cases and a fount case, we begin to lay the letter, filling each box moderately (including the fount case) with its proper sort; after which we deposit the remainder in coffins, when they are either put in baskets, or placed in some convenient place till they may be wanted.

It is confidently hoped, that the plan of the fount cases here presented will be received as an improvement, in preference to the old ones: the principal fault in the latter consisted in their being made too deep for their width, thereby reudering it difficult, and in some instances almost impossible, for a man to take out the sorts from the small boxes,

and particularly when near the bottom.

By making fount cases longer and wider, the boxes are enlarged, and as spaces and quadrats are kept in drawers, and the long s being now generally discarded, the parts allotted to their use may be

otherwise appropriated.

The capital fount cases are differently constructed; it but seldom occurs that either small capitals or accented letters require more room than the common cases supply, therefore it is only necessary to provide for the capitals and figures; consequently the boxes may be made larger, by which means they will not only contain more letters, but the sorts can be more readily taken out.

As new letter is very liable to stick, after having been wetted, it would be advisable to sprinkle it with a little strong soap water, which would greatly tend to prevent such unpleasant consequences.

# Typographia....119

#### DISTRIBUTING.

DISTRIBUTING, or conveying the different sorts of letter to their respective compartments, is generally the first of a compositor's practical exercise: though it would be found more advantageous to master and to man, were this custom sometimes reversed, and composing made antecedent to distributing, which depends upon a perfect knowledge of what is contained in each of the different boxes in a pair of cases. But as the arrangement of sorts differs, in some degree, in almost every printingoffice. it follows, that such irregularities must have their effects accordingly; of which we do not want for instances. The first that offers itself to our observation, is the loss which a compositor sustains every time he changes his place of work; for, being unacquainted with the situation of each sort, he is hindered, for some time, in his quick and ready way of distributing, which might be easily prevented, were establishers of new houses to follow one uniform method.

Other evils result from this want of uniformity, which, as we have before observed, equally affect both the employer and the employed. Some compositors, rather than charge their memory with the different situations of particular sorts, transpose them into such boxes as contained them at their last place of work, consequently the situation of the letters, in that Roman case at least, is destroyed, and the transposed sorts not being replaced, the boxes become receptacles for pie; for the right sorts being distributed at the top, the undermost are rendered useless, because they are not expected to lodge in quarters that were not assigned them; therefore, if the hidden sorts happen to run short, they must be re-cast.

# 120 . . . . Tppographia.

It would be the means of preserving a clean pair of cases, were they filled and provided with letter for a new compositor to begin his work upon, that by composing first, he might become acquainted with the contents of his boxes, and be better prepared for distribution; but as few compositors feel inclined to quit the beaten track, and as a difficulty would occur in compelling them to leave the cases as they found them, or if they did leave them full of letter, might distribute it carelessly, knowing they would not have to set it out again, the evil might be

still far from being remedied.

To make a young apprentice the sooner fit for distributing, he should be informed that there are some letters that resemble others, and at the same time be shewn how to distinguish one from another; viz. b from q, d from p, l from I, n from u, &c. And in order to prove whether he has acquired a perfect knowledge of the distinction between such letters as have a similarity to each other, let the young compositor distribute a handful of broken matter into an empty case, and if, upon examination, the before-mentioned sorts are found in their proper boxes, he may be trusted to distribute for himself. But before he proceeds, he should be cautioned not to take up too much matter at a time, for, should he break his handful, he will have the less pie to clear. Even to those who are not likely often to meet with this accident, the caution is not unnecessary, as too great a weight weakens the wrist, and it is a mistaken notion that it saves time, for if one handful fall into the case, it will be more than equivalent to the time gained. When the accident does take place, the pie should be cleared away before any thing else is done.

In taking up a handful, the head of the page

should be towards the distributor, which prevents the trouble as well as danger of turning it round, in order to have the nick uppermost. So much matter only should be taken up at a time, as can be conveniently held in the left hand, and not to be higher than the thumb, which guards the ends of the lines from falling.

He should be careful not to throw the letters into the case with their face downwards, as it batters them; neither should he distribute his case

too full, for it invariably creates pie.

He should not be impatient to acquire a quick method at first; his principal study should be propriety, though his progress be slow; that attained, expedition will follow from practise, and he will find his advantage in composing from a clean case, though he may be longer in distributing it. A man loses double the time in correcting, that he imagines he saves from quick distribution.

With many compositors much time is unnecessarily lost in looking at the word before they distribute it. By proper attention, the learner may avoid this, and become, without the appearance of hurry, an expeditious as well as a clean distributor. To attain which, we would recommend him never to take more letter between his fingers than he can conveniently hold, and if possible, always to take an entire word; to keep his handful on an inclining position, so that the face of the letter may come more immediately under his eye. By proper attention and practise he will become so completely acquainted with the heard or beak of the type, as to know the meaning of the word he takes from his handful, with the cursory view he may have of it while in the act of lifting it.

It is to this method that so many in the business

# 122 ... Cppographia.

are indebted for their expedition and cleamess in distribution; though to an observer the movement of their hands appears but slow. It is not to velocity of movement that compositors are indebted for their expedition, either in composing or distributing,—it is to system, without which their attempts may have the appearance of expedition, but produce only fatigue from anxiety and false motion. Therefore, to system we would particularly call their attention, and as clean distribution produces clean composition, which not only saves time at the stone, but acquires them a respectable name, they cannot be too attentive to that part of their business.

Another material point, before distributing, is the well-laying up of the form. In this particular many compositors are shamefully remiss, and from this negligence arise inconveniences that lose more time than if they had taken the first trouble, besides the

unpleasantness of working with dirty letter.

The letter-board should always be kept clean, and the bottom as well as the face of the form well washed before it is laid on the board and unlocked, for if any of the dirt remain from the lie brush after it is unlocked, it will sink into the matter instead of running off. This precaution taken, the pages should be well opened, and the whole form washed till the water appears to run from it in a clean state. A form cannot be well laid up without plenty of water. If the form appears particularly dirty, it is best to lock it up again, which works out the filth; then rinse the bottom of it, and proceed as before. The letter once washed perfectly clean, by care may be kept so afterwards with little trouble.

Many compositors keep a piece of alum in their cases, in order to contract the grain of the skin of their fingers when distributing slippery letter; this is a declaration of their want of cleanliness, for had they washed their letter properly, it would not be slippery.

It is sometimes necessary to dry the letter at the fire after distributing; it is particularly recommended not to use the letter after it is in this way dried till it is perfectly cold, as very pernicious effects arise from the antimony, which the heat of the fire brings into action, when joined to the tender particles of the skin. It is always better, where it can be conveniently managed, to distribute at night, or before meals, so that the letter may dry gradually.

Before we close this article, we beg to make an observation respecting the loss which compositors sustain from their not keeping Italic cases well supplied with letter; there are some men who would compose to the last letter out of the Italic case, and not think of distributing a word in; and that too, when they have Italic by them (out of their distribution), which it is their daty to put into the case; instead of which it is hoarded up, until they have got sufficient to make a piece for papering up. To remedy this evil, and place all men upon the same footing, we recommend to employers, or overseers, not to paper up Italic matter, but to insist upon its being distributed by the person who composed it: we are aware that objections may be raised against this mode, for instance, when matter is cleared away which is interlarded with the above, it would be extremely hard to compel a man to take out such words; that is not our intention, we mean whole lines, or batches of Italic, the rest may be papered up; and should the person who composed it remain in the house when the letter is again distributed, then such Italic should be turned over to him, when he will be able to fulfil his duty without any unne-

## 124 . . . . Cppographia.

cessary labour; should the compositor have quitted the situation, then it ought to be replaced by some one on the establishment; if this plan were adopted, the compositor would have no occasion to search for the person who has charge of the letter, in order to obtain a small piece of Italic matter (possibly he. has only a few words to compose), which must be distributed into empty, dirty cases, as few men will give themselves the trouble of blowing a pair cases for such trifles; therefore he has the disagreeable task of grubbing it out of the dirt at the bottom of the cases: how must such matter stand? and this very probably happens when a job is in a particular hurry; consequently it is not only a loss to the compositor, but a delay to the employer-here is another convincing proof that their interests are reciprocally blended together.\*

### COMPOSING.

COMPOSING is a term which includes several exercises, as well of the mind as the body; for when we are said to compose, we are at the same time engaged in reading and spelling what we are composing, as well as in taking care to space and to justify our matter. But that we may observe some method in our remarks, we will begin with what immediately precedes it.

When the copy of a work is put into the hands of the compositor, he should receive directions re-

<sup>•</sup> It is our utmost wish, in whatever we may advance, that it be considered as our impartial and unbiased opinions: therefore, the considered as our impartial and unbiased opinions: therefore, the considered as observe, that it would be unjust on expect men to district the constant of the compelled to distribute it after composing, in which case they would make all the sacrifice; it ought to be done by some one upon the establishment; the employer being best able to bear the loss in the first instance, in consideration of the advantages which he may afterwards receive.

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specting the width and length of the page; whether it is to be leaded, and with white lines between the breaks; and whether any particular method is to be followed in the punctuation and in the adoption of capitals. These instructions being given, the compositor will make his measure to the number of Pica m's directed, which is done by laying them flat-ways in the composing stick, and then screwing it up, not too tight, as that is apt to strain it, nor so slack as to allow the measure to give. He then fits a setting rule to the measure, and his case being supplied with letter, he is prepared for composing.

If the copy he is to begin on he a re-print, he will observe whether there he any difference between the type he is about to use and the copy, so that his spacing may not be affected, against which he must take the necessary precautions at the time, by widening or lessening his measure, if solid matter, or driving out or getting in each paragraph, if leaded. He should select a close spaced line from the copy, which will at once prove if there be any

variation.

It is necessary to observe, that all measures are made to Pica m's, though the work may be printed in a different sized type; and that all leads &c. are cast to m's of the above body: which regular standard is not only acknowledged and abided by in England, but also in every part of Europe.

It requires little argument to prove the advantages resulting to all parties from the adoption of a regular standard; because the employer has no occasion to east leads to every size, for, by means of piece leads he is enabled to make all measures, and they particularly assist the compositor when setting jobs, &c.—The following Table will shew, with how few sizes most measures can be made:—

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Table, exhibiting a combination of leads, from eleven m's to fifty, with only three pieces, and from fifty to one hundred, with only six pieces in a line.

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Being now provided with a case of letter, and all the requisites for composing, we examine the copy, to ascertain if it be written fair and legible, and spelled and pointed according to the modern way. Upon this subject Smith thus remarks:—

"If therefore it happens that the copy turns out to our liking, we wish the work to last long; whereas if it proves otherwise, we are glad to have done with it, especially if the author should chance to be a humourous gentleman, and unacquainted with the nature of printing; for them a compositor is obliged to conform to the fancy of his author, and sometimes to huddle his work up in such a manner as exposes both him and his master; whereas the gentleman that pursues the elaboration of his plan, and leaves the gracing of his work to the judgment of the printer, seldom finds room to be dissatisfied upon that score.

"By the laws of printing, indeed, a compositor should abide by his copy, and not vary from it, that he may clear himself, in case he should be charged with having made a fault. But this good law is now looked upon as ohsolete, and most authors expect the printer to spell, point, and digest their copy, that it may be intelligible and significant to the reader; which is what a compositor and the corrector jointly have regard to, in works of their own language, else many good books would be laid aside, because it would require as much patience to read them, as books did when no points or netations were used; and when nothing but a close attention to

the sense made the subject intelligible.

"Pointing, therefore, as well as spelling and methodizing some authors' copies being now become part of a compositor's business, it shows how necessary it is for master printers to be deliberate in chusing apprentices for the case, and not to fix upon any but such as have either had a liberal education, or at least ure perfect in uriting and reading their own language, besides having a taste of Latin, and some notion of Greek and Hebrew; and, withat, discover a genius that is capable of being cultivated and improved in such knowledge as contributes to exercise the Art with address and judgment. Had this been always the aim and object of the planters and nurses of our art, printing would make a more respectable figure, and be more distinguished

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from mechanical business. But the hopes of gaining by apprentices, makes some (master) printers not concern themselves about capacity, but are contented with a lad that can read in the Bible, whom they think sufficiently qualified to compose street pamyhlets and halfpenny volumes. In the mean time the young man injured: for, being out of his time, he is thrust upon the trade, empty and ignorant of what is required of a good workman."

A most pernicious and destructive system has, of late years, crept into the profession; we allude to the practise of taking out-door apprentices, which is most commonly fraught with evil conse-quences, of which we have had numerous examples. How, let us ask, can it possibly be otherwise, when a master fills his house with out-door apprentices? It is well known that one scabby sheep will infect a whole flock: and is it not a fair conclusion, that, amongst a number of boys, one, or even more, may be of loose habits? Still, looking at the favourable side of the picture, we will admit them all to be good for a time, but when they are left to themselves, as they consequently must be where there are few men, it being impossible that a master's eye can be continually observing them; and admitting that there should be one or two men, can it be expected they will take any pains or charge of them, when they have not the least interest at stake! In such cases, we have found that the boys are not regularly initiated by men, but an elder boy takes a junior under his care: we have seen instances, in which the instructor has known very little more than the first rudiments of the art. Such bringings up has been very properly termed 'running upon the warren;' and as bos are naturally prone to idleness, and not having sufficient examples of industry daily before their eyes, little good can reasonably be expected from them, longer than the coercive rod hangs suspended over their heads; this may check and restrain them while under the master's care, but when turned out at meals, or at night, they then give full vent to those boyish foibles, which naturally increase with their years; added to this (and truly lamentable is the case), they have frequently such a stimulus to wrong, by the pernicious examples of those with whom they associate, that they are led imperceptibly, step by step, till completely involved in a vortex of crimes, which frequently terminate in an ignominions end, of which the Old Bailey Calendar furnishes but too many dreadful examples. To the system of taking out-door apprentices, areasun examples. To the system of taking out-door apprentices, and the mode of bringing them up, must be attributed most of those scenes of early depravity which are daily to be wincessed in the metropolis. This can never be prevented while out-door apprentices are taken in such hosis, and who have scarce any check upon their early conduct. They should be placed under men, and the number of the latter ought greatly to preponderate; if this were the case, a man would feel it his duty to keep a watchful eye upon the future actions of his early charge, even after he is supposed to have done with him. We differ in opinion with those masters, who imagine that they ultimately gain by the employment of apprentices only: if the trouble and anxiety of mind, and the consequent destruction of materials are taken into account, the balance would not preponderate so strongly in the master's favour; but

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Having taken particular notice of the state of the copy, and received directions respecting the method to be adopted in the execution of it, he then commences his work. It will not be improper to point out in this place, what we have before observed, that an ill habit once acquired, is with great difficulty shaken off-truly ludicrous are the attitudes and motions exhibited by some compositors, while performing the operation of composing; such as, nodding the head, agitating the body, throwing out the arm, ticking the letter against the case or the setting-rule, with numerous other false movements, which not only lose time, but fatigue the mind, and exhaust the body. The swift movement of the hand is not always a just criterion of the quick progress of a compositor. In proof of which, the following anecdote is given :-

"A gentleman, some few years back, not a professed printer, though the proprietor of an extensive concern, gave orders to his overseer to discharge a compositor who had not the appearance of moving his arm so quick as others in the office with him; but his overseer was able to convince him that this man was not only the neatest, but the most expeditious, and consequently the most valuable, man in his employ."

The left hand, which contains the composing stick, should always follow the right, which takes up the letters. If the former be kept stationary,

they seldom look at the waste of letter, paper, and the readers' time, althdugh they are of the greatest moment. Again, when such boys are out of their time, how hard is it for good workmen to be burtherned with them for companions, in which case they must either assist their defects, or be retarded in their own progress. In our numer their constant to the desired the state of th

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considerable time is lost in bringing each letter to the stick, because the latter would, consequently, have to traverse a much greater space than is necessary: the eye should instantly precede the hand, being steadily fixed upon that particular letter which lies with the nick from you, which should be taken up by the upper part; this would effectually prevent any false motion, and preclude the necessity of turning the letters when in the hand. A sentence of the copy should be taken, if possible, at one time, and while putting in the point and space which concludes that sentence, the eye is at full liberty to revert again to the copy, for a fresh one. perfection in this particular, that those compositors who are so much admired in the profession, are indebted for their swiftness. The time thus gained is very considerable, without the least appearance of bustle or fatigue. By their taking a sentence into the memory at one time, they preserve the connexion of the subject, which renders the punctuation less difficult.

The compositor, from habit, becomes so well acquainted with the peculiar feel of each type, that he can generally detect a wrong letter without looking at the face. Those who are careful in their distribution, find the advantage of it in composition. What greater disgrace can attach to a compositor, than being denominated a foul or slovenly workman? To avoid this stigma, he should use his earnest endeavour; it would even be better that he should read every line as he composes it, than to lose so much of his time at the stone, independent of the disgrace just mentioned. If he accustom himself to glance his eye over each line, as he justifies it, he will find it turn greatly to his account, without the least impediment to his usual progress.

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Uniformity in spacing, unquestionably, is a most important part of the compositor's occupation; this requires both care and judgment, and, therefore, cannot be too strongly impressed upon the mind of the young beginner. Close spacing is equally unpleasant to the sight as wide spacing, and ought never to be permitted, except in very parrow measures; and frequently, even then, with care it might partly be prevented. What is commonly called the composing space, is the best and proper separation between each word; though this rule cannot always be adhered to in narrow measures. when large type is used. It is not merely necessary to have a line here and there uniformly spaced-a careful compositor evinces an anxiety to give every page that uniformity of appearance, in which consists one of its chiefest excellencies. Careless and foul compositors will never preserve this most desirable uniformity; because, when their proof is crowded with corrections, the utmost possible care in rectifying those blunders, will not make the spacing regular. Therefore, we wish to impress this important maxim upon the mind of the young beginner: that it is better to do little, and to be determined to do that little well, than to be anxious to put together a great number of letters, without any regard to accuracy and uniformity. Authors, certainly, should send their copy finally corrected to the press; for when alterations and additions are made in the proof sheet, it becomes difficult, where there are few paragraphs, to make the spacing equal.

In correcting, many compositors do not over-run the matter through the stick, as they ought to do, but prefer doing it on the stone, in which case they not unfrequently hair-space, or treble space, in order either to get in or drive out a word; when,

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by over-running a line or two forward or backward, they would not only preserve uniformity, but also save considerable labour.

In a late work upon this subject, we find a mixture of all the spaces (except the hair space and n quadrat) strongly recommended, in which it is urged that it would expedite the compositor in his justification—in this instance we must differ, and shall ever contend against any advantage being

derived from so slovenly a practice.

Where a line is even spaced, and yet requires justification, the additional spaces should be put between those words in the line where it will be least observable, viz. a d and an h being perpendicular letters, will admit an addition, but not more than a middle and thin space to a thick spaced line; or, after a kerned letter, the beak of which may bear upon the top of an ascending letter, as the f and the h, i, l, &c. but not always after a kerned letter, as the f and the w, where the distance would be too conspicuous, which is one reason why an n quadrat should not always be placed after an f, as was formerly directed.

The same rule should be observed where it may be necessary to reduce the spacing of a line; less space being required after a sloping letter than a perpendicular one, the comma requires only a thick space, but the other points should have a hair space before, and an n quadrat after them, except the full point, which should have an m quadrat, as ter-

<sup>•</sup> It is well known that founders pay little or no regard as to the thickness of the points, in some founts they run very thick, and in others as thin: the former will do without any space before them; consequently, the compositor's judgment must be exercised in this particular. We recommend the founders to cast the points and division rather thin, as they would assist the compositor in his justification. While we are upon this subject, it will not be improved to remark, that we conceive the points would be improved if they were not made so tall; they ought not to exceed the height of the letter t.

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minating a sentence. Still this rule will not always hold good, it must depend entirely upon circumstances, for, should it be necessary to reduce the spacing, those spaces after the points must also be altered in the same proportion.

To such regular gradations are spaces now cast, that the compositor can urge no reasonable excuse either for bad justification or improper spacing.

Having sufficiently touched upon the above most essential points, we shall now proceed:—Should the length of the page be left to the compositor's discretion, he then sets such a number of lines as he conceives to be a proportioned page, this is generally taken at double the width; he next puts in the head and direction (if any), and cuts an exact gauge. \* This is done before he makes up the first page, as that will vary according to the different founts which are necessarily introduced.

Head-lines are generally set in small capitals of the same fount, or in italic. Capitals of letter about three sizes smaller than the body of the work, with folios of a proportionable size, have a much neater appearance than either of the foregoing. If only folios are placed at the top of the page, it is better to make use of full-faced figures, without parentheses or crotchets.

Direction-words at the bottom of the page are not now generally used; the omission of them does not injure the appearance of the work, but saves time and expense where overrunning occurs in the proof; nevertheless, in making up the page it is

A proper gauge should be made as follows:--afte rhaving marked off the length of the page, we then, with a sharp penkmife, make a light mark at the bottom of each time, commencing after the first: these marks are of the greatest service to a neat compositor, he is thereby enabled to make up his work with preater certainty and less trouble, particularly when the work consists of light matter, heads, sub-heads, quotations, &cc. &cc.

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necessary to substitute a white line for the signature, volume, &c. Also, in twelves and eighteens, two white lines should be added to the page, one for the signature, and the other for convenience in case of outs, or additions from the author; but it should be observed, that the extra white line must be allowed in the gauge of the furniture, and not cast up in the price of the page.

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Much trouble and loss of time was formerly experienced by compositors, in making up the first page of a work, when they had to introduce head-pieces and facs, formed with flowers of different bodies. This taste for flowery decoration is now exploded, and it is only necessary to set the title to the first page of the work, in a neat type, suitable to the sized letter in which the work is composed, say one, or two sizes smaller than what is intended

for the general title.

On beginning a work, the compositor should be informed what number of volumes it is intended to be comprised in, in order that he may place the number of the volume in the left hand corner of the signature line, in the first page of every sheet. The above and the signature are generally put in small capitals; and where they extend to more than one alphabet, the second one should begin, <sup>2</sup>A, <sup>2</sup>B, and so on. In our opinion the signature is much better both in appearance, and for collating, when placed within about four m's from the end of the line, than in the ceutre, according to the old custom.

The title, preface, &c. of a volume is always left till the body of the work is finished, as many circumstances may arise in the course of its progress through the press, which may induce the author to alter his original preface, date, &c. or the work may conclude in such a manner as to admit of their being

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brought in at the end, in order to complete a sheet, which may save both paper and press-work. For this reason it is customary to begin the first sheet of every work with signature B, leaving A for the title sheet. To a sheet of octavo, two signatures only are necessary, which are placed to the first and third pages; to a sheet of twelves three signatures, to the first, third, and ninth pages, thus, B, B2, B3.

In magazines, and works of that nature, printed in half sheets, figures are sometimes put instead of letters. This plan is considered to cause less confusion with the binder, particularly in works of five

or six hundred pages.

Instead of beginning the work with a two-line letter, (according to the old custom) small two-line letters have a much neater appearance; they are made to range with the beard of the letter at the bottom of the line, and to stand above it; the remainder of the word may be put either in capitals or small capitals, the latter is most preferable.

We now proceed to the second page, and set the running title in a neat letter proportioused to the size of the page; but this must be governed by the quantity of matter necessary to be introduced at the head of the page. A full line, as a running title, has a very clumsy appearance; and should, if possible be avoided. To a solid page, two leads make the usual space after the head; to a single leaded page, three leads or a Long Primer white; and to a double leaded page, a Pica white.

It has long been, and still is a practice too prevalent among compositors, to drive out a word at the close of a paragraph, or even to divide it, in order to reap the advantage of a break line. Part of a word, or a complete word in a break line, if it contain no more than three or four letters, is improper. It should be the business of the corrector, at all times, to notice this encroachment. The last line of a paragraph should not on any account begin a page, neither should the first line of a paragraph come at the bottom of a page, if the work has white lines between the breaks. To obviate which, the compositor makes his page either long or short, as most convenient, always taking care that the corresponding pages back, by which means the long or short appearance of the page escapes observation.

If the work is very open, consisting of heads, whites, &c. the compositor must be particularly attentive to their depth; so that though the white may be composed of different sized quadrats, yet that their ultimate depth shall be equal to the regular body of the type the work is done in; for unless care is taken in this particular, the register of the work must be incomplete. The pressman cannot make the lines back if the compositor is not careful

in making up his matter.

The first line of a new paragraph is indented an m quadrat, of whatever sized letter the work may be; though we prefer an m and an n in small measures, and two or even three m's when the measure runs very long, by which means the paragraph is more strongly marked; the mere indention of an meing soarcely perceptible in a long line. Authors vary very materially in the mode of making paragraphs; some carry the argument of a position to a great length, before they relieve the attention of the reader; while others break off at almost every place that will admit only of a full point. But in this case we follow the author's plan, unless, upon particular occasions, it may be necessary to multiply or reduce the breaks in the copy, if it can be done

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with propriety, in order to make the work look aniform. Authors should always make the beginning of a new paragraph conspicuous to the compositor, by indenting the first line of it far enough to distinguish it from the preceding line, in case it should be quite full.

Many hints, in addition to what have already been dropped, relative to composing, may be added for the information of learners, were we not persuaded that practice and a close attention to the mode of doing business by good workmen, will be of more service than a multiplicity of rules. the duty of the person under whose tuition an apprentice is placed, to discharge that trust with fidelity. The youth's future prospects in life depend in a great measure on the principles on which his first instructions are formed; and it is the duty of every man to correct those habits in youth which may be improper, whether arising from carelessness or any other cause. When a youth makes choice of a profession, and is aware that his future support and prospects in life must depend on a correct knowledge of that profession, he should be anxious to attain that knowledge; to withhold it, therefore, from him, or not to check him for improper habits. is both unpardonable and unjust.

After the body of the volume is completed, the contents sometimes follow next, though they belong more properly to the beginning of the work; and for this reason we shall defer speaking of them here, but introduce them in their proper place. The index is generally placed at the end of the volume, and set in letter two sizes less than that of the work; it is always begun upon an uneven page. Running titles may be set to an index, but folios are seldom put to them, unless it is to recommend the book for

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its extraordinary number of pages; for as an index does not refer to its own matter by figures, they are needless in this case. The signatures, however, are always carried on regularly to the last whole, or half sheet of the work.

It was formerly the plan to set the subject word of each article in Italio, and all the rest in Roman, indenting all the matter an m quadrat\* that makes above one line, what is technically termed—to run out and indent; but the Italio is now in a great measure exploded, it being attended with extra trouble, and at the same time destroys the general uniformity of the page.

Care should be taken that the subject words are ranged alphabetically, as it is not expected that the compositor will transpose his matter afterwards, which is attended with a considerable loss of time.

without being paid for it.

Where figures have a regular succession, a comma is put after each folio; and where their order breaks off, a full point is used. Thus, for example, after 6, 7, 8, 9, commas are put; and after 12, 16, 19. 24. full points; but to save figures and comman. the succession of the former is noticed, by putting a rule betwixt the first and last figures, thus, 4-8. Again, if an article has been collected from two pages, the folio of the second is supplied by sq. or sequente; and by sqq. or sequientibus, where an article is touched upon in succeeding pages. A full point is not put after the last figures, because it is thought that their standing at the end of a line is a sufficient stop. Neither is a comma or a full point placed to the last word of an article, in a wide measure and open matter; but it is not improper

Although it is the general custom to indent the second line one m, we always indent an m and an n, or even two m's, being of opinion that it not only looks better, but also marks it stronger.

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to use a comma at the end of every article is narrow columns, or where figures are put after the matter, instead of running them to the end of the line.

At the conclusion of the index, the volume is considered as completed, with the exception of the title, preface, &c. A compositor's first consideration, then, is in what manner the work has ended.

what number of pages the titles, &c. will make, and whether he can impose them in such a form as to save paper and presswork. To answer this purpose, a preface may be drove out or got in; or if matter is wanting, it is customary to set a half title. The method of setting or displaying a title page is governed entirely by fancy; and in this country the style, of late years, is much altered for the better, as a comparison between the title pages of the last and present century fully evince. concur in the assertion, that no fixed rules can be laid down for instruction, because it depends entirely upon the taste and ingenuity of the compositor: such being the prevalent opinion, we trust that we shall be pardoned for obtruding a few hints, which, in our judgments, may tend to assist the invenite portion of the profession. First, having divided the title into lines, and decided upon the sized type most suitable for the principal one, we begin by composing those of the second and third class, both in ascending and descending order: accondly, we avoid having two lines of equal length to follow, or come in contact with each other; this evil is frequently remedied by the introduction of a line of Black, which has generally a good effect, particularly if it happens to be a short one: thirdly, catch words should be set on a very reduced scale, and proportioned according to the strength of the

catch words are bold, they take from the general effect of the title, it being impossible that it can appear to advantage if the striking lines, which ought to stand forward, are too much crowded by the full appearance of their neighbours' faces—fourthly, this knowledge will be best attained by a close attention to those title pages which are generally considered, by those who are judges, to be displayed with true taste and judgment.

The reader will be pleased to accept the following extract from Smith, as being apposite to the

present subject :---

"For as to the title, it is a summary relation of the mean subject on which the work is founded: and though it consists but of one single page; yet to display its several members in such a manner that the whole may appear of an agreeable proportion and symmetry, is counted a masterly performance. And though setting of titles is generally governed by fancy: yet does it not follow that the excursions of every fancy should be tolerated, else too many titles would be taken to belong to chapmens' books. It is therefore proper that titles should have the revisal of one that is allowed to have a good judgment in gracing one. But to change and alter a title to the mere fancy of pretenders, is the ready way to spoil it. When, therefore, we go about a title, we consider as well the quantity as quality of our matter, that we may set out accordingly, and either branch our matter out to the best advantage, or else crowd it together by way of summaries; but which can not produce a handsome title. But where the matter for a title is so contrived that it may be divided, now into emphatical lines, and then into short summary articles, it is a compositor's fault, if his title makes no proper appearance."

We recommend to authors to consult with the printer upon the construction of their title pages—as they should neither be too long nor too short; because a crowded title can never be displayed to advantage, nor can too little matter form a handsome title; a printer must be the best judge as to what will produce what is termed, a happy title!

### Tppographia....141

The dedication generally follows the title, and seldom exceeds one page. It should be set in capitals and small capitals, displayed in the manner of a title: but where it extends to a considerable length, it is generally set in a letter two sizes larger than the work. There is neither folio nor direction line required to it, where it does not exceed a page; but if it happens to be the third page of the sheet, the signature must be inserted.

Formerly, the preface was uniformly set in Italic; at present, this plan is seldom adopted, and Roman is used in its stead, of one size larger than the body of the work. The running title to the preface is commonly set in the same manner as those of the body of the work, at the same time the folios are put in numeral letters beginning with ii over the second page, and continuing the rest in the usual manner. If the work itself was printed with folios only, then the preface should have them also in the middle of the line.

The title, dedication, preface, introduction, &co. form what is called the title sheet, viz. signature A, which makes the printer's alphabet (consisting of 23 letters) complete, provided that the body of the work begins with B. To ascertain more readily how many sheets a book consists of, more than are marked with signatures in capitals or small capitals, a lower case Roman a is put to the first sheet, and thus carried on till the beginning of the body of the work.

What has been observed concerning prefaces, relates equally to introductions, drawn up and intended to elucidate their respective works.

The contents follow the preface or introduction, and are either set in Roman or Italic, generally two size smaller than the body of the work; the first

# 142 . . . . Typographia.

line of each summary full, and the rest indented an m-quadrat, with the referring figures justified at

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the ends of the respective lines.

. The errata are put immediately before the body of the work, or at the end of it. It is most devoutly to be wished, that works could issue from the press perfectly free from errors; but we may exclaim with Pope:—

"Whoever thinks a faultless piece to see,
Thinks what ne'er was, nor is, nor e'er shall be."

Fewer mistakes would be made, were authors to endeavour to render their copy more legible, before they place it into the hands of the printer. It can hardly be expected that the corrector, under whose inspection such a variety of subjects are continually passing, should be able to enter thoroughly into every one of them, and to guess so nicely at the author's meaning when the copy is obscure, and unable to afford him any assistance.

In conclusion, the reader will be pleased to receive Smith's opinion upon this subject: he says,

"What still remains to be taken notice of, are the Errata's, which sometimes are put immediately before the body of the work, and at other times after the Finis of it. Sometimes they are put by themselves on the even side of a leaf, so as to face the title. But though this is very seldom done, it is pity that it should ever have come into the thoughts of any one to do it at all; for it is a maxim to bring Errata's into as narrow a compass as we conveniently can, and to put them in a place where they can make no great shew; since it is not to the credit of a book, to find a catalogue of its faults annexed. It is therefore wrong policy in those who make Errata's appear numerous and parading, in hopes of being thought very careful and accurate; when they only serve to witness an authors inattention at a time when he should have been of the opposite inclination. But the subterfuges that are used by writers upon this occasion, are commonly levelled at the printer, to make him the author of all that is amiss; whereas they ought to ascribe it to

#### Typographia....143

themselves: for, were gentlemen to send in their copy fairly written, and well corrected and prepared for the press, they would have no occasion to apprehend that their work would be neglected, were they to leave the whole management thereof to the printer, especially when it is written in his native language. But bad copy, not revised at all by the author, is one obstacle; and altering and changing the matter after it has been composed, is another means that obstructs the correctness of a work; not to mention the several accidents to which it is exposed before it has passed through the hands of a pressman. It would therefore be generous in gentlemen to examine the circumstances that may have occasioned an error, before they pronounce it a typographical one: for whoever has any ideas of printing, must consequently know that it is impossible to practise that art without committing errors; and that it is the province of an author to rectify them. For these several reasons it will appear how material it is not to make an erratum of every trifling fault, where the sense of a word cannot be construed to mean any thing else than what it was designed for; much less to correct the punctuation, unless where it should pervert the sense."



Behold the progress of our noble Art, See the Compositors perform their part; They seed forth new light to a distant age, And in clear print set the historic page! Recording deeds of hemour and disgrace, Which neither Are nor Time can e'er efface.

#### CHAP. VII.

#### IMPOSING.

HAVING sufficiently treated (in the preceding chapter) upon the principal subjects connected with the department of composing, it next becomes our duty not only to lay schemes of the various impositions before our readers, but also to endeavour to give a general outline for the imposition of whatever odd matter there may be at the conclusion of a work; and likewise to explain, in as clear a manner as possible, every point connected with this important branch of the art.

This article not only comprehends a knowledge of placing the pages so that they may regularly follow each other after they are printed off, and the sheet folded up, but also the mode of dressing chases, and the manner of making the proper

margin.

We will suppose that a compositor has got up as many pages as are required for a whole sheet. half sheet, or such portions of a sheet, of whatever size; after having prepared the stone for their reception, by removing any dirt or other obstruction, he begins to carry the pages from under his frame. and lay them upon the imposing stone, taking particular care to place the first page in its right position, with the signature to the left hand facing him, according to the following schemes, which, it is hoped, will be found to contain every necessary imposition; they consist c folios, quartos, octavos, twelves, sixteens, eighteens, twenties, twentyfours, thirty-twos, thirty-sixes, forties, forty-eights, sixty-fours, seventy-twos, ninety-sixes, and one hundred and twenty-eights.

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# Typographia..... 1

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<sup>+</sup> Imposing in quires may be carried on to any extent, by observing the following rule:—first, ascertain the number of pages, then divide them into so many sheets of folio, and commence laying down the two first and two last, which form the first sheet, and so no to the centre one, always remembering that the odd pages stand on the left, and the even on the right; the folios of each two forming one more than the number of pages in the work: for example, let us suppose the work to consist of thirty-six pages, which is nine sheets

#### Eppographia....\*3

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3-34 ... 33-4, second,

7-30 ... 29-8, fourth

9-28 ... 27-10, fifth,

11-26 ... 25-12, sixth,

13-21 ... 32-14 seventh,

15-22 ... 21-16, eighth,

17-20 ... 19-18, ninth.

The furniture must be reduced in the backs of the inner sheets,

to allow for stitching.

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† A Sheet of Sixteens, with Two S guatures, is imposed as two sheets of common octave, putting the first signature for the one half sheet where A stands (folio 1), and the first page of the other half sheet in the place of A 3 (folio 5.)

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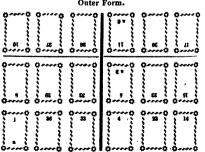
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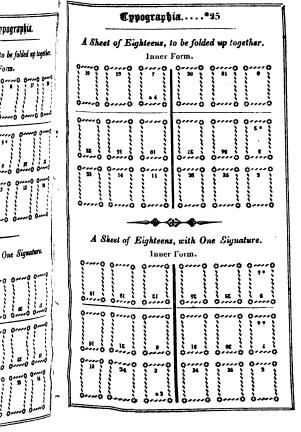
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#### •26 . . . Typographia.

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#### A Sheet of Eighteens, with Three Signatures.

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#### Typographia....\*35

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## A Sheet of Thirty-twos, with Four Signatures.

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#### •36....Cppographia.

A Half Sheet of Thirty-ti	vos, with Two Signatures.		
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A Half Sheet of Thirty-twos, 20 pages of the Work, 4 pages of Title, &c. and 8 of other matter.			
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	00000000		

1 16 13 4 3 14 16

Eyyographia•37
A Half Sheet of Thirty-sixes.
6 00 0
A Half Sheet of Thirty-sixes, without Cutting.

#### \*28....Cypographia.

#### A Half Sheet of Eighteens.

Without transposition.

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A Half Sheet of Twenties, with Two Signatures.

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# Tppographia.... \*29 Inner Form. A Sheet of Twenties. Outer Form.

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<sup>†</sup> A Sheet of Sixteens, with Two Signatures, is imposed as two sheets of common octave, putting the first signature for the one half sheet where A stands (folio 1), and the first page of the other half sheet in the place of A 3 (folio 5.)

#### Typographia.....\*23.

### A Half Sheet of Eighteens.

Containing 16 pages.

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#### A Half Sheet of Eighteens.

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#### \*24....Cypographia.

# A Sheet of Eighteens, to be folded up together. Onter Form.

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# A Sheet of Eighteens, with One Signature. Outer Form.

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#### Cypographia.....\*95

## A Sheet of Eighteens, to be folded up together. Inner Form.

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#### A Sheet of Eighteens, with One Signature.

Inner Form.

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#### \*26 . . . Cypographia.

#### A Sheet of Eighteens, with Two Signatures.

Outer Form.

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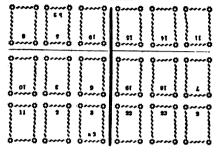
#### A Sheet of Eighteens, with Three Signatures.

Outer Form.

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#### Eppographia.... \*27

# A Sheet of Eighteens, with Two Signatures. . Inner Form.



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# A Sheet of Eighteens, with Three Signatures. Inner Form.

#### \*28....Cppegraphia.

#### A Half Sheet of Eighteens.

Without transposition.

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#### \*30....Cppographia.

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A Sheet of Twenty-fours, with Two Signatures.

#### Outer Form.

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#### Cypographia.....\*31

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A Sheet of Twenty-fours, with Two Signatures.

Inner Form.

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#### \*32.... Typographia.

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## A Half Sheet of Twenty-fours, with Two Signatures.

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## A Half Sheet of Thirty-sixes, without Cutting.

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#### Eppographia.....937

#### A Half Sheet of Thirty-sixes.

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#### Typographia.....\*39

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## \*40....Eppegraphia.

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#### Eppographia.....41

#### A Common Quarter Sheet of Forty-eights.

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#### A Quarter Sheet of Sixty-fours, with Two Signatures.

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#### \*42.... Typographia.

#### A Common Quarter Sheet of Sixty-fours.

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### Cypographia.....43

#### A Half Sheet of Sixty-fours.

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1 11 1 2 1 3 1 9 1 61 1	000000000000000000000000000000000000000
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#### \*44.... Typographia.

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#### Eppographia....191

Schemes of various other irregular sizes might have been introduced, but they could answer no other purpose than that of pleasing the fancy, by exhibiting the possibility of folding a sheet of paper into so many different forms.

In attempting to elucidate this subject, we shall not merely confine ourselves to a brief outline of it, but we shall also give a few examples of some of the sizes, which, we trust, will be fully explanatory to the junior portion of our readers:-therefore, we shall begin with a half sheet of octavo: for instance, let us suppose that we have got four pages of prefatory and four of concluding matter, they should be imposed as two quarters of a sheet, the long waysay eight of introductory and four of conclusion, these would form one half sheet and a quarter, as just noticed :--in twelves, half sheet, they should stand four and eight, or three fours (three off-outs)-if a sheet, say twenty and four, we place sixteen in the long crosses (as a sheet of octavo), and the remaining eight as two fours in the short crosses; viz. the first four would occupy the usual stations of pages 9. 10, 15, 16, and the other four would take the places assigned to 11, 12, 13, 14-if three eights, then as three off-cuts: in sixteens, half sheet, say twelve and four, they will stand thus, one half sheet of twelves without cutting, the other four in the situations of 3, 2, 15, 14; if two eights, as two half sheets of octavo-a sheet, imagine twenty and twelve, the first sixteen should be laid down as two half sheets of octavo (opened), that is, the ninth page in the place of the third in the scheme; the other four will occupy the places of pages 25, 26,7,8; and the other twelve as a half sheet of twelves, without cutting, placing the first page in the situation of 27 in the scheme :- a half sheet of eighteens, say eight and

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teh, that is, eight would form a half sheet of octavo. the other two as 9 and 10; the remaining eight should run thus, the first four supplying the stations of 11, 12, 7, 8, and the other four the places of 13, 14, 5, and 6:-- a sheet of eighteens, we will divide into sixteen, twelve, and eight; viz. the first should fill the situations of 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, as a sheet of octavo; the second in the places of 23, 24, 21, 22, 19, 20, 17, 18, 15, 16, 13, 14, a common half-sheet of twelves; the remaining eight instead of pages 9, 10, 11, 12, 25, 26, 27, 28, as two quarters of a sheet of octavo, perfected: thus far, we are of opinion, the explanation will be sufficient, because the rule for the twelves may be applied to the twenty-fours and those of the octavo and sixteens to the thirty-twos. &c. dition, we beg to observe, in order to meet the exigencies of every possible case, that all odd matter, for whatever sized form, should be divided into fours, eights, twelves, and sixteens, which is the ground-work of all the impositions, (except the eighteens, which differ from all the others); for instance, sixteens, twenty-fours, and thirty-twos, are only octavos and twelves doubled, or twice doubled. and imposed in half sheets: for example, the sixteens are two octavos imposed on one side the short cross; the twenty-fours are two twelves imposed on each side the long cross, and a thirty-twos is four octavos imposed in each quarter of the chase. Thus a sheet may be repeatedly doubled. division, any form or sheet may be imposed, always bearing in mind, that the first page of each class must stand to the left hand, when the foot of the page is towards you, and to the right when the head of the page is the nearest to you. Having set down the first page, then trace the remainder accord-

#### Tppographia....193

ing to the scheme which applies to its number; in proof of which, the standard rule for all other impositions may be adopted; namely, each two pages that come together, will make one more than the number of pages in the class, or sheet. The first page of any portion can be placed in the situation of any odd page, where they make even numbers. These examples, we trust, will prove satisfactory.

It is necessary, before we proceed any further on the subject of imposing, to make a few observations on the method of tying up a page, which is done with a piece of fine packthread, turned four or five times round it, and fastened at the right hand corner, by thrusting a moose of it between the several turnings and the matter, with a piece of brass rule, and drawing it perfectly tight: taking care, during the whole time, to keep the fore-finger of the left hand tight on the corner, to prevent the page from being drawn aside when the cord is strained.

The page being tied up, the compositor removes it pretty far from the ledges of the galley, to see if the turns of cord lie about the middle of the shank of the letter; if they lie too high, as most commonly they do, he thrusts them lower, and, if the page be not too broad, he places his fore or middle finger, or both, of his right hand, on the right side of the page, and his thumb on the left; then, bending his other fingers under the head of the page, he next places the fingers of his left hand in the same position at the foot of the page, and raising it upright, lodges it upon the inside of his fingers, under the head of the page; he then takes a page paper into the palm of his hand, and puts it against the bottom of the page, and turning his left hand outward, receives the page flat upon the paper on the palm

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of his hand; then, with his right hand be grasps the sides of the page and the paper, which turns up against the sides of the page, and sets it in a convenient spot under his frame, placing it on the left hand, with the foot towards him, that the other pages that are in like manner set down afterwards, may stand by it in an orderly succession until he comes to impose them.

If it be a large folio page, or a broadside, he has tied up, he cannot take that into his hands, because it is too broad for his grasp; therefore he carries his galley and page to the imposing stone, and turns the handle of the galley towards him, and taking hold of the handle with his right hand, he places the ball of the thumb of his left band against the inside of the head ledge of the galley, to hold it and keep it steady, and by the handle draws the slice with the page upon it, out of the galley, letting the slice rest upon the imposing stone; he then thrusts the head end of the slice so far upon it, that the foot of the page may stand an inch or two within the outer edge of the stone, and placing his left hand against the foot of the page, in the same posture he last placed it against the head ledge of the galley, he then draws the slice from under the bottom of We shall now return to our subject :---

In half sheets, all the pages belonging to the white paper, and reiteration, are imposed in one chase. So that when a sheet of paper is printed on both sides with the same form, that sheet is cut in two in the short cross, if quarto or octavo, and in the short and long cross, if twelves, and folded as octavo, or twelves.

When a compositor proceeds to impose, he carefully takes the pages (which he had previously placed on pieces of paper, in regular succes-

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sion), from under his frame: in doing this, the paper should be tightly grasped on both sides the page, in order that it may be kept firm to the bottom of the page, whereas if it should be left slack, the letters will be liable to slip out, unless it be particularly well tied up; having conveyed it to the stone, he next places the two last fingers of his right hand under the head of the page, but not under the page paper at the head of it, still grasping the sides with his fore fingers and thumb; he then slips his left hand so that the palm of it may turn towards the bottom; and lifting the page upright on his right hand, he disengages the left to remove the paper; he next grasps the foot end of the page with his left hand, in the same manner as the right holds the head of it, and turning the face of the letter towards him, lays it nimbly down, so that the whole page may come in contact with the face of the stone at one time, thereby preventing any letters from slipping out, which would endanger the breaking, squabbling, or hanging of the page.

As the foregoing method (particularly in inexperienced or careless hands) would frequently endanger a page, because, should it be large, double, or treble columns, or have side notes, it would be much safer to pursue the following plan, which is nowgenerally adopted by most compositors; namely, to provide good strong (not coarse and rough) page papers, and when the pages are brought to the stone, instead of lifting them up as just noticed, they are slided off the papers in the same manner as before directed respecting a folio page, on the slice galley.

In laying down our pages, we place them in the same order as they present themselves at the press, for turning the paper, either for octavo or twelves. And though compositors do not lay down the pages

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of some sizes in the same manner, they nevertheless make them have their right succession without em-

barrassing the pressman.

The pages for a form being put down, we follow them, and see whether the direction answers to the first word of the next following page. not trust to this in works that abound with titles and heads, where pages often have the same word for their beginning. In this case we justify the number of such pages into the direction lines, rather than run the hazard of transposing them; since it is more easy to put an n-quadrat into the room of a figure, than to rectify a mistake of that kind after the pages are untied. But in close and ordinary matter we take notice, first, whether the uneven outer pages have their proper signatures; then, whether the outside page, and the number of the page next to it, amount to one more than there are pages contained in a sheet or half sheet of our work. Thus, for example, in folio, one and four make five; in quarto, one and eight make nine; in octavo, one and sixteen make seventeen. In this manner we may examine every two pages in all other sizes, whether their joint number exceeds the number of pages in a sheet by one; which, if it does, is a proof that the pages are in their right places.

Being sure that our pages are laid down right, we proceed to dressing of chases, which we will suppose to be for a sheet of octavo. Accordingly we endeavour to come at a good pair of chases, that are fellows, as well in circumference as in other respects; and having laid them over the pages for the two different forms, we consider the largeness of the paper on which the work is to be done, and put such gutter-stick betwixt page and page, and such reglets along the sides of the two crosses, as

#### Tppographia....197

will give the book proper margins after it is bound. Having dressed the inside of our pages, we then place side and foot sticks to their outsides; being thus secured by the furniture, we next untie them, quarter after quarter, the inner page first and then the outer, at the same time forcing the letter towards the crosses, and using every precaution to prevent the pages from hanging or leaning; and in order to guard against accidents, when the quarter is untied,

we secure it with a couple of quoins.

By observing a proper method in cutting up new furniture, the same will be serviceable for other works, as well as the one for which it is intended, even though the size of the page may differ, provided it agrees with the margin of the paper. The gutters should be cut two or three lines longer than the page; the head-bolts wider; the back furniture may run down to the rim of the chase, but must be level with the top of the page, which will admit of the inner head-bolt running in; the difference of the outer head-bolt may go over the side-stick, and the gutter will then run up between them. The side stick only need to be cut exact, and the furniture will completely justify.

The pages of a sheet or half sheet being now dressed, our next business is to make the margin, or to try whether our furniture is so proportioned as that each page may occupy one side of a leaf, so as to have an equal margin of white paper left at the sides as well as at the head and foot thereof.

The method of making margin by rule, is practised by no other printing nation besides the English; and it would be in vain to persuade printers and booksellers in foreign parts to come into our measures, as to making margin; since they would disoblige the literati were they to deprive them of

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a large margin, on which to make their remaks; and as to narrow gutter-sticks in school-books and other circulating works, they are so contrived for the joint interest of the printer and proprietor.

To make proper margin, some use the following method for octavos; viz. they measure and mark the width of four pages by compasses, on a sheet of paper designed for the work, beginning to measure at one extremity of the breadth of the sheet. The rest of the paper they divide into four equal parts, allowing two-fourths for the width of two separate gntter-sticks; the remaining two-fourths they divide again into four equal parts, and allow one-fourth for the margin along each side of the short cross, and one-fourth for the margin to each outside page. But because the thickness of the short cross adds considerably to the margin, they reduce the furniture in the back accordingly, and thereby enlarge the outside margin, which requires the greatest share, to allow for the unevenness of the paper itself, as well as for pressmen laying sheets uneven, when the fault is not in the paper. Having thus made the margin between the pages to the breadth of the paper, they proportion the margin at the head, in the same manner, to the length, and accordingly measure and mark the length of two pages, dividing the rest into four parts, whereof is allowed one-fourth on each side of the long cross, and one-fourth for the margin that rans along the foot of the two ranges of pages. But though each part is counted equal to another, they do not prove so upon examination; for as in the short cross, so they lessen the furniture on both sides the long one, to enlarge the bottom margin, for the same reasons that were assigned for extending the side margin.

This being the method that is used by some in

#### Typographia....199

making margin to octavos, they go the same way to work in twelves, where their chief care is to fix upon a proper size for the head sticks, or bolts; and, according to them, allow in the following manner; viz. for the outer margin along the foot of the pages, the amount of two-thirds of the breadth of the head sticks, and the same for the inner margin, that reaches from the foot of the fifth page to the centre of the groove for the points; and from the centre of that groove to the pages of the quire, or that cut off, they allow half the bread h of the head stick. As to the margia along the long cross, it is governed by the gotter sticks; and it is common to put as much on each side of the long cross as amounts to half the breadth of the gutter stick, without deducting almost any thing for the long cross, since that makes allowance to answer the outer ma gia-exposed to the mercy of both the pressman and bookbinder.

Thus much may suffice about making margin the above way; which, though it is different from what others use, is nevertheless the basis for making proper margin. Some compositors make margin in the following manner. Having dressed their chases with suitable furniture, for octavo, they fold a sheet of the right paper to that size; then, opening it to the size of a leaf in quarto, they lay one extremity of it against the folio side of the fifteenth page, if it be an inner form, or against the folio side of the thirteenth page, if it be an outer form, to observe whether the opposite extremity of the paper, folded in quarto, reaches to and fairly covers the third, or the first page, according to the form under hand; which, if it does, proves the margin of that quarter to be right, and that the others may be adjusted to that. Having in this manner made the margin to the breadth of the paper, they proportion it to the

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#### 200 .... Typographia.

length, by trying whether the depth of the paper, folded in quarto, reaches to and fairly covers the bottom of the line of the fifteenth or of the thirteenth page, when the upper end of the paper, folded in quarto, is laid against the back of the running title of the tenth or of the twelfth page; which, if it does, proves that the margin to the length of the page is right. In making margin, we should always take care that the gutter-sticks be of a proper breadth, which may be tried by holding one end of the paper, folded in quarto, to the centre of the groove in the short cross, to observe whether the fold for octavo falls in the middle of a gutter-stick; if it should, it will prove the gutter to be correct. In this manner we may also try the margin of twelves and other sizes; for having carefully folded a sheet of the paper intended for the work, one quarter may be first dressed, and the margin adjusted before we proceed further; for if the foldings fall in the centre of the respective parts of the furniture, it proves that the margin is right throughout.

As the lessening or widening of gutter sticks is sometimes unavoidable, and withal troublesome to compositors, it would be advisable to have them composed of two or more pieces, as they could readily be extended or reduced, according to circumstances, by means of reglets, so as to answer for different sizes of paper, which would not only be found advantageous to the compositor, but it would also greatly tend to assist the pressman in making his form to register.

The chases being now dressed, and the proper margin made, nothing remains but quoining and locking up the forms. But before this is done, we cut slips of scale-boards, and put one, or sometimes more, along both sides of the long as well

#### Tppographia....201

as of the short cross; not on account of enlarging the margin, but to supply the inequality of one cross to another, and to assist the pressman in making register; for though we find some so very nice, as to fancy here a thin scaleboard too much, and there one too little, it amounts to no more than mere imagination, and, perhaps, a shew of authority; considering, that the very parts of the paper whose margin is adjusted by scaleboards, are subject to the bookbinder's plough, and that it is dubious whether he will have the same regard to margin with the printer; for we are induced to think, that the abolishing of large outside margin is owing to some penurious book-binders, who gave themselves more concern about white paper shavings, than the handsome appearance of a book; hence, to prevent books from being spoiled in this manner, it is usual in Germany to make the title-page considerably wider and longer than those of the work, which sometimes has a good effect.

All that has been said concerning making margin, relates properly to imposing the first sheet of a work; for after that is true dressed, a second, or more sheets, may be dressed with less trouble; for then we impose from wrought-off forms, where we have nothing else to do but to put the chase and furniture about the pages, in the same manner as we take it off the form we are stripping; after which we put the running titles over the pages, and untie them, to make room for the quoins, which we put to each quarter in the same order as we take them off the form we impose from.

In order to be accurate in altering the folios of the respective pages, according to their regular succession, we have arranged the following tables of

signatures and folios:-

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TABLE.

# Exhibiting the First Folio of a Sheet of FOLIO,

#### Throughout Twelve Alphabets.

Sign.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
A	0	89	181	273	365	457	549	641	733	825	917	1009
В	1	93	185	277	369	461	553	645	737	829	921	1013
c	5	97	139	281	373	465	337	649	ĭ41	833	925	1017
D	9	101	193	285	377	469	561	653	745	837	929	1021
E	13	105	197	289	381	473	565	657	749	841	933	1025
F	17	109	201	293	385	477	569	661	753	845	937	1029
G	21	113	205	297	389	481	573	665	757	849	941	1033
н	2.5	1.17	209	301	393	48.)	577	<b>669</b>	761	853	945	1037
T	29	121	213	305	397	439	581	673	765	857	949	1041
K	33	125	217	309	401	493	585	677	769	361	953	1045
1.	37	129	221	313	405	497	589	<b>381</b>	773	865	957	1049
N	41	133	225	317	409	501	593	685	777	869	961	1053
							597				965	1057
0	49	141	233	325	417	509	601	693	785	877	969	1061
							605				973	1065
٥	57	149	241	333	425	517	609	701	793	885	977	1069
							613				981	1073
3	65	157	249	341	433	525	617	709	801	893	985	1077
	69	161	253	345	437	529	621	713	805	897	989	1081
ĺυ	73	165	257	349	441	533	625	717	809	901	993	1085
X							629		813	905		1089
v	81	173	265	357	449	541	633	725	817	909	1001	1093
											1005	1097



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#### TABLE,

# Exhibiting the First Folio of a Sheet of QUARTO,

Throughout Ten Alphabets.

Sig	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
H	<u>-</u> -	4.70	000	- 47	26.0	046	1100	140	1465	1640
٨			361					128J		
В			369		1 1			1289		
C			377	- 1			1	1297		
D			385					1305		
E	25	209	390	577	761			1313		
P	33	217	401	385	7 <sub>6</sub> 9					1689
G	41	225	409	593	777			1329		
н	49	233	417	601	785					1705
I	57	241	425	609	793	977	1161	1345	1529	1715
ĸ	65	249	433	617	801	985	1169	1353	1537	1721
L					809		1177	1361	1545	1729
M								1369		
N								1377		
0								1585		
P								1395		
à								1401		
R								1409		
8								1417		
T								1425		
ō								1435		
x								1441		
								144¢		
z								1457		1825
1	103	555	501		200	-003	-2.0	- 201		

#### 204.... Typographia.

TABLE,

Exhibiting the Signatures and Folios of OCTAVOS, TWELVES, SIXTEENS, EIGHTEENS, AND TWENTY-FOURS.

No. Sheets.	Signature.	Octavo, Sheets.	Octavo, Haif-sheets. Twelves,		Twelves, Half-sheets.	Sheets. Sheets. Eighteens.		J.wentv.	Twenty- fours, Half-sheets		
ı	A	0	0	0	0	0	A	0	A	0	0
1	В	1	1	1	1	1	В	1	В	1	1
2	c	17	9	25	13	33	E	37	D	49	25
3	D	33	17	49	25	65	н	73	F	97	49
4	E	49	25	73	57	97	L	109	н	145	73
5	F	65	33		49	129	0	145	K	193	97
1 2 3 4 5 6 7	G	81	41	121	61	161	R	181	M	241	121
7	н	97		145	72	193	U	217	0	289	145
8	1	113	57	169	85	225	z	253	Q	337	169
9	ĸ	129	6.5				2 C	289	s	385	193
10	L	145		217	109		F	325	บ	433	217
11	M	161	81	241	121	321	1	361	Y	481	241
12	N	177	89	265		353	M	397	2 a	529	265
13	0	193		289		385	P	433	C	577	289
14	P	209				417	s	469	E	625	313
15	Q	225	1			449	х	505	G	675	337
16	R	241				481	3 A	541	1	721	361
17	s	257				513	D	577	L	769	385
18	Т					545	G	613	N	817	409
19	U	289				577	K	649	P	865	433
20	х					609	N	685	R	913	457
21	Y			481		641	Q	721	T	961	481
22	Z	337	169	505	253	673	T	757	X	1009	505

# Typographia....205

TABLE,

Exhibiting the Signatures and Folios of OCTAVOS, TWELVES, THIRTY-TWOS, FORTY-EIGHTS, AND SIXTY-FOURS.

23 2A 353 177 529 265 A 0 0 0 0 24 B369 185 553 277 B 1 1 1 1 25 c 385 193 577 289 D 65 33 49 6 27 E 417 209 625 313 H 193 97 145 192 67 129 64 192 67 192 67 192 193 257 129 129 193 257	_	_									
24 B 369 185 553 277 B 1 1 1 1 2 5 6 385 193 577 289 D 65 33 49 6. 2 2 6 147 209 625 313 H 193 97 145 192 8 F 433 217 649 325 K 257 129 193 257 29 G 449 225 673 337 M 321 161 241 32 30 H 465 233 697 349 0 385 193 289 383 1 1481 241 721 361 0 449 225 337 44 32 K 497 249 745 373 S 513 257 385 513 257 385 193 38	No. Sheets.	Signature.	Octavo, Sheets.	Octavo, Half sheets.	Twelves, Sheets.	Twelves, Half-sheets,	Thirty-twos	Sheets.	Thirty-twos Half-sheets.	Forty- eights, Half-sheets.	Sixty-fours, Half sheets.
24 B369 185 553 277 8 B 1 1 1 4 49 6. 25 c 385 193 577 289 D 65 33 49 6. 26 D 401 201 601 301 F 129 65 97 122 28 F 433 217 649 325 K 257 129 193 257 29 G 449 225 673 337 M 321 161 241 32 30 H 465 233 697 349 O 385 193 289 383 1 1481 241 721 361 Q 449 225 337 444 32 K 497 249 745 373 S 513 257 385 513 257 385 513 357 855 1257 769 385 U 577 289 433 577 384 M 529 265 793 397 Y 641 321 481 647 35 N 545 273 817 409 2 A 705 353 529 703 36 O 561 261 841 421 C 385 385 37 P 577 289 865 433 E 147 358 Q 593 297 889 445 G 449 9 59 R 609 305 913 457 I 481 449 9 59 R 609 305 913 457 I 481 441 17641 321 961 481 N 1465 329 985 493 P 577 499 885 483 37 17641 321 961 481 N 1465 329 985 493 P 577 493 387 1009 505 R 0 09					529	265	A	0	0	0	. 0
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28					625	313	н	193	97		
29	28	F	433	217	649	325	K	257	129		
30	29	G	449	225	673	337	M	321	161		
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45 zi705 353 1057 529 x 673		-									

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The running titles, with the right folios to them, being put to the pages, we proceed to locking up our forms; first carefully examining whether the pages of each quarter are of an exact length, for even the difference of a lead will cause them to hang. We ascertain their exactness by placing the ball of each thumb against the centre of the foot-stick, raising it a little with the pressure, and if the ends of both pages rise equal with the stick, it is a proof they will not bind; we then fit quoins betwixt the side and foot-stick of each quarter and the chase, And though till the whole form may be raised. locking up a form may be thought a trifling function, it demands our attention, nevertheless, in several instances. When we have pushed the quoins as far as we can, with our fingers, we make use of the mallet and shooting-stick, and gently drive the quoins along the side-sticks first, and then those along the foot-sticks, taking care to use an equal force in our strokes, and to drive the quoins far enough up the shoulders of the side and foot-sticks, that the letter may neither belly out one way nor hang in the other; and as to the lower quoins, they ought to be driven to a station where they may do the office of keeping the letter straight and even. And here we may venture to disapprove of the custom of slanting quoins on both sides, and planing their edges and corners off, whereby all the bevelled-off parts are rendered ineffectual to do the office of a quoin or wedge; for the slanted side of a quoin running against the square side of the chase, must needs carry a cavity with it, and consequently be void of binding with equal force in every part; whereas, in our opinion, it would deserve the name of an improvement, were quoins slanted on one side only, and their gradation and variety of sizes pre-

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ferred to superficial neatness, which answers no other end than that of making the bevelled-off parts of a quoin useless, and incapable of doing the same execution with a plain one, that binds and bears alike in all its parts. As to the edges that are planed off across the two ends of a quoin, the want of them causes the shooting-stick to fly off the quoin almost at every hard stroke of the mallet, because the quoin end of the shooting-stick is rounded off; for which reason we should choose to have that end made of a forked, or else of a square form, to be of greater service in unlocking a form.

It often occurs that the quoins, from having been locked up wet, stick so tight to the furniture as to render it troublesome to unlock them; in such cases the inconvenience is remedied by driving the quoin up instead of down, which immediately loosens it,

and it unlocks with ease.

Our form, or forms, being now locked up, and become portable, we deliver them to the pressmen to pull a proof of them. But here we must notice a corruption that prevails with some pressmen, in turning the term of first proof into that of foul proof. and often pull the proofs accordingly; whereas even a slight knowledge of printing is sufficient to judge, that a proof sheet ought to be pulled as clean and as neat as any sheet in a heap that is worked off. Hence it is a rule with careful pressmen, not to give proofs a high colour, nor to use very wet paper for them, but instead of these easements to give them a long and slow pull, that the matier may appear full and plain; after which the forms are rubbed over with a wet lie-brush, then carefully taken off the press, and the proof and forms delivered to the compositor's further care.

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#### CHAP. VIII.

#### CORRECTORS AND CORRECTING.

It has ever been the pursuit of eminent printers to aim at accuracy, by their particular care that the effects of their profession should appear without faults and errors, not only with respect to wrong letters and false spelling, but chiefly in regard to their correcting and illustrating such words and passages as are not fully explained or expressed, or are obscurely written in the copy. The office of corrector is not be applied to one that has merely a tolerable judgment of his mother tongue, but who bas some knowledge of such languages as are in frequent use, viz. Hebrew, Greek, Latin, French, Italian and German, and possesses a quick and discerning eve-these are the accomplishments by which a corrector may raise his own and his master's credit: for it is a maxim with booksellers to give the first edition of a work to be done by such printers whom they know to be either able correctors themselves, or that employ fit persons, though not of universal learning, and who know the fundamentals of every art and science that may fall under their examination. We say, examination; for in cases where a corrector is not acquainted with the subject before him, he, together with the person that reads to him, can do no more than literally compare and cross-examine the proof by the original, without altering either the spelling or punctuation; since it is an author's province to prevent mistakes in such case, either by delivering his copy very accurate, and fairly written, or by carefully perusing the proof sheet. But where a corrector understands the language and characters of a work, he often finds

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occasion to alter and to mend things that he can maintain to be either wrong or ill digested. If, therefore, a corrector suspects copy to want revising, he is not to postpone it, but to make his emendations in the manuscript before it is wanted by the compositor, that he may not be hindered in the pursuit of his business, or prejudiced by alterations in the proof, especially if they are of no real signification; such as far-fetched spelling of words, changing and thrusting in points, capitals, or any thing else that has nothing but fancy and humour for its authority and foundation.

What is chiefly required of a corrector, besides espying literal faults, is to spell and point after the prevailing method and genius of each particular language: but these being two points that never will be reconciled, but always afford employment for pedantic critics, every corrector ought to fix upon a method to spell ambiguous words and compounds always the same way. And that the compositors may become acquainted with and accustomed to his way of spelling, the best expedient will be to draw out, by degrees, a catalogue of such ambiguous words and compounds.

As it is necessary that correctors should understand languages, so it is requisite that they should be acquainted with the nature of printing, else they will be apt to expose themselves in objecting against several things that are done according to method and practice in printing. It is for this reason that correctors, in most printing-offices, are chosen out of compositors that are thought capable of that office, and who know how not only to correct literal faults, but can also discern where improprieties in workmanship are used, which cannot be expected in gentlemen who have not a sufficient knowledge of

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printing; and it would be very ungenerous in a compositor to swerve from the common rules in practice, because the corrector is not printer enough to find fault with it.

#### ARRIDGING LATIN WORDS.

It appears that in the primitive time of printing. most Latin words were abbreviated, in order to save both paper, composition, and press-work: and as no fixed standard was adhered to, the reader became so perplexed, that it was deemed expedient to print a volume in order to give an explanation of them. Still this had not the desired effect, because the scriveners were continually inventing new contractions; therefore, as reading became more general, they were by degrees abolished in the most circulating works, and much reduced in others, except such as issued from the faculty of the law; who, particularly in England, as Smith observes. "have all along supported the antiquity of abbreviations, till lately, when they, together with the law Latin. made their Exit, though not without the wise order of the Legislature."

The present mode of abridging words differs from the former; they omitted letters in the middle of words, whereas we shorten them at the end hy a full point. Latin contractions being admissible in physical recipes, notes and citations, catalogues, &c. therefore we present the following explanation:

PROPER NAMES OF MEN AND WOMEN.

Adolph se Alphons se Alphons se Amad'ess Amisted ise Ambros ise Amakas ise Anaxag oras Anaxag oras Antonin se Antoni se Anton ise

A pollod orns
A pollon siss
A pot eius
A pot eius
A ristot e'es
A ristot e'es
A re, old us
A demid orns
A diam, as sus
A thenny orns
A ususim us
Batth, as arms

Bort. of, om our Baile ins Baile ins Baile ins Baile ins Bailenn inus Bened fotus Bern, ard us Beros us Boosav, ent ura Bonifacius Buxt orfus Caiet anus

Caives ins Cardan as Casanb osas Casaid crus Cels as Christ innus Christoph oras Chrys, ost ousse Cic sro Clem sas

Cluy oring

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Coosej sta Cone ordia Cour adme Coust.ant is Crisp inna Cathbertus Cypr igana Cyr. ill me Dem. et ring Democr itua Diod orus, Sie ulus Diog enes, Laert ins Dion. yo ine Dioscor iaes Domit ianas Doroth ea Dudt eine Dunc anua E con ora Eleaz erus Empedoct es Epiph anius Everh ardus Bugen ins Enpol smus Egrip idea Euseb ins Rust, ath ine Eutrop ine Eutych ine Ez. ech iol Pabr. ie ime Ferd.in andwa Place eine Plorent inna Prane. isc wa Genebr orang Gerald we Gery. ss iss

Gratian we

Greg. or ins

Halicara acous Heges, ipp me Herb erles Hesiod ma Hier. on imme Herod ian Herodot us Hevel inc Hieron ymae Hi'rr ius Hippoc rates Hon eres Honor ina Hor, at ine Horn ine Hub, ert ma Ign. at ine l'en æna Jos. eph me Isid orus Jul ius olian as Justin wa Justinian we Juv enal Lactuat ins Lane, el ottes Leol izus Leon ellus Lips ine, Just us Liv fue Lucan us Lucien na Lucret in Lyc. org es Lys. and er Meculay ellus Macrob ine Maimon idea Marcell ve Mutt hou Maur.it ine

Mor. im. il ianue Moust excen Nath on el Nic. ol aux Niced emre Olent ias Ones, inh orns Oanple rine Or 3 enes Osm. und se Or. id ine Paracels as Pasor rus Percia allus Perez rinus Paus cains Philib ertue Petay ins Philip ertes Phil emon Philostr atus Plut orchus Poryb ins Polyhist or Porphyr rus Procop ine Ptol emy Pyting oras Quint inua Raph ael Raym under Resigned me Renaud 24 Reynold me Hice folus Rud.olph ws Salmas ins Scal iger Scen ula Schindl er Scient ianus

Sen sen Sigism undne Sect ates Sol.on on Soulaton 188 Socia es Sacob cimina Strult anus Serios ins Su pit ins Tac itus Terroll innue Thereistocles Theob at tue Throdol itus Theod or us Theodoret wa Throdos in Theonh ilva Theopar astes Theophyl actus Thomas ins Thuckd id a Tim oth eus Tremell ins Trithem ins Tull ine Valent inna Veler ius. Max ima Vales inc Varen ins Vejet ins Vellej us, Patero ului Vinc. ent ius Vice ilius Vitruv iss Voss ins Urb anus Ura imme Walth erus Xenoph on Zach, ar ice

#### Abridging Proper Names of Countries, Towns, and Rivers, when in Latin. Dealise Mar Monach ium, Munich

Abbay illa, in Prance Aib a Gree a, Beigrade Als atia Amst. el. od smum Auty erpia Aug usta Vind. el. ie Augsbarg Bat avio, Holland Berol inum

Bonon is Brunop olie, Brunswick Brux elle, Brussels Byzant fum, Constantinople Cant. ab ris Cantuur is

Col onia Agrp ina, Cola Constantinop elie, or Cua rigrade Cras ovia, in Poland

Danub ius, a river. Delpirin oius Ploreut ia Prescot sert sem Gander um, Gent Ged. an um, Dantzie Hain ia, Copeahagen Hieros olimum, Jerusa Hots otia, Holstein Ins wie Forton ates. pary Islands

Lugd numm Bat: av orum Leyden Luzd. un um, Lion

Chers.on caus, a peninsule Lusit ania, Portugal Lutet fa Parisiorum, Par Mossilia. Marseilles Mon us, a river Mogunt ia, Ments

Neviom. ag um, Nemegos Patav ium, Padna Patav in, Passaw Pont wa Bux inve, the Black

Sea Regiom. ontws., Kosingsberg Rhen us, a river Sin us Adrint ions, the

Adriatic sea Tigur ivm, Zurich Traject um, Maestricht Transily ania Trident inum, Trent

Turcom annia, Turkey Vratislavia, Bresiau Verul, am rum, Verula Ultrej, eet um, Utrecht Verula Ulysa ippo, Lisbon

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Independently of the foregoing, many other proper names of men, places, &c. and abundance of common Latin words may be abbreviated, and some intimated by single letters, in particular work that will admit of it. We shorten the following words thus:—

Archiep iscopus a nnus c urrene argent um AUT NM Brev is brevissimus Cesar comment aring cor am Dissert atio descript io. &c. A icto Loca Eid em eod em eor um corundem ej. usd em gr atia e zempli

Fig ura figg fgurie
hoc est hoc mode
hoc tempore
hod ie liodiera um
laper ator
impp imperatores
JCtus Juris-consultus
hi dem tiem tide at
Kal. end as
LI. D. tem Doctor
LI. D. tem Doctor
LI. Octor
Magn ura. a, um
miscellanea medic ina
Nov us, a, um

numism ata
Orient alia
op we posth strum
Pare we, a, um
pagina m thi
Quest to Reb use
respublica
S. S Sacrofanctus
secund ns, a, um
seu se tifeet
Tah uta theanur av
Vet ns veter um
v erbi gratia
Universitens

spit of a spit one Norm, a, and landered it

By observing these lists, it will be seen that the

contractions may be made at any of the separations,
and that the Italic may be omitted generally. In

proof of which we present the following rules:—

1. We do not abridge a word at the end of a syllable, but always annex one or more letters of the next syllable.

2. In inscriptions taken from monuments and medals, we neither abridge full words, nor lengthen words that are shortened, but abide by the original; which we also do in physical recipes and prescriptions, that the vulgar may be debarred from knowing the salutary effects of drugs, by giving them Latin names, abridged.

origs, by giving them Latin names, abridged.

3. In shortening a word, we always carry the reading part so far that it cannot be taken for any other word. For example, Just. implies Justus; Justin. for Justinus; and Justinian. instead of Justinianus. Const. implies Constants; Constant. for Constantinus; and Constantinop. for Constantinopolis. Names of places in catalogues, are not always shortened alike; sometimes we put Ff. for Francfort, Ls. for Liepsic, &c. which book men understand. Examples of contractions, Jac. 66t de Strada Epit. ome Thesaur. Antiquitat. um h. oc

Jac.obt de Strada Epit.ome Thesaur.t Antiquitat.um h.oc e.st, Imperator.um Romanor.um Oriental.ium & Oceidental.ium Icon.es, exantiqu.is Numismatib.us quam fidellss.ime delineat. arum. Lugd.uni.

Onuph.rii Panvinii Fasti & Triumphi Romanor.um a reg.e Romul.o ad Carol.um V. Imperat.orem Triumphor.um major.um in urbe ob victor.iam celebrator.um typ.us, o.um XII. tabb.uits ære incis.is.

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#### DOUBLE CONSONANTS.

DOUBTS have often arisen in what cases to double the final consonant of verbs in the past tense and both participles; also the final consonant of irregular verbs in the active participle: they are as follow-

Abet, abetted Abhor, abhorred Abut, abutted Acquit, acquitted Admit, admitted Allot, allotted Amit, amitted Annul, annulled Appal, appalled Apparel, apparelled Avel, avelled Aver, averred Bag, bagged Bain, bammed Ban, banned Bar, barred Barrel, barrelled Bed, bedded Bedim, bedimmed Bedrop, bedropped Befal, befalling Befit, befitted Beg, begged Beget, begetting Begin, beginning Berob, berobbed Beset, besetting Besmut, besmutted Besot, besotted Bespot, bespotted Bestir, bestirred Bestud, bestudded Bet, betted Bethral, bethralled Betrim, betrimmed Bias, biassed Bib, bibbed Bid, bidded Blab, blabbed Blot, blotted Blur, blurred Bob. bobbed Bowel, bowelled Brag, bragged Brim, brimmed Bud, budded Cabal, caballed Cancel, cancelled Cap, capped Capot, capotted Carol, carolled

Cavil, cavilled Channel, channelled Chap, chapped Char, charred Chat, chatted Chip, chipped Chisel, chiselled Chit. chitted Chop, chopped Clap, clapped Clip, clipped Clod, clodded Clog, clogged Clot, clotted Club, clubbed Cod, codded Cog, cogged Commit, committed Compel, compelled Complot, complotted Con, conned Concur, concurred Confer, conferred Control, controlled Coquet, coquetted Counsel, counselled Cram, crammed Crib, cribbed Crop, cropped Crum, crummed Cub, cubbed Cudgel, cudgelled Cup, cupped Cut, cutting Dab, dabbed Dag, dagged Dam, dammed Dap, dapped Debar, debarred Debel, debelled Defer, deferred Demit, demitted Demur, demurred Deter, deterred Dig, digged Dim, dimmed Din, dinned Dip, dipped

Discounsel, discoun-

Disenthral, disenthralled Dishevel, dishevelled Disinter, disinterred Dispel, dispelled Distil, distilled Dog, dogged Don, donned Dut, dotted Drag, dragged Dram, drammed Drib, dribbed Drip, dripped Drivel, drivelled Drop, dropped Drub, drubbed Drug, drugged Drum, drummed Dub, dubbed Duei, duelled Dun, dunned Embar, embarred Embowel, embowelled Emit, emitted Empanel, empannelled Enamel, enamelied Englut, englutted Enrol, enrolled Entrap, entrapped Equal, equalled Equip, equipped Escot, escotted Excel, excelled Extil, extilled Extol, extolled Fag, jagged Fan, fanned Fat, fatted Pib. fibbed Fig, figged Fin, finned Fit, fitted Flag, flagged Flam, flammed Flap, flapped Flat, flatted Flit, flitted Disannul, disannulled Flog, flogged Flop, flopped Fob, fobbed

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Forbid, forbidding Forerun, forerunning Forestal, forestalled Foretel, fore:elling Forget, forgetting Fret, fretted Fub, fubbed Fulfil, fulfilled Fur, furred Gab, gabbed Gad, gadded Gag, gagged Gambol, gambolled Gem, gemmed Get, getting Gip, gipped Glad, gladded Glib, glibbed Glut, glutted Gnar, gnarred God, godded Gospel, gospelled Gravel, gravelled Grin, grinned Grovel, grovelled Grub, grubbed Gum, gummed Gut, gutted Hag, hagged Handsel, handselled Hap, happed Hatchel, hatchelled Hem, hemmed Hip, hipped Hit, hitting Hitchel, hitchelled Hop, hopped Hovel, hovelled Housel, houselied Hug, hugged Hum, hummed Hyp, hypped Jam, jammed Japan, japanned Jar, jarred Jet, jetted Jig, jigged Immit, immitted Impel, impelled Inclip, inclipped Incur, incurred Infer, inferred Inship, inshipped Instal, installed Instil, instilled Instop, instopped Inter, interred ntermit, intermitted nthral, inthralled

Inwrap, inwrapped Jub, jobbed Jog, jogged Jug, jugged Jut, jutted Ken, kenned Kennel, kennelled Kernel, kernelled Kid, kidded Kidnap, kidknapped Knab, knabbed Knit, knitting Knot, knotted Knub, knubbed Lag, lagged Landdam, landdammed Lap, lapped Let, letting Level, levelled Libel, libelled Lig, ligged Lip, lipped Lob, lobbed Lop, lopped Lug, lugged Mad, madded Man, manned Manumit, manumitted Map, mapped Mar, marred Marshal, marshalled Marvel, marvelled Mat. matted Miscal, miscalled Misinfer, misinferred Mistel, mistelling Mob, mobbed Model, modelled Mop, mopped Mud, mudded Nab, nabbed Nap, napped Net, netted Newmodel, newmodelled Nib, nibbed Nim, nimmed Nip, nipped Nod, nodded Nousel, nouselled Nut, nutted Occur, occurred Omit, omitted Onset, onsetting Overbid, overbidding Overget, overgetting Overred, overredded

Overrun, overrunning Overset, oversetting Overskip, overskip-Overslip, overslipped Overtop, overtopped Overtrip, overtripped Outbid, outbidding Outrun, outrunning Outsit, outsitting Outstrip, ou.stripped Outwit, outwitted Pad padded Pan, panned Parcel, parcelled Pat, patted Patrol, patrolled Peg, pegged Pen, penning Permit, permitted Pig, pigged Pin, pinned

Plan, pianned
Plat, platted
Plod, plodded
Plod, plodded
Plod, plotted
Plug, plugged
Pod, podded
Pop, popmed
Postil, postilled
Pot, potted
Preter, preferred
Pretermit, pretermitted

Pip, pipped

Pit, pitted

Pistol, pistolled

Prig prigged Prim, primmed Prog, progged Prop, propped Propel, propelled Pulvil, pulvilled Pun, punned Pup, pupped Put, putting Quarrel, quarrelled Quip, quipped Quit, quitting Quob, quobbed Ram, rammed Rap, rapped Ravel, ravelled Readmit, readmitted Rebel, rebelled Recal, recalled Recommit, recommit-

Recur, recurred Refei. refeiled Refer, referred Refit, refitted Regret, regretted Reinstal, reinstalled Remit, remitted Repel, repelled Restein, restemmed Revel, reveiled Revictual, revictual.

Rid. ridding Rig, rigged Rip, ripped Rival, rivalled Rivel, rivel ed Rivet, rivetted Rob. robbed Rot. rotting Rowel, roweiled Rub. rubbed Run, running Rut. rutted Sag, sagged Sap, sapped Scab, scabbed Scan, scanned Scar. scarred Scrub, scrubbed Scud, scudded Scum, scummed Set. setting Sham, shammed Shed, shedding Ship, shipped Shog, shogged Shovel, shovelled Shred, shredding Shrivel, shrivelled Shrub, shrubbed Shrug, shrugged Shun, shunned Shut, shutting Sin, sinned Sip, sipped Sit, sitting Skim, skimmed Skin, skinned Skip, skipped Slam, slammed Siap, slapped Slip, slipped Slit, slitting Slop, slopped Stot, slotted Slur, slurred Smut, smutted

Snap, snapped

Saip, supped Snivel, snivelled Sunh, suphhed Snug, snugged Sob, sobbec Sop, sopped Sot. sotted Snan, spanned Spar, sparred Spet, spetted Spin, spinning Spit, spitting Split, spitting Spot. spotted Sprig, sprigged Spur, spurred Squab, squabbed Squat. squatted Stab. stabbed Star, starred Stem, stemmed Step, stepped Sur, surred Stop, stopped Strap, strapped Strip, stripped Strut, strutted Stub, stubbed Stud. studded Stum, stummed Stun, stunned Stut. stuited Submit, submitted Sum, summed Sun, sunned Sup, supped Swab. swabbed Swag, swagged Swap, swapped Swig, swigged Swim, swimming Swop, swopped Tag, tagged Tau. tanned Tap, tapped Tar, tarred Ted, tedded Thin, thinned Thrid, thridded Throb, throbbed Thrum, thrummed Tin, tinned Tinsel, tinselled Tip, tipped Top, topped Trammel, trammelled

Franscur, transcurred

Transfer, transferred

Tran, trapped Travel, travelled Trepan, trepauned Trig. trigged Trim, trimmed Trip, tripped Trot, trotted Tug, tugged Tun, tunned Tunnel, tunnelled Tup, tupped Twin, twinned Twit, twitted Victual, victualled Unbar, unbarred Unbed, unbedded Unbias, unbiassed Unbowet, unbowelled Unclog, unclogged Undam, nudammed Underbid, underbidding Underpin, underpinnad Underprop, underprovoed Underset, undersetting Until, unfitted Ungod, ungodded Unkennel, unkennel-Unknit, unknitting Unknot, anknotted Unman, unmanned Unpeg, unpegged Unpin, aupinued Unravel, unravelled Unrig, unrigged Unrip, unripped Unrivet, unrivetted Unrol, unrolled Unship, unshipped Unstop, unstopped Unwit, unwitted Wad, wadded Wag, wagged War, warred Wed, wedded Wet, wetting Whet, whetted Whip, whipped Whiz, whizzing Win, winning Wit, witting Worship, worship-

Transmit, transmitted Wrap, wrapped

red Wot, wotted

#### TYPOGRAPHICAL MARKS EXEMPLIFIED.

Though a veriety of opinions exist as to 'a, the individual by woom the art of printing was 29/ first discovered; yet all authorities concur in admitting Peter Schoeffer to be the person Capa who invented cast metal types, having learned the art of ef-cutting the letters from the Gutttembergs; he is also supposed to have been the first who engraved on copper plates. The # /following testimony is preserved in the family, 8p/ by Jo. Fred. Faustus of Ascheffenburg: Peter Schoeffer of Gernsheim, perceiving & Capa his master Fausts design, and being himself "V desirous ardently to improve the art, found "tr out (by the good providence of God) the method of outting (incidendi) the characters stell in a matrix, that the letters might easily be singly cast; instead of bieng cut. He pri- 22 er vately cut matrices for the whole alphabet:7 Faust was so pleased with the contrivance that he promised Peter to give him his only Two daughter Christina in marriage, a promise Han which he soon after performed But there were many difficulties at first bay with these letters, as there had been before Rom. with wooden ones, the metal being too soft Italy to support the force of the im pression: but & this defect was soon remedied, by mixing substance with the metal which sufficiently hardened it, d when he showed his master the letters east from

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#### EXPLANATION OF THE CORRECTIONS.

A WRONG letter in a word is noticed by drawing a short perpendicular line through it, and making another short line in the margin, behind which the right letter is placed. (See No. 1.) In this manner whole words are corrected, by drawing a line across the wrong word, and making the right one in the margin, opposite the faulty line.

A turned letter is noticed by making a dash under it, and the mark, No. 2, in the margin. If a corrector is not able to distinguish such turned letters as have a resemblance to others. it is much better

to mark such letters in the margin.

If letters or words are to be altered from one character to another, a parallel line or lines should be made underneath the word or letter, viz. for capitals, three lines; small capitals, two lines; and Italic, one line: and write in the margin opposite the line where the alteration occurs, Caps, Small Caps, or Ital. (See No. 3.)

When letters or words are set double, or are required to be taken out, a line is drawn through the superfluous word or letter, and the mark, No. 4.

placed opposite in the margin.

Where the punctuation requires to be altered, the colon, and period, if marked in the margin,

should be encircled. (See No. 5.)

Where a space is wanting between two words or letters which are to be separated, a parallel line must be drawn where the separation ought to be, and the sign, No. 6, placed opposite in the margin.

No. 7 describes the manner in which the hyphen

and ellipsis line are marked.

Should a letter have been omitted, a caret is put at the place, and the letter marked as No. 8.

Where words or letters that should join are

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separated, or when a line is too wide spaced, the mark, No. 9, must be placed under the separatiou, and the junction signified by that in the margin.

Where a new paragraph is required, a line in the shape of a crotchet should be made, and the same

mark, No. 10, placed in the margin.

No. 11 shews the way in which the apostrophe, inverted commas, the star, and other references and superior letters and figures are marked.

Where two words are transposed, the word placed wrong should be encircled, and the mark, No. 12, placed in the margin: but where several words require to be transposed, their right order is signified by a figure placed over each word, and the mark, No. 12, in the margin.

Where words have been struck out that have afterwards been approved of, dots should be marked under such words, and in the margin write Stet.

(See No. 13.)

Where a space sticks up between two words, a perpendicular stroke is put in the margin. (No. 14.)

Where several lines or words are added, they should be written at the bottom of the page, and a line drawn from the place where the insertion begins, to those lines or words. (See No. 15.) But if more is added than can be contained at the foot of the page, write in the margin, Out, see copy, and enclose the omission between brackets, and insert the word Out, in the margin of the copy.

Where letters or lines stand crooked, they are noticed by drawing lines before and after them.

(See No. 16.)

When a smaller or larger letter, of a different fount, is improperly introduced into the page, it is noticed by the mark, No. 17.

If a paragraph is improperly made, a line should

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he drawn from the broken-off matter to the next paragraph, and write in the margin, No break. (See No. 18.)

Where a word or words have been left out. or are to be added. a caret must be made in the place where they are intended to come in, and the word or words written in the margin. (See No. 19.)

Inaccuracy may proceed either from inattention and carelessness in the printer, or else to his nonacquaintance with all languages. both ancient and modern; also to a deficiency of knowledge in the arts and sciences, and other abstruse subjects, wherein technical phrases and terms often occur, which. unless very distinctly written. may be misunderstood by the most attentive and accurate corrector.

When it is considered that a part of each of these literary subjects may pass through the hands of the corrector, in his professional capacity, in one day, he who wishes to make accuracy his peculiar study, need not be ashamed nor afraid to solicit the aid of the indulgent author, to accomplish an end so desirable, and which would be so satisfactory to

all parties.

In all cases, therefore, but particularly in those where the author has it not in his power to see the proof sheets, accuracy and distinctness of copy is

peculiarly desirable.

If attention be paid to right spelling of proper name of persons, places, technical terms, &c. the finishing of sentences marked by the period, that the author's ideas may not be misunderstood, and the hand-writing tolerably legible, much time and a very considerable expense would be saved, and the great object of accuracy gained, by gentlemen who communicate their sentiments to the public through the medium of the press.

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#### CORRECTING IN THE METAL.

By correcting, we understand the rectifying of such faults, omissions, and repetitions, as are made by the compositor, either through inadvertency or carelessness. And though the term of corrections is equally given to the alterations that are made by authors, it would be more proper to distinguish them by the name of emendations; notwithstanding it often happens, that after repeatedly mending the matter, the first conceptions are at last recalled: for the truth thereof none can be better vouchers than compositors, who often suffer by fickle authors that know no end to making alterations, and at last doubt whether they are right or wrong; whereby the work is retarded, and the compositor greatly prejudiced in his endeavours; especially where he is not sufficiently satisfied for spending his time in humouring such whimsical gentlemen.

Correcting is the most disagreeable part of a compositor's business, attended not only with loss of time, but great fatigue, from leaning over the stone, and is therefore extremely prejudicial to health. To avoid this we recommend silence, and attention when at work. The noise and confusion which too often prevail in a printing-office, from light and frivolous conversation, not only retard business, but at the same time distract the attention of the compositor from the subject he has in hand, and cause him to run into such mistakes as can only be rectified by loss of time, and fatigue at the imposing stone. Some men, no doubt, are capable of supporting a conversation, and at the same time compose correctly, but their noise must confuse those who are unable to preserve that accuracy but in quiet, and by close attention to their copy. habit of talking while distributing is too often prac-

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tised; and though those who are composing need not join in the conversation, yet they are disturbed, and diverted from the subject they have in hand. The press-room should, if possible, be separated from the composing-room, as the pressmen are generally discussing some important topic, and are less liable to feel the inconvenience of much talking.

The first proof should merely contain the errors of the compositor, but it too frequently happens that the corrector heightens them by his peculiarities; when this is unnecessarily done, which is too often the case, it is an act injustice to the compositor: it is sufficient for him to rectify such mistakes as arise either from inattention or want of judgment.\*

We certainly agree, in conjunction with all our contemporaries, with the necessity for the immediate correction of proofs by the compositor; still we consider that we should not have performed our duty, (according to our original intention) were we to urge an exparte case, when a similar injunction is equally incumbent on both parties. Ought not the reader or overseer to be equally as punctual in despatching the proofs in his department? Can it reasonably be expected that the compositor will feel that inclination to forward his proof when he knows that the reader will not equally assist him?

By the term, "want of judgment," we beg not to be understood as including the alteration of points, that being a subject which can never be reconciled: the compositor ought not to suffer from the caprice of a reader, in altering commas and semicolons in the first proof (unless the sense is perverted), which he not unfrequently re-alters in the second, from a doubt upon his mind which would be the most proper points to be adopted.

It is too well known to all compositors, the delay and inconvenience (not to say actual loss), which they daily suffer from the want of a regular dispatch of proofs; it is not for us to say whether it arises from an overpressure of business, or whatever caue; but this we can state, (having not only repeatedly witnessed it, but also greatly suffered from it ourselves,) that there are some overseers who do not give themselves the least concern about reading proofs, (provided the work is not in a particular hurry) as long as the com-

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Should a compositor have transposed two or more pages, either from a mistake in the folios, or any other cause, he must then unlock such quarter or quarters, and loosening the cross or crosses from the furniture, he next lifts the chase and the remaining quarters off the stone; should he have furniture sufficient round each page, he may move them into their proper stations by pressing the balls of his humbs and fingers against the furniture at the head, foot, and sides of each page:—if the letter be small it will be advisable to wet the pages, because few imposing stones are perfectly horizontal, or so steady that they will not shake when tonched, or by the motion of the floor occasioned either by persons walking, or the dragging of forms.

Should a compositor find that his pages hang, he must unlock that quarter or quarters, and pat the face of the type with the balls of his fingers, and so twist it, until he gets it into a square position.

positor can rake together more letter to make up: at length, being mu out of sorts, he is necessitated to press for his proofs, and should the reader then have leisure, he probably receives the whole of them as fast as he can correct, which is very much to his disadvantage in two points of view:—first, he has to perform a disagrecable task, which takes longer time than if he had received them as they were imposed, because much correcting fatigues, and makes a man carelies, that would otherwise have done his work more justice: secondly, should his proofs turn out foul, and take up a considerable time, bill for that week must be greatly diminished, as few men make allowance from their week's earnings, for the corrections which may occur in the following one; now, if the proof had been read when it was imposed, it would have been corrected without his feeling the bortien; add to this, the loss of making up and clearing away so me is not unfrequently obligated to distribute sufficiently in the proof had to the proof the proof of the proof is not reader to the charge fall equally upon the overseer or reader, if they have kept it by them some days without reading, and possibly the compositor has nothing to do at the time that the proof is not read; and when it is sent up, probably he has got a little work, which makes him indifferent about correcting at the moment. We ever shall contend, be the station of the parties what it may, high or low, rich or poor, for "equal rights, and equal laws."

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When a compositor unlocks his form, he should be careful not to leave the unlocked quoins too slack, as the force necessary to loosen the others may either squabble the matter, or occasion it to hang.

A compositor should possess the following re-

quisites before he begins to correct-

"What is required of a compositor when he goes about correcting a foul proof, is a sharp bookin and patience, because without them the letter cannot escape suffering by the steel; and hurrying will not permit him to justify the lines true. No wonder therefore to see pigeon-holes in one place, and pie in another."

When he has gathered as many corrections between the thumb and fore-finger of his left hand as he can conveniently hold, or in his composingstick, beginning at the bottom of the page, in order that they may follow regular; and an assortment of spaces on a piece of paper, or, what is more convenient. in a small square box, with partitions in it, let him take the bodkin in his right hand, and instead of raising each letter he may have occasion to alter, he should place the point of the bodkin at one end of the line, and with the fore-finger of his left hand against the other, raise the line altogether, sufficiently high to afford him a clear view of the spacing; he may then change the faulty letter, and alter his spaces before he drops the line. By observing this method, he will not injure the type, which must be

<sup>•</sup> In proof of the trouble and inconvenience to which compositors are not unfrequently subjected, we present the reader with the following epitaph, which, no doubt, was written by a Typo, whilst performing the most disagreeable task attendant on his profession:

<sup>&</sup>quot;No more shall copy brid perick my brini,"
No more shall copy brid perick my brini,
No more shall syste small free my eye-balls strain;
No more shall cape to small free my eye-balls strain;
By errors, framsportions, outs, and doubles:
No more my head shall cake from author's whims,
As over-ranning, driving-outs, and ine;
The surfap presented from I mow may seed:
Revised, corrected, finding wrought of:

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the case where the bodkin is forced either into their sides or heads; it likewise ensures a greater degree of regularity where there may be occasion to alter the spacing, and will not take up more time than the other method.

In tables, and such like matter, where rules prewent the lines from being raised, as just noticed, the letters must be then drawn up by the bodkin; this is done by the compositor holding the latter fast in his right hand, with the blade between his fore-finger and thumb, within about half an inch or three quarters of the point, thus guiding it steadily to the faulty letter, he sticks the point of the bodkin into the neck of the letter, between the heard and the face, and thus draws it up above the other types, so that he can take it out with the fore-finger and thumb of his left hand. In performing this operation, as small an angle as possible should be made with the blade of the bodkin, viz. it should be kept as flat as possible to the face of the type, but the blade of the bodkin should not touch any of the surrounding neighbours of the faulty letter, as the slightest graze imaginable must injure their face, and consequently they will appear imperfect in the next proof, when he will have the trouble of altering them, and his employer suffers the less of his type; we are again brought to the union of interest between the parties.

The reason why the bodkin blade should be kept flat to the form is, because a small horizontal entrance of its point into the neck of the letter will raise it above the face of the form; but should the bodkin be held nearly upright it would not have sufficient purchase to draw the letter up, because the weight of the type and its close confinement, would have greater power than the sharp point of the steel. By pressing sideways, the bodkin blade acts as a lever, even though it has no other purchase than merely the slight motion of the hand.

The most careful compositor cannot at all times avoid leaving a word or words out, or composing the same word twice; when this happens, he should consider the best mode of rectifying the accident, by driving out or getting in, either above the error or below it; this ascertained, let the matter be taken into a galley, and overrun in the composing stick:—overrunning on the stone is an unsafe, unworkmanlike, and dilatory method, destroys the justification, and renders the spacing uneven.

One of our predecessor gives the following:—
"But a great deal of trouble might be saved in cases
of outs and doubles, would correctors try to add as much
as will fill up the double; or to shorten the matter, to
make room for an out; unless both the one and the other
are too considerable for that expedient; which otherwise
might be safely ventured, without either castrating or
corrupting a writer's meaning. This would be a sure
means to secure a neat compositor's workmanship and
care in true spacing his matter; whereas that beauty is

iost by alterations and over-running."

In correcting, care should be taken not to hairspace a line, if it can possibly be prevented, but avoid it by overrunning either backward or forward. He should also, in overrunning the matter, use the division as little as possible; for though he may carefully follow the instructions laid down in this work, on the subject of spacing and dividing, yet the effect of his attention will be completely destroyed, if not followed up at the stone.

The following observation has been made with

respect to the dispatch of proofs:-

"The first proof being corrected, a perfect sheet is pulled clean, to be sent to the author, or to the person by him authorized; cither of whom, if they understand the nature of printing, will not defer reading the sheet, but

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return it without any alteration perhaps, to be made ready for the press. But because such good authors are very scarce, compositors are discouraged every time they send a proof away, as not knowing when or how it may be returned, and how many times more it will be wanted to be seen again, before the author is tired, or rather ashamed, of altering."



Ye althors list! we must a lale unfold, Which, doubles, some of you have oft been told; You little dream how much poor Type's vex'd, When with Sod copy his mind's sore perpier'd; Noris this sil, he still his cause to dread.

Noris this sil, he still his cause to dread.

Noris this sil, he still his cause to dread.

And in a trice the greatest have's mane; and the still have the still his proof is read; Conditional this sile of the still have the world's map you portray. As with hinst pea the world's map you portray.

As with hinst pea the world's map you portray.

A with hinst pea the world's map you portray.

A with hinst pea the world's map you portray.

A present like soldiers in the battle slain!

Appear like soldiers in the battle slain!

To view this carrace, though so hood appears,

Yet s'ere the sight as a kest their maniy fears!

Aloud they roar—enough to strike him dead,

"A mob, a mob, 'At 'riot at must be read'."

His from, with heavy heart, be then logs wy,

And betters seeks, which fill his hitter cap:

How often, when correcting the strong with the stone,

He's prayed for you, while dreaking his breest—bene,

He's prayed for you, while dreaking his breest—bene,

He's prayed for you, while dreaking his breest—bene,

He's prayed his habor and his precious sight!

For this, your pardon we most knumbly erave,

And of this sabject hag to lack our leave.

#### CHAP. IX.

#### THE DEPARTMENT OF A READER

HAVING just given an account of the nature of correcting, and the duties of a corrector, we deem it not improper, considering the vast importance of this branch of our profession, to enter somewhat

more minutely into the subject.

When it is considered how much the credit of our art, and the general interest of literature depend on the grammatical accuracy and typographical correctness of our labours, it will readily appear that a careful and steady Reader must be indispensible in every printing-office. We shall therefore detail the business and qualifications requisite to form such a reader, or corrector of the press, as can alone save the typographic art from degenerating into one of those ordinary occupations that require only the mechanical operation of the fingers, to form a perfect and complete workman.

It is always desirable that a reader should have been previously brought up a compositor. By his practical acquaintance with the mechanical departments of the business, he will be better able to detect those manifold errata which, unperceived by the mere man of learning and science, lie lurking, as it were, in a thousand different forms, in every sheet; and, if overlooked, evince a carelessness and inattention to our labours, that must always offend the just taste and professional discernment of all true lovers of correct and beautiful typography.

Some of the principal imperfections which are most easily observed by the man of practical knowledge in the art of printing, are the following: viz. imperfect and wrong-founted, or inverted letters, particularly the lower-case s, the n, and the u; awkward and irregular spacing; uneven pages or columns; a false disposition of the reference marks; crookedness in words and lines; bad making-up of matter; erroneous indention, &c. These minutiæ, which are rather imperfections of workmanship, than literal errors, are apt to be overlooked and neglected by those readers who have no idea of the liability there is, even with the most careful compositor, occasionally to fall into them.

It is desirable that a reader should have been brought up a compositor, because the imperfections above enumerated may not be observed by one who is not practically acquainted with every department Nevertheless, long and frequent habits of reading proof-sheets for the press, a quick eye, and a steady mind, will certainly enable a person, though not a compositor, to detect those minor deviations from correctness, which the inexperienced and the careless are apt to overlook. But while these habits are acquiring, without which no person can be safely entrusted to read a sheet for press, the labours of the printer are liable to go forth into the world in a manner that will reflect discredit on the employed, and give offence to the employer. This observation equally refers to those readers who have previously been compositors. No form, therefore, ought to be put to press, until it has been read and revised by an experienced reader.

But even habit itself is not sufficient to form a competent reader, unless he possess those literary qualifications which are obviously necessary in an employment of this nature. No one should undertake this arduous task, until he has made himself a complete master of, at least, his native language.

A reader ought to be well versed in all the pecu-

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liarities of the English tongue-its idioms, its true genius, and singular adaptation to that variety of expression in which we embody our thoughts, and portray the human intellect. Instances will frequently occur, particularly in large printing-offices, where a knowledge of this nature and extent will be almost indispensable. Many, even of our firstrate authors, are too apt, in the warmth of discussion, the flights of speculation, and the laborious exercise of the thinking powers, to pass over, unobserved, those deviations from pure diction and strict grammatical accuracy, which they have imperceptibly acquired the habit of falling into, by their ordinary conversation with mankind. although no corrector of the press can strictly be required to do otherwise than to follow his copy, that is, faithfully to adhere to the original, with all its defects, yet every one must perceive, that it would often be performing a friendly, and perhaps a charitable service, to point out, in proper time, imperfections and mistakes which have escaped the observation of a quick or voluminous writer. remark will however chiefly apply to inaccurate orthography, and glaring instances of erroneous syntax. With the spirit, the opinions, the whims of an author, no corrector of the press has any business to inter-Some writers, after all the labours of the printer, and the skill of the reader, are doomed to make their appearance before the world with many "imperfections on their heads," are condemned to bear the contumely, and face the broad eye of au unrelenting critic.

We shall conclude this part of our subject by remarking, that a reader ought not to be of a captious or pedantic turn of mind: the one will render his situation and employment extremely unpleasant,

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and the other will tempt him to habits destructive of that consistency of character in his profession which he ought ever scrupulously to maintain. We are here alluding to a strict uniformity in the use of capitals, in orthography, and punctuation.\* Nothing can be more vexations to an author, than to see the words honour, favour, &c. spelt with, and without the u. This is a discrepance which correctors ought studiously to avoid. The above observations equally applies to the capitaling of noun-substantives, &c. in one place, and the omission of them in another. However the opinions of authors may differ in these respects, still the system of spelling, &c. must not be varied in the same work: but whatever authority is selected should he strictly adhered to, whether it be Johnson, or any of his contemporaries.

Such being the qualifications of a reader it will not be improper to glance at the application of those attainments, by exhibiting the process which proofsheets ought to undergo before they are put to press.

While the pressman is engaged in pulling a proof,

<sup>•</sup> It too frequently happens, that when a compostor is called from his frame, and is appointed to fill the situation of a reader, and is admind the situation of a reader, and is admind the situation of a reader, and the situation of a reader, and the situation of a reader, and the situation of a reader situation that he could be conceive that he still is [literally] but as one of themselves; because both hold their situations by the same tenure, namely, a supply conceiver and good conduct; it is not with them, as with privy conceillors, once a reader always a reader; consequently, it behoves them so to acquit themselves, that they may retain the esteem of them so to acquit themselves, that they may retain the esteem of them as to acquit themselves, that they are situation to the situation of the

<sup>†</sup> Technical term for the reader's room. 1 Do. overseer or employer's room.

§ Technically applied to compositors in their frames.

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the compositor who imposed the sheet ought to collect and arrange the copy, that both may be delivered to the reader for the purpose of comparing or reading; in glancing over the proof to clear it of literals, he has the copy lying upon his desk, to refer to in case of doubt or misconception. Having made this slight comparison of the copy and the proof, he then calls his reading-boy, to read the copy aloud to him. This boy should be able to read any copy put into his hands with ease and distinctness; he should be instructed not to read too fast, but to pay the same attention to the subject, as though he were reading for his amusement or edification The eve of the reader should not follow, but rather precede the voice of the boy; accustomed to this mode, he will be able to anticipate every single word in the copy; and should a word or sentence happen to have been omitted in the proof, his attention will the more sensibly be arrested by it, when he hears it pronounced by his reading-boy. He ought to be careful lest his eves advance too far before the words of the boy; because, in his attention to the author's meaning, he will be apt to read words in the proof which do not actually appear there, and the accuracy of the reading-boy will but tend to confirm him in the mistake.

After the proof has been read with the readingboy, the signatures, catch-words, head-lines, titles, and folios of each page, should be most carefully examined; and the number (if more than one) of the volume, signature, and prima of the ensuing sheet, accurately marked on the margin of the copy, and a crotchet made between the last word of that and the first of the next sheet, in order that the compositor, show where to begin, without having the trouble of referring, either to the proof or the form, and the

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reader will be certain that the commencement is right when he gets the succeeding sheet—this prevents unnecessary trouble both to the reader and compositor.

Before the proof is sent to the compositor to be corrected in the metal, an entry should be made in a book, according to the following plan:—

Date of reading.		Names of Works.	Sent oot.	Returned	Read for Press.
1921 Jan. 5 8 10 11	C G Q B	Pockle's Club	1821 Jan. 6 9 11	1821 Jan. 8 10 12 13	1821 Jan. 11 12 15 16

This account of the different stages of each proofsheet, will enable the reader to furnish the employer or overseer with an exact account of the state of each work, without trouble or inconvenience.

The form being corrected in the metal, a revise should be immediately pulled, and both conveyed to the reader, whose duty it is to collate the corrected sheet with the one before read, in order to ascertain if the corrections have been properly made, and that others have not been created in the process. It is said to be the practice of some readers not to revise their proofs, but immediately to proceed to the forwarding of them for press. This is a dangerous mode of procedure, and ought never to be adopted. To clear some proof-sheets of their imperfections is no trifling task; an error once discovered, is of too much importance to be passed unobserved: every reader is liable to this, unless he revise each page with the greatest attention. There are many com-

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positors whose proofs are so foul, that it is almost an impossibility for them to correct all the marks at one time, consequently it is indispensable to have a second proof corrected before it can be sent out; and it not unfrequently happens that compositors, in the course of correcting, either transpose a letter or word, or else alter a letter in a word that is not marked, thereby not only leaving one error uncorrected, but also making another: likewise, when the line is raised to change the spaces, it often happens that some of them get transposed. Consequently it is absolutely necessary, in revising a proof, that the reader should not only look at the word marked, but he ought also to glance his eyes across every line in which an alteration had been made.

In those offices where more than one reader is employed, it is advisable that a proof-sheet should be read over by at least two of them; \* because the eye, in traversing the same ground, is very liable to be drawn into mistake and oversight. The interest having abated which was excited by the first reading, a certain degree of listlessness imperceptibly steals upon the mind, which greatly endangers the correctness of a proof. Should outs or doubles occur in a proof, it ought to be again read by copy, to prevent any improper connexion in the overruning, either by the insertion or removal of them.

<sup>•</sup> Although we have recommended the propriety of proofs being examined by more than one reader, yet we beg to be understood as not admitting each reader to the privilege of altering the punctuation; this duty should be exclusively confined to one individual, as no two men point alike, nor will a subject always uppear to a person in the same light upon a second or third reading; consequently where a compositor is liable, in this particular, to the whim or caprice of several readers, it being neither more nor less than the taking of so much money out of his pocket, because his valuable tine is unnecessarily frittered away: nor is this the only evil, the employer not only has the work retarded, but also his types injured, as well as the liability of creating fresh errors, &c. We are once more wrived at a point in proof of the undoubted reciprocality of interests.

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Stower concludes with these observations:-

"It may not be improper, in this place, just to take notice of the great danger to the correctness of a work which arises from the practice, too common with some authors, of keeping their proof-sheets too long in their hands, before they are returned to the printer. As the pages in the metal get dry, the adhesion of the types to each other is weakened, and the swell or extension of the quoins and furniture, which the moisture had occasioned. is removed; so that there is great danger of letters falling out, when a form is long kept from the press. the danger which is hereby occasioned to correctness the only inconvenience; the impatience of authors to see their works in a fit state for publication is almost proverbial. The pleasure arising from beholding, as it were, the 'form and texture' of one's thoughts, is a sensation much easier felt than described. That authors, therefore, may partake of this pleasure in a speedy and regular succession, they should make a point of forwarding their proof-sheets to the printer as quick as possible, not only that they may the sooner be got ready for press, but that the work may proceed in a regular manner, without being interrupted by the forwarding of other works in lieu of that, the proof sheets of which are detained beyoud the proper time in the hands of the author.

"Authors are very apt to make alterations, and to correct and amend the style or arguments of their works when they first see them in print. This is certainly the worst time for this labour, as it is necessarily attended with an expense which in large works will imperceptibly swell to a serious sun; when, however, this method of alteration is adopted by an author, the reader must always be careful to read the whole sheet over once more with very great attention, before it is finally put to press.

"A proof-sheet having duly undergone this routine of purgation, may be supposed to be as free from errata as the nature of the thing will admit, and the word 'Press' may be written at the top of the first page of it. This is an important word to every reader: if he have suffered his attention to be drawn aside from the nature of his proper business, and errors should be discovered when it is too late to have them corrected, this word 'Press' is an the signature of the death-warrant of his reputation; and if he is desirous of attaining excellence in his profession, will occasion an uneasiness of mind which will but ill qualify him for reading other proof-sheets with more care

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and correctness. A reader, therefore, should be a man of one business-always upon the alert-all eye- all attention. Possessing a becoming reliance on his own powers, he should never be too confident of success. Imperfection clings to him on every side!-Errors and mistakes assail him from every quarter! His business is of a nature that may render him obnoxious to blame, but can hardly be said to bring him in any very large stock of praise. If errors escape him he is justly to be censured -for perfection is his duty! If his labours are wholly free from mistake-which is, alas! a very rare case-he has done no more than he ought, and consequently can merit only a comparative degree of commendation, in that he had the good fortune to be more successful in his labours after perfection than some of his brethen in the same employment."

In the final revision of a proof-sheet, the eye must be cast along the sides and heads of the respective pages, lest any letter should have fallen out, any crookedness have been occasioned in the locking up of the form, any battered letters, or any bite from the frisket.



Reader, how can you wish to see, Each proof from errors always free? When next in gall you dip your pen Reflect, that Printers are but men! Why then expect in them to trace, What's not found in the human race? Should Providence this blessing send, From that hour must your bus rees end.

#### CHAP. X.

BEING advanced thus far on our journey, and in our progress having touched upon most of the subjects connected with the composing department, we now beg leave, in closing the first portion of this volume, to present our readers, in the three following chapters, with a view of those materials which, though last in our arrangement, are still not the least in importance, namely, alphabets of the various known languages, and such other characters as are connected with every department of Literature and the Fine Arts. We are well aware that many will condemn their insertion as unnecessary; but, let us ask, are they not of the utmost importance to young compositors, who probably may not have seen any of them before? and when met with in old books, they are quite at a loss to know their meaning and signification: therefore, we trust that their utility will prove a sufficient apology for their appearance.

#### MATHEMATICAL, ALGEBRAICAL, AND GEO-METRICAL CHARACTERS.

+ plus, or more, is the sign of real existence of the quantity it stands before, and is called an affirmative or positive sign. It is also the mark of addition: thus, a + b, or 6 + 9, implies that a is to be added to b, or 6 added to 9.

— minus, or less, before a single quantity, is the sign of negation or negative existence, shewing the quantity to which it is prefixed to be less than nothing. But between quantities it is the sign of substraction; thus, a—b, or 8—4, implies b subtracted from a, or 8 after 4 has been substracted.

= equal. The sign of equality, though Des Cartes and some others use this mark  $\Sigma$ ; thus, a = b signifies that a is equal to b. Wolfius and some others use the mark = for the identity of ratios.

x into, or with. The sign of multiplication, shewing that the quantities on each side the same are to be multiplied by one another, as  $a \times b$  is to be read, a multiplied into b;  $4 \times 8$ , the product of 4 multiplied into 8. Wolfius and others make the sign of multiplication a dot between the two factors: thus, 7. 4 signifies the product of 7 and 4. gebra the sign is commonly omitted, and the two quantities put together; thus, b d expresses the product of b and d. When one or both of the factors are compounded of several letters, they are distinguished by a line drawn over them; thus, the factum of a + b - c into d, is wrote  $d \times a + b - c$ . Leibnitz, Wolfius, and others, distinguish the compound factors, by including them in a parenthesis thus (a+b-c) d.

 $\[ \] by.$  The sign of division; thus,  $a \stackrel{\cdot}{\longrightarrow} b$  denotes the quantity a to be divided by b. Wolfius makes the sign of division two dots; thus, 12:4 denotes the quotient of 12 divided by 4 = 3. If either the divisor or dividend, or both, be composed of several letters; for example,  $a + b \stackrel{\cdot}{\longrightarrow} c$ , instead of writing the quotient like a fraction.

@ involution. The character of involution.

vv evolution. The character of evolution, or the extracting of roots.

 $\nearrow$  or  $\sqsubseteq$  are signs of majority; thus,  $a \nearrow b$ , expresses that a is greater than b.

 $\angle$  or  $\square$  are signs of minority; when we would denote that a is less than b.

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- on is the character of similitude used by Wolfius, Leibnitz, and others: It is used in other authors for the difference between two quantities, while it is unknown which is the greater of the two.
- :: so is. The mark of geometrical proportion disjunct, and is usually placed between two pair of equal ratios, as 3:6::4:8, shews that 3 is to 6 as 4 is to 8.
- or is an arithmetical equal proportion; as, 7.3:13.9; i.e. 7 is more than 3, as 13 is more than 9.
- ☐ Quadrat, or regular quadrangle; as follows,
  ☐ AB = ☐ BC; i. e. the quadrangle upon the line
  AB is equal to the quadrangle upon the line BC.
  - $\triangle$  Triangle; as,  $\triangle$  ABC =  $\triangle$  ADC.
  - $\angle$  an Angle; as,  $\angle$  ABC= $\angle$  ADC.
  - ⊥ Perpendicular; as, AB ⊥ BC.
- Rectangled Parallelogram; or the product of two lines.
  - The character of parallelism.
  - v equiangular, or similar.
  - L equilateral.
  - \_\_ right angle.
  - ° denotes a degree; thus 45° implies 45 degrees.
- ' a minute; thus, 50', is 50 minutes: ", "', "w, denote seconds, thirds, and fourths: and the same characters are used where the progressions are by tens. as it is here by sixties.

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 $\sqrt{irrationality}$ . The character of a surd root, and shews, according to the index of the power that is set over it, or after it, that the square, cube, or other root, is extracted, or to be extracted; thus,  $\sqrt{16}$ , or  $\sqrt{216}$ , or  $\sqrt{(2)16}$ , is the square root of 16.  $\sqrt[3]{25}$ , the cube root of 25, &c.

-: the differences, or excess.

Q or q, a square.

C or e, a cube.

Q Q, The ratio of a square number to a square number.

These and several other signs and symbols, we meet with in mathematical and algebraical works; though authors do not confine themselves to them. but express their knowledge different ways, yet so as to be understood by those skilled in the science. In algebraical works, therefore, in particular, gentlemen should be very exact in their copy, and compositors as careful in following it, that no alterations may ensue after it is composed: since changing and altering work of this nature is more troublesome to a compositor than can be imagined by one that has not a tolerable knowledge of printing. Hence it is that very few compositors are fond of algebra, and rather choose to be employed upon plain work, though less profitable to them than the former; because it is disagreeable, and injures the habit of an expeditious compositor besides. In the mean time we venture to say, that the composing of algebra might be made more agreeable were proper cases contrived for the letter and sorts belonging to such work, where it is likely to make a return towards its extraordinary charges.

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CELESTIAL	AND ASTRONOMI	CAL SIGNS.
The T	welve Signs of the 2	Zodiac.
Υ Aries	Ω Leo	3 1 Sagittaria
8 Taurus	M Virgo	We Capricort
II Gemini	_ Libra	Aquarius
5 Cancer	m Scorpio	¥ Pisces
	The Nine Planets.	
h Saturnus	Ane Nine Planeis,	
1 Jupiter		† Juno
More	H Georgium Sidus.	💆 Vesta
O Mars ⊕ Earth ♀ Venus		_
H Earth	→ Ceres	⊙ Sun
Y Venus	∤ Pallas	O Moon
even of the Planets	sometimes imply the se	ven days of the week
nes Solis, Sunday	? Dies M	<i>ercurii</i> , Wedn <b>es</b> da
les Lune, Monda		tee, Indiana
lies Martis, Tenso	lay - Z Dies Ve ies Suturni, Saturd	eneris, Friday
	on's Head, or asce	
	on's Tail, or desc	
ne two points in	which the eclipse	s nappen.
	The Aspects.	
	o; happens when	
	in the same sign a	
& Oppositio	; happens when t	wo planets stand
liametrically opp	osite each other.	=
	happens when o	ne planet stands
	ar signs, or 120	
	art of the ecliptic.	
	bappens when tw	
	each other, which n	nake 30 degrees,
r the fourth par	or the ecliptic.	0.41 11.41.
* Sextil; i	s the sixth part	of the ecliptic,
histoia tama aiam	a and make 60 de	ACTURE.

New Moon.
D First quarter

Last quarter.

First quarter of the Moon.

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Many are the signs and symbols which astronomers have invented to impose upon the credulity of the vulgar, who are the chief supporters of almanacks; and especially of such as abound in predictions of any kind: among which we reckon those signs which give notice, on what day it is proper to let blood; to bathe and to cup; to sow and to plant; to take physic; to have one's hair cut;-to cut one's nails; to wean children; and many other alike nonsensical observations, to which the lower class of people are particularly bigotted; besides giving credit to the marks that serve to indicate hail, thunder, lightning, or any occult phænomena.

PHYSICAL SIGNS AND ABBREVIATIONS.

R Stands for Recipe, or Take.

ā, aa, of each a like quantity.

to a pound.

3 an ounce.

3 a drachm.

À a scruple.

j stands for one; ij for 2; and so on.

& signifies semi, or half.

gr. denotes a grain.

One pound makes 12 ounces.

One ounce contains 8 drachms.

One drachm is equal to 3 scruples.

One scruple consists of 20 grains.

One grain has the weight of a barley-corn,

P. stands for particula, a little part, and means so much as can be taken betwixt the ends of two fingers.

P. æq. stands for, partes æquales, or equal parts. q. s quantum sufficit, or as much as is sufficient.

q. p. quantum placit, or as much as you please.

s. a. secundem artem, or according to art.

# Tppographia....243

### MUSICAL CHARACTERS.

TUNE and Time are the two chief characteristics of musical notes. In time, the distinction, measure, and proportion of notes and rests are to be observed.

As to distinction, they have different characters; and different names with relation to time.

The rests or pauses are of the same length or quantity with the notes that stand above them: as follow—

Treble, or G Clef; the line passing through the middle of the curve is called G, and the other letters are calculated therefrom. This Clef is usually placed upon the second line, though it sometimes appears upon the lowest.

Tenor, or C Clef; the line passing through the body is called C; it is commonly placed upon the lowest, the second, the middle, or the fourth line.

Base, or F Clef; the line passing between the points is called F; it is generally set upon the fourth line, but sometimes it occurs upon the middle one.

Slow Time, or Binary Measure; it is counted by beating twice up and twice down in each bar. A bar most commonly contains four crotchets, or their value.

Moderate quick Time, or the Second Mood; it is counted either by four quick beats, or two moderate in a bar This character reversed signifies the quickest time, which is counted by two beats in a bar.

244.... Typographia. (Semibreve; this is the longest note in modern music, and is equal to two Minims, in the time of playing or singing. Minim; equal to two Crotchets. Crotchet; equal to two Quavers. Quaver; equal to two Semiquavers. Semiquaver; equal to two Demisemiquavers. Demisemiquaver; thirty-two of which are equal This is the shortest note to one Semibreve. in modern music. To each of the Notes there belongs a corresponding mark of silence, called a Rest; which signifies that silence is to be kept, so long as that note which it represents would require to be sung or played. The rests are here shewn by themselves, but in the next page they are connected with their respective names and notes. w Direct. X Sharp. :S: Repeat. Natural.

A sharp (\* or \*), at the beginning of a line, denotes that all the notes in that line are to be taken a semitone higher than in the natural series; and the same affects all the octaves above or below, though not marked; but when prefixed to any particular note, it shews that note alone to be taken a semitone higher than it would be without such character.

A flat note (b or b), this is contrary to the above, that is, a semitone lower.

When a natural note ( b or b), in a line or a series of artificial notes, marked at the beginning b or \* happens to be required, it is denoted by this character.\*

A single bar is a plain perpendicular line drawn across the staff, to divide the tune. A double bar consists of two such lines, somewhat thicker, and is usually placed at the end of the piece. When the double bar is dotted, it signifies Repeat.

Semibreve, with its rest.

Minim, with its rest.

Crochet, with its rest.

Quaver, with its rest.

Semiquaver, with its rest.

Demisemiquaver with its rest.

In ancient music, the effect of the sharp was counteracted by the flat, and the flat by the sharp.

No. In the distribution of musical characters, care ought to be taken to save the edges of the traversing lines from being battered

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# AMES OF NORFOLK.

Crest.—On a wreath, a Stag's head gorged with a wreath Argent and Sable; ted, und the ends hanging down at the back of the neck. ARMS. -- Argent, a Boar's head couped, between three cross-croslets, Sable.

LAUNCELOT AMES, or AYMAS, a native of Norwich.

JOHN, born in the parish of St. Peter Mancroft, in Norwich, March 3, 1576; died April 17, 1647, aged 71.

- Ruth, daughter of Wil-liam Bridges, of and relict of Hardingham, of baptized in Yarmouth, June 6, 1622, married May 22, 1661. 2d wife, H Joseph, born at Great Yarmouth, March 5, 1619; a Captain in the which he left about 1672, and retired to

Margaret, daughter of Missing, of Dorn at Nor-July 4, 1617; mar-

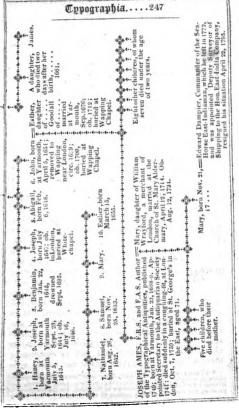
which place he died, Dec. 1, 1635, aged 76. Yarmouth, Great

Five children by the first husband.

ried May 5, 1641; died

Benjamin, died May 8,

The first part of this Pedigree is composed with the characters usually cast for genealogical tables; the second portion is executed with flowers, in order that our readers may have an opportunity of iddring whether the latter are not best adapted for this purpose.



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MARKS AND CHARACTERS USED IN DOMESDAY
BOOK AND OTHER ANCIENT RECORDS.

It is an improvement of latter years only, to have type cast to resemble the abbreviations used in the more ancient manuscripts; they being formerly rudely imitated, either from a common fount, or else were cut in wood for the purposes of any particular work. The first punches for the Demesday letters were made by Mr. Thomas Cottrell, in facsimile of the original writing; but this plan was afterwards resigned, and gave place to the improved characters cut by Mr. Joseph Jackson, which were first used in 1783 for the edition of the Domesday Book, which occupied ten years in printing, in two vols. folio, at the press of Mr. Nichols, the types for which were destroyed by fire in 1308. vious to their destruction, however, they were used in Kelham's Introduction and Glossary to that Record. In 1800 an improved fount of Small Pica, and in 1805 a new Pica, of the modern Domesday characters now in use, were cut and cast by Mr. Figgins, (apprentice and successor of the aforesaid Mr. Jackson) for Messrs. Eyre and Strahan, his Majesty's printers, expressly for the purpose of printing the splendid and valuable publications of the Commission of Enquiry into the State of the Records of the Kingdom. \* It is also an improvement, which seems a natural consequence of the former, that in most of the modern topographical works, the extracts from Domesday and the various ancient Charters, which are referred to, are printed with similar characters, and contractions; and in composing these a knowledge of their nature and use is evi-

In the years 1807 and 1808, three new founts of Domesday characters were cut by Mr. Figgins (viz. Pica, Long Primer, and Brevier) for his Majesty's printers in Scotland, for the purpose of printing the Records of that portion of the Empire.

dently of the greatest importance. For this purpose, we have procured all the ancient characters now in existence which have hitherto been cast, and some we have had purposely engraved on blank metal shafts, in order to make our collection more complete. At the same time we do do not presume to offer the following series as a perfect list of Record abbreviations, but the reader will also remember that it is entirely a new feature in a typographical work, that even from the following a general idea of ancient contractions will be given to the young Compositor, and that if our production be not entitled to praise, we shall at least deserve it for our intentions.

It is hardly requisite to state that some knowledge of the Latin, Saxon, and Norman-French languages, are requisite to give even a guess at some abbreviated words; as otherwise they are frequently unintelligible; thus, Chr, is put for Chevalier Knight, which would certainly remain incomprehensible if the language were not known; in the instance of Latin, it is next to impossible to understand the passage if this be the case; as a wrong termination of a word will frequently alter the sense of a whole paragraph. Practice and attention are the only means of arriving at perfection in this art; for no rules will generally apply, as abbreviations varied considerably at particular periods; we have however collected the following, and now offer them not as perfect guides, but only as indicators of the way. For the convenience of reference we have placed the characters in the margin, and have arranged them all in alphabetical order: after each article we have also stated whether it is peculiar to Domesday, or whether it is an abbreviation common to Charters or other Records :---

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A In Domesday this mark occurs over an Italic A, for the termination am, as Pagenham. The Roman letter is found in the Colophon of Domesday, with the same signification.

A line placed over a letter, usually signifies an abbreviation of the word in which the letter occurs; and it is evident that for this no regular rule can be given. Thus aālia, signifies animalia, usually in records translated black cattle. Sometimes the line was placed over an a at the end of a word, when it frequently stood for the Latin termination am, (1 declension accuse, case sing.) as aulā, for aulam, a hall: trā, for terram, arable land. [Gen. abbreviation.

ã

ō

à } A Domesday character, signifying of, or belonging to.

Frank-berewic, (Saxon) a town, manor, village, court, or borough, free from all services except homage: the term is occasionally marked thus, F. B. The word berewic is sometimes expressed by the B only, without the sign. [Domesday.

Beria, or bere, (Saxon) a town, manor, village, or court. [Domesday.

The A mark equal to B, signifying either two berewics, or two persons holding the same. [Domesday and general abbreviation, when occuring in a word.

An abbreviation for any part of a word, as libit hoes, for libers homines, or free-men. [General abbreviation.

C . (Cum, with, (Domesday) also a final abbreviation, as diac. for diacones, deacons: also a gen. abbrev.

Initial abbreviation for com, as \$\vec{c}\$te for contra, against, for which purpose a capital C, with a similar mark above it, was often used. Sometimes a final contraction, as \$\vec{c}\$ for tunc, then; or \$ct\$, as in predictors, aforesaid. [Domesday.

Used for cer, in fecerint, in the hundred and Quo-Warranto Rolls of Edw. I.

CO {Abbreviation for cion, as in percionibus, &c. [Domesday and general abbreviation.

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( A character used in Domesday for the letters cra. cra. at acra. or acra. C) (Initial syllable con, as in consuctudo, custom. [Domesday. Saxon Th. (Domesday. d Usually put in Domesday for dimidiatus, half. (In Domesday for de. of:-also an abbreviation for dedit, he gave: and otherwise generally used. Sometimes used in Domesday as a numeral fors. Ē Sometimes put in the Hundred-Rolls, for the terminations en or em. Est. is, or esse, to be. In some instances in Domesday the mark is put above the letter, as in the word esse, of which the first and last letters only are given, Est, is. (Domesday) also a general abbreviation, to fill up the remaining space when only a few of the letters are wanting; in most records it is entirely arbitrary. Et, and, [Domesday. This sign appears in the Inquisitiones Nonarum, for fee, as in post festum, after the feast. These letters frequently occur in the Inquisitions and Parliament-Rolls, for gis, in Magistro, and Regis.

hb A contraction placed for habebat, had.

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This mark is sometimes put over an Italic capital This word, however, H. to signify hundreda. ħ is mostly written thus, HVND. in italic capitals, and the mark above the single capital also ħđ signifies hoc, hwic, &c. this or that. The small letter is a general abbreviation, and is often used with a t. to signify habet, he has. A common initial abbreviation to signify in, or item. also: sometimes, however, it is placed with a d for the word idem, the same. in, Statuta Wallie of Edw. I. General abbreviation, varying at different periods. Ø These characters occur for ij, as in Subsidij, subsidies, in the Inquisitiones Nonarum. (A sign placed in the margin of Domesday-book, for the word clamores, to shew that the land mentioned in the text was claimed by another. Also a general abbreviation in Charters. ( When followed by ra, it signifies litera, a letter. It is also generally used, in various parts of words. A double character of the same description as the last: it is sometimes used thus, mill. for millesimo, a thousand. M This character occurs in Domesday with a capital Hafter it, to signify Manerium hoc, this manor. й (Usually placed in Domesday for the word mode. now. It has been supposed by some to signify manerio; but if it be at all used with this signification, its occurrence is very rare. Used for mer, in the Quo-Warranto Rolls of Edw. I. m Generally put for mnes, as in omnes, all. Commonly used for men, as in emendare, to

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Manerium, a Manor, for which word, a Roman

M, with a line above it, is occasionally placed.  $\overline{\mathfrak{D}}$ A Roman numeral is often set above, to shew the number of manors referred to. [Domesday. This letter is also used in Domesday for the numeral of millesimo, a thousand. This letter occurs in the Colophon of Domesday, as an initial character only, in word millesimo. (General abbreviation; it appears for ner, in generulis. n Non, not: also a general abbreviation.  $\widetilde{\mathbf{n}}$  Nunc, now: General Records. N at, termination, as in sunt, they are. [Domesday. for, as in uxoris, of a wife. [General abbrevia-O In the Inquisitiones Nonarum, the latter of these characters is used for ion, as in oblationes. The other letter is a general abbreviation. Pro, for. [Domesday and General Records. p Pra, as in pratum, a meadow : vide Exsessa, i. e. Essex, in Domesday. A general record character, used for the syllable Sometimes for pra. as in pratum, a meadow: sometimes the character is put for pre, as in prebende, the prebendaries. [Domesday and General Records. In the abbreviation of the Original Rolls, the letter with the waved line is placed for pur, in purpresturis.

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( Par, as in parcus, a park, (Domesday)-also per, by: (general abbreviation.) Sometimes used for a Greek p, in the name of Christ. [Domesday. Reference marks for a new paragraph, in the place of T, which came into use in manuscripts about the fourteenth century. [Domesday. These figures are sometimes used in Domesday in the manner of crotchets [, to convey a part of a passage above the line, but at the same time to shew its connection with the foregoing. Usually placed with a d. to signify quando, when. [Domesday. (Used in the Testa de Nevill for qua, qui, and sometimes for qu only. Final Latin syllable que, as in usque, until, (Domesday, also used in MSS. and old printed books. A Domesday contraction for quan, as in aliquantum, a very little. Most commonly placed for quam, whom. Used for any case of qui, who. Quisquis, or quiequid, whosoever. A Domesday contraction put for que, which, and quoque, also. å A Domesday contraction for the word qui, who or which; qu is also intimated by placing "over the former letter, but these marks sometimes stand for ra in pratum, a meadow. A Saxon character, used for the word quod, that. ¥ A Domesday character; signifying Requiritur; denoting that the article against which it was placed Ŗ required to be looked at again. In the Inquisitiones Nonarum it is placed for Regis, of the King. The small letter is sometimes used for the purpose, but is usually a general abbreviation.

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- A capital R is sometimes used in the Parliament Rolls for Rex.
- The final syllable rum, as in Cartarum, of the 4 Charters. The latter one is also used in Domesday with a q, for quarentina, a furlong. In the ş Inquisitiones Nonarum it sometimes stands for the terminations is or us.
- ŝ These letters appear in the Testa de Neville, for ser, in the words servicium, serjantia, &c.
- f Secundum, accordingly; it also appears in the 2d Stat. Westm. for souverain and seigneur. รู
  - In the Inquisitiones Nonarum placed for us,
- Sanctus, Saint. [Domesday.
- ĩ tem, in Item. Also of general use.
- £ Et, and. General Records. 7
  - fter, as in tertius, the third. In the Testa de Nevill it also appears for tra. [General Records.
- Æ TR initial, as in Trinitas. [Domesday.
- Sometimes valuit, and sometimes virga. (Domesday.
  - Another character for the above u, which frequently occurs in Ancient Records.
  - In the Testa de Nevill, this abbreviation is put for the final syllable um.
  - General abbreviation, as in ual, for valuit; ous, for oves, sheeps. (Domesday).
  - ( Used for the terminations us and er. in the Hundred Rolls of Edward I.
- A Domesday sign usually placed after a t, to signify the termination ur, as in the word testificatur.
- The first of these marks, is in a single instance, in Domesday, used for er, in per.

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Characters used in Domesday and other Records for the Latin termination us, as in tocius, the whole. The their mark is also used after scil. for the word scilicet, namely.

This line is more commonly to be found in Domesday placed over an Italic V, in which case it stands for the termination sms. as in burgum. It has, however, the same signification, whether placed over a Roman or an Italic letter.

Vel, or. [Domesday.

Final syllable ver, as in geldaver, (Saxon): geld-money. This character is also used for the termination ns, as in Serviens [Domesday.

Usually placed in Domesday to signify a virgate of land, i.e. from 15-30 acres. It is used in other Records as a general abbreviation. In the Testa de Nevill it is put for ver, in averagia. It generally stands for ve.

( Also used for ver, as in subvertunt, in the Quo-

v | vere, but. [Domesday.

ĩ

ã

ð

ġ

W { Used in Parliament Rolls of Edward III. for wo, in Ellesworth.

XX Placed over the top of any number, signify so many scores.

Commonly used in the Testa de Nevill for xandr, in Alexandro. It is, however, put for er, in the same Record. In the abbreviations of the Original Rolls, it stands for xor, in excerts.

This sign occurs in the Placita Rolls of Henry III. for the termination of uxoris, of a wife. (8 Declens. Gen. Case Singular.

A Saxon y used, in Domesday, especially in Grentebresire, or Cambridgeshire; as Elyfor Elii.

Used for is, in the Stat. Westm. 3d of Edwd. I. as in the word erraunts.

A sign used in the Testa de Nevill, with a contracted tra, to signify &c.

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Et, and—with the line it signifies etiam, also. This character is likewise used without the line, for the termination et, as in pertinet, belonging to. General Records.

A mark usually placed in Domesday immediately before a sum of money, which may be considered as equal to a semicolou; as De Silua xxx. den.

From the woods thirty pence.

Besides these letters and signs, there are other characters used in printing the ancient Records, which it is impossible either to reduce to any system of classification, or to give any particular rules for understanding. Thus it is frequently the case where the letters of a word are not marked with an abbreviation, that a comma is placed either at the commencement, the middle, or the end, to supply all deficiencies; as com' for comitatu, a county, terr' for terra, arable land, &c. Other signs of abbreviation to which no particular meaning can be applied, are the following,—

which are peculiar to the Domesday, where they are commonly placed at the end of various words, by the former letters of which, together with the context, we can alone learn how the vacancy should be supplied. Domesday has also the following series of marginal references for passages omitted or afterwards added, and these in most instances explain themselves—

c		ΙY	1 4	<b>!</b> 우
Øο	~	Ó	A	+
*	Χo	e e	0	+
+	1 5	<b>×</b>	1	Ф
<b>&gt;</b>	ХN	X	T	4.
×	34	0	_ ^	-

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But it would require a Dictionary of no trivial extent, to be a complete guide to the reading of that ancient Record, as the contractions often change with every County. Indeed, in a work of this nature it would be almost useless, could a complete series of all these abbreviations be given; but we may hope, from the foregoing hints, that a work which would evidently be of such extensive utility, may one day be given to the world. In the interim. the best improvement of the above Record elucidations, will be to give a specimen of the Domesday Book in its original abbreviated character; next. the extended Latin reading, with the additional letters printed in italics; and lastly a perfect translation of the whole. The abbreviated text that follows, is from Mr. Jackson's types which were cut for Mr. Nichol's edition of Domesday.

Robt ten de ead HERPERE. Aluuard tenuit T.R.E. 7 geldb p. 111.
hid. Tra. ē. 111. car. In dnio. ē. 1.
car 7 dimd. 7 111. ferui. 7 11. cotcez
. Ibi molin redd. xx. denar. 7 1x.
acp ti. 7 1111. q pasturæ. 7 1. q filuæ. 7 un burgs redd. v111. denar
. Valuit. c. solid. Modo. 1111. lib.
Vide Dorsete, Vol. I. Page 844. Col. I.

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Robertus tenes de cadem Herrere. Alward tenuit Tempore Regis Edwardi et geldnbat pro tribus hidis. Terra est trium carucaturum. In dominio est una carucata et dimidiata et tres servi et duo cotarii. Ibi molindinum reddit viginti denarios, et nocem acra prati, et quatuor quarentin pasturæ et una quarentina silvæ, et unum burgensis reddens octo denarios. Valuit centum solidos modo quatuor libras.

### TRANSLATION.

Robert holds of the same, HERDERE; [i. e. Harpur-lane]. Alward held it in the time of King Edward, and it is taxed for three hides. There is arable land for three ploughs. There is in the Lordship one plough and a half, and three bondmen, and two Cotters. The mill pays twenty pence; and there are nine acres of meadow, and four quarentines of pasture, and one burgess pays eight pence. It was valued at one hundred shillings, now four pounds.

An idea of the nature of other Records may be ascertained by the following short extract, from the first Report on the Public Records of the Kingdom, Folio, 1801. Tab. VII.

Oito xpi fidelibus hoc scriptū visur uel auditur Witti de Hotot de Woldweston Salutē.

Chart. 1 Edw. III. in the Augmentation Office.

EXTENDED LATIN READING.

Omnibus Christi fidelibus, hoc scriptum visuris vel audituris, Willielmus de Hotot de Woldweston, Salutem.

### TRANSLATION.

To all the faithful in Christ, who shall see or hear of this writing, William de Hotot of Woldweston, sends greeting.

The authorities which we have consulted for the foregoing explanations, have been the printed copy of Domesday already mentioued, Kelham's Domesday Book illustrated, the Reports on the Records of the Kingdom, and the excellent General Introduction to Domesday, by H. Ellis, Esq. of the British Museum.

### 'CHAP. XI.

### HEBREW.

"Whatever disputes may have arisen among the learned, respecting the antiquity of the Hebrew alphabet, or the manner of writing it, little doubt appears to have been entertained of the antiquity of the language itself. The writings of Moses, and the book of Job, are undoubtedly the most ancient compositions Both these acknowledged in Europe. works exhibit a language arrived at a great degree of perfection, and which must have been in use, as a written, as well as an oral tongue, long before these writings were published, or it would have been useless to have written where none could read.\*

"Besides a great number of words in the Greek, Arabic, and Celtic, which appear to have been derived from the Hebrew, the very structure of the language points it out as an original one.

"The radical words very uniformly consist of two or three letters, and the derivatives branch out from them in a manner best calculated to produce precision, and conciseness of expression.

<sup>\*</sup> Astle on the Origin and Progress of Writing, p. 12.

"The question respecting the original Hebrew characters has undergone abundance of discussion, from the times of the first fathers of the Christian church, down to this day. Origen and Jerom, on the authority of the old Rabbis; and among the moderns, Scaliger, Montfaucon, Chishull, and Dr. Sharpe in his treatise on this subject; contend, that the Samaritan was the original Hebrew character, and that the present alphabet was invented after the captivity.

"Origen speaks to this effect: In the more accurate copies of the Old Testament, he says, the sacred name of Jehovah is actually written, but in the ancient Hebrew letters, and not in those in use at present, which Esdras is said to have in-

troduced after the captivity.

"St. Jerom, in his preface to the books of Kings, puts this matter in a still stronger light: he says, the Samaritans often copy the five books of Moses, in the same number of letters as the Jews do; but their letters differ in form, and the use of points: for it is certain that Esdras, the scribe and a teacher of the law, after the taking of Jerusalem, and the restoration of the temple under Zorobabel, invented those

other letters which we now use; whereas, before that time, the letters of the Samaritans and Hebrews were the same.

"From these passages of Origen and Jerom we may very certainly conclude, that this was the opinion of the ancient Rabbis and Jewish doctors: but it is very singular and worthy of notice, that Origen says, that even in his time, the sacred name, in the more accurate copies of the Bible used by the Jews themselves, was written in the ancient or Samaritan, not in the Hebrew or modern alphabet; for both Esdras and the other rulers of the synagogue, who patronized the use of the new characters, believed themselves conscientiously bound to preserve the name of Jehovah in the same letters in which they first received it.

"In support of the opposite opinion, the modern Rabbis, the two Buxtorfs, Wasmuth, Sehickard, Lightfoot, and P. Allix, (Spanh. p. 69), &c. contend that the alphabet now in use among the Jews, is the same that the Law and Old Testament were originally written in from the time of Moses.

"Having stated the nature of the dispute, and some of the principal authors

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on both sides of the question, we think it right to remind our readers, that it is no part of this work to enter minutely into controversies of this kind.\*"

### THE HEBREW ALPHABET.

	No. 1	w. •	ricel
41h	Sounded as a in war.	A gentle aspirate	1
Aleph &	[rowel]	a.	9
		GA	3
Gimel ,	2 part	1 1	4
Daleth 7		D4	5
Не п	a in hate. [rowel]	A rough sepirate	6
Vau 1	u vowel, or before a		1 11
Zain 1	TOWNS, SP	D•	7
Cheth n	.1	HÀ	8
Teth n · · · ·	. 74		9
Jod ,	Like se in Buglish.	; consensat, or the	10
	(rowel)	suffer #	20
Lamed 5	å or e hard		50
35	1	l	40
Nun 2   Samech D	1	1	50
Nan . 2 ] \	=1	son	1 1
Samech D		1	60
HAIR D	olong. (wowel)	Ag, or Agh, the roughest	1
Phe ph		1	80
Tzaddi y	j soft	1	90
Koph	q. or qu	i	100
Resch		1	200
Shin por Si	n	e hard	300
limb	1	1	400
Inau n	<u> </u>	1	<del></del>

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In the column, No. 1, of the foregoing table, the force of the Hebrew letters, when read without points, is expressed; and the next column, No. 2, gives you their force when the language is complicated with the Masoretic points or vowels, which are certainly of later date than the present Hebrew letters.

Beth Caph		Gim	el N	an
3 )	,	2		3
Daleth Caph Res	юþ	He	Cheth	The
ר ך י	١.	ת	77	ת,
Vau Zain Jod N	Van	Te	th	Mem
1 1 '	1	1	D	Ð
Mem Sameol	b Č	Ai	in 7	Zaddi
ם ס		7	,	3

The following five letters are cast broad, and are used at the end of words, viz.

Aleph He Lamed Mem Than

N 7 D D

but are not counted among the final letters, being contrived for justifying, because Hebrew is not divided.

Although the vowel points, in the opinion of the best scholars, are not essential to the language, yet as they are still used in some Bibles, and in all works published by Jews, it will be necessary for a compositor to attend to them.

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The Masoretic vowels or points are such as are here subjoined, under the consonant 3, or beth.

# 1. The long Vowels.

Their names are-

Kametz * aa 🛊 b	аа
Tzeri * ee . 3 b	ee
Long Chirek , ii , b	ii
Cholem , oo hab h	000
Shurek 3 un 32 h	ouu
2. The Short.	•
Patach a b	) <b>a</b>
Songol ' c ; 1	90
Little Chirek i 3	bi
Kametz-chatuph 'o 3 h	00
Kibbutz ` u	b <b>u</b>
3. Shevas, which imply a Vowel to be	wanting.
Simple Sheva	

only the short vowels, to which the simple

sheva (:) is joined.

The best idea we can give of these shevas, is in the English words ev'ry and indignant. Between the ev- and -ru there is a kind of semi-sound of e: and between the indig- and the -nant there is a similar sound, as if the word was indigenant. These semi-sounds the Hebrews would call shevas.

Dagesch (·) and mappik (·) are two points placed in the body of certain letters.

The dagesch is either forte or lene.

Dagesch forte may have a place in all the letters except and it makes the letter sound double.

Dagesch lene has its place in גורנסת, and raises the sound of the letter.

Mappik has its place in the letters he

and jod.

Raphe is a short dash that heretofore was put over בנרכם ה, when they had no dagesch, to shew that they should be pronounced soft, and with the aspiration of an h.

Maccaph — is used to connect words together, which is common in Hebrew, as פ. פ. אַדויָו

Soph-Pasak is the name of the two

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great points [:], which stand at the end of each verse in the Hebrew Bible.

Besides the vowels, the Hebrews have various accents, of which some have their place over, and some under, the letter. They are not used in all Hebrew writings: but only in some books of the Bible, where they stand for notes to sing by, and are therefore called accentus tonici.—Others, again, are named accentus distinctivi, because they distinguish the sense, as pointing does in the English; and others have the appellation of ministri, or servi non distinctivi, which shews the construction and connexion of words. The figures, names, and signification, of the accents that stand over the letters, are as follow, viz.

Segol, or Segolta. . . . Strong colon Sakeph katon. . . . . . Comma Sakeph gadol . . . . . Ditto

Refia. or Rbhia. . . · Ditto

Sarka ...... Semicomma primum

Pasta..... Ditto

Geresch..... Semicomma secundum

Geraschajim..... "Ditto

Telischa Gedola... Semicomma tertium Paser minor..... Semicomma quartum

Paser major..... w Ditto

Karne para..... " Ditto

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Schalscheleth..... Semicolon Pesik, or legarme. Ditto Kadmha...... Semicolan Telischa ketanna. Ditto

The following accents have their place under the letters: viz.

Silluk ...... Punctum Atnach .... Colon

Tiphcha..... Semicomma primum Tefir.... Ditto

Jethif ...... Semicolon
Munach ..... Semicomma

Meajela..... Ditto
Jerach ben jomo. Ditto

The Hebrew has no capitals; and therefore letters of the same shape, but of a large body, are used at the beginning of chapters, and other parts of Hebrew works.

Still, however, we must not pronounce it a fault, if we happen to meet in some Bibles with words that begin with a letter of a much larger body than the text; nor need we be astonished to see words with letters in them of a much less body; or wonder to see final letters used in the middle of words; for such notes shew that they contain some particular and mystical meaning. Thus in 1 Chron. i. 1, the word Adam (الجربية) begins with a letter of a larger size than the rest, thereby to intimate, that Adam is the father of all mankind. In Genes. i. 1, the great beth in the word Bereschith (באשית) stands for a monitor of the great and incomprehensible work of creation. Contrary to the first, in Prov. xxviii. 17, the daleth in the word Adam, (D7X) is considerably less than the letter of the text, to signify, that whoever oppresses another openly or clandestinely, though of a mean condition, or who sheds innocent blood, is not worthy to be called man.

Sometimes the open or common mem stands in the room of a final one; as in Nehem. ii. 13, where the word Hem has an open mem at the end, thus, (מַיִּייִ) in allusion to the torn and open walls of Jerusalem, of which there is mention made; and in Isa. vii. 14, where the prophet speaks of the conception of the Virgin Mary, the mem in the haalma, (תִּילָיִיִי) or virgin, is a close or final letter, to imitate

the virginity of the mother of our Saviour. Such are the peculiarities of some Jewish Rabbis, in Bibles of their publication; of which we have instanced the above, to caution compositors not to take them for faults, if such mystical writings should come under their hands.

For the rest, Hebrew reads from the right to the left, like all other oriental languages, except the Æthiopic and Armenian. In composing Hebrew, therefore, the Jews begin at the end of the composing stick, and justify the vowels and accents over and under the letters after the line of matter is adjusted. But points serving often to make the sense of a word ambiguous, they are seldom used in any other than theological and grammatical writings.\*

The Hebrew, like the Greek, has more

<sup>\*</sup> The text of the sacred books was originally written without any breaks, or divisions into chapters or verses, or even into words; so that a whole book, in the ancient manner, was but one continued word. Of this kind we have still several ancient manuscripts, both Greek and Latin. From the confused manner just adverted to, which the ancients had of writing their books, arose in a great measure that multiplicity of what are termed variæ lectiones with which the moderns have found the old writings encumbered. To prevent the further accumulation of errors in the books of Holy Writ, the Jews, it is said, of a famous school at Tiberias, invented about A. D. 500, what are called the Masoretic points, which are the same with those we have noticed in the preceding part of this article.

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sorts than are required in a complete fount: which renders it difficult to make room for them in cases of common dimensions: considering that the powers of the Hebrew alphabet are distinguished by points that letters have either in their body or over it. Accordingly, we observe in some founts the dagesch forte to have a place in all the letters of the alphabet, though it is not admitted into five of them. second series is the whole alphabet, with a cholem over each letter; and a third alphabet has the dagesch in the body, and the cholem on the top. Exclusive of which treble alphabet, some founders cast a fourth, that is kerned on both sides, and makes the alphabet with a cholem needless, because by the help of the kerned alphabet not only the cholem, but even the vowels, may be made to stand in their proper places, provided they are cast after the manner of Greek accents, thin, and inclining towards the middle of the foot of the letters.\*

<sup>\*</sup> With respect to the use of points, Smith thus observes:
"That Hebrew being a sacred language, is chiefly studied by
Divines, who often make use of points in theological writings;
though plain Hebrew as well as Greek, are understood and very
frequently printed without points or accents. But that the use of
such pedagogic symbols will one time cease, is the hope of all that
delight in beholding used letter disrobed of all intruders upon its
native beauty."

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CASE.
UPPER
HEBREW

2. 2							
æ	٠	a	œ.	۵		Æ	
. м			٥	.91	٠	E	
'n	.r.	•	æ	e	.87	p	
τ.	-	·n	·e	.34	.E	-	
4	*		47	٠.	t	41	
۴	.E	4		ď	-		
٦.	æ.	D.	.m		-	.24	
,	~	39		4	٩	-	
£.	<b>.</b>	<b>\$</b>		<i>y</i>	Q.	H 1	
						- H 1	
•	<u>.</u>	.p		z		- H	
r.	  	.p.		Z [.		1 h	
9	о ш	.p.	2.	2   [		1 L	

# HEBREW LOWER CASE.

-

-

	-	=			_	_			
-	٦			.eleni	ænð	) <b>a</b>		irate	I.
5-	p	p		a Quadrate.			Quadrate		
٦		E	:	-	71		•		1
		•	-	-	۵	_	D	•	,,,,,,
·		,	1	ъ					
		a , n					_		
Ð			. <b>9</b>		п		z		N. B. The bows on the left hand side of this case contains another and another for institute the resi-
E			n			Rair Spaces	Spaces.		o o con side y
-		,		\$	<b>.</b>		-		band aide
\ - -		,	Ē.	٠.			r.		of oth the lot
: 		-		 	1	_			B The hos
m-+	m-8	ь	n-2 sbaup	m·l .sbeup	.ba	nb n	Hair spaces	Spaces	ľ

Query!...Would it not be more convenient to compositors in general, if the Hebrew lower case were laid set are as possible to the English method; this plan has been adopted by some compositors, who have acknowledged the great advantages resulting from such an arrangement. We had an use a cliptuit the scheme of such a sess\_but, upon mature deliberation, it was considered unincressary.

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	274eppographia.							
	ָר <u>,</u>	, p	m Quadrats.	Oundrate.				
	۵	-	#1		·			
	r	п	۵	a				
SE.	г. -	£	۵	E	:			
вивж Са	Å	-	•	£	,·			
Сомиом НЕВВЕВ СА5Е.	٦	г	ð	3				
Co	1	r	٦.	,				
	۵	-	^	,	`			
	r	Z		. ,	,			

### GREEK.

The ancient Greeks being divided into numerous governments, spoke the language differently in each province. Their provincial peculiarities were not only used by the common people, but also by their celebrated poets, historians, and dramatists; and hence obtained the name of Dialects.

The different modes of speaking the Greek language, by the ancients, may be classed under the four following genera or dialects, viz. the Attic, the Ionic, the Doric, and the Eolic. The Greek poetic writings consist generally of a mixture of two or more of the above-mentioned dialects; as, ex. gr. Homer, probably the most ancient Greek writer extent, generally uses the Ionic dialect, yet he occasionally introduces one or two others: Pindar's dialect is, in the main, the Doric; yet his works are not entirely exempt from instances of words written in the other dialects. Et rù de cæteris.

The Ionic dialect prevailed in Asia Minor and its adjacent islands. Examples of it are found in the works of Hippocrates and Herodotus. This dialect is known by the following marks. It substitutes  $\eta$  for  $\alpha$ , as  $\varphi i \lambda i \eta$  for  $\varphi i \lambda i \alpha$ ;  $\epsilon$  for  $\alpha$ , as  $\varphi i \lambda i \eta$  for  $\varphi i \lambda i \alpha$ ;  $\epsilon$  for  $\alpha$ , as  $\varphi \epsilon \lambda \epsilon i \omega$ , for

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 $\gamma \epsilon \lambda \dot{\alpha} \omega$ ; and  $\alpha$  for  $\epsilon$ , as  $\tau \dot{\alpha} \mu \nu \omega$  for  $\tau \dot{\epsilon} \mu \nu \omega$ . It substitutes  $\kappa$  for  $\pi$ , as  $\kappa \ddot{\omega} \varsigma$  for  $\pi \ddot{\omega} \varsigma$ ;  $\pi$  for  $\varphi$ , as  $\dot{\alpha} \pi \alpha \iota \varsigma ο \ddot{\omega} \mu \alpha \iota$  for  $\dot{\alpha} \varphi \alpha \iota \varsigma ο \ddot{\omega} \mu \alpha \iota$ . In this dialect hardly any thing is contracted, and diphthongs are resolved into two syllables.

The Attic dialect was the language of the Athenians, in which are written the works of Plato, Thucydides, Isocrates, Xenophon, Demosthenes, Aristophanes, &c. This dialect is distinguished by the following peculiarities; viz. it changes  $\sigma$  into  $\xi$ , as  $\xi \flat \nu$  for  $\sigma \flat \nu$ ;  $\sigma \sigma$  into  $\tau \tau$ , as  $\partial \acute{\alpha} \lambda \alpha \tau \alpha$  for  $\partial \acute{\alpha} \lambda \alpha \sigma \alpha$ ;  $\sigma$  into  $\rho$ , as  $\mathring{\alpha} \rlap/\rho \eta \nu$ . Contractions abound in this dialect.

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for ε, as ἀλεῦμαι for ἀλοῦμαι; ω for ε, as τύπτοισα for τύπτουσα.

The Æolic dialect was spoken by the Bœotians and their neighbours; and is preserved in the writings of Sappho and Alcœus, a small portion of whose productions have escaped the wreck of time. This dialect is distinguished as follows: it changes o into ω, as κῶρος for κόρος; ω into ο, as ἔρος for ἔρως; α into ε, as Θέρσος for παλὰς. The Latin language is said to have been derived from this dialect.

The Reader will also observe, that in the Æolic dialect the situation of the accent is changed, being placed on a preceding syllable, as κάλος for καλὸς. The asper is almost entirely omitted, as ηλιος for ηλιος; and instead of ε, the following consonant is doubled, as σπέβρω for σπείρω, χέβρες for χεῖρες.

"Oriental Grammarians have, with much propriety, divided the consonants into three classes, corresponding with the organs employed in sounding them. Thus  $\pi$ ,  $\beta$ ,  $\varphi$ ,  $\mu$ , being sounded by the lips, are hence called labials. On the other hand,  $\tau$ ,  $\delta$ ,  $\theta$ ,  $\epsilon$ ,  $\lambda$ ,  $\nu$ ,  $\rho$ , enunciated by a contact of the tongue with the extremities of the

upper teeth, are for a similar reason styled dentals; while  $\kappa$ ,  $\gamma$ ,  $\chi$ , uttered by a contraction of the larynx, receive the name

of gutturals.

"This distribution of the consonants, though here confined to the Greek alphabet. necessarily extends to any other system of letters, and well deserves the attention of him who would acquire a philosophical acquaintance with the origin and derivation To the interchange of the hoof words. mogeneous consonants it is chiefly owing, that the primeval language of men, at first rude and barren, became copious (the same original term hence splitting itself into many), was afterwards diversified into dialects, and at length lost in distinct languages. Nor is it, I conceive, beyond the reach of philological inquiries to prove, that the simple terms of any one language have their kindred terms in all the other languages, disguised indeed by the differences of character, termination, and meaning; and that they may be traced back through the several changes of social life, till they meet, like so many spreading branches, in few common roots.\*

The Greek is one of the sacred lan-

<sup>.</sup> Jones's Greek Grammar.

guages, and more frequently used in printing than any of the rest; which makes it necessary almost for every printing-office to be furnished with Greek letter, though not to the same amount of weight: for a quantity of Greek letter that will moderately fill a case, and consisting of no other than useful sorts, is sufficient to serve for notes, mottos, words, &c. and such a collection of useful sorts may be lodged in a common pair of cases, by dividing some of the boxes of the upper case for the accents, and omitting useless letters, liga-This was imtures, and abbreviations. practicable when ligatures and abbreviations were in use; for then seven hundred and fifty boxes were required for different sorts in a fount of Greek. induced the first founders of the art, to perplex themselves with cutting and casting so many different abbreviations and contractions may be partly guessed, by supposing that they were intended to imitate Greek writing, and to grace them with the same flourishes of the pen; but what could prompt them to confound themselves with an infinite number of ligatures, we cannot well account for, and only suggest, that it was the contrivance of lettercutters to promote their own business.

But this unprofitable system has almost entirely lost its credit; and Greek, at present, is cast almost every-where without ligatures and abbreviations, unless where founders will not forbear thrusting them in; or where they have express orders to cast them. Some few ligatures, however, not only grace Greek letter, but are also profitable to a compositor who knows how to use them properly.

But as we have intimated, that the useful sorts of a fount of Greek letter may be lodged in a pair of cases that contain no more than two hundred and seven boxes, we will make good our assertion by a scheme for that purpose, which will incontestably prove that a great many of the sorts must be needless, where their number occupies seven hundred and fifty boxes. It must however be observed, that almost three hundred of these sorts are the same, and have no other difference than that of being kerned on their hind side; for there has been Greek with capitals kerned on both sides. But before we enter upon the subject of ligatures, it will be most proper to dispose of the single letters of the Greek, consequently we have presented the reader with the alphabet on the following page:-

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#### THE GREEK ALPHABET.

Characters.	Names in Greek cha- racters.	Names in English cha- racters.	Sounds.	Nume- rical value.
Α α	"Αλφα	Alpha	a	1
Вβб	Βῆτα	Beta	Ъ	2
Γγ∫	Γάμμα.	Gamma.	g	3
Δδ	Δέλτα .	Delta	d	4
Ε	Έψιλὸν	Epsilon.	e short	5
Ζζζ	Ζῆτα	Zeta	Z	7
Ηη	³Ητα	Eta	e long	8
Θ3θ	Θητα	Theta	th	9
I	'Ιῶτα	Iota	i	10
K ĸ ĸ	Κάππα.	Карра	k c	20
Λλ	Λάμβδα	Lambda	1	30
Μ μ	Mữ	Mu	m	40
Νν	Nữ	Nu	n	50
ደ ጀ	Ħ7	Xi	x	60
0	'Ομικρόν	Omicron	o short	70
Πωπ	П7	Pi	p	80
Ρρφ	'Ρω̃	Rho	r	100
Σςσ	Σῖγμα	Sigma	s	200
Τ1τ	Τᾶυ	Tau	t	<b>300</b>
Υυ	'Υψιλὸν	Upsilon.	u	400
Ф фф	Φĩ	<b>P</b> ĥi	ph	500
Χχ	X7	Chi	ch	600
¥ ¥	Ψĩ	Psi	ps	700
Ω	'Ωμέγα	Omega.	o long	800

The Greek alphabet contains seventeen consonants, and seven vowels.

Two vowels sounded together form a diphthong; of which six are called proper diphthongs, formed from the vowels (including  $\alpha$  short) with  $\iota$  or  $\nu$ .

αι αυ ει ευ οι ου.

These diphthongs are exemplified in the following words:—μεσαῖς, αἰγασμὸς, λέγει,

εὐροκλύδων, οἶςρος, and οὕτα.

Instead of  $\alpha_i$  improper,  $\eta_i$ , and  $\omega_i$ , the Greeks write  $\alpha$ ,  $\eta$ , and  $\omega$ ; the point under these vowels denoting the iota, which therefore is called *iota subscriptum*, *i. e. iota* subscribed. But because capitals have no subscripts, the iota is put in lower-case to the capital letter; as,  $T\Omega_i$   $\Delta$ EN $\Delta$ P $\Omega_i$ .

The Greek vowels admit of two aspirations, viz. spiritus asper ['] and spiritus

lenis ['].

Spiritus asper has the sound of an h: and spiritus lenis denotes the absence of that sound.

All the words that begin with a vowel have one of these aspirations over them; but the vowel upsilon admits of no other than the *spiritus asper* at the beginning of a word.

In diphthongs, the spiritus is put over the second vowel; as αὐγασμα, not ἀυγασμα.

The letter  $\rho$ , at the beginning of a word, has an asper over it, as  $\dot{\rho} \dot{\alpha} \beta \dot{\rho} \dot{\alpha} \varsigma$ ; and where two  $\dot{\rho}$ 's meet in a word, the first has a lenis, and the other an asper, as  $\dot{\delta} \dot{\rho} \dot{\rho} \dot{\varsigma}$ .

The Greek has three accents, viz. acute, ['], which can fall only upon one of the three last syllables, of a word, as δρε ανίζω,

ποτρίκανον, χειμέριος.

Grave ['], which must only be placed on the last syllable, as χειμάς, ποταμός.

Circumflex [~], which only occurs on the last syllable, and the last but one, as

ποτιῶ, συλλοβοῦσα.

The apostrophe ['] is used for cutting off the vowels  $\alpha$ ,  $\epsilon$ ,  $\iota$ , o, and the diphthongs  $\alpha\iota$  and  $o\iota$ , when they stand at the end of a word, and the next word begins with a vowel; as  $\grave{\alpha}\lambda\lambda$   $\psi\iota\nu$ ,  $\delta$  for  $\grave{\alpha}\lambda\lambda\grave{\alpha}$   $\check{\nu}\psi\iota\nu$ ;  $\delta$   $\check{\nu}\gamma\rho\check{\rho}\nu$ , for  $\delta\grave{\epsilon}$   $\check{\nu}\gamma\rho\check{\rho}\nu$ .

Sometimes the apostrophe contracts two words into one, as  $\kappa \alpha' \gamma \omega$ , for  $\kappa \alpha \lambda \dot{\epsilon} \gamma \tilde{\omega}$ ;  $\dot{\epsilon} \gamma \tilde{\omega}' \mu \alpha \iota$ , for  $\dot{\epsilon} \gamma \dot{\omega}$  of  $\dot{\epsilon$ 

άργυρον.

Sometimes an apostrophe supplies the first vowel beginning a word; as,  $\tilde{\omega}$  ' $\gamma \alpha \theta \hat{\epsilon}$ , for  $\tilde{\omega}$  à  $\dot{\alpha} \alpha \theta \hat{\epsilon}$ ;  $\pi o \tilde{\nu}$  ' $\varsigma_i$ , for  $\pi o \tilde{\nu}$  è $\varsigma_i$ . This is chiefly used in poetry.

But the prepositions περὶ and πρὸ suffer no apostrophe, though the next word begin

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with a vowel; for we write weel haur. wol

ήμων, περί μέτρων, κ. τ. λ.

The diæresis ["] separates two vowels, that they may not be taken for a diphthong: thus, αυτή with a diæresis makes three syllables; but without a diæresis av is a diphthong, and causes airy to consist of but two syllables.

Diastole [,] is put betwixt two particles that would bear a different sense without it: thus, δ, τε δ,τι signify whatever: whereas 576 stands for as, and 571 for that.  $T_{0,\tau\epsilon}$ , with a diastole implies and this, but when without, it answers to the adverb then.

The sign of interrogation, in the Greek. is made by a semicolon [;], as, Τὶ λέγεις; What dost thou say?

The colon, in the Greek, is made by

an inverted full-point [.].

Besides the above there are several figures of speech in the Greek tongue to which the Reader must attend, as they will be of great use to him in distinguishing the errata of authors and compositors. from the several anomalous licences of the Greek poets and historians; they are eleven in number, viz.

Prothesis is a letter or syllable added

to the beginning of a word, as τεταγών for

ταγών, σμικρός for μικρός.

Aphæresis is the taking away a letter or syllable from the beginning of a word, as  $\delta\rho\tau\dot{\eta}$  for  $\epsilon\phi\rho\tau\dot{\eta}$ ,  $i\rho\dot{\delta}_{c}$  for  $i\epsilon\rho\dot{\delta}_{c}$ .

Syncope is the taking away of a letter or syllable from the middle of a word, as εὐράμην for εὐρησάμην, ἐγένατο for ἐγενήσατο.

Epenthesis is the addition of a letter or syllable to the middle of a word, as  $\tilde{\epsilon}\lambda\lambda\alpha\beta\epsilon$  for  $\tilde{\epsilon}\lambda\alpha\beta\epsilon$ , όππότερος for όπότερος, ξενος for ξένος.

Apocope is something taken from the end of a word, as δω for δωμα, ποσειδω for

ποσειδώνα, βρί for βριαροί.

Paragoge is when something is added to the last syllable, as ησθα for ης, τύπτεσκε for ετυπτε.

Metaplasmus is the change of the last syllable of a substantive to the same case in another declension, as κλαδί for κλάδω.

Antithesis, or Antistoichos, is the substitution of one letter for another, as πόρσω

for πόβρω.

Metathesis is the transposition of the letters in a word, as έρξω for ρέξω, έπραθου

for έπαρθον, καρτερός for κρατερός.

Synalæpha is the elision of one or two vowels coming together in different words, as τα μὰ for τὰ ἐμὰ, τοῦνομα for τὸ ὄνομα.

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Anadiplosis, or Reduplication, is the repetition of the first or second syllable, as κεκάμωσι for κάμωσι, άταρτηρὸς for άτηρος, ἐτήτυμον for ἔτυμον.

Such compositors and readers as are not Greek scholars, and even those who are, but have not paid attention to accents, will do well to bear in mind what has been said above concerning the proper situations of the spirits and accents; as many of the faults which so frequently offend the scholar's eye, might thereby be avoided. The following rules may be easily borne in mind:-No accent can be placed over any other than one of the three last syllables of a word. No vowel can have a spirit, except at the beginning of a word. grave accent never occurs but on the last syllable; and this being the case, the asper grave [a] and lenis grave [a] can be wanted only for a few monosyllables, and less than half the quantity usually cast would be enough in a fount. Almost all words have an accent, and they very seldom have more than one; and when this happens, it is an acute thrown back upon the last syllable from one of those words called enclitics, which in that case has none, unless it be followed by another enclitic. In no other case than this can a last syllable have an

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acute accent, except before a full point, colon, or note of interrogation, when the grave accent on the last syllable is changed to an acute; a circumstance which has often led printers who were ignorant of the reasons for accenting the same word differently in different situations, to think that there was an error in their copy, and thus to make one in their proof. Most errors however proceed from those who do not think at all about the matter,—"qui correctiones non curant, et cantando literas jungunt, quod non potest fieri, nisi mendose."\*

<sup>•</sup> It will be seen, by our scheme of the Greek cases, that we have removed the accents, &c. from the tirrec lower, to the three upper tiers of boxes on the left hand side of the case, in order to bring the capitals more under hand, by placing them in the compatibilities and the capitals more under hand, by placing them in the compatibilities and the subject of the development of the accents getting into dissection has been adopted in consequence of the accents getting into dissection has been adopted in consequence of the accents getting into the subject of the subject o

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CASE.
UPPER
GREEK

2	88	~ a	F-2-			
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81	1ψ	32	14	10	42	43
8:	· w	3:	- 14	10 /	:2	ε;
8"	F-9	74	5m-4	ho	63	₽3
84	64	34	2~	20	3	€%
₹8	-€Ψ	*5	#~	10	2	*3
78	>₩	38	7-9	70	GK	84
গ্র	e9	38	0-4	40	45	43
85	eg.	2	2-4	50	G\$	8.2
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8-	-Ψ	3.	~~	10	د٠	-3
8'		l	1		-	
0	`ω	1,2	~-	0	<i>c'</i>	1,3
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kern Ø	400	4	Н	ni	•	ð.
-	400 400	4	-		<del></del>	1
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kern Ø	400 400 :00 in 30	4 4 :	Н	ni	•	ð.
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kern kern	100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100	+ + : : : : : :	н Z	m Z	ъ. Т	9-
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kern kern kern kern	#400 #400 #400 #400 #400 #400 #400 #400	4 4 : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : :	r A E Z H	K A M N	P 2 T 2	D 2 4 7 8

GREEK LOWER CASE.

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٠,۵	9-	derbang &			
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kern	γ,	~			
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kern 19	90	×	25	\$	
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# CONTRACTIONS AND LIGATURES USED IN THE GREEK LANGUAGE.

THE labour which a continual multiplication of manuscripts required, was the cause of the invention of sigla, ligatures, and contractions, in order that the writing might be more rapidly executed. even for some time after the invention of printing, did those signs, peculiar to the Greek language, decline; on the contrary, many books of the sixteenth century are now extant, where the words are almost as much contracted as in the Grecian manuscripts of three hundred years previous. This, however, is not the place for a dissertation on the abbreviations of any tongue: more especially as we have already given two articles upon the subject :- one of them, on Latin abbreviations, the reader will find in page 210: and the other on the Characters of the Domesday-book, and other ancient Records of England, at page 248. The present list, therefore, consists only of the arbitrary marks in use in the Greek language, which widely differ from those of the English, by having some similarity to the letters they represent, although complicated and confused by being linked together: hence they were denominated ligatures, from the Italian word legatura, a It remains only to be remarked, that fillet, or tie. the modern Greeks retain in some degree the custom of contracting words in their writings; and that M. Calbo, who lately visited this country, had, by his own extraordinary industry, amassed together the most extensive and perfect series of Greek contractions, which probably any person was ever yet possessed of. The authorities which have been used in compiling the present collection, are Calligraphia Graca, by John Hodgkin-Lond. 1794.

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Folio. Astle's Origin and Progress of Writing—Lond. 1803, Quarto. A Practical Grammar of the Greek Tongue—Lond. 1740, 8vo. and Elementa Linguæ Græcæ, by Dr. J. Moor—Edin. 1806, 8vo.

	•	-
Aα	2ε · · · · · γρ	$\varsigma \varphi \cdots \epsilon \varphi$
cu ayas		B 'E 071
dyαλ	δαδα	δ <b>ι ∈</b> υ
, •		1 LI
<b>λλλ</b> 'αλλ	dav δav	lu nv
andnan.ax	ું તી વૃદ . દુ	Θ 3 θ
ờπο ἀπὸ	2/g διά	$\theta \alpha \dots \beta \alpha$
αραρ	Εε	91 321
	d es final	
αυαυ	รีปี เรียงละ	C XQY Kalı
αυ · · · · · · · αυ του	čx єк	кт ката
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γ\$ γ <i>ã</i> ρ	1	
$F \dots \gamma \gamma$	汉····································	Λλ
<b>γεγ</b> ε	1	$\lambda \alpha \dots \lambda \alpha$
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29	2Cypograph	ia.
	<b>Бу</b> тара̀	
معما . وهم محمل	Ф лер	50
μβμεθ	æπερι	ωσσ
τί μθυ μεν	יוף או נייני און די	In the alpha- bet of Cad-
μςμενος	Hebrew Lamed or numerical character for 90	mus, this character is placed for oo, but its modern use
μ <sup>m</sup> μελά μλω ···· μην	Pρ	is a numeral for 900.
μμ	ggρα	050y 00a1
עמאן אלמן	es	05716071
O o A	0	οτωσσω
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Eppographia293							
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† 1795	τώ τ τῷ τῶ τ τῶν	Χχ					
(9 τ τ πο. το 	Υυ	$\chi \alpha \dots \chi_{\alpha}$					
T	\$	χαχα χεχα χεχα χεχα					
(7) 7···· 7è»	y	$\chi \dots \chi_{\eta}$					
Toum S TOU	<b>~</b> ℃ ₺ π	$\chi_0 \dots \chi_\ell$					
The train	<b>του</b> . υπερ	Ωω					
TOU TOUS	\$ Und	ω					

e It will be proper to remind the reader, that he must not consider the foregoing list of contractions as containing the whole which have been invented; their number being so great, that they would have extanded our list to more than treble its present size, without proving of greater utility to the compositor, for whose assistance they are here presented. For the following reasons we have deemed its sufficient to inseft those only which have been generally used in England; first, it not unfrequently happens, in the reprints of early printed books, that the compositor meets with Greek, in which the ligatures have been used just, then, such only as we have given are likely to arrest his attention; consequently it would be fruitless to perplex him with what he can have no occasion for: secondly, the multiplicity of characters invented by the Serbles, prior to, and during the infancy of the art, can be regarded in no other light than as mere curiosities, which are interesting only to the scholar and the antiquary; thirdly, it is not probable that an instance can be addaced at the present day, of an early Greek manuscript, containing ligatures, &c. being placed in the hands of a compositor; should it be required to prove them of a printing-office; tourthly, as while passing contract from any such, they would, unquestionship, by while passing over the contained of a printing-office; tourthly, as while passing over become choolets, no autor would think of copying contractions out of any Greek manuscript, well knowing that the printer could not execute them for him. Under the above considerations, we faster ourselves that we have amply fulfilled our duty on this bead, in faraliships the above the above the base of the heads of in faraliships the above the sous like heads.

#### CHAP. XII.

#### ALPHARETS OF ANCIENT LANGUAGES.

BESIDE the Greek and Chaldean-Hebrew Alphabets already given, a Printer's Grammar generally contains specimens of many others, belonging principally to the Eastern Nations, which are both obsolete and modern. The greater part of them are now rarely used; but in order to give an idea of the characters of other countries, as well at the present day, as at a former period, we have inserted an extensive collection of the most ancient and singular, so classed and explained, as to render a reference both easy and satisfactory. It has been, however, the principal defect of Typographical Grammars on this particular subject, that their information is so barren, that little else can be learned from them, beside the power of each letter, as it corresponds with the English Alphabet: the peculiar names of the characters are also omitted, and the reader is left in doubt whether the language be read from left to right, or from the right hand to the left. These faults evidently arose from the compilers copying after each other, without taking the trouble to gain any new or useful information; but in the present instance, as we have seen the error, so we have attempted to remedy it, by giving such an account, both of each language and the powers of the letters, that some idea is given to the reader of the genius and construction of the various tongues. This information has been the result of much labour and research; in addition to which, for the benefit of those who wish for further instruction on this peculiar branch of learning, we have mentioned the authorities consulted, to which they also may refer.

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It remains only to be stated, that we are greatly indebted to Dr. Fry, for the liberal use he has given us of several ancient alphabets engraved for his admirable and learned work, entitled Pastographia.

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Ancient languages may be classed in the following order, which has been adopted from the plan followed in the Dictionnaire des Sciences, contained in the article on "Caracteres et Alphabets de Langues Mortes et Vivantes." brew, Samaritan, and the Chinese tongues, have each laid claim to originality, but the latter may be considered rather as a figure or emblematical writing, than a regular system of letters and words. Of the other two, it is generally supposed, that they, together with the Assyrian and Chaldaic, are the same in effect, but differing in the forms of the characters, (vide the page of Samaritan and Hebrew which will appear in this chapter, in the order of succession). These alphabets, it is stated, were used before the Flood, and to some of them is attributed an age equivalent with the time of Adam. This, however, must in a great degree be regarded as traditionary, but, at the same time, as a powerful evidence in favour of their superior antiquity; and, therefore, the Hebrew may be considered as the first great source whence the other tongues of the earth have been derived. The immediate descendants of the Hebrew were the Samaritan, the Chaldaic, the Arabic, the Syriac, the Egyptian, the Ethiopian, and the Syro-Galilean; and its collateral issue were the Phoenician, and the Palmyrenian. Phonicians the Greeks acknowledged to have received their letters; and from them the discovery was communicated to the Romans. Thence it spread to all the European nations, excepting Turkey,

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where it was carried by the Arabs, to whom the Hebrew tongue was brought by Kahtan, an ancient King of Arabia, and a descendant of Ishmael.

Table of the Descent, and general Connection of the Ancient
Alphabets used in the following Series:---

Hobrow, supposed to have been the primitive language of the world.

Sameriten, Chaldean, Arabie, Syriae, Ryppium, Ethiopian, Chiesees the meet an probably used in Island invested letters first seed at Kuth, in the by Hem. used by a of the Ha-brew. Ban, abt the Es-Jacob, 1922. Caphille ban, abt the Es-Jacob, 1923. deephers, 2008 yrs phraine, about 5 gans S.C.

cendant of inhunel, B. C.

Persian. Syro-Habrail

Turkish. invented in the Jewish Captivity, in the VII. century before Christ.

Phenician. Coptie. This nation was almost drawn of Cadmus, from Phenician, about 300 yours B.C. 1493.

Etruscan. Georgian, Sclavonian.
Dalmatian. invented Bulgarian.
about the Bussian.
1V. contury,
A. D.

the Greek, by Gulphila, A. D. 270.

Prante.
Charlemagne. Tentonie.

German, Sazon. Anglo-Sazon, or Domesday

Taking, therefore, the Antediluvian Hebrew as our foundation, we shall first shew the alphabets it gave immediate rise to; then proceed with the next language in the order of time, and so continue until the whole series of ancient characters shall be completed.

HEBREW.

Or the modern Chaldaic tongue, generally denominated the Hebrew, we have already given a particular description; (vide page 280) and, therefore, what is here introduced relates to the ancient alphabets only. "Theseus Ambrosius," says Duret, (in his Histoire de l'Origine des Langues de cest Univers,) "in his Appendix of many and various letters and tongues, attributes to King Salomon the two following alphabets, but by what authority the author does not say; if they be not from certain treaties falsely attributed to him, written in the same, of which, it is supposed that Apollonius Thianesus was the interpreter and commentator."

The above are to be read from right to left, and are of the same powers as the modern Chaldee.

In the following alphabet, we find the original figures of the letters used at the present time by the Hebrew nation. "These were invented," says Duret, "when the ten tribes revolted, and rent the crown of Judah from Rehoboam, the son of Solomon." Their invention is attributed to Eddras,

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or his son Jesus, High-Priest to the tribes of Judah and Benjamin, which placed themselves under the government of Jerobsam, at their chief city, Sichen, in the land of Samaria. In that country they greatly declined from the Jewish faith to idolatry, but they still retained the use of their ancient characters; and, therefore, Esdras and such of the Jews as held to their original religion, invented the following alphabet, which is written, like the foregoing, from right to left,

uriosities, has been the most particular it upon the left hand tooth, the sound becomes Sin hence it was denominated the C in proof of this, we find that the characters which in the second alphabet of Salomon

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which treats more particularly upon "the reading of the stars, and whatever else is seen in the air," he first assumes from Isaiah xxxiv. 4, where it is said, "the heavens shall be rolled together as a scroll;" and from several similar passages of Scripture, that the skies are to be considered as a volume, and in it there must of consequence be letters, words, and sentences, for the perusal of man. It would seem, that between this "Writing of the Angels," as it was anciently called, and the science of Astrology, there is a near connection; because the nature and influences of the stars themselves, are to be taken into consideration, when the letters of heaven are read. But if the subject be viewed closer, it will appear to be of a more literary nature, since the stars were formerly distinguished by the letters of the ancient Hebrew alphabet: and when that was concluded, then two letters were used, and sometimes a third was added to express the disposition of the star, as the former were meant to denote its situation. Most of the Eastern nations supposed the constellations to represent various figures significative of seasons, &c. but the Hebrews considered them as words, formed not only by those distinguishing characters which they had attached to them, but also made up by the starry courses bringing different letters in contact; and thus forming different words. The author of the work already mentioned, gives five rules for reading this celestial language, which are as follow; firstly, it is to be observed how the stars are placed, whether close together, or spread abroad: secondly, it must be remembered that the fixed stars may, in the course of years, by diverse aspects of the planets, form various words: thirdly, particular attention must be paid to the appearance of new stars; since, by their situations, they materially alter the sense of the ordinary ones, as an additional letter will in common writing: fourthly, the vertical stars should be well considered, because their declaration influences the countries immediately beneath them: and. fifthly, the reader of these magnificent characters, must be able readily to distinguish the four cardinal points of Heaven, and the stars peculiar to them; for by this rule, good or evil fortune is to be ascertained; the former being read vertically, or from West to East, and the latter from the North to the West. Throughout the whole system of this starry writing, a close coincidence with the Hebrew language may be observed; the sentences formed by it are short and abbreviated, and sometimes only the most prominent word is presented to the eye. Thus, a short time before the Babylonish captivity, five stars exactly above Jerusalem, formed the Hebrew word Nataq, which signifies, to drive out, break, and cast down. The numbers of the letters as they rank in the Hebrew series, are also to be taken to discover the time when their prophecies shall be accomplish-

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ed; in the above instance, they amounted to 505, which designated the year when the Jewish kingdom was destroyed, counting from Saul to Zedichias.

The original method of engraving these letters for printing, most completely identifies them with the constellations, as the points were left entirely clear upon a broad connecting line of black; so that they had, as it were, the ap-

own, and this receives some support from more than one passage of usually supposed that the blessed spirits of the skies have a peculiar dialect of heaven, would also be curious in their enquiries after that of the instance, St. Paul says, the above authority. Dutch and German Jews make it a guttural, and pronounce it Oigin, which is supported It is likely, that the same people which formed a language from This letter is particularly doubtful in its sound; the modern way is to call it Sin, I speak with the tongues of men and angels:" again, St. John the (Chap, xiv. ver. 3), says, when speaking of the praises of First Epistle to the Corinthians, (Chap. xiii, ver. 1. Scripture.

Ch Z
Ch Z
Ch Z
This letter is part the Ducks and German by the above andorny.

1-88-1 3-1

W C

< %

the characters have not the force of those in Gaffarel, to the ancient Hebrew astrologers. Their names were similar to have considerably more elegance. Alphabet which follows, was cut for The invention of these

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deemed, "and they sang as it were a new song, ----- and no man could tearn that song, but the hundred and forty and four thousand which were redeemed from the earth."

Most of the writers, however, who have touched upon this mysterious subject, have contributed greatly to bring it into disrepute by connecting it with cabalism; and not unfrequently with magic. They usually make it a language

of the place are greatly attached to their ancient Chaldaic characters which they supmethod of readin Arabs, is generally used and written by the Bagadets; but the natives Bagadet, which is under the power of the Turkish Emperor, and another ancient Chaldean al Rech The common language

ımage. Malachim, or the Writing of the Angels; and Duret, on the autho-The following are similar to the foregoing in their names, powers , states that the Tables of the Law given to Moses, were written as formed by the stars. The aucient Hebrews called Angels when written down, otherwise their charac doubted whether it be in the possession of in this case, and the following alphabe language alons

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pose originally to have been brought from Babylon, and which they have long preserved with the highest respect, from the traditions of their ancestors. These letters are written and read from right to left.

The Babylonish Captivity was the great cause of the corruption of the Jewish language; when the Chaldean be-

came blended with the Hebrew; and the second of the above alphabets is another proof of the assertion. This Chaldean character, which is similar in name, power, and reading as the last, was used by the Jewish inhabitants of Persia and Media, as well as by those of Babylon.

however a slight variation in the names of letters, extracted from ancient marbles brought from the Holy some of the characters, and

lently supported by the shape of the letters, which appear to be only one remove fron priety, however, consider the present alphabet as Samaritan, concerning Samaritan, lossess the same powers, as the Chaldean characters already given; is referred by

cates of five, with an additional character, like the Nun, placed at the end of the alphabet.

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by that river, together with the names of the Children of Israel, which were supposed to have been added when they crossed the water under the command of Joshua. The Jews have asserted, that the characters were found engraved on a statue which stood him when he crossed the river Jordan, which divides Chaldea from Canaan; and the grection of this Altar or Pillar, by Abraham, in Canaan, is mentioned in Genesis xii ham of Palmis, a learned Jew; Augustine Pantheus, a Venetian Priest; and Theseus 7, and his journey into that country in verses 5 and 6 preceding. The addition morial erected by the children of Israel, is described in Joshua, ch. fv. v. 1-8. that after the invention of points, many devised vowel marks for themselves, and the relates that in many of the Eastern tongues, such as the Hebrew, Syriac, Ismaelitish, Ambrosius, all relate the same circumstance. There is another alphabet attributed to the Patriarch Abraham, which was given The Chaldean writers did not always make use of points to stand for vowels. &c. are to be found words and vowels belonging to the Chaldean.

modern Chaldeans, who live under the rule of the Turks, when they use their ancient characters for their sacred books, preserve this practice, Most of their nation are not of the Jewish faith, but follow the Nestorian heresy, concerning the divinity and humanity of Christ. They use the Turkish language in speaking and common writing, but they celebrate divine

several variations of the

Zenicat hich are represented beneath, with their corresponding powers, in his Treatise of many and Divers Languages, called the followwhich they term Chaldaic, write their doctrinal books in a his Treatise of many and Divers .

Before closing our series of the Chaldean alphabets, we shall once more shew that now in use, commonly called the Hebrew; in connection with the Samaritan, of about the same age as that which we have already given as us ed by Abraham.

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The Samaritan Alphabet, With the Chaldaic, or Modern Hebrew

Sacuaritan	Chaldee	Names.	Sound.	R S*	Nos.	Pinal.
15	×	Aleph	Arlef	S	1	N 1000
3	ב	Beth	Beth	S	2	
T	コンア	Gimel .	Gimmel	R	3	
3.	٦	Dal eth.	Darleth	St		
A	П	He	He	S	5	,
₹	7	Vau	Vow	S	6	
19		Zain	Ziin	s	7	
Ħ	П	Cheth	Heth	S	8	
•	0	Teth	Teth	R	9	
rt i	,	Iod	Yod	S	10	
25	מרמעם	Caph	Kaf	S	20	
2	5	Lamed	Larmed	S	30	7 500
ᄴ	2	Mem	Mem	S	40	'.
ななない。	נ	Nun	Nun	R	50	<b>□</b> 690
Ħ	ס	Samech	Sarmech	R	60	700
V	רסמפר	Ain	Iin	R	70	
2	Ð	Pe	Pe	R	80	
m	צ	Tzaddi	Tsaddy	R	90	ክ 800
P	P	Coph	Kof	R	100	y 900
<b>1</b> 3	7	Rech	Resh	R	200	1
1	ש	Shin	Shin	R‡	300	
1/4	ות	Tau	Thau	S	400	
3		RS in this co	ama mesa Ra	dical or	Sezvile.	

The Samaritan alphabet given above is a series of small letters, suppoised to have been brought from the Egyptians. That on the text single was, however, thought by Dr. Morion to be more correct.

1 the frebrew this letter is a radical.

2 his letter is service in the liberew.

mar, by Charles Wilson, D.D. Edinb. 1818, Octavo, and the Grammar prefixed to Park-harse's Hebrew Lexicon, Lond. 1792, 410. Nolan's Grammars of the Hebrew and Chuland that hence they were denominated Chacom or Chesem, Hebrew expressions sig-nifying a Seer; which may remotely have given rise to the idea that letters were of are Levi's Lingua Sacra, Lond. 1785-7, 3 vols. Octavo; an Introduction to Hebrew Grammagical origin, since they were first brought into existence by the Hebrews, the Sama-On this part of our subject we have only to remark, that throughout the Scriptures the Chaldeans always have the character of learned men, magicians, astrologers, &c. itans, and the Chaldeans. The best introductory works on the Chaldean language, Wg have already stated that the Hebrew language was carried into Arabia, by Kahtan, an ancient King of that nation, and a descendant of Ishmael. The earliest uie Lunguages, Lond. 1821, Duod. Musclef's Grammatica Hebraic, Paris, 1731, Duod ARABIC.

letters of the Arabs that are now extant are the Kufic, which carry in their form sufficient evidence of their relation to the Hebraic. These, as being a fragment of the ancient language, are highly esteemed in Arabia, and are to be learned only in the sacred Colleges. They recei red their name from being first used at the City of Kufri, on the

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banks of the Euphrates, and they gave way to the modern Arabic in rented by the Vizeer Moklah, \* early in the tenth Century: excepting that they are still used occasionally for the titles of books and public inscriptions, and are called by the Arabians Lisan-ennahwi, or the Grammatic Language, in contradistinction to the common Arabic, which is denominated Lisan-elumma, or the Language of the People. The Arabic now in use is written from right to left. and their alphabet, as will be hereafter shewn, is composed of twenty-eight letters; six more than are contained in either the Syriac or the Hebraic. The Arabs have also a character composed of the letters Lam and Alif, which they denominate Lamalif; it has the power of La. in 'she numeric value of the letters is the same as in the I lebrew; and the six extra characters, are employed like the Hebraic elongations and finals, in carrying on the series of numbers from 400, where the twentysecond letter stops, to 1000. Indeed, these latter six characters, are varied only by their points in appearance, and by a guttur al or aspirate in sound, from their primitives which occur earlier in the alphabet. The Arabians use five orthographical points for the government of their characters. Hamze, on the letters Alif, Vav, and Ye, doubles the We sla or Ousla, is set upon Alif, to shew that its own sound is merged in that of the succeeding letter. Madda, is placed upon Alf, to render it long, and it is used also as a n ark of abbrevation. Giezma, on a consonant makes it qui escent; and Taschdid, doubles the character on which it appears. There are also in the Arabic tongue three grammatical signs, denominated Tanouin or Nunnations; of which Oun signifies the Nominative case; An, the Accusative; and In, the Genitive, Dative and Ablative. There are of course many other points and peculiarities in this extensive tongue; much of which the Arabs suppose to he lost; but it would be impossible in the present instance to give more than a very few hints concerning a language which is so copious as to contain upwards of 80 expressions for boney, 200 names for a serpent, 500 for a lion, and more than, 1000 for a sword. Indeed, the Arabians believe, that no aninspired person can ever perfectly understand it. The modern introductory work on this subject, is Richardson's Grammar of the Arabic Language, Lond. 1801, Quar-We now proceed to shew the present Arabic alphabet,

The intrigues of this Vizeer, who lived under the Calipha Moct: wier, Caher-Billah, and Badhi-Billah occasioned him to under so three capital sentences of the Law. He first lost his right hand, then his left, and lastly his tongue. He complained however chiefly of his first loss, since with that hand he had thrice copied the Ke wan, and his manuscripts were esteemed the most perfect models of writing.

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premising only, that as in most of the Eastern tongues, the characters assume a different shape according to their situation, whether initial, medial, final or single. With respect to the sound of the letters, we have added an english word to each character, containing a similar sound, which is pointed out by being put in italic.

### Modern Arabian Alphabet.

lai- tial.	Medial.	Final Con.	Unces.	Name.	Sound and Power.	
1	1	1	1	Alif	Wall, Dress, plain	A
ڊ	•	ب	ب	Ве	English B	В
ï	2	ت	ت	Те	English T	T
;	2	ٺ	ث	Thse	Thing	Тz
ج	*	ŧ	<b>ج</b>	Gjun	Genius	G
>	3	4		Hha	H aspirate	H
خ	غ	2	てさい	Cha	Kh aspirate	Ch
د	٦	2	3	Dal	Dt	D
ذ	ذ	ذ	ز	Dhsal-	Thou	Dz
,	,	,	,	Re	English R	R
ز	;	;	;	Ze	Rose	Z
ر س	-	_	سَ	Sin	Sound	s
ش	<u></u>	ش	ش	Sjin	English Sh	Sj
ص	ص	ص	1 1	Sad	Dissolve	s
ض	ض	ض	ض	Dad	Dh aspirate	D
٦	ط	Ь	ط	Та	It aspirate	Т

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#### Modern Arabic Alphabet continued.

1	' .					
fai- tial.	Medial.	Final Con.	Uncon.	Names.	Sound and Power.	
ظ	ظ	ظ	ظ	Da	Dth aspirate	D
2	<b>R</b> '	ح	ن	Ain	à guttural	Y
غ	ġ.	ئ	غ	Gain	Ghastly	G
ۏ	ė		ف	Phe	English F	Ph
ۊ	ĕ	ق	ی	Kaf	Cough	K
5	2		ك	Kef	English K	C
1	1	J	J	Lam	English L	L
عد ا	*	م	م	Mim	English M	M
;	خا	ن	ن	Nun	English N	N
وا	,	٠.	ٔ و	V.au	o. u. v. w	W
ھ	4	Å.	۵	Не	Long E	H
ڍ	<u>.</u>	ي	ي	Je	i. ee. y	J

The Arabic language is divided into many dialects, which differ from each other as well in construction as in pronunciation: yet it is so generally understood, that Mr. Jackson states, that any one having a knowledge of it, may travel from the shores of the Mediterranean to the Cape of Good Hope; across the widest part of the African Continent from East to West; along the course of the White River, or Nile of the Negroes; and proceed from Marocco to the Eastern shores of China, opposite the Islands of Japan; in the whole are an immense portion of the Eastern hemisphere, and yet find the Arabic language spoken and understood, wherever he came. The Moors use the Arabian language somewhat corrupted, though the characters are the same; but in Marocco, Fas or Fez, Salee, Mogadore, and the Northern parts of Africa, the following letters were formerly used, under the name of the

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he present Moorish characters; Remarks on

guage commonly called Moors, by Captain George Hadley of Bengal, Lond. 1776, 8vo...-Grammatica Marusta, by the Spanish Missionaries, Rome, 1778, 8vo...-Grammatica Lingue Mauro-Arabicæ, by Francis de Domboy, Vienna, 1800, Ouarto. A New Edition of Hadley's Moorish Grammar, by Francis Gladwin, 1808...-An Account of the Empire of Ma-

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rocco, by James Grey Jackson, Esq. Lond. 1809, 4to; and the same excellent Arabist is now employed upon a Moorish and Arabian Grammar, which (from his well known abili-tics) may be expected the most perfect introduction to those languages yet published. Before closing our account of the Arabic, it will be proper to mention that Arabia received its name from the Hebrew word Arab, which signifies West, because that country was situated to the West of The Arabians themselves, however, derive it from Yarab, the name of their founder, whose descent from Shem, the son of Noah, is mentioned in Genesis x. 21--26. "Unto Shem also, the father of the children of Eber, even to him were children born .-- The children of Shem; Elam, and Ashur, and Arphaxad, and Lud, and Aram .-- And the children of Aram; Uz, and Hul, and Gether, and Mash .---And Arphaxad begat Salah, and Salah begat Eber .--- And unto Eber were born two sons; the name of the one was Peleg: for in his days the earth was divided; and his brother's name was Joktan .--- And Joktan begat Almodad, and Scleph, and Hazarmaveth, and Jeruh." (Yarab.)

#### SYRIAC.

THAT the Syriac language is an immediate descendant of the ancient Hebrew, is not to be doubted, since it was frequently called by that name, as well as being denominated the Chaldean, Babylonian, Aramean, Mesopotamian, and Assyrian. It was also one of the common languages spoken by the Jews in the Babylonish Captivity; and in the New Testament, many words occur in this tongue. Some historians, however, carry it back to a much earlier time; and assert that it was a distinct language, when Jacob served Laban of Padan-Aram for his daughter Rachel. however, proves it more closely to have been a dialect of the Hebrew, since those who are even most anxious to establish the antiquity of its own characters, assign to them an existance of only 300 years before Christ; whereas Jacob left Padan-Aram 1739 years before that event. The warmest supporters of the Syriac, however, assert, that it is the ancient Hebrew, and that its earliest characters were used by Abraham and Moses. The Syriac was divided into three dialects. First, the Aramean, or Syrian properly so called; which was spoken in Mesopotamia, by the inhabitants of Roha or Edessa, and Harran, and the outer Syria : second, the dialect of Palestine; spoken by the inhabitants of Damashk, Mount Libanus, and the Inner Syria: and the third, the Chaldean or Nabathean dialect; spoken in the mountainous parts of Assyria, and in the villages of Irak or Babylonia. The first of these was the most elegant, and

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the latter the most rude. In the sixth century after Christ, the Syrians had carried the Christian religion into China, in the reign of the Emperor Taitcom; as in 1625, a large fragment of marble was found at a small village near Sighanfou in the province of Chensi, which contained an account of the Syrian Missionaries success, from the time of their entering the country till the year 782, when the inscription was written, The letters were engraved in the Stranghelo character, and round the margin were the signatures of sixty-six Syrian priests, and also of one Adam. to whom was given the title of Vicar-General, and Papal Deputy of Tsinestan, or the Kingdom of China, which is denominated Tsin by the Orientals. The Syriac language is written from the right to the left, although Duret quotes a Latin verse, to prove that the Syrians wrote from the top of the page downward, like the Chinese and the Mantchou Tartars. The names of the twenty-two letters of the Syrian Alphabet differ but little from those of the Hebrew; they are also used for numerals, in the ordinary way, as far as Trodde, and then are extended in the following manner. Youd, with a point above it, signifies 100; while Koph, Lomadh, Mim, Noun, Semkath, Ee, Phe, and Tzodde or Soodhe, similarly marked, express 200, 300, 400, 500, 600, 700, 800, and 900. Olaph, with a sign below it, like the French grave accent, stands for 1000, and Beth, with the same mark, for 2000. Oluph, with an horizontal line beneath it, is equal to 10,000; Youd, also underlined, makes 100,000; and Koph, thus distinguished, is one million. Again, Olaph with a mark similar to a circumflex put under it, specifies. ten millions: under Beth it makes twenty millions, and so continues through the alphabet. The Syriac is not spoken at the present time, as the common language of the Syrians and Maronites is Arabic; although the Syriac, like the Latin language in Europe, is used for their religious services and their sacred writings. When the Syrians would write any thing to be concealed from the Turks, they use the Arabic tongue and the Syriac characters; and as the former language has six letters more than the latter, they add a point to their own Tav, Koph, Dolath, Ssodhe, Tteth, and Ee, to stand for the Arabian Thee, Cha, Dheul, Dud, Da. and Gain. The Syriac is also the learned tongue of the Christians of St. Thomas in India: and some of their books which contain certain of the spurious Gospels, are written in a beautiful hand, and with as pure a dialect as that used in the Syriac version of the New Testament. The Syrians yet call their vowel points, by the names of Abrohom, Eschaia, Odom, and Ouriah. The following is an ancient Syriac alphabet, which, according to Duret, consists of the small letters only, invented for running characters,

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on account of the facility with which they might be traced. These, he also hints, were written from the top of the paper to the bottom.

medial and final letters of a large modern

Hanono

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of the above classes, may generally be divided into two syllables. onsonant with two vowels prefixed or subjoined, are dissyllables or two consonants with a vowel between them, are to be considered as monosyllables, vowel in the middle, readily separate into three syllables, as well as those which have W ords of three consonants, two consonants with a vowel prefixed or subjoined, or one only the simple powers of P, and S, are by some grammarians considered as aspirates, is sounded by some as a guttural Ch, or Gh, as in the Scottish word, ter preserves in general its own simple English sound. he following general rules will render it more easy. livide Syriac words into syllables, on account of the omission of the close vowels, but of the modern Syriac; with the following regulations. Gomal and Koph are uniformly pronounced with the hard sound of the English G, and C, as in Gedeph, Kether, Cheth, according to the English power of the respective letters, as shewn in the ensuing table atter are those which are not expressed in writing. The consonants are to be sounded wo classes, open and close: of the former are Olaph, He, Vuw, Jud, and Eee; and the Shemcath as T, and S, unaspirated. Phe and Sin, on the contrary, instead of the words in which they occur pronounced accordingly. in reading the Syriac language without points, no letter is silent; but each charac-Words composed of two letters, The vowels are divided It seems difficult to Words not of either Loch; and Theth, having

several vowels or consonants in the same place. Syriac words are usually accented on the last syllable but one, unless they be increased by a grammatical change, in which case the accent falls upon the additional syllable. In the annexed alphabet and table all the forms of the modern Syriac letters are shewn, together with their power, both as numerals and as it respects the English letters.

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Modern Syriac Alphabet.						
Names	Initial	Medial	Final Conucci.	Final NonCon.	Po-	Numbers
Olaph	1	1	1	1	a	1
Beth	C	þ	Ç	ာ	b	2
Gomal	"	1	4	7	g	3
Dolath	,``		†	, G	d	4
Не	<b>√</b> ~ . 6	Ť.	† 7L	51	e	5
Vaw	0	٥	a	0	u	6
Zain	1		1	1	Z	7
Cheth			} •••		h	8
Theth	1 4	} ♣	<b>-</b> ₹	4	th	9
Jud	3	•	<u></u>	٠.	i	10
Coph	۵	ء ا	<b>,</b>	4	c	20
Lomad	2	2	~	3	1	30
Mim	k / v	1 4 7 8 1 B 1	×	مر	m	40
Nun		1			n	50
Shemcath	89	m	<u>B</u> 7	8	sh	60
Ee	2	2	10.	0	0	70
Phe	2	2	ھا	2	ph	80
Tsode	1	_	ł	1	ts	90
Koph	30;	3	39	39;	kh	
Rish	,		i	,	r	
Sin			الم	1.4	s	
Tau	2	÷ A	Δ	2	t	
Tau	2	Λ.	Λ	2	t	

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The following Double Letters are used in the Syriac; viz.

for 2] used at the beginning and in the middle of words.

for used in the middle of words.

p for 12 used in all places.

The Vowels are expressed by Points, placed either over or under the Letters:

Petock. (a)  $\stackrel{>}{\rightarrow}$  or  $\stackrel{>}{\rightarrow}$  | Zekoph. (a)  $\stackrel{>}{\rightarrow}$   $\stackrel{>}{\rightarrow}$   $\stackrel{>}{\rightarrow}$  Rebotz. (e)  $\stackrel{>}{\rightarrow}$   $\stackrel{>}{\rightarrow}$   $\stackrel{>}{\rightarrow}$  Eztotz. (u)  $\stackrel{>}{\rightarrow}$   $\stackrel{>}{\rightarrow}$   $\stackrel{>}{\rightarrow}$  Chebotz (i)  $\stackrel{>}{\rightarrow}$   $\stackrel{>}{\rightarrow}$   $\stackrel{>}{\rightarrow}$ 

The following letters are very similar in form, though different characters: viz.

The ribbui, "placed over a letter; thus, ä denote such word to be in the plural number.

The following are the Stops used in the Syriac language—

.:: : : which answer to our , ; : . x?

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The best works on the Syrian language, are Nomenclator Syriacus, by John Baptist Ferrarius, Rome, 1622, 4to.: Lezicon Syriacum, by Charles Schaqf, Leyden, 1717, 4to.: Masclef's Hebrew, Chaldaic, and Syriac Grammar, already mentioned: Lexicon Syriacum, by Anthony Zanolini, Patav.

uction to Syriuc Grammar, by the Rev. Frederick Nolan, Lond 4to/: Lexicon Syriucum, by Edmund Castell, Gottingen,

Baptist, and who were formerly known under the names

t thus denominated

and forms of their Characters, which are

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Another alphabet to which the epithet of Syro is attached, itse following, which was formerly much used by the Jews in Syria. The names of the characters are the same as the foregoing, and the language is read as before, from left to right.

first Egyptian writing characters sacred in Egypt. r is well known, that the earliest characters of the Egyptian f whose works Eusebius has preserved a animals, trees, plants, and various other figures either separated he great qualities of the persons represented were displayed invention was both rude and contracted in its powers, ye many significant emblems , and made these

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denominated Hieroglyphics, or Sacred Sculptures; and sometimes the Grammata, or the Letters and Portraits of the Gods. Socrates, as cited by Plato, Diodorus Siculus, Cicero, Pliny, and many other ancient authors, attribute this method of writing to the same Prince as we have already mentioned, under the names of Memnon, Menes, Mercury, Hermes, Thot, Osiris, &c. It is not probable that a perfect analysis of these Hieroglyphics, nor indeed of the general characters so called, can now be exhibited to the world; but it is truly amazing, to witness the advancement which this abstruse science has made in the last and present centuries. The researches of Denon. Burckhardt. Salt, Belzoni, and the Egyptian Society, have reduced a large portion of the mass of Hieroglyphics into order; and we shall now proceed to abstract from their labours, a short account of the new classification of these arbitrary signs, before we give any specimens of the written letters of the Egyptians. Previous to commencing, it will not be improper to observe, that the etymons of the word Hieroglyphic, are significative of the origin which has already been attributed to those signs, as they consist of ispoc, sacred, and

γλύφω, to carve.

From the Pillar of Black Basalt, which was discovered by the French at Rosetta, and which contains fragments of three different species of inscriptions; it has been ascertained, that the sacred Hieroglyphics were not the same as those used for common purposes; which have been well distinguished by the Greek name Enchorial, which signifies the characters "of the Country." It is curious for those unacquainted with the art of Decyphering, to review the means by which a series of unknown characters is considered, analysed, and explained; and it will not be irrelevant to introduce our account of the Egyptian Hieroglyphics, by a detail of the methods by which arbitrary characters are translated into English. Although this study appears peculiarly abstract and difficult, yet the rules upon which it is founded are few in number, and easy in application. The first is, to select all the different characters from any given subject, and observe if they in any way agree with the number of letters in the English alphabet; whether by considering c, as k or s; i, as j; k, as q; u as v; &c. or in the ordinary manner. The characters which occur the most frequently, must next be separated from the secret writing; and from these another selection must be made, of those which are oftenest repeated again. By this process four of the vowels may be ascertained, viz. a, e, i, and o; of which e will be the most common, and the others will occur in their own regular proportion. The next particular to be observed is, the divison of the words;

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and though it is customary with writing in Cypher or Hieroglyphics, as well as with many ancient languages, to continue the subject in one uninterrupted line; yet there is usually some point or sign interposed, to mark the ending of certain passages, and a character which repeatedly occurs, may often be considered as such. These, then, are the most important general rules for Decyphering; but the orthography, and genius of the language in v hich the subject is written, must always be well considered, together with every other circumstance of collateral information. which can be collected to enlighten it. The Decyphering of Hieroglyphics, is conducted upon a principle similar to the above; and M. A. J. S. de Sacy, in his "Lettre au Chaptal sur l'Inscription Egyptienne du Monument trouvé à Rosette," Paris, 1802, Octavo, makes several curious remarks upon the plan which he pursued. From him and from several other eminent writers, upon this abstruse but interesting subject, the following observations have been compiled. In the year 1501, during the memorable Campaign in Egypt, the Scavans attached to the French Army, discovered in the ruins of Fort St. Julien, which stands near the mouth of the Nile, on the Rosetta branch, a large broken stone, of Black Basalt, having an inscription engraved upon it in three different kinds of characters; namely, the Sacred Hieroglyphics, the usual letters of the Country, or the Enchorial, and the Greek. After the Battle of Alexandria, on the 21st of March, it was covenanted, in the Answer to the 16th article of the Terms of Capitulation of that City, dated August the 30th, that "the Arabian Manuscripts, the Statues, and other collections which have been made for the French Republic, shall be considered as public property, and subject to the disposal of the Generals of the Combined Army." This answer occasioned perhaps more discussion, than any other contained in the Capitulation; as the French General asserted, that all the Monuments of Antiquity collected by the Egyptian Institute, were private property. Menou, who commanded the French Expedition, had selected the RosettaStone for himself: and, in consequence, it was carefully packed in soft cotton cloth, with a double matting. After much dispute on the subject, the Egyptian Antiquities were relinquished to Major General Turner, for Lord Hutchinson, who com-manded the English Forces after the death of Sir Ralph Abercromby; and who, on his part, resigned the Insects and Animals collected by the Egyptian Institute, as the care which had been employed in preserving them, had made them in some degree private property. When the Arabian Manuscripts, and the various Antiquities had been ceded to the British; the French Army tore the covering

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from off the Rosetta Stone, and threw it down upon its face, and the others were treated in a similar manner. At length, with considerable difficulty, the Rosetta Stone was safely removed from General Menou's house, to that of Major General Turner; from whence it was embarked on board the Egyptienne, a captured French Frigate, in which it arrived in England, in February, 1892. By permission of the Secretary of State, it remained for some time at the Apartments of the Society of Antiquaries, whence it was finally removed to the British Museum, where it is still preserved in the IX. Room of the Gallery of Antiquities,

No. 38. From this Stone, a large portion of the Egyptian learning of England has been acquired; inasmuch as the Greek inscription not only details its history, and translates the other two, but it also serves as a key for the identifying of various Hieroglyphics, as well as of the Enchorial charac-Although a considerable portion of the Hieroglyphic inscription, and a part of the Enchorial and the Greek are broken; yet enough remains for them to enlighten each M. de Sacy observes, that in translating these Hieroglyphics, a small group of characters which frequently occur in almost every line, is either some termination or some common particle, and assuchitmust be considered, till, by the development of the larger members of the sentence. their true signification be found. It generally happens, that these characters stand for a copulative conjunction; such as and with, or else signify an union of what has gone before, with that which is to follow. The characters for King. Alexander, Ptolemy, Egypt, and Alexandria, were discovered by a similar process; and these general points gained. the intermediate passages may be supplied by a repetition of the same plan, taking Greek words of less and less importance, and comparing them with the Hieroglyphic, and Enchorial inscriptions, until all the vacancies were filled The Rosetta Stone, however, has not been the only guide to Egyptian Literature; but the discoveries made by it. have been considerably assisted by Egyptian Monuments in general, although more particularly by the Green Sarcophagus of Alexander, and the Zodiac from the Temple of Dendera. The former of these, is a Sarcophagus covered with Hieroglyphics, formed of a stone called by the French Breche Verte; which was discovered in the Mosque of St. Athanasius, at Alexandria, in the same Expedition as the Rosetta Stone. Till the French Army possessed themselves of Alexandria, this Sarcophagus was preserved with such caution, that only Mahometans were permitted to view it. After it passed into the hands of the French, which it did by their breaking open the doors of the Mosque, removing

it from thence, and concealing it under the most miserable

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rags in the hold of a shattered Hospital-ship: the history of its delivery to the British, closely resembles that of the Rosetta Stone. At one time, indeed, the Capitan Pacha, refused to resign it, having possession of the vessel in which it was placed. Monsieur le Roy, however, the Prefect Maritime, at length, took measures for the safe delivery of it to Major General Turner, by whom it was embarked with most of the other Egyptian Antiquities on board the Admiral. Sir Richard Bickerton's Ship; and after it had arrived in England, it was deposited in the British Museum. It is now preserved in that National Depository in the IX Room of the Gallery of Antiquities, No. 5. The Sarcophagus itself, is formed according to Professor Hailstone, of Egyptian Breccia, Syenite, or Green Porphyry. It measures, 10 feet 34 inches in length, within: 5 feet 34 inches wide at the head, which is circular; 4 feet 21 inches at the feet, without; and ten inches in thickness. Egyptian tradition, well supported by historical evidence, shews that it was originally formed for the reception of the body of Alexander the Great: which was first buried at Babylon, where being embalmed, it was wrapt in a thin envelope, or Puelos of beaten gold: which was afterwards exchanged for a cover of glass. After it had lain two years at Babylon, it was removed to Memphis, and subsequently to Alexandria, his own City, where it was interred in a splendid Temenos, or Shrine. In the year 389, when the Christians destroyed all the Idols within the City, this interesting relict was also devastated, and the building which enclosed the Sarcophagus, was converted into a Christian Church, and dedicated to St. Athanasius. In 640, the Invasion and Conquest of Alexandria by the Saracens, again caused a change in the Shrine of the Hero; as it then became a Mosque, still, however, retaining its Christian name. For a long series of years, by the Nations of Arabia and of Egypt, and by a series of many eminent authors, from the loth Century downwards, the tomb of Alexander has been admitted. recognised, and held sacred: added to which, the beauty and peculiarity of its decorations and materials, identify it as being the production of Egypt, of the time of Ptolemy Soter, and the same Coffin as Olympias, the Mother of Alexander, caused to be made for him of Egyptian Marble. The foregoing particulars concerning this invaluable Sarcophagus, have been extracted from a highly erudite and interesting work on the subject, entitled "The Tomb of Alexander, a Dissertation on the Sarcophagus brought from Alexandria, and now in the British Museum," By Edw. Dan, Clarke, L. L. D. Cambridge, 1805, Quarto.

Two other Egyptian Monuments, which have been already mentioned as having proved of considerable importance to Europe in the study and decyphering of Hieroglyphics; are the Planisphere and Zodiac, discovered by

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Mons. V. Denon in the Great Temple of Dendera, or Tentyra, and copied in his "Voyage dans la Basse et la Haute Egypte, pendant les Campagnes du Général Bonaparte." Paris, 1802, Fol. Vol. II. Plates, 130, 131, 132. Dendera, anciently the large City of Tentyra, is a Town of Upper Egypt, situated at the edge of a small but fertile plain, about a mile from the left hand bank of the Nile, and 242 miles South of Cairo. Its Temple, magnificent even in ruins, is the first that the Egyptian Traveller discovers on ascending the Nile; it is 200 feet in length and 145 in breath, and has 190 windows, through each of which the Sun enters in rotation, and then returns in a retrograde The front of the Temple is adorned with a beautiful cornice and frieze, covered with Hieroglyphics, over the centre of which is the winged globe; while the sides are decorated with compartments of sacrifices. the front of the building is a massive portico, supported by 24 immense columns, in four rows, having circular shafts covered with Hieroglyphics, square capitals resembling Egyptian Temples supported by four human heads horned, and round foliated bases on square plinths. On the ceiling of this portico is the large Zodiac, partly carved and partly painted in natural colours, on a blue ground studded with yellow stars. The general design of the Zodiac is divided in two, and represents two female figures, which bend over the divisions, typical of Isis, or the year; with a winged globe placed against each, allusive to the Sun entering his course. Each band of the Zodiac is divided into two, by a broad line covered with smaller Hieroglyphics. On the upper division of the Zodiac, which is the broadest, are represented six of the Zodiacal Signs; and under them, in the second division of the top band, are 19 boats, each carrying a figure significative of some astronomical appearance; accompanied by an Egyptian inscription in a square. The Constellations and other Heavenly bodies were the Divinities of Egypt, and it was supposed that they performed their revolutions in boats. The other great band contains the six remaining Signs of the Zodiac; and on its lower division are 19 other boats, as before. The Rev. Samuel Henley, in his very instructive and highly erudite remarks on this Zodiac, published in the Monthly and Philosophical Magazines, says, that these boats signify the nineteen years of the Metonic, or Lunar Cycle, which contains 6940 days; after which, the New and Full Moons, and other Aspects, are supposed to return to the same day of the Julian Year. The smaller Zodiac, or rather Planisphere, is carved on the ceiling of a separate quadrangular apart-ment, on the East side of the Temple. It is of a circular form, and is supported by four human figures standing, and eight kneeling, who have hawks heads. M. Belzoni supposes, that this part of the Temple was built at a later

period than the rest, as nothing like it is seen any where The dissertations of Visconti and Henley have proved, in opposition to the infidel arguments of Ripand, Petau, and Archer, that these Zodiacs are of the age of Augustus Cæsar; and that they were erected in the Julian Year 4695, which then regulated the Egyptian; twentyfour years before the actual birth of our Saviour, and twenty-eight years before the common Era. All this is confirmed by the following Greek inscription, over the outer or Southern portal of the Temple: ... "On account of the Emperor Cæsar, God, the son of Jupiter, the Deliverer, when Publius Octavius being Governor, Marcus Claudius Posthumus Commander in Chief, and Tryphon General, the Deputies of the Metropolis consecrated, in virtue of the Law, the Propylæum to Isis, the greatest of Goddesses, and to the associated Gods on the Sacred Thoth." The Country of Egypt, had at that time become a Roman Province; and Augustus Cæsar, in the 31st Year of his age and the 725 year of Rome, ordained that the Egyptian Thoth should

for ever commence on the 29th of August.

A great acquisition, however, of Egyptian knowledge is to be acquired from the researches of Signor Giovanni Belzoni; since he has not only brought many specimens of Hieroglyphical Paintings and Egyptian Antiquities to England, but he has also produced the most perfect resemblances in large coloured models, of parts which he was not able to bring away. Of his additions to Egyptian literature we shall confine ourselves to two: namely, the Head of the Little Memnon, and the Tomb of the Kings at Thebes. The Bust of the Little, or Young Memnon, at Thebes, being about to be sent to the British Museum, and Sig. Belzoni's route laying up the Nile, he proceeded to procure a firmann for his journey; when he was engaged to bring the statue back with him. This splendid bust is composed of a single block of Syenite, the upper part of which is chiefly red, and the lower terminates in a broad lead-coloured vein which runs in a decreasing line up the back to the top. It weighs twelve tons, and measures ten feet in height, from the breast to the top of the head. "This head," says the Philosophical Magazine, "which the French were unable to remove even after blowing off with gunpowder a portion of the back part, M. Belzoni, by the assistance solely of the native peasantry, without the aid of any machine, succeeded in removing from Thebes to Alexandria. The chief difficulty lay in transporting it from Thebes to the Nile, to get it on board a vessel for Alexandria. This labour required a degree of patience and perseverance which few men possess: it took him six months, though the distance to the Nile was only about two miles." It reached England in the Summer of 1816,

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and is now placed on a pedestal in the British Museum, Room IX. No. 11. From the proportions of the head, it is concluded that the figure to which it belonged was, when perfect, about 20 feet in height. The head, as already mentioned, has suffered the loss of the right side of the skull, but the features are entirely sharp and perfect, and are of a beautiful smiling character, partaking more of the Grecian than of the Egyptian models. The face is that of a young and handsome person, with a long square beard, and a closed mouth; but the red colour of the stone at this part, gives to the bust a singularly pleasing appearance. The back of the figure is carved with a broad band, upon which are several particularly fine Hieroglyphics, as they are sculptured of so large a size, and with so great a degree of care, as render them extremely valuable to Egyptian Literature. It was from these Hieroglyphics, that Dr. Young concluded, that this was the bust of a Young Memnon: but it is not that which uttered musical sounds at the rising of the Sun. It was brought by Sig. Belzoni from the ruins of the Memnoniun in Thebes; where it must have lain many centuries amidst the fragments of that Palace. which Cambyses, King of Persia, destroyed 525 years before the Birth of Christ.

The Tombs of the Kings at Thebes, as discovered and displayed by Sig. Belzoni, have proved another valuable source of information, with respect to Egyptian Literature. History, and Hieroglyphics. We shall now proceed to give a particular abstract of his account of the Tomb of King Psammuthis, as it is given in his very valuable and amusing work, entitled a "Narrative of the Operations and Recent Discoveries within the Pyramids, Temples, Tombs, and Excavations, in Egypt and Nubia." London, 1820, 4to.; and the Series of Illustrations in Folio. These Tombs were situated in the Sacred Valley of Beban el Malook, which commences at Gournou in Upper Egypt, inclining South-West, and gradually turns due South. It is divided into two principal branches; one of which extends two miles towards the West, which place its extremity at the distance of five miles from the Nile River. The other branch, in which by far the greater number of tombs are situate, is parted from Gournou by a high ridge of rocks, which however can be crossed from Thebes within an hour. The sacred burial ground is also surrounded by rocks, and it can be entered only by crossing the rude paths which lead over the mountains, or by a single natural entrance, shaped like a gateway. The rock itself, out of which the Tombs are formed, is of hard calcareous stone of exquisite whiteness. About 12 o'clock, on the 18th of October, 1818, Sig. Belzoni entered the grand Tomb of King Psammuthis; which was situated at the foot of a steep hill, under a torrent.

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which pours down with great fury in the rainy seasons. Although he had previously made several discoveries of Sepulchres, yet none were in any degree to be compared with that, either for beauty or interest. Eighteen feet below the surface of the carth appeared the entrance to the Tomb, which was considerably obstructed by large stones; but which, after the labour of another hour, were sufficiently removed to allow of a passage into the first corridore. Immediately within this passage, which was about 36 feet in length, and nearly 9 in width, were two figures as large as life; one of which appeared to represent the hero entering the Tomb, and the other a Deity with a hawk's head, on which were traced the globe and serpent. receiving him. Both of these figures were surrounded by Hieroglyphics; and some distance from them, nearer the ground, was sculptured the form of a crocodile. The remainder of both the walls were also covered with characters and Hieroglyphics, written in columns, separated by perpendicular lines; which circumstance led Sig. Belzoni to suppose, that the Egyptians read from top to bottom. On the ceiling of this passage was painted an eagle, with wide spread wings, with the corn-measure and two feathers on his head, holding in each claw a party-coloured feather. issuing out of a sceptre, and a signet-ring. Above the eagle were some smaller figures, such as the semi-globe. two sistri, the sacred hatchet, and two names placed within the usual annulus or ring. The ground of this painting was dark blue; the eagle's figure was party-coloured, red, white, and black; and the smaller Hieroglyphics were white and yellow. At the end of the first passage, was a staircase cut out of the rock, 23 feet in length, of about the same width as the corridore; having a niche on each side, and adorned with figures, with human bodies and heads of various animals. At the foot of the stairs was a door, on either side of which was a kneeling female figure, with her hands upon a globe, and over each of them a fox, which was usually placed by the Egyptians to watch the doors of Sepulchres. Above the door were two names. encircled with annuli; and supported on either side by two kneeling genii, holding the keys of the Nile, whose wings spread above the names. Through the door appeared a second passage of 37 feet in length, on the right of which was delineated a Funeral Procession, seemingly in the act of taking the Sarcophagus down into the Tomb, attended by a boat with male and female figures, and the Egyptian bier with the ram's head, drawn by men. On the left side were similar processions, in which was introduced the sacred scarabæus, or beetle, drawn on a medallion elevated in the air. At the end of the second corridore, a pit or well of fourteen feet across, and thirty in

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depth, seemed to stop all farther progress. The wall, on the upper part, was decorated with coloured figures nearly the size of life, which appeared to represent several deities, some of which were receiving offerings from various persons. In this pit, supposed to have been formed for the reception of the water, occasioned by the mountain rains running into the different passages, which have all an inclination downwards, were suspended a rope and a wooden beam, that had formerly been used in crossing the chasm, but which fell into dust upon being touched. On the opposite side of the pit was a wall, apparently terminating the tomb, as it was plastered and painted similar to the other; but in it was broken an aperture of about 3 feet square. On the 19th, the day following the discovery of the tomb, means were provided for crossing the pit, and entering the aperture, when beyond it was discovered a most splendid Hall, 27 feet 6 inches, by 25 feet 10 inches, supported by four pillars, each of which measured 8 feet square. On every side of these pillars were painted two figures in dark red, with white, and sometimes variously coloured dresses; and these represent, in general, a male and a female deity. On the right-hand wall were three tiers of men drawing a chain, one end of which is attached to a standing mummy; and in the two lower were funeral processions, with a row of mummies placed on biers. On the left was a military procession advancing towards a large figure; and behind them were three different species of people, evidently Jews, Ethiopians, and Persians, with some Egyptians, followed by a hawk-headed figure with a staff. It was from this procession, combined with the other Hieroglyphics, that Dr. Thomas Young discovered the names of two heroes, for whom, in all probability, this tomb was built; namely, those of Nichao and Psammuthis his son. Nichao, Nechus, or Pharoah-Nechoh, was the son and successor of Psammitichus; and reigned 1732 years after the Universal Deluge, or 616 years before the Birth of Christ. Early in his reign, about the Julian year 4104. he commenced the stupendous labour of endeavouring to cut a canal from the Nile to the Red Sea; a distance of about 120 miles at the narrowest part, and in some places more than double that space: but after losing 12,0000 men in the work, he yielded to the command of an oracle. which stated that a barbarian or foreigner should finish it. When Nichao ceased from this labour, he turned his thoughts to war; and, after building two large fleets of gallies, in the year 604 before Christ, he employed the best Phenician mariners he could procure, to coast along the African shores, and thus affected the Empire of the Seas, While his navies were so employed, before Christ 610, Nichao is said to have made war upon the Medes and Ba-

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bylonians; but the Scriptures state, II. Kings, chap. xxiii. v. 29. that he went out to fight with Sarac, or Sardanapalus, King of Assyria, who was then on the River Euphrates. In his march through Canaan, from Egypt towards Babylon, Nichao was opposed by Josiah, King of Judah. The design of Nichao was to besiege Carchemish, a large City which stood on the borders of Syria, and on the banks of the Euphrates, to the North of Jerusalem In the II. Chronicles, chap. xxxv. v. 21. it is stated, that in consequence of Josiah's opposition, that Nichao "sent ambassadors to him, saying, What have I to do with thee, thou King of Judah? I come not against thee this day, but against the house wherewith I have made war: for God commanded me to make haste: forbear thee from meddling with God, who is with me, that he destroy thee not. Josiah, however, listened not to Nichao; and the result was, that the Jewish and Egyptian Armies met in the spring-time, in the valley of Megiddo, which lay about 40 miles North of Jerusalem, where Josiah was mortally wounded, and Nichao continued on his march. Having arrived at Carchemish, he took the City, and having garrisoned it with his own troops, was returning towards Egypt. when he heard that Jehoahaz had assumed the crown of Judah. After a reign of only three months, Nichao commanded Josiah to meet him at Riblah in Syria: a town about 130 miles to the North-east of Damascus. As Nichao had already acquired considerable power over the Jewish forces and Nation. Jehoahaz met him there, when he sent him bound into Egypt, placed his brother Eliakim on the throne, and "put the land to a tribute of an hundred talents of silver, and a talent of gold." About the year 607 before Christ, Nebuchadrezzar, King of Babylon, marched with the intention of recovering the Syrian and Phenician Provinces, and expelling the Egyptians from Nichao, however, advanced towards the Carchemish. Euphrates with a powerful army, and a dreadful conflict took place, in which the latter was defeated with terrible slaughter, and the loss of all Syria and Judea, up to the city of Pelusium, which stood on the banks of the Mediterranern Sea, or the River of Egypt, in the Lower division of that Country. After this overthrow Nichao never quitted his kingdom, although he entered into a compact with Jehotakim, as if he would have renewed his own war against Nebuchadrezzar, and have supported the Jews in opposing him. Nichao reigned 16 years over Egypt, and died about the year 600 before Christ, leaving Psammis, or Psammuthis his son, to succeed him. Of this Prince little more is recorded than that he reigned six years, and died in an expedition against the Ethiopians. Such are the memoirs of the two celebrated Sovereigns for whom the

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splendid Tomb, discovered by Sig. Belzoni, was erected: since the processions of captive Jews, Persians, and Ethiopians, completely coincide with the above histories. To return to the Tomb. On the wall opposite the entrance of the last-mentioned Hall, was one of the most beautiful pieces of composition which perhaps was ever produced by the Egyptians. It consisted of four human figures of the size of life, representing Osiris seated on his throne, holding the flail and reaping-hook, with an azure face, and the corn-measure and feathers upon his head, receiving the homage of Psammuthis, introduced to him by Arueris. the Egyptian Apollo, a hawk-headed Deity. Behind the throne was a female, apparently the Goddess Buto, in at-tendance upon Osiris. The whole group was surrounded by Hieroglyphics, and enclosed in a frame richly adorned with symbolical figures, consisting of the winged globe, a line of serpents, and a multitude of smaller Hieroglyphics. On one side of this sumptuous painting was a large door, from which three steps led down into another chamber. measuring 28 feet 2 inches, by 25 feet 10 inches, supported by two pillars, which were 3 feet 10 inches square. Both the walls and pillars were covered with figures of men. women, and animals, intended to represent the actions of the Hero of the Tomb, although executed only in outline. This chamber is principally interesting on account of the discoveries it has made of the process used in Egyptian sculpture; as it appears from the figures it contains, that the ground was first made perfectly fair, equal, and smooth, and that then first sketches of the intended subject were traced upon it in red lines. A second artist next passed over them with black, amending the outline, and the sculptor then proceeded to cut away the ground about the figure, leaving it standing in basso relevo, from about the height of half an inch or less, according to the size of the figure. The garments and limbs were delineated by a narrow line about the eighth of an inch in depth, and all the angles were carefully rounded off. After the sculptor had finished, a layer of the most beautiful white was passed over all, and the figures were then stained with their respective colours. On the left hand side of the first Hall, was a cavity in the ground, in which was a flight of 18 stairs leading to a passage 36 feet 6 inches long, by 6 feet Il inches wide, at the entrance of which were two splendid figures of the size of life, representing Isis receiving the spirit of the Hero, covered with a transparent veil. On the wall to the left of this passage, was another figure of the size of life, representing the Hero himself, sitting on his throne, with a sceptre in his right hand, and having the other extended over an altar, loaded with an offering cut into slices, and standing in a solid mass. Above his head

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was a vulture with expanded wings, holding a ring, and on the unner part of the walls, on either side, is the King's his. tory, divided into several small compartments of nearly 2 feet square, containing groups of figures about 18 inches in height, in all of which Psammuthis was to be seen standing upon an heap of corn, receiving offerings from his soldiers. Beneath these compartments were Hieroglyphics, arranged in narrow perpendicular columns. At the end of this passage, a flight of 10 steps led to another, of about 6 feet in length, in which the memorial procession was continued. and on the right hand was delineated the sacrifice of a bull. Beyond the last passage appeared another, of about 17 feet square, ornamented with figures as large as life, and having the sides of the doors ornamented with female deities. Hieroglyphics, and the Lotus-flower, both in bud and full blossom, with the semi-globe and serpent above it. This was succeeded by the Great Hall, which was about 27 feet 9 inches, by 26 feet 10 inches, supported by 6 square pillars. on every side of which were painted two figures as large as life: while the walls were adorned with semi figures with dog's heads, the memorial procession, and a line of corses stretched upon biers. Over the door on the inside was a female figure with expanded wings. Upon each side of the Hall was a small cell, measuring about 10 feet by 8: that on the left containing various mummies and other figures, and that on the right, a cow of half the natural size, with several figures under it: the walls of each were also covered with Hieroglyphics. The Great Hall opened with a single step into the Large Vaulted Chamber, which measured 31 feet 10 inches, by 27 feet, where the body of the King was deposited. So magnificently was this Chamber adorned, that description will not convey any idea of its beauty. Lines of coloured serpents, throned figures, men dragging boats, genii, and winged glubes ornamented the sides, while the ceiling, which had one grand arch, was painted blue, with rays and zodiacal groups and figures delineated upon it, in vellow. In the centre of this room, over a cavity containing a ruinous subteraneous staircase and passage, 300 feet long, which probably at a former period was another entrance to the Tomb, was the grand oriental Alabaster Sarcophagus, in which the remains of the King were placed. The cover was gone, but the fagments of it were discovered in digging at the first entrance. The Coffin itself was shaped like the modern ones, it measured 9 feet 5 inches in length, by 3 feet 7 inches in width; the thickness was 2 inches, and it was covered, both within and without, with several hundred small figures cut into the stone, about 1-16th of an inch in depth, coloured with a dark blue. It has since been brought to England, and is deposited in an Anti-Room at the British Museum, until

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a place shall be prepared for it in the Egyptian Gallery. Although Sig. Belzoni supposes that this beautiful Sarcophagus was formed of White transparent Oriental Alabaster; vet Dr. Clarke, upon an examination of a fragment of the lid, discovers it to be Arragonite, a variety of Carbonite of Lime, never before discovered in pieces of equal magnitude. See Dr. Clarke's paper on Arragonite, in the "Annals of Philosophy," Vol. 11. New Series, July 1821, p. 57, Art. x. The blue colour with which the Hieroglyphics are stained, has been discovered by the same admirable scholar and J. G. Children. Esq. of the British Museum, to be a frit or glass, which contained silica, copper, lime, and potassa; with the slightest mixture of iron. After it had been exposed to the action of the blowpipe, pulverisation, heating in a glass tube, and digestion in Muriatic and Nitric Acids, the residuum exhibited when dried. "a beautiful blue colour, not much inferior to the finest ultramarine, but somewhat deeper, and indistructible by a red heat." See "Annals of Philosophy," November 1821, p. 389, Art. vii.
"On the nature of the Pigment in the Hieroglyphics on the Sarcophagus, from the Tomb of Psammis, By J. G. Children, Esq. F.R.S. &c. &c." On the right of the same apartment where the Sarcophagus was discovered, was a small empty unfinished chamber, roughly cut, and without any painting. On the opposite side appeared another room, measuring 25 feet 8 inches, by 22 feet 10 inches, supported by two square pillars, and having a projection like a sideboard, 3 feet in width all round. The pillars were three feet four inches square, and every part was painted with the same magnificence as the rest. At the farther end of the Great Vaulted Chamber, a large door opened into a short passage, which led into the last apartment, 43 feet 4 inches, by 17 feet 6 inches, partly covered with white plaster, but without any paintings, and supported by four square pillars, one of which was thrown down. In this chamber were discovered the embalmed mummy of a bull, and, scattered in different places, were several small wooden mummies embalmed in asphaltum. There were also some other figures of baked earth, coloured blue; and near the two small rooms in the Great Hall, were some wooden statues standing erect, 4 feet in height, with a circular hollow inside, as if intended to contain a roll of papyrus. Such is the description of the magnificent Tomb discovered by Sig. Belzoni, which measured 309 feet from the entrance to the end of the last Hall, which contained nine apartments, seven passages, and three flights of stairs. Before entirely quitting the subject of the Tomb, it may be observed, that although it has been attributed to Nichao II. and his son Psammis, yet some circumstances appear

which would support the conjecture\* that it was erected for Amasis, who reigned in the year of the Flood 1779, or 569 previous to the Birth of Christ, and was King of Egypt, about six months before Cambyses, the Persian Monarch, conquered that country. It will be remembered, that, at the end of the second corridore, an aperture was found, where the opposite side of the pit had been built up; and this, it is assumed, was done whilst the wall was yet fresh, and the secret of the chambers beyond was yet in recollection. It is next alledged, that History affords no warrant for any hostility to be shewn by Cambyses towards the ashes of Psammuthis; but, that he disturbed the remains of Amasis, the following extract from the "Universal History" evidently demonstrates. "The Egyptians now felt the heavy pressure of conquest in a very extraordinary manner. They saw their late King Amasis, inhumanly taken out of his Tomb, cruelly mangled, and finally burnt." Vide "The Asiatic History to the Time of Alexander the Great." B. i. C. iii. p. 98, Univers. Hist. Edit. Lond. 1747, octavo. Supposing it to be the Tomb of Amasis, also accounts for the unfinished state of several of the chambers; which, it is then conjectured, might have been hastily closed on the arrival of Cambyses in Egypt. These, and several other arguments in favour of Amasis, are brought forward in the paper alluded to, but there are still two points upon which all agree; namely, that the Tomb was dilapidated by the Persians under Cambyses, or at least by the hands of an enemy who despised both the religion and nation of the Egyptians; and that its discovery has been of the utmost importance to the cultivation of Egyptian literature. Having thus given a concise account of the materials by which Hieroglyphical learning has been chiefly assisted, we now pass on to consider the nature and signification of the signs belonging to it.

The invention of Hieroglyphical writing has been attributed to two causes; the first of which has the erudite Kircher to support it, namely, that it was invented by the Egyptian Priests to conceal their knowledge of Arts, Sciences, and Religion; and the second, which is adopted by Warburton in his Essay upon Hieroglyphics, supposes that Kircher is under a general error, and that these symbols were invented merely as the first rude system of writing, which was afterwards exchanged for an alphabetical character. Both of these origins are disputed: firstly, by the common tradition, which we have mentioned at the commencement of this article, which assigns the earliest use of Hieroglyphics to Thoor, who traced with them the histories of the Heroes, or Gods of Egypt; and secondly, by a French work, entitled, "Dissertation sur L'Ecriture Hiéro-

<sup>\*</sup> Vide the Gentlemans' Magazine, Oct. 1821, p. 353.

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Amsterdam, 1762, duodecimo. After citing glyphique." the above hypotheses, the author says, "I shall not examine which of these two systems is the most probable: because I believe that both are very far removed from the truth. I believe that what have until now been taken for Hieroglyphics, have never been invented for the purposes of writing. I undertake to prove, that the figures which are called Hieroglyphics, were not invented for any other purpose than to serve as ornaments to the monuments upon which they are engraved. It is not that I assert, that all these figures have been simple ornaments: they shew of themselves, that some of them have been intended to mark some particular events; others to represent the Priests of some Divinity, as M. M. Shuckford believes was done in the Isis Table, or even the Deities themselves: almost as we see statues elevated on the portals of our own churches. But I maintain that they have not been intended to represent ideas." However the arguments of this author might have been received at the time he wrote, the discovery of the Rosetta Stone, has entirely cleared away the doubts which he expresses. From that it is clear, that the sacred characters of the Egyptians mentioned by Manetho, were a species of writing by symbolical representations, which were not common to the whole country. But the words of the Stone itself will best elucidate the matter. "And this decree shall be engraven on a hard stone, in Sacred Characters, in Common (enchorial) Characters, and in Greek; and placed in the first temples, the second temples, and the third temples, wherever may be the sacred image of the King whose life is for ever."

M. Champollion, in his "Memoir relating to an Alphabet of Phonetic Egyptian Hieroglyphics," communicated to the Royal Academy of Inscriptions and Belles Lettres, at Paris, on the 27th of September, 1822, defines and classes Egyptian writing according to the following rules. The MSS and monuments which have remained to the present time, and more especially the inscriptions on the Rosetta Stone, have proved the use of three different species of characters for Egyptian records, namely:—

I. Hibboglyphic Warting, or that which directly represented ideas by figures, more or less perfect in their execution; and these also were of two kinds, viz.---

1. Cyriological Hieroglyphics, in which the figures were taken in a proper sense; as the image of a man was placed for a man, a crocodile stood for a crocodile, &c. But this species was also of two sorts, as-1.—Pure Hieroglyphics, or those which bore a representation of sensible objects, and which were delineated upon Palaces, Temples, Tombs, and Public Monuments in general.

An example of these may be seen in the ensuing cut :-

# A THE SE THE

In these characters, the first on the left hand signifies Nile, and sometimes River, because the inhabitants of Egypt emphatically called the Nile, "the River." Kircher states, that he figure represents a Nilometer, or measure for ascertaining the height of the water. The second hieroglyphic stands for Country, and it is supposed to represent a cultivated field: it is remarkable that the Chinese character for the same thing is a square parted into four divisions. The third figure represents the wheel of a plough, and signifies Land. The fourth is expressive of a Temple, and it is thus explained. The square denotes an habitation, within which a seat or throne appears on the left hand, and above is the sacred hatchet, expressive of a God; so that it would read the House and Throne of the Deity. The fifth figure implies a Shrine; and Dr. Young states, that it was the most readily identified of all the hieroglyphics upon the Rosetta Stone. It probably represents an ornaupon the Rosetta Stone. It has by which it was carried about, and is not unlike the Altar of the Tabernacle, used by the Widerness Exod. c. xxxviii. v. 1-7. "And he Israel in the Wilderness, Exod. c. xxxviii. v. 1-7. made the altar of burnt offering of shittim wood: five cubits was the length thereof, and five cubits the breadth thereof: it was four square; and three cubits the height thereof. And he made the horns thereof on the four corners of it; the horns thereof were of the same: and he overlaid it with brass. And he made all the vessels of the altar, the pots, and the shovels, and the basons, and the flesh hooks, and the firepans: all the vessels thereof made he of brass. And he made for the altar a brasen grate of net work under the compass thereof, beneath unto the midst of it. And he cast four rings for the four ends of the grate of brass, to be places for the staves. And he made the staves of shittim wood, and overlaid them with brass. And he put the stayes into the rings on the sides of the altar. to bear it withal : he made the altar hollow with boards." The last hieroglyphic is indicative of Letters; and it may either depict an ancient pen and inkstand, or be more mystically put for the Papyrus rush and a Lotus flower, meaning the Learning of the Priests. ii.—Linear Hieroglyphics formed the second subdivision; and these were probably the origin of the sacred letters mentioned below, since they were composed of simple lines, bearing a rude representation of the images they typified.

2. Tropical, or Enigmatical Hieroglyphics, represented the subjects of an inscription by emblems; as the figures indicative of Splendid Land were symbolical of the country of Egypt, and the Serpent, which renews his skin, denoted Im-

mortality.

One of the most perfect however, is the ensuing, of Osiris. Its abstract sigis well expressed by the mouth, and a sceptre terenigmatical hieroglyphics, which is the usual emblem nification is Power; which union of an ear, an eye, a minating in a forked point.

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Honour is also expressed by a feather or palm branch, thus shaped; and the epithet Illustrious, is thus composed of three hieroglyphics. which signify

Splendour Bearing

II. HIERATIC, or SACERDOTAL WRITING, as it has already been observed, greatly resembled the Linear Hieroglyphics; since it consisted of arbitrary characters, bearing a distant resemblance to natural and artificial objects. It was, in fact, the images themselves reduced to a species of shorthand; and as it was especially consecrated to religious affairs, it is most commonly found in the Papyrus Manu-scripts preserved in Tombs. The following example is from the great Hieratic MS. of Strasburg; and in order to afford the reader the opportunity of contrast, we have placed the Sacred Writing above, and the Hieroglyphical figures beneath it.

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The general signification of the foregoing, which, however, are not following passages, is supposed to be, Great Stability, Powerful, Good, Honourable; and the group to the right is expressive of Eternal Joy and Honour.

111. The third species of Egyptian writing was taken from the foregoing, and is still ruder in its delineation of

figures, all appearance of which is sometimes wholly lost. It is denominated by Dr. Young, the Enchorial, or Country character of the Egyptians; but M. Champollion calls it the DEMOTIC, or Popular Letter. It is also sometimes named the Epistolographic, and is usually accepted as the Running-hand of Egypt. The second inscription upon the Rosetta Stone is in this character, and an Alphabet of it, after M. Champollion, will be found upon page 347; immediately beneath which, are the names of Alexandria and Ptolemaeus, written in the same letters, which read from the right hand, to the dividing point in the centre.

Pure Hieroglyphics, may in general be divided into two grand classes, each of which however may again be subdivided into numerous minor classes; the careful study of which greatly facilitates the understanding of what may well be denominated an universal character, since, as a whole inscription is represented by things rather than letters, every one may consider them as they are called in their own language. The first of the larger classes, therefore, consists of Substantives in general; and the second of Particles. The subdivisions of the first are as follow: first,

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Names, as of Gods, Kings, Heroes, and Private Persons; which are represented by their respective Emblems, and these can never be understood till all the other subdivisions be well grounded in the memory. Secondly, Animals form another of the subdivisions; Thirdly, Inanimate Objects; Fourthly, Abstract Qualities, Titles of Honour, and Professions or Employments; Fifthly, Portions of Time, and Names of Festivals; Sixthly, Numbers; and Seventhly, Expressions for Sound. The Second grand class consists chiefly of Relatives, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and similar members of grammatical construction. I twill now be proper to proceed to a brief consideration of the First Class in all its various divisions.

The proper names of Gods or Heroes, are, in Hieroglyphical writing, almost always depicted upon a tablet in the shape of a flattened oval affixed to a staff at the left hand side. The Greek inscription of the Rosetta stone, mentions a label called a Phylactery, upon which the name of a figure was usually distinguished; and with the Jews, a Phylactery was a little box, or a roll of the dressed skin of some clean animal, or of parchment, worn'upon the forehead in front of the cap, or on the left arm, bearing one of the ensuing passages of Scripture written upon it. Exod. xiii. v. 9-16. v. 2-10. v. 11-14. Deut. vi. v. 4-9. xi. v. 13-21. Representations of the Jewish Phylacteries may be seen in Taylor's Fragments to Calmet, No. 234, but the ring or banner upon which an Egyptian name is inscribed, was certainly never taken from such an original, as it seems to bear a closer resemblance to an ancient Hebrew bracelet or signet, and its form appears to have been preserved in the stamps for wine-casks used by the Romans. The annexed cut exhibits a blank Egyptian annulus placed by the side of one of these stamps copied from the original in bronze, preserved in the Hamilton collection in the Gallery of Antiquities in the British Museum, Room XII. Case 55.



The signets used by the ancient Jews were sometimes set in rings and worn upon the fingers, and at others they were affixed to the bracelet, and carried upon the arm. Thus in Solomon's Bong, Chap, viii. v. 6. it is said, "Set me as a Seal upon thine heart, as a Seal upon thine heart, as a Seal upon thine arm;" and it is well known that these seals contained the name or monogram of the wear-t, for in the directions given to Moses concerning the Holy Breastplate, Exod. chap. xxviii. v. 9.11, it is said, "And thou shalt take two onyx stones, and grave on them the names of the children of Israel."—"With the work of an engraver in stone, like the engravings of a signet, shalt thou engrave the two stones with the names of the children of Israel: thou shalt make them to be set in ouches of gold." Again, there is supposed to be an allusion to these engraved bracelet seals in Ge-

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nesis XXXV. v. 4., which, from the description of them, must have borne a strong resemblance to the Egyptian Name-banners; since some commentators have conceived that "the strange gods" mentioned in the text were magical efficies or Heroglyphics. "And they gave unto Jacob all the strange gods which seers in their hands, and all their ear-rings which were is their ears; and Jacob hid them under the oak which was by Shechem." Perhaps too, there may be some connection between the Name-rings of Egypt, the Symbolon Xenikon of the Greeks, and the Tessers Hospitalis of the Latins. In Greece these were formed of lead, and were of a circular shape; but in Rome they were made of stone of an oblong square, and upon them were inscribed the name of two parties between whom a firm friendship had been established. They were then divided into two parts, and interchanged, so that each one possessed that piece which contained the name of the other; and the production of this to either party upon a journey, ensured a hospitable reception and kind treatment to the traveller. The Hierostop the symbia switch are inscribed upon the Egyptian Name-tablets are all significative of attributes or circumstances; as in the instances given in the wood-cut below:

The smeller group of figures on the left hand, are expressive of Egypt, and may be thus interpreted:—the Square, one; the Head, probably a representation of the Sphynx, the Annucus, a name; the Plough-voked, land; the Open Square, splendour; and the Cop or Scale, calling, making for a whole. The name of the splendid land called the Sphynx Country. The extensive line of Hieroglyphica appearing to the right, is taken, like the former, from the Rosetta inscription, and is there described within a Name-tablet for Ptolemy the Ever-living, dear to Phthah, or Vulcan. It has been thus explained:—The Square, Semi-circle Lion, Half-arch, Yvo Feathers, and Bent Line, stand for Ptolemalos; the separate construction of whose name will be considered hereafter. The Key of the Nile, signifies life or living; the Serpent, ctornal; the Squared block semi-circle and chain, believed by; the Hieralpha, or Sacred A, (which really represents a plough or hoe, the emblem of Phthah, the Ryptian Vulcan, who invented the instruments of War and Agriculture.) Phthah: the Two Feathers, honourable of the Phonetic characters, and the agreement between Hieroglyphics and the Enchorial letters of Egypt.

Animals, it has been already stated, form the second diwhion of the first class of Pure Hieroglyphics; and these are generally rude representations of the creatures themselves, which are sometimes to be understood literally, and sometimes allegorically. A few examples will convey an idea of

their nature.

A Man or person, is represented by a human figure sitting on the ground, holding one hand up and hanging the other down behind him: this figure, however, is often inserted in phrases and names, when its signification cannot well be determined. A new born child, according to Plutarch, was indicative of the Rising Sun; a human figure also occurs as expressive of the title of Priest, in which case it is drawn kneeling, and in the act of pouring water from a vase, perhaps as a symbol of a re-ligious libation: the hieroglyphic for libation, ceremony, and priesthood, are also nearly similar. A Horned Snake moving along, says Dr. Young, "is clearly meant, in some parts of the inscription of Rosetta, for Him, or It; although it has other senses in composition. It is very remarkable that the enchorial character, and that of the manuscripts resembling a y approaches extremely near to the Coptic F, which also means him; and Hof, or Hfo, is the Coptic term for a Snake; so that this coincidence seems to afford us another trace of the origin of the alphabet." Reasoning upon the same principle, we may notice that Plutarch, Sympos. lib. iv. states that the Ibis, when it set wide its legs, and placed its beak across them, formed an equilateral triangle; whence Kircher deduces the first Egyptian letter, Alpha, and nearly such to the present day is the form of the first character in the Coptic alphabet. One of the numerous significations of the Scarabæus or Beetle, was the Course of the Sun; since, say Clem. Alexandr. and Horap, when he has deposited his generating spawn in a mass formed of the ordure of beasts, he rolls it backwards with his feet, having his face turned from it, always looking to the East. In like manner too, the bodies of Serpents hieroglyphically indicated the oblique course of the stars; and Kircher would endeavour to affirm, that the Coptic letter Zida, was formed from the Serpent, to support which, he alters the word to Zeuda, or Life. Clement of Alexandria, already quoted, speaks of four golden images of Gods, which used to be carried in procession at a certain solemnity, namely, two Dogs, a Hawk, and an Ibis; and these were called four letters. Animals, or their parts, were also selected by the Egyptians to express the attributes Thus a Serpent or Dragon raising itself of their Deities. upon its tail, having rays about its head, and being surrounded by stars, implied Chnuphis, or the Good Genius. Osiris was typified by a Hawk, or by wearing a Hawk's head; and in his character of the Egyptian Bacchus, he wore the face of a Bull. Thoth, the supposed inventor of Hieroglyphics, was represented by an *lois*, perhaps in allusion to the circumstance mentioned above. Typhon had a *River-Horse* for his symbol; Anubis a Doy, or a Dog's head put for his own: Ioh, or the Moon, a Cat; Isis wore Cows-horns; and Apis and Mneuis, were Black Bulls, emblematical of Osiris. To mention, however, all the animals which were used by the Egyptians as attributes of their Gods, or allegorical in themselves, would be to reprint a catalogue of the Pantheon of Egypt, and the works of the earlier writers on Natural History; but a particular account of the symbolical properties of animals may be found in The History of Four footed Beasts and Serpents, by Edw. Topsell, Lond. 1608, Folio, and considerable information relative to the histories and symbols of the Egyptian Deities, may be derived from An Analysis of the Egyptian Mythology, by J. C. Prichard, M. D. Lond. 1819, 8vo.

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Inanimate Objects are considered by Dr. Young to form the next division of Hieroglyphical writing; but as mar, of these have already been introduced under the former heads, a very few remarks and instances will be sufficient

to give an idea of their nature.

A Star, which is shaped with five points, is drawn in the Zodiacal inscriptions for a real star; but its tropical signification is an Attendant, or Ministering Spirit. An Open Square is the chief Hieroglyphic in the word Habitation, or Dwelling place; and in the Hebrew alphabet, the letter Beth literally signifies a House, because it was formed of three sides of a square, the shape of a Jewish building. "The character for an Image," says Dr. Young, in his Egyptics Vocabulary, "seems to mean a Wrought man; the Hands connected with an Eye appear to be holding an Oar as an emblem of Labour." The Great Ritual contains a character formed of a Vase placed under an Arch, which has been interpreted to mean Gold; but sometimes it appears to be used in a symbolical sense, as if intended to express the Riches of a King.

Abstract Qualities, Titles of Honour, and Professions or Employments, form the next division of Hieroglyphical symbols, but these, it is evident, are never to be read in their

literal signification.

Life, according to Lacroze, is represented by three limbs of a Cross patée issuing out of a circle, which emblem is denominated the Crux Ansata, or the Handled Cross, and sometimes the Key of the Nice. Dr. Young, though he admits this name and its explanation, asserts that it is not intended to be considered a water cock or faucet, as Lacroze imagined; whence he deduced the above signification from its turning on the Nile. and causing it to flow. Socrates and Rufinus state, that the Egyptian Priests explained the Cross to be an emblem of the Life to come: in conjunction with a Serpent rising in an arch, it signifies Everliving or Immortal, vide ante, page 338, in the Hieroglyphical name of Phthah. A narrow altar composed of several stages, stands on the Rosetta stone for Stability: and a reduplication of the Hieroglyphic makes the verb to Establish. A circle placed above an Arm holding a part of a rud-der, signifies a Director; and the title of King is expressed by a flowering plant followed by a singular insect somewhat like a wan, and two semicircles. Dr. Young observes, that the insect is probably intended for a Bee: as Ammianus Marcellinus remarks that a Bee was the Hieroglyphic for a King; and that Plutarch states that a Monarch was denoted by a Lear. One of the principal figures in the word Kingdom, is a pointed Oned, representing a Diadem; and the term Saccriotal is thought to be imaged by a head-dress of Flowers frequently found upon the heads of Priests. The act of Enlightening is sufficiently well expressed by a Disk with descending Rays; and that of Loving has already been shewn in the Hieroglyphical name of Phihah.

The fifth division of the first class of Hieroglyphical writing, consists, of portions of Time and names of Festivals; and since it is evident that a particular examination

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of the Egyptian Calendar cannot be given in this place, we must refer the reader to Dr. Young's very learned view of it in his article on Egypt, in the Supplement to the Encyclopedia Britannica, and the interesting essay Concerning the ancient years, Eras, and Computations of Time, in the Rev. J. Jackson's Chronological Antiquities. Lond. 1752. 4to. vol. ii. In the present place, a general view of the Egyptian months abstracted from those authorities is all that can be interested.

The Egyptians year was anciently of several different kinds. as firstly, they are reported to have used a Lamor year, of one. two, three, four, or six months; and to this erroneous calculation many of the discrepancies in chronology are to be attributed: for in the history of the Kings of Egypt, some of them are said to have reigned 1000 or 1200 years. Secondly, they had their Annus Canarius, Annus Cynious, Heliacal, Solhic, Natural, or Canicular year; which commenced at the time when Canicula, or the Dog star, was seen before the Sun's rising, and continued until the same aspect appeared again. This year consisted of 365 days, and every fourth year 366; and the season of its commencement was selected on account of the Nile being then at its greatest height, added to which, the Egyptians were wont to predict from the colour and appearance of the star. \* the nature of the seasons in the ensuing year. the real Canicular year was originally shorter than the true Solar one by about six hours, so in the course of time it commenced on every day of it; and when the cycle of 1460 years had been completed, it again returned to the same day and hour. which revolution was denominated the Great Egyptian Year, or Canicular Cycle. This year is supposed to have been first established about 1322 years before the Birth of Christ. About 576 years after the establishment of this Annus Cynicus, began the period which is denominated the Epoch or Year of Nabonassar; and which consisted of a Solar year of 366 days, divided into twelve months of 30 days each, with five intercalary days added at the end This was also like the last, an erratic or wandering year, and performed the same great cycle; but this mode of calculation was used until the defeat of Anthony and Cleopatra, (B. C. 30,) soon after which, as it is commonly imagined, the Julian Year, was established at Alexandria, B. C. 25, and the Emperor Augustus Casar ordained that the sacred Thoth, or first month, should commence for ever on the 29th of August. This Imperial decree was not, however, universally observed: the Egyptian Mathematicians and Astro-nomers used the year of Nabonassar until the time of Ptolemy n the second century after Christ; although the Coptic Chris-

tians appear to have adopted the reformed Calendar.

"The Egyptians," says Mr. Jackson, "are said to have first described the course of the Sun through the Zodiac, and to have given the names of Gost to the twelve signs: and both the Egyptian and Chaldean months were named from, or de-

If it appeared of a golden colour, it was considered as the sign of a fraitful year; but if it were dim or pale, the Egyptians imagined it to be an indication of scarcity.

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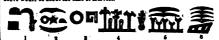
dicated to their Deities. Hence, Thoth and Mesori were the names of the first and last Egyptian months; and Hesychius says, that Athyr, the month so called, signified a Cow, and there-

fore was denominated from Isis, whose symbol was a Cow."

A better idea of the Egyptian Months, will however be derived from the ensuing Calendar and Hieroglyphical signs, which belong to the fixed Alexandrine year.

EGYPTIAN CALENDAR.

Thoth, or Thooth, was the name of the first month in the Egyptian Calendar, as Thoth, or Thoofa, was the name of the first month in the Egyption Culmette, that the word in the Copile loansy literally against a congregation, or to meet, but some derive it from The-softs a Think, though perhaps with soft of the constant of the Copile and Marcary, whose symbol was the life. It was represented by the hieraptyphic No. 4. of the cassing out, which may perhaps be intended for a field of corn, as the above would be about the time of Harvest.



Phasphi, the second mosth, commenced on the 28th of Seviember; and Dr. Prichard, in his Tabular View of the Egyptian Year, page 103, in the work attends cited, says that it was the "time of sewing;" and that its festivals were the "Burial of Outris, and the Prognancy of Isis of Harpocrates, " who was born when

"Burial of Usiria, and the Fregnancy of Isis of Europectuse," who was now mean the press herbugg rist began to spring," at 140.

The third mouth was called Alayr or Athor, which began on the 20th of October, and which some have interpreted to have been an Egyptian same of isis, signifying a Cow. On the seventeenth of this mouth, according to Fullench, was celebrated the Aphasian or Disappearance of Oriet; when the Egyptian Freets overend a glided cow for four successive days, with pall of fine black linears covered a glided cow for four successive days, this pall of fine black linears overseen the grift of file whose his, the describes of the Mile, the constitution of the carts. In this mouth also was collevated the Vorge of decoids condition of the carts. In this mouth also was collevated the Vorge of lais to Picenice.

sass to r.c. casoe.

Choicid was alse fourth Rayptian month; it commenced on the 27th of Nov.

The fifth month was denominated Tobi or Tybi, and its beginning was upon the

The fifth month was denominated Tobi or Tybi, and its beginning was upon the

Strict of December. On the 7th day of this month, says Dr. Princhard, the Reyp
sians hold a festival for the return of Inis from a voyage to Phomison and about the

Hyannidosition, or Pilick Winter, was commenced her search the first of the Charles of the Commenced the String of the Delty formed and

Laypting the Charles of the Charles attributes it to the 19th of Athyr. He relates that on the night of that day, the Priests and their assistants went in procession to the see-short, bearing a seared chest containing a small ark of gold, into which they possed fresh water, and adding spices and perfeases, formed a small image of a creacest formed with the water, and adding spices and perfeases, formed a small image of a creacest formed from the Ark of Ories, alsee Tebi is the Copits word for Receptacle. Inis, however, did not long retain the body of her husband; for leaving tell title a remote place which see went to visit her son Herans, Typhon found it in husting by moonlight, and recognising the cores, he cut it into fourteen places and scattered them over the whole country. On her return, liss went an search of the frequents, over the fenny parts of Egypt, it as boat of payyres, and recovered them till we one, which words below it a homistation by the Egyptima.

wards held in abomination by the Egyptians.

The sixth month haffechir; commercing on the 28th of January, and is hieregly-phically represented by No. 5 of the preceding out. The equal division of the year commerciant data is the number of arches which appears bove the plants below, as

The Hieroglyphic for a Child or Infant, is probably an image of this youn Divinity, who was considered as the God of Silence; it ceneials of a small huma Agure sitting down, holding one hand upon its mouth.

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they are only half so many as those given to the twelfth month, No. 6. It is possible that they might signify the Autumnal and Winter Solstices then past, and

the figures beneath, the young state of vegetation in the spring one

Pharmenoth, the seventh month, commenced on the 25th of February. At the new moon, the Egyptians celebrated the entrance of the soul of Osiris into that planet after its return from the shades, whence it was supposed to impart a vivify-ing principle to the lower world. This was the commencement of the Egyptian spring; and Plutarch supposed that the Burial of Osiris represented, the sowing of the seed, and his resurrection, the springing up of the green herb, and this perhaps may receive some credit, when it is remembered that Osiris was adored as the Sun, because of its genial influence on the Earth and Nile.

Pharmuthi, the eighth month, is supposed by Mr. Jackson, to have been derived

from the name of the Goddess Thermuthis. It commenced on the 27th of March, and near the beginning was celebrated the Loxeia, or the Purification of Isis, soon

after the Vernal Equinox.

The ninth month, Pashons, began upon April the 26th; Paoni, the tenth month, followed on the 26th of May; and Epep, the eleventh month, ensued on

the 25th of June.

The twelfth month was called Mesore, Mesori, or Mechir; and it commenced to a verith month was caused Mesors, Mesors, or Mesors; and a commence on the 25th of July. It was dedicated to Harpocrates, the God of Silence and Mystery, and the offspring of Osiris and Isis, and its hieroglyphical symbol is shewn at No. 6, in the wood-card on page 434 ante. The emberna which it presents, may perhaps be interpreted to mean the high cultivation of the land of Egypt in has personal to merepressed means an angular canado on the four press of the summer; and the completion of the four great divisions of the year. The first of these may be intimated by the lower character which somewhat resembles a cultivated field, or the hieroryphic for country, shewn on page 335, ante; and the latter may be indicated by the four crescents above. The former part of this interpretation receives some support, if it be remembered that Harpoorates is thought to typify the power of vegetation, and that the first fruits of leguminous plants were consecrated to him.

With regard to other periods of time, the wood-cut already referred to, exhibits the Hieroglyphics expressive of a Day, a Month, and a Year. The former of these is shewn at No. 3, and the characters literally signify the Splendour of the Sun; the circle being put as the sign of the planet, and the open square denotes its excellency. The progress of the Sun, however, was represented by the Egyptians, in various ways; since, as Dr. Prichard remarks from Macrobius, the Sun or the Day, was drawn under the figure of an infant at the Winter Solstice; during the year it was exhibited in the different stages of maturity; till, at the Brumal ingress, it was painted like old age. The Sun was also designated by a figure with wings of various colours, according as the emblem was a type of the planet in the upper or lower half of the Zodiac. If the former, his wings were of a brilliant hue; but in the latter they were represented of a dark blue. No.2, consists of a group of Hieroglyphics appropriated to the word Month, but Horapollo states that it was expressed by a Palm branch or an inverted crescent. A Year, No. 1, is represented by a bent line somewhat resembling a plant with a shoot issuing from it; and the two characters on the left hand are usually found in connection with it. No. 7, in the block on page 344, represents the Hieroglyphic used for the first day of the month, called in the Coptic tongue Souai : and the signs for the first of the Sun, are sufficiently visible on the right hand, but the number was of course changeable: the other character signifies Good, or as Dr. Young interprets it New. No. 8, shews the Hieroglyphics indicative of Sou Map, or the 30th day of the month; and the same learned Egyptian Antiquary supposes the figure resembling a rising serpent to be the Tait of some animal, which, he adds is sufficiently expressive of the sense.

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The sixth class of Hieroglyphical writing, consists of Numbers, several of which are exhibited in the following engraving, with their Coptic names inserted beneath them. In these instances, it will be observed that a single mark is placed for a unit, which is increased in regular proportion; but to distinguish Ordinal Numbers, a twisted line is added, answering to the Coptic Mah, a prefix used in the same sense.

Ouai, Oui, Schomt Nsop. Houit Pirst.

Plurals are noted in sentences, by several dashes or units being placed after the Hieroglyphics to which they refer.

The seventh class of Hieroglyphic figures consists of grammatical particles for the connections of sentences; in the interpretation of which, their general connection and resemblance with the Enchorial alphabet of Egypt, is the best and principal guide, since it is evident, that neither in a literal, nor easily in a figurative sense, the representation of objects can supply the lesser members of a written passage. The nature of this division of the Egyptian symbols may be seen in Dr. Young's Hieroglyphic Vocabulary, but they could not eligibly be introduced in the present work.

All the foregoing Hieroglyphics and letters, however, were simply Idiographic; that is to say, they expressed things and actions, but were not significative of Sounds. M. Champollion conceived, from discovering that in the Rosetta inscription, many signs were useless or superfluous when interpreted according to their real value, that they must have been inserted as notes for pronunciation. These superfluous marks he particularly noticed in names, as in those of Alexander, Ptolemy, Queens Berenice, Arsinoë, and of private persons, Aëtes, Pyrrha, Arëia, &c. The comparison of these names with each other fully demonstrated the existence of certain characters which were used to express the sounds of proper names, and of words foreign to the Egyptian tongue. M. Champollion denominated these characters the Phonetic, or the Sound Writing; and from the comparison of many names, as well in the Rosetta inscription, as in Papyrus manuscripts, he was enabled to make out the ensuing Syllabaire, in which the first column shews the Greek letters, the second the Demotic Egyptian, and the third the sacred Hieroglyphics. The mutilated state of the Rosetta stone, which contained only the last fourteen lines of the Hieroglyphic version of its inscription, prevented the collection of the series of Phonetic signs belonging to the sacred symbols; for it contained only the name of Ptolemy written in the usual cartouch, and com-

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posed of seven or eight Hieroglyphical signs. One of the monuments, however, which M. Belzoni brought to London from the Isle of Phile, has on its base a petition in Greek, from the Priests of Isis at that place, to King Ptolemy Evergetes II. and to the Queeus Cleopatra his wife and sister. In the Hieroglyphical inscriptions which cover the four faces of this obelisk, M. Champollion discovered the Hieroglyphic name of the above monarch, figured precisely as it appeared upon the Rosetta Stone; and this led him to suppose that the other name-ring contained the word Cleopatra. A comparison between these names, in which some of the same letters occur, proved, by their containing the same Hieroglyphics, that there existed in the Hieroglyphic writing, a series of signs significative of sounds or pronun-A foundation for a Phonetico-Hieroglyphical ciations. alphabet being thus gained, it was increased and verified by applying the same rules for decyphering to other name-One of the most singular discoveries made by this alphabet, is that of finding the names of Roman Emperors written in the Greek language with Hieroglyphical symbols, upon the temples of Philæ, Dendera, &c. The Egyptians, in the composition of their Phonetico-Hieroglyphical alphabet, seem to have adopted the representations of those objects, the names of which commenced with a vowel or consonant of the sound they required; but this will be better understood, by the following interpretation of the hieroglyphics forming M. Champollion's alphabet; premising, that the same characters are evidently represented several different ways.

- Abok, a Raven. Amria, a Parrot. Achom, an Eagle. Allos A Noubal, the Pupil of the Eye. Amshe, a Workman, lypifled by the Arm. In some Coptic words there is an elision of the initial A. and by this omission some other interpretations of the Phonesic signs are furnished; as Bok, the Chenalopex, Sheldruke, or Egyptian Goose. Champollion calls two of the foregoing birds the Hawk and the Ibis. Bal, branches of the Palm.
- В Berbi, a Patera. Bir, a Basket. Barhit, a Goat-
- This letter very rarely occurs in pure Egyptian words, and in the present Alphabet it is considered synonymous with K; but the signs in the annexed wood-cut are probably Kabi, a Lamp. Kallampho, a little Hill.
- The D, in the Alphabet of M. Champoliton, has the same
- A figures as T. vide below.

  The Feathers in the present instance may perhaps be put for E the Coptic Erbin, the Papyrus Rush; Erto, a Cubit Paim, or Eschieloui, Exultation.
- As this letter is represented by almost the same emblems as H the succeeding one, the interpretation of them will be found below, since few words of pure Egyptian commence with Hisa.
  Jeb, an Ornament, synonymous with a Festive in hieroritybiccal character. Jope, Work or Labout, typified by the Arm.
  Keiol, Keioli, Knikloji, Knij, a Basou; of Kabis, Almoji,
  ampho, a Little Hill. Koh nichof; a hard stone. Kniibi, Kot, a

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Building. Klaft a Cowl. The Basilisk at the end of the line, stands probably for Kat, Wisdom.

Lo, or Ole, a Lion. Laboi, a Lioness. Libia, a Vasc. Las, a

Power of M A, Merab, an Inkstand, vide the same figure on M page 335 ante. Mhan, a Sepulchre.

N tte, the gentitive article. The Jars are probably taken from the hieroglyphic for Gold, which consists of a Vase under an Arch; the Egyptian word is Noub. The Hat has the power of Nte.

크 Exi is considered as synonymous with Zida, Sima, or Schei.

o Opetonot, Greenness, au Herb. Outab, Fruit. Opoini, a Palm.

The Egyptian Bi, in this Alphabet, is considered as equivalent

IIto Phi, Vide belov

to rin, vine below.

Ro, a Moath. Hreri, a Flower. Roman, or Erman, a Pomegranate. Dr. Young adds to the second two, a circle open at the top. Rephschini, the Serpent Python.

Os, or Oels, Great. Sebi, Pan's Syrinx or Pipe. Sion, a Star.

Sok, a Scrip. Sken, a Scroll or Letter.

Tot, a Hand. Ti or T, the feminine article: perhaps a repre-

T sentation of a breast reversed. Tori, a Mason's Level. Perhaps the first figure is put for Phorish, a Bed or Pave-

ment: and the second for Peri, Food, under the form of an Egyptian Cake.

X Dr. Young, in his examination of this Alphabet, states that the Enchorial form of the Ch is not supported by any of the names which he has collected in the Demotic character. The curved line used for the Coptic Au, may probably be a va-

Oriation of the upright bent one expressive of Osh, Great. Power of TO.

All these explanations, however, can be considered only in the light of conjectures; some of them happy in their adapta-tion, and others destitute of support or probability. Dr. Young, in his Account of some recent Discoveries in Heroglyphical Literature, and Egyption Antiquities, Lond. 1823, 8vo. p. 48. a work replete with the most curious and interesting information,-expresses his thoughts that "Mr. Champollion has never tion,—expresses as thoughts that "art. Champointon has sever been led, in any one instance, from the Egyptian name of an object, to infer the Phonetic interpretation, that is, the alpha-betical power of its symbol: but the letters having once been ascertained, he has ransacked his memory or his dictionary for some name that he thought capable of being applied to the symbol: and not always, as it appears to me, in the most na-tural manner.\* The chief end of Dr. Young's studies, seems on the other hand, was not so much to discover the names and natures of Hieroglyphic symbols, as to institute a comparison between the forms of them, of the Enchorial characters, and of the Coptic word.

Beneath the cut which contains the foregoing alphabet, are given the names of Alexandria and Ptolemais, written in the Enchorial character, with the Phonetic Hieroglyphics. The former of these appears on the right hand of the central point. and its Hieroglyphics are contained in the third name-ring from the right. On the left of the centre point, is the name of Ptolemais in Egyptian Enchorial characters; and beneath, without an Annulus, also on the left, are the symbols belonging to it,

#### PHONETICO-HIEROGLYPHICAL ALPHABET OF M. CHAMPOLLION

BNCHORIAL.

PHONETIC HIEROGLYPHICS.



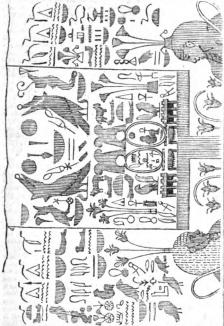
Upon these symbols, Dr. Young remarks, and the preceding sliphabet will enable the reader to verify his assertions, that the square and semicircle answer to the letters P and T; the next figure a plant or herb, stands for 0; the Lion is Lo, or Ole; the line beneath, Ma, or M; the two feathers, Eor I: the bent line, Os, or Osh; makingial together, Ptolemaios, or as it is sometimes written, both Enchorially and Hieroglyphically, Ptolemeus. The ring standing next to that of Ptolemy, contains the name of Alexandrus; the next is Cleopatra, and that nearest the right hand, is the title of Berenices: all which may be read by applying the signs to the foregoing alphabet. In writing these names however, according to M. Champollion's system of Phonetic Hieroglyphics, only the long vowels and diphthongs were inserted, as the short vowels were always supposed to be contained in the symbols themselves: thus the name last described, is, literally interpreted, spelled BRN IKS, with the feminine marks concluding the line, reading through the cartouche from left to right. For further information, see Lettre d.M. Dacter, relative d r. Alphabet des Hieroglyphiques.

Egyptian manuscripts were, for the most part, written upon the Papyrus rush, but M. Denon mentions some written upon linen. As most of them have been discovered in sepulchres, they have few marks of distinction; but the principal part of the text of each consists of a collection of Hymns, or Doxologies to certain Deities, expressed in the name of the deceased. Near the end of almost all the Papyrus MSS,, observes Dr. Young, is a copy of a tablet of the Last Judgment, and at the upper part of each MS, is a series of graphic tablets, with columns or paragraphs of writing beneath them, having their first words commonly written in red. As the commencement of a manuscript forms the outside of a roll, it is seldom found entire; but a short distance from it there is usually a tablet, the whole depth of the paper, representing the sun adored by his ministering spirits.

Perhaps the period may never arrive, when the manuserist and figured monuments of Egypt shall no longer be veiled in mystery; but scarcely half a century past, it was doubted whether the Hieroglyphical signs were really any other than appropriate ornaments used without any regard to a particular signification. M. Norden, when he discovered the colosasi sitting statues on the plains of Carnac, engraved them, though seemingly with little hope of the tablets upon their chairs ever being decyphered; but now be it said with gratitude to the labours of those whose works we have cited, we are enabled to distinguish the signification of many of those symbols. We discern in the great square shown in the opposite engraving, two name-rings, the left hand one evidently containing the name of Memnon, and the other apparently that of Tithous or Tithoes his father. We may also observe on each side of the great square at the top, the signs for Eternal Joy and Honour, and other phrases may be decyphered in various places.

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Such, perhaps, is the explanation of the Hieroglyphics on this image, a representation of which is given below.



Fred. Louis Norden, from whose "Voyage d'Egypte et de Nubie," Copenhagen, 1755, Folio, Vol. II., Pages, 166-169, Plate cxi., the above engraving has been copied, thus describes the figure, its throne, and its situation. The Co-

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lossal figures, one of the chairs of which bore the foregoing emblems, were not more than a league distant, from Carnac, if the traveller could have gone strait forward; but he found the country so intersected and cut up with canals, and covered with Turkish corn, that he was forced to make many turnings, and three hours were occupied before he arrived at the Colossal figures to make his drawings. The Statues stand facing the Nile, between the Cities of Luxxor and Carnac, on the East side of the river; the first seems to jepresent a man, and the other a woman, but they are both of the same immense magnitude, and they measured 50 Danish feet in height, from the bases of their pedestals, to They are sitting on cubical stones the tops of their heads. of nearly 15 feet square, at the two front corners of which are as many Isiacal figures placed for ornament, but the back is higher than the front by a foot and an half. The pedestals on which there is a single mutilated line of hieroglyphics, are each of them 5 feet high, 36 feet and an half in length, and 19 feet and an half in depth: the distance, between the statues is 21 paces (524 feet). They are entirely formed of various blocks of grey sandy stone, which appear to have been drawn from some of the grottos, that are found in great numbers in the adjacent mountains. Their breasts and legs are covered with many Greek and Latin inscriptions, which were engraved in the time of the Romans, commemorating the names of those who heard the musical sounds emitted by the statue of the greater Memnon at the rising of the Sun. These inscriptions were "Claydivs Maximys of the xxii. similar to the following. Legion heard the sounds of the Memnon at the First Hour."---" In the v. year of Hadrian, Emperor of Thaterus, the Præfect Meros, heard the sounds of Memuon, the xiii March, at the first hour." The backs and sides of the chairs upon which these colossal figures are seated, are covered with Hieroglyphical designs and characters; which, although they greatly resemble the generality of such things, yet they also possess a peculiar form of their own; and beside these there is one ach side a table or terminus. The chairs are made of a single piece of stone, of the same sort as the rest, but they appear to be more brown and somewhat more hard. The two Isiacal figures, which as it has been already stated, ornament the corners of these chairs, are of a whiter and a finer-grained stone, and seem to have been added to the statues after they had been erected, as they have not that Egyptian character which is so evident in the rest. It remains only to be observed that the two figures whose heads appear in the lower part of the above engraving, are in bas-relief of the size of life.

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mentioned ancient writers, the Egyptian Monarch not only invented a series of characters, but also divided them into vowels and consonants, mutes and liquids; and brought the then uncultivated language under fixed rules, giving it harmony by his laws. In consequence of the utility of this invention, the Egyptian Prince was considered as God of Eloquence and Wisdom: and on that account received the name of Anubis, which signifies an eloquent man, an orator, or a prophet. It has been thought by some writers on this subject, that this Sovereign, the inventor of the learning of Egypt, was no other than Mesraim, the grandson of Noah, who is mentioned in Genesis, Chap x. v. 6. "and the sons of Ham; Cush, and Mizraim, and Phut, and Canaan." Mizraim became the founder and father of the Egyptians, and originally gave his name to their country, with respect to which it has three different acceptations. Firstly it signifies Egypt, both Upper and Lower; as in the second book of Kings, Chap. xix. v. 25 in the Chaldaic version, reads, "Hast thou not heard of old what I did to Pharghoh the King of Mizraim, nor that my power was exercised in them." Biblia Sacra Polyglotta, a Briani Waltoni, et Lexicon Heptaglotton Edm. Custelli. Lond. 1657-59. Fol. Vol. II. p. 600. In the preceding verse of the same chapter it is said, "I have digged and drank of strange waters," which the Rabbi-Kimchi, and other learned Interpreters explain to mean the waters of Mezor or Egypt, during the Captivity. Secondly, the word Mizraim signifies the original inhabitants or their descendants. The natives of that country, however, call it Chemi, which signifies the land of Ham or Cham; as in Psalm cv. v. 23, "Israel also came into Egypt, and Jacob sojourned in the land of Ham." Again, in Psalm cvi. v. 21-22. "They forgot God their Saviour, which had done great things in Egypt. Wondrous things in the land of Ham, and terrible things by the Red Sea." The name of the founder of Egypt, is not however now forgotten in the East; since the Arabs call Al Cahira, or Cairo, by the title of Mezer; and Memphis formerly bore a similar appellation. The following ancient alphabet was drawn by the Abbé Barthelemi from an inscription given by Carpentras, which is undoubtedly Egyptian, as the monument on which it occurs was found in Egypt and had never previously been decyphered. The letters are read like the English from left to right, and the names of the Coptic characters, where they agree, are placed beneath them, according to the usual custom of pronouncing a dead language by the assistance of its descendant living one; in the same man-ner as the names of the modern Chaldean characters are used for the old Samaritan and the Hebrew.

In addition to the books already cited, the following authorities on the subject of Egyptian Antiquities, have also been consulted. Kircheri Athanasii, Obeliscus Pamphilius, Rom. 1650, Folio: Ecitpus Egyptiacus, Rom. 1652-4, Folio: Obelisci Egyptiaci, &c. Rom. 1655, Folio: Sphynx. Mystagoga, &c. Anst. 1676, Folio: Horapollinis Hierogly.

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### RTHIOPIAN OR ABYSSINIAN.

Some authors, who have written on the origin of languages, have considered that the Ethiopian letters may lay claim to as ancient a derivation as the Egyptian. In the earlier part of the Bible, the Ethiopians are called the Chusites. because they sprung from Chus or Chut, the brother of Mesraim, the son of Ham, and the grandson of Noah. Bruce, in his Travels to Discover the Source of the Nile, Edinburgh, 1790, Quarto, Vol. I. p. 401, has a long dissertation to prove that the ancient Ethiopian letters were the invention of a Chusite shepherd; since they are denominated Geez, or the Language of the Shepherds. The Ethiopian tongue is, at the present time, almost superseded by the Amharic or Abyssinian; whose name is derived from the Province of Amhar, which is the principal in the Kingdom of Abvssinia. The ancient language was formerly denominated Lesan-ghaaz, or the Tongue of Study, and sometimes Lesan Matzhaph, or the Tongue of Books. That which is now used is called Lesan Neghus, the Royal Tongue, because it is spoken principally and most purely at the Court, different dialects prevailing in different parts of Ethiopia. About the middle of the 13th century, when the Abyssinians changed the language of the country, and the Zague family was restored from their long retreat at Shoa, seven characters were added to the Alphabet. The ancient language is now used only for the religious and literary writings of the Abyssinians, the Royal Grants, and the historical records of the country. The Ethiopic or Abyssinian version of the Scriptures, which was made from the Alexandrian Greek, is still extant; and a very ancient example of it on vellum, is in the possession of the Church Missionary Society. The manuscript is written in a bold hand, and in double columns upon 282 folios; and the size of the pages is that of a large Quarto, but somewhat narrower. This valuable manuscript is now printing from an exact transcript, and with letters cast from the matrices formerly belonging to the eminent Ethiopian Scholar John Ludolph, which are preserved at Frankfort. It is sometimes said of this admirable scholar, that he spent

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thirty years in acquiring the Ethiopian language; but it is more certainly known, that he was well versed in five and twenty other tongues. The Abyssinian language is read from the left hand to the right: and the Alphabet consists of twenty-six radical letters, but by varying the position of their points, they amount to 227, including the 29 numerals, 20 syllable abbreviations, and the changes of the additional seven letters. The plan which is followed to produce so many changes, although intricate at the first glance, is conducted on a simple principle. The letter is first considered in its own unonamented form, and then by adding a horn and points affixed to the left hand or the right, the top or bottom of the letter, it is carried through the vowels a and e long and short, i, o, and a long, thus producing seven inflections to each letter. The following Table of the Abyssinian Alphabet will, however, more easily explain the syst m upon which it is constructed.—

						_	
Ноі	Ü	الم الم	Ų	Y.	¥ "·····",	ัย	Ů.
Lawi	Λ	ሎ	ሊ	Λ	ሌ	ል	ሎ
Haut	ሐ	ሑ		ሐ	ሔ	ሕ	ሐ
Mai	B	ሙ	ሚ	M	ሜ	Ø	P
Saut	W	ሡ	Ų	H	ሁ	W	Ψ
Ryys	4	4.	6	ራ	6	5	
Sat	ή	ሴ	ሊ	ለ	ሴ	וז	ለ
Kaf	ቀ	ቁ	ቂ	ቃ	ቁ	ቅ	Ф
Bet	N	ቡ	ቢ	η	n.		ቦ
Tawi	ተ	ヰ	せ	ታ	ቴ	ት	ተ
Hharm	ጎ	፟፟፟	ጚ	3	ተኔ	ላ	ኆ
Nahas	4	<u>ት</u>	4	ç	4	ን	ኖ
Alph	λ	ሉ	λ,	ስ	ሌ	እ	አ
Caf	ከ	ኩ	ሲ	ካ	ኬ	ክ	ከ
Wawe	Φ	Φ.	ዊ	ዋ	ዌ	ው	ወ

	Typo						
Name.	A skort	U long.	l long.	Along.		E short	O long.
Ain	0	ው	Q.	9	Q.	Ò	p
<b>Z</b> ai	Н	#	H,	Н	Н	Ή	Н
Jaman	P	R	R	P	R	Ŀ	ዮ
Dent	ደ	2	Ł	L	L	ድ	R
Gembl	7	7	2	2	2	1	ያ
Tait	ጠ	ጡ	m	ጠ	ጤ	ዏ	M
Ppait	ጸ	ጱ	ጲ	ጳ	ጴ	ጸ	8
Tzadai	ጸ	ጹ	ጺ	ጸ	ጼ	ጽ	R
Zappa	θ	θ.	Đ.	Ą	Q,	Ð	Ð
Af	ሌ	A	8	4	4	4	ር ር
Psa	Т	ፔ	ፒ	ታ	ፔ	7	T

In addition to these Alphabetical Characters, there belongs to the Ethiopic language the following Table of Diphthongs.

A	skort						lone	. P	-
ቍ	k'ua.	фί	k'ui.	φ	k'ue.	ቌ፟	k'ue.	ቀኣ	k'ny.
ኄ	h'ua.	ተቴ	h'ui.	ሷ	h'ua.	ኅ.	h'ue.	ኅዜ	h'uy.
H	k'ua.	ኩ	k'ui.	ኴ	k'ua.	ኴ	k'ue.	ሥ	k'uy.
ᠨ	ģ'ua.	ጕ	g'ui.	ኋ	g'ua.	2	g'uc.	ጕ	g'uy.

The seven additional letters, which are used by the Abyssinians in the AmharicDialect, with their seven inflections, are as follow.

7 万 万 下 万 元 元 元 元 元 平 平 平 平 平 王 王 王 王 王 王 王 王 王 王			tollow.				`	
亚里里 王 王 帝 车 车	1 1	A skort			A long.	E long.	E skort.	O long.
	1	TT	光	Ħ	开	无	否	7
	Tj.	Ŧ	宝	Ŧ	Ŧ	Ŧ	4	.A.
N 1 1 5 8 9 5 5 8 6	Nj.	7	7.	`\Z	5	5	7	È
KI. M TO TO TO TO TO TO	Kh.	ከ	4	ኺ	m	40	3	Ñ

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Power.	A short.	U long.	I long.	A long.	E long.	E short	. Olong
J.	ዠ	ዡ	卍	H	JE	H	T
	禹	五	E,	王	Ţ	E	至
Tsh.	M	T	M	J.	m	27	700
	J. Dj.	J. H Dj. 序	J. H H	J. H. H. H.	ル TH TH TH TH TH TH TH TH TH TH	」	INTHER TOTAL

To express the power of certain letters, which are not in the Ethiopan Alphabet, the following characters have been invented; the sounds of which were originally derived from the French, Spanish, Italian and German languages.

١							
I					g. E long.		
I	Mj liquid	寒	<b>3</b>	双刀	$\mathcal{J}_{\mathcal{A}}$	本	本
l	v.	ц	Tr.	ሲ ላ	rr	评	Tr
	Gl liquid.	不	7	人。	ズフ	ス	70

The characters which the Ethiopians use as Numerals are the ensuing, which were derived from the Greek, and in which the original form is still visible.

The letters they proceed. Iota BetaTwelve; Iota Gamma Thirteen, &c. to Tag These are also arranged upon the same plan, Tag Kappa Beta Twenty-two, &c.

K KA 20 21 to

80 40 50 60 70 80 90 100 200 300 Numbers of Hundreds are accounted in a similar manner to those of Tens; thus, Delta Rho will be Four Hundred, Epsilon Rho. Five Hundred, &c. and Iota Rho Ten Hundred, or A Thousand.

As is the case in most ancient languages, the names of the letters of the Ethiopian are technical words significative of various things; as Mai Water, Bet an House, Ain

the Bye, Jaman+' Right, Af a Bone, &c., and in most instances they agr. with the interpretations of the Chaldaic characters. The Ethiopian letters are divided into many general classes and sub-divisions; of the former are their partition into Vowels and Consonants, Radicals and Serviles; and of the latter are their arrangement into Dentals, Gutturals, Labials, Linguals, Palatines, Cognates, and Extranes; of all these we shall briefly speak, and close with a few remarks on the power of the letters, as corresponding with the languages of Europe. To each of the 26 Ethiopian characters belong Seven Vowels, expressed by points added to the consonants themselves, and each of these constitute a separate class. This will be better understood by a reference to the foregoing Paradigm of Characters. The first is called Gyyzy, or the Tongue, which is expressed by the letter in its simplest form, and corresponds with A in English, A in Germany, and E of the Continent in general. The Second Class is called Kayby, Another, or a Second; and is shewn by a horn and point issuing from the right hand; it is equal to s in Greek, u, in Italian and German, on in French, and oo in English. The next division is entitled Salesy, Third; it governs the open I, and is indicated by a horn and point placed at the lowest part of the right hand line, where the character curves at the top; but when it is rounded or curved at the bottom, a perpendicular line is superadded, and the horn and point are affixed to it. Rabyy, or Fourth, is the name of the next class, which has the power of A long, or rather broad, as in All. It is shewn in the printed characters by shortening the left hand limb, of those which curve at the top, but when there is one limb only, a horn and point are added to that at the bottom. When the character is rounded beneath, a line is added to the right hand of the letter; and others which are singular in their shapes have their lines and points placed horizontally below the character. Hamysy or Fifth, has the power of the open E, as in the German eh, and it is shewn by a circle placed at the lower end of the right hand limb; but if the character be round, a line is added to receive it. Sadisy, or Sixth, has a sound which Ludolph found it extremely difficult to express; he relates, that it is somewhat between the conti-nental i and u, and therefore it would be conveyed in English by eeoo; but in the table of characters, it is placed as Perhaps, however, its best pronunciation is that of i, in Wit. The presence of this vowel is indicated several ways, as may be seen in the table. Sabyy, or Seventh, is the last class of vowels: it has the power of O long, and is expressed by a circle at the upper parts of some letters, and an abbreviation of the right hand limb in others. reference to the foregoing Alphabetical Table, pages 354,

355, will render this description more intelligible. The four Ethiopian Diphthongs proper, as it will be seen ora page 355, are separate characters, all formed out of the letter u, in combination with the other vowels; but sometimes the inflections of the letters themselves produce diphthongs, as Wawe, in the sixth class, will be Ue, and Iuman in the same will have nearly a similar sound. Dental letters in the Ethiopian alphabet, are Saut, Sat, Zui, Zadai, and Zappa. The Guttarals are, Hoi, Ha, Harm, Alph, and Ain. The Labials are, Bet, Mai, Wawe, Pait, Af. and Psa. The Linguals are, Lawi, Ryys, Tawi, Nakas, Deut, and Tait. The Palatines are, Kqf, Caf, Gemhl, and Iaman. The Cognates are, Kqf, Caf, Tawi, Deut, Gemhl, and Tait. The Extranes are, Lawi, Ryys, Nahas, and Iaman. The Radicals are, Haut, Saut, Ryye, Kaf, Harm, Ain, Dent, Gemhl, Tait, Pait, Zadai, Zappa, Af, and Psa: --the remainder are Serviles, although in certain circumstances they become Radicals. The powers of the Ethiopian letters are sufficiently expressed by the Alphabetical Table, since the name gives the Initial, and the other columns the vowel it governs; but the following remarks on the sound of a few of the peculiar characters, will be found useful. Hoi, Haut, and Harm, have all the power of H, but the latter possesses it in a double degree, for which reason it is sometimes spelled Hharm. Sunt, and Sut, differ but little from the plain S, excepting in having a greater degree of force. Alph. and Ain, are sounded like the Hebrew Ain, with an expression not to be learned but by hearing. Bet, is articulated like the German B, which is sometimes confounded with P, V, or W. Caf, is the English K, or C, hard. Wawe is sounded like the English W. Zai, has the power of the English Z, ds, or a strong S, when between two Vowels; the Hebrew Zain, also approaches very near to it. Dent, is D in effect, and is like the German sound of the same letter, viz. Dt. Gemhl is similar to the Hebrew Gimel, and always retains its hard sound.

Before quitting the subject of the Abyssinian language, we shall give one more specimen of its letters, as they appear in connection. The following is a translation of The Lord's Prayer, taken from Orutio Dominica, plus centum linguis Versionibus, aut Characteribus redditta et expressa, Lond. 1715. 4to. p. 27. A copy of this Prayer printed in the same language, but in the Roman Character, will be found in the same work, and an Essay towards a real character and Philosophical Language, by John Wilkins, D. D. Lond. 1689, Folio. p. 35. 1t has also been printed in both languages in J. Ludolph's Ethiopian Lexicon, page 11, vide below, from which work the explanatory arrangement of

the following has been adopted.

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thy name.

and also in Earth.

aylatyna, of our days give as (givest sufficient).

Hydygy Forgive.

torgive

A 1/a

odykynana,

ay mykuylu from all

aykujy.

**ሐቡ**ɗው

the k ngdom.

and glory.

**ム**ለው• through ages

of ages.

Throughout the whole of this translation, when the letter has been combined with the sixth vowel, it has been given by both a short e, or y, as being of a synonymous power.

The Religion of the Abysnians, as may be seen by the preceding prayer, is Christianity, although it is blended with many traditions and Hebrew superstitions. Ludolph has given an interesting specimen of the Liturgy of St. Dioscorus, Patriarch of Alexandria, as it was used in Ethiopia; and of this a translated extract will close the present article, as being an appropriate counterpart to the above, and a combination of grand ideas and impressive language.

At the Administration of the Lord's Supper. From age to age is the Lord in his Kingdom; the Lord is in his Trinity the Lord is in his Divinity. Even before the Day-break, and the Morning; before that the Day and Night were; before that Angels were created, was the Lord in his Kingdom. Before that the Heavens were spread out; and even before the face of Dry-land appeared; and even before the herbs began to put forth buds, was the Lord in his Kingdom. Before the Sun, and the Moon, and the Stars; and before the revolutions of the Lights, was the Lord in his Kingdom. Even before the Beasts which crawl, and the Birds that fly, and even before the great Fishes of the Seas, was the Lord in his Kingdom. Before that Man was created with his own image and likeness, and even before he transgressed his commandments, was the Lord in his Kingdom — Heavy e Heavens, and give ear O Earth, and be thou shaken to thy strong floundations. The Well-believed of the Father, of himself descended to . . . . and was a stranger. In immaculate virginity God is born. In a cavern he is reared and brought forth. He took the gifts which Kings offered to his honour. In the likeness of an infant he wept, and sought his nourishment from the breasts of his Mother. He walked on the Earth as a Man, and was manifest unto the sight. By degrees he arrived at manhood; and at the age of thirty years, he was baptized in the River Jordan. Being altogether as a man, he hungered whilst he inhabited the Desart. By the Devil he was tempted, but by the virtue of his Divinity he dispersed the Princes of Darkness. Although he was a King, he shewed himself in the form of a Servant. He spread out his hands which had created men, that men might be free from the judgment of sin. In that night in which he was betrayed, he took bread into his holy, pure, and undefiled hands; and looking up to Heaven where his father is, he gave thanks, blessed, and brake it, and gave it to his Disciples; his holy Disciples, and his pure Apostles, and said to them, Take, Eat, this is my body, which is broken for you, for the remission of sins. In like manner also he mixed wine and water, gave thanks, blessed, and hallowed it, and gave it unto them his holy Disciples, and his pure Apostles, and said to them. 'Take, Drink: This Cup is my blood, poured out for you for the remission of sins."

The Service their continues to relate the succeeding events till Pentecost, and the separation of the Apostles: and it afterwards proceeds to supplicate the sanctifying power of God, in adapting the emblem of his Son's death to the souls of men. It concludes with a fine contrast between the infinity of the Lord and the weakness and wickedness of mornity of the Lord and the weakness and wickedness of mornity of the Lord and the weakness and wickedness of mornity of the Lord and the weakness and wickedness of mornity of the Lord and the weakness and wickedness of mornity of the Lord and the weakness and wickedness of mornity of the Lord and the weakness and wickedness of mornity of the Lord and the weakness and wickedness of mornity of the Lord and the weakness and wickedness of mornity of the Lord and the weakness and with the lord and the weakness and wickedness of mornity of the Lord and the weakness and with the lord and the

tals, and the usual ascription of eternal glory.

Additional information respecting the Ethiopian language, will be found in Jacob Ludolph's Lexicon Ethiopico Latinum, Lond. 1861, 4to; Grammatica Ethiopica, Franckfort, 1702, Folio, by the same author; Travels to discover the Source of the Nile, by James Bruce, Edin. 1807, 4to.; and A Voyage to Abyssinia, by Henry Salt, Lond. 1814, Quarto.

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### CHINESE

THE last descendant of the Hebrew tongue, is the language of China; although it is impossible to say by whom, or at what period it was carried into that Nation. Indeed it has been considered as standing in such a relation, rather be-cause imagination knows not where else to place it, and history gives no other light for any other hypothesis. From what Nation the Chinese had their origin, or whether they were first planted in the land which they occupy, by the hand of Divine Providence, it is now impossible to decide. Theirown Annals, when blended with the visionary fancies of the enthusiast Fo, carry back the history of the Nation to a period, which sets all European Chronology and Cosmogony at defiance; but when divested of them, it goes only to somewhat more than 3000 years before the Birth of Christ; which brings it to about the time of the Deluge, as that great event took place in the year of the World 2:66, and 2348 years before the Nativity of our Lord. Concerning the origin of the Chinese, there are four hypotheses extant; namely, first, that they are an original people, who have dwelt within their own country for uges: secondly, that they have descended from the Hebrews and Arabs: thirdly, that they came from one of the Tartar Nations, who came down from the Steppes of Imaus: and fourthly. the Bramins state that the inhabitants of China are derived of the Military Hindoos. To the latter of these suppositions. Sir William Jones seems to incline, since he considers the Chinese and the Hindoos as the same people, and he identifies with a wonderful degree of Oriental knowledge, the Deity Fo, of the former nation, with the Buddho Other writers incline more to the Tartaric of the latter. derivation of the Chinese, on account of their physiognomical character, and refer the similarity of manners, of their rites and superstitions, to other nations, to visits from various other people. Before language was reduced to a written character, the Chinese imagine that the commands of Rulers were made known, and that ideas were communicated by means of Knotted Cords. A character somewhat resembling these is said to have been formed from the trigrams of Fo-Hi, the First Emperor of China. combinations of his characters were eight in number, and were intended to represent the eight Chinese elements, as well as the two foundatory principles; namely, Heaven and Earth, Male and Female, Perfect and Imperfect, from which all other parts of Nature were formed. The characters or trigrams of Fo-Hi, consisted of two broad straight lines, one of which was entire, and the other divided; but it is supposed, that when knotted cords came into use for the expression of wishes or commands, that the first

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writing after their invention, was constructed of the line. as before, but broken by the insertion of small outline circles placed at various distances along it. In representing the celestial figures, the Ancient Chiuese found that the knotted cord was excellently adapted for the depicting of the Constellations. Thus the circle or knot stood for the Star, and the connecting line defined the form of the Heavenly sign: nor was this method peculiar to the Chinese. since the Chaldeans, as we have already shewn, vide ante. pages 300-1, formed similar characters, although their's were assumed from the stars, instead of being adapted to them. All traces of these knotted cords are not yet lost in China, since both their Swan-Pan, or Arithmetical Table. and their method of carrying their money, were evidently derived from the ancient use of them. The former of these. the Chinese Abacus, is a shallow box, in the shape of a parellellogram, which is unequally divided in the longer way. by a thin wooden partition. Across the box are several stout wires, which pass through the partition, and are fastened into each of the longer sides. Upon these wires. both above and below the partition, are placed a quantity of small hollow wooden balls, which pass up and down them with the greatest freedom; and they are calculated by tens and multiples of tens, the upper balls being each reckuned for five, and the lower for units. The Hebrew, the Egyptian, and the Greek, have all been named as the primitives of the Chinese; but it would certainly be a diffi-cult task to produce proof of a direct descent from any of them, although it might be comparatively easy to shew its connection with all. This circumstance may however be received, as a sufficient proof that the Chinese are not an original people like the Hebrews, as some would endeavour to substantiate; but were a formed Nation, like all the others of the Earth. Dr. Marshman, who has laboured to prove that there does not exist any connection between the Sanskrit and Chinese languages, and whose hypothesis will be more particularly mentioned in our notice of the former tongue, has also endeavoured to prove that there is no more connection between the speech of the Hebrews, and that of the inhabitants of China. He found, by an examination of the original text of Judah's address to Joseph, contained in Genesis, chap. xliv., that out of 206 words, in which are 16 monosyllables, only 7 of them were Chinese. He then proceeds to consider Abraham's intercession with God on the behalf of Sodom; in which he found 230 words. containing 10 monosyllables, but only 4 Chinese. Lastly, the learned Doctor takes Noah's prophetic Curse of Canaan, where there occur 26 words, one monosyllable, but not one Chinese word. From these philological experiments the Doctor concludes, that to derive the Chinese

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language from the Hebraic, is nothing less than absurd. since in the first instance, only one word occurs out of 29. in the second, one out of 50, and in the third, one out of 26. But even this small number militates agains this hypothesis, that they are an original people, and that their language was invented by themselves; because it is scarcely probable that they could give that Hebraic character both to their tongue and writing, if the idea had not been pre-viously conveyed to them. With respect to the Egyptian language forming the foundation of the Chinese, those authors who have supported this hypothesis, have selected some of the most expressive characters, and by a few minute vet important variations, have produced a faint resemblance of the thing signified by the latter. Barrow, in his Travels in China, Lond. 1806, 4to. page 238, while he seems to controvert this supposition, nevertheless allows that "certain ancient characters are still extant, in which a rude representation of the image is employed." But the Rev. Dr. R. Morrison, whose astonishing industry has triumphed over all the difficulties of the Chinese tongue, remarks that "in proof of characters being at first a representation of the thing signified, a few instances are adduced, as---

Jih. Yas Shua Ma Muh Chow Chay Shway Uch

The The A The A Cart, or Water. The Sun. Moss. Hill. Herse. Sys. Boat. Carriage.

Now written,

# 日月山 犀 月舟 東 水 耳

Letters in China, as it is supposed by the Natives themselves, were the invention of a person called Ts'hang-hee, who devised them from the form of a Celestial Constellation; the marks on the Shell of a Tortoise, and the print of a horse's foot. But Paou-Shee, who lived in the third century of the world, is considered the Father of Chinese Letters, since he formed a work entitled Luh-Shoo, or the Six Writings, the contents of which he taught to his pupils. He asserts in that volume, that nine-tenths of the Chinese characters were originally Hieroglyphic; but that for the sake of convenience, speed, or beauty of writing, they became so abbreviated or extended, that their forms were gradually lost. About 800 years previous to the Christian Era, the Seal character, which consists of the general character greatly compressed without any difference of thickness, (Vide Table II. Nos. ix. xvii. xxii.) was first used. A person named Chow, invented the Ta-chuen-Wan, or letters depicting the object; in which he proposed to represent the straight lines of the Dragon, the crooked windings of the worm, the footsteps of birds, the marks on

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shell-fish, and the figures of plants, trees, insects, swords, and spears. About five centuries afterward: Le-sze remodelled the Chinese character; and reducing the number of strokes, formed the Seaou-chuen-wan, or the Little Engraved Letters, which however are sometimes confounded with the Seal character, although their forms are distinctly different. They are now called Chung-Ting-Wan, or the Letters of Bells and Tripods, since they are supposed first to have been derived from the Hieroglyphics on ancient metal vases, which preserved the old characters of China, when the Emperor Che-hwang-tee (about the year of the world 3700), commanded all books to be burned. For specimens of these characters, Vide Table II. No. xvi. The contractions and inconveniences attendant upon the Seal character, caused the Dynasty Han, (A. D. 200), to order it to be reformed to the Le-tsze, or the Court Officer's character, so called from the Clerks of the Public Courts having framed it. It has however been ascribed by some, to one Ching-mo, who invented it in prison. About the year of our Lord 300, Wang-t'hsze-chung, first wrote the Kae or Kca-Shoo, or Level or Excellent Writing, which is considered the most beautiful form of the Chinese character; but in this instance, as well as in some of the former, the original shape is almost wholly lost. Heu-Shin an Officer of Government, suspecting that at some future period such a revolution might take place, about the year 100 of the Christian Era, composed the work entitled Shwo-wan, a Discourse or Explanation of Letters, in which he endeavoured to preserve the derivation and meaning of the ancient character. The Tsaou-tsze, Grass character, or Running hand, was invented about the same period by Sheyew, for the purposes of dispatch in the affairs of Government, but official documents are written in the Kae-Shoo It will be seen from the foregoing sketch of the history of the Chinese language, which is an abstract from the Rev. Dr. Rob. Morrison's admirable Chinese Dictionary, that it has undergone many changes, and is composed of many and various materials. The character at the present time is said to be deduced from six different sources: Firstly, from those letters which bear a resemblance to the object. as in the instances already given, Vide ante, page, 363: Secondly, from letters which point at some property, as Shang, Above, is a character like an inverted T thus, I : Thirdly, from a combination of ideas, as Sin, Truth or Belief, is formed from Man and Word: Fourthly, from the sound of the thing spoken of, in which point they greatly resemble the ancient Greeks, as Ho. A River: but sometimes a part of the character is put for meaning and a part for sound: Fifthly, by inverting or reversing various charac-

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ters to express contraries; thus Che to grow out of the ground, consists of three perpendicular lines pointing upward, rising out of a horizontal one, through the middle of which the centre line passes, into another horizontal one which serves as a base, thus giving the idea of a plant or flower growing; the same character reversed, is Tsa, to Revolve, or go round: and Sixthly, arbitrary characters, which have been borrowed by the Chinese to express sounds which they have not in their language; as Ch'hang, Long. There are Five Varieties of the Chinese character now in use : namely, the Ching-tseé, Right Character or Plain Hand, which is used for writing of books and government papers, and is the most correct formation of the character; Vide Table II. No. V. where it is shewn in the character of the Word Tung, the East. Secondly, Hing-tsee or the Free hand or Walking character, which is written with more freedom; Vide No. VI., where the same word Tung is delineated in this manner. No. VII. shews the same word written in the Tsaou-tsee, the Grass character or Running Hand, in which Letters, Accounts, and Prefaces to books are written, and in which there are several ways of writing the same character. In No. VIII., Tung is written in Lé-tsée or Ancient Character; and in No. IX. it is shewn in the Chuen-tsée, or Seal character.

The language of China is monosyllabic; and the single syllables of which the Chinese words are formed, distinguishable by the English alphabet, are about 350 in number. The sound of these syllables varies in the different ranks and Districts of China; but that which the Europeans denominate the Mandarine Tongue and the Chinese call Kwan-hwa, or the Public Officer's Dialect, is spoken at Court, and by the best educated persons throughout the Empire. The Provincal Dialects differ not only from this, but also each other; since the speech of the inhabitants of Canton differs from that used by those of Macao: and the pronunciation of the people of Nanking is dissimilar from that used at Peking. The general mixture of Tar-tars and Chinese in the extensive Nation of China is the real cause of this disagreement: for as the Rulers are derived of the former people, their pronunciation prevails with many; and as the literary part of the country is composed of the latter, their pronunciation is recorded and promulgated in books. The number of characters which compose the general language, and to which these sounds may be applied, are about 80,000; but these may be again reduced to a small number of Key or Radical Characters, which the Chinese call Poo, or a Tribunal; they consist of 214 in number, and are shaped like the following large specimen, which was copied from the Encyclopedie Francoise, Plan. Vol. 11. P1. 25.

300	e.pi	ograpyta.			
W. Ang.	A Net. 122.	未	Yang.	A Sheep.	123
<b>\''</b>	Colour, 139.	拿	Tsaoù.	Herbs.	9
Chih or Chay.	Carnation colour. 165.	夷	Tsów.	To Walk.	.961
	Highest.	徭	Chue.	Wings.	172.
<b>11</b>	. A Horse. 187.	些	Kwo or Kuh.	A Bone.	<u>8</u>
#	Embroider. 204.	ভ		귬	<b>3</b> 05

In Order however that the whole of the Chinesa Keys may be seen at one View, we have prepared the following Table of them, with the annexed list of their names and signification. The forms of the characters, which are more correct than those from the French Work already cited, are from the excellent Dictionary of Sha-muh published by

	·
Ya. Feathers.	Led.
Hob.	Chung. An Insect.
To or Tenh. The Poot.	Shin. The Body. 168.
Yu. Rain.	Toing.
Kacu. High.	Perou. Long Hair. 190.
Ting.	Koo.

Imperial Authority, in 42 Volumes Octavo; and in order that the foregoing may be contrasted with the annexed, the Number of the Key is placed beneath the explanation. In the Table ensuing, it will be observed that the Numbers count across.

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The Chinese form their characters with Indian Ink. and a painting hair pencil fixed in a hollow piece of cane;\* which is held erect between the thumb on one side, and the fore and middle fingers on the other. The wrist and the whole of the fore arm are rested firmly upon the table; while the paper upon which they write, is placed straight before them. Their writing is in perpendicular columns, which are to be read from the top to the bottom of the page, and from the right hand column successively to the left. Sometimes however, when single lines occur, as in the instances of inscriptions over Temples, Shops, &c., the words are written horizontally from right to left. After all however, such is the completeness of every Chinese character in itself, that if the language be written from top to bottom, it may be read either upwards or downwards; or if it be written horizontally, it may be read either from right to left, or from left to right, with equal propriety. This convenience in writing probably arises from the want of particles in the language, and an illustrative specimen will be given hereafter, which will more particularly evince it. Chinese Radical letters are divided into Classes, according to the numbers of Strokes of the Pencil which they contain; and then each Radical is placed at the head of a new family of characters, arranged upon the same plan, all of which contain their Key or Generic mark visible in some part of their Specific compound. This is generally placed on the left hand side, though it sometimes appears on the right, above the character or below it, so that no particular rule can be given for ascertaining it, excepting that it is commonly the most conspicuous part of the letter. The method of discovering the Key of any particular character, will also be more minutely described hereafter. It is then upon the preceding plan, that the modern Chinese Dictionaries are arranged; there is first a General Table of Keys and their Explanations; and then follows each Radical character at the head of its own family; of which those that are formed of one stroke more than the original letter come first, then those with two, and so onward to the most complex. Thus, in searching for a word in a Chinese Lexicon, after the Radical has been ascertained, the remaining

<sup>•</sup> Hair Pencils were invented in China, 300 Years before the Birth of Christ; and Cakes of Ink, such as are new used, about the Year 600 of the Christian Era. Paper was first written on by Tsachun, at the end of the first century after Christ, previous to which the people of China wrote on Silk, cloth, thin wooden boards, or bamboos, with a pointed stick and lujud ink. Their earliest printing was from Stone, having white characters on a black ground; it was introduced to the Chinese Government by Fung taou, a Minister of State, and prevailed so early as the Teuth Century. Engraving upon wooden blocks was a subsequent invention.

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Strokes must be numbered, and then a reference must be made under the corresponding division of the original letter. It will be important to observe, that the Chinese, in writing, commence at the left side of the letter:-that they form horizontal lines before perpendicular ones, excepting the lowest horizontal stroke in the character, which is always made last; -and that the left, top, and right sides of squares are drawn before the figures which they enclose. As the ensuing Table contains a series of Chinese words. the following general rules for pronunciation will be found of considerable utility. The best European spelling of the language of China is the Portuguese, which is that used in the examples given in this article; but in the annexed list. there are three different systems of orthography brought forward. Of these, the first is the Portuguese as used by Dr. Morrison, the French as used in M. De Guigne's Dictionnaire Chinois, and a third sort which may be considered as the German, as used in Dr. Hager's Elementary Characters of the Chinese. In pronouncing the following syllables. A, has the power of the German Ah, or A, in the English word Father: as Yu, in the Second Degree. has also a sound like A, in Hat, as Kwan, Fatigued; and before ong, or Y, it is pronounced long, like the same letter in pale, or ay, in May, as Chaong, Long, Chay, a Cart. Ae. are sounded like i, in the word High somewhat elongated, or more like the continental sound of ai, as Chae, to Send. Aou, have also a Continental sound, similar to that of the first a, mentioned above, in connection with oo, as Chaou, to Call an Inferior. E, final, is expressed as it is in the word Me, as Che, This: but if the syllable end with a double e, they are sounded long, with a method of pronunciation peculiar to the Chinese, as Kee Keue, Appearance of Motion. E, has also a short sound like the same letter in Met, as Keue, a Hooked Weapon. Eu, have the peculiar sound which they possess in French, as in the word peu, &c., as Chen, Ugly; and Ew, are sounded according to the English custom as in View, New, &c., as Kew, Rolling Eyes. G, is usually pronounced hard, as Gan, a Clean Sky. L is expressed with the French sound of that letter, which makes it e, as Ping, an Isicle; and Ih, pronounced like a, short i, similar to that in with, as Jih, to Enter. J. has the soft gliding sound which it possesses in the French. as Jin, a man. Oa, have the power of the same letters in Moan, as Choang, a Bed or Couch; and Ow, when used in a substantive, are sounded like the Greek e or on in Noun, as Now Anger. U. has two sounds, one nearly like Ex. mentioned above; as Yu, to Give; and the other, or Uh, is short, like u, in but, as Tsuh, Mournful. A final Y, is expressed as in the Welsh, or in the English word Truly, as Hwuy, to Return. Ze, have a buzzing sound some what

Yih, Ye. Choo, Ci., Peih, I

# NAMES AND EXPLANATIONS OF THE CHINESE RADICAL CHARACTERS.

# Class I. Characters formed by One Stroke of the Pencil

	ŀ		
e. Hooked.	Kine	Kue.	
One, Unity. Key of things curved.	Ye.	y short.	¥.
Bent out or downward. Key of things curved to the right.	Fic.	Pie	Pee.
A Point. Apex. Key of things which end in a point.	!	Tchu.	hù.
To Descend. Dr. Hager says Ascent.	-	Kouen.	ı, Keuen
One, the First, Unity, Straightness, Perfection. Key of Unity.	_	w short	w short.
Expination	Congram	P. PERCH	2000

		lass II.	Class II. Characters formed by Two Strokes.		
Wel Purturuse	Preuch German	German	Explanation		
7 Urb.	E.	CP.	Two, Second, Double, Repetition.		
8 o Tow.	Teou.	Teu.	Undefined. Dr. Hager calls it Head. Key of things having a top	Key of this	ngs having a top
•		1	or summit.		
Marin Vo		000	Man. Things elevated.		,
11 Jih, Juh, Jo.	IJ.	<u>မှ</u>	To Enter. Entrance. Penetrating.		
P	1	7	Fight, Things doubled.		Country
Man .	V	K.	To cover. A covering.		
F o Ding			ice, an Isicle. Two Drops.		
	7.	Z.	A Table or Bench, Niche, support.		

Mee. Ping.

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Tsze, Tsee. e Meen. Tsun. Seaou. e Wang or Yew.	No Portuguese 30 K'how, Keu. 31 Hwuy. 32 Too. 32 Too. 33 Sze, Seé. 34 Che. 35 Che. 36 Seih, See. 37 Tai, See. 38 Neu.	N. D. ST.	28 Mow. 29 Yew.	26 Tsee, See.	24 Shih, Shay. 25 Puh. Po	21 Pe. 22 °He.	20 Paou.	18 Taou.	No Torongueso
Tse. Mien. Siào. Ouang.	Keou. Oey. Tou. Sse. Tchy. Souy. Sy.	- 1	Meou. Yeou.	Tsie.	Chy.	Hy.	Pao.	Tao.	E renen
Su. Mien. Sun. Siào. Vang.	Yu. Yu. Szu. Szu. Swi. Sie. Ta.	Class III.	Su. Yeu.	Cie.	Xe.	Hi.			Cerman
A Son, a Child, Heir, Generation. To Collect. Coverings of Anouse. An inch. Tenth part of the Chinese cubit. Key of measures. Little, Small, Littleness, Low, Common, a Little. An irregular waving edge. Things tythed or curved. Grooked	The Month.  An enclosure, to surround, Things shut up. An enclosure, to surround, Things shut up. The Ground or Earth, one of the Five Chinese Elements. A Scholar, Learned, Magistracy, Doctor, Wise. To follow, come after. To walk slowly. To come one after another. The Evening. Daykness. A Wymen.	Characters formed by Three Strokes.	Crooked, curved, any thing triangular, union.  The hand, more, again, still. To hold to have, and also	To Seal. Ancient Seal on Stone or Ivory. A knot in wood. To cut Shelter a place of abode or rest. Rocks.	t, a coffer. Armory. e last in the Chinese numeration.	22	To Fold. Complex or Rolled up. To Envelop.	An Abyss, things Sword, Hatchet, S	Explanation

	H				
		No Portaguese.	French.	German	Explanation
		45 Che.	Chy.	Xi.	A Corpse. The Dead.
		46 Shan	Tche.	Sao.	
		47 . Chuen.	Tchouen	_	A channel for Water Flood Diver Towner
		48 Kung.	Kong.		Work, a Workman, Materials, Art.
		50 Kin.	Ay.	E	One's self. Time past.
	3	•			A shield. To seek. Ask. Sin. annly one's self. Divers
	37	52 Yaou, Yew.	Yao.		Slender, little, young, subtle, thin.
		54 Ying	Yen.		To protect. Shop, Warehouse, cover of an House, Magazine.
		55 . Kung.	Kong.		To join hands. Travel.
	1	57 Kin, Yay.	y short.	Ye.	A Dart. To Dart. To draw a Bow. Take, Catch.
	hi	58 ° Ke.	Ky.	Ki	A Hog's head Swine Wild Roor
	ap	60 chih Che	Chan.	Xan.	Hair or Hairs. A Feather. To ornament any thing with plumes.
	gr	1	1		a pace. A wark. To wark. The left 100t.
	pog		0	lass IV.	Class IV. Characters formed by Four Strokes.
	p	file Sin Shin	Freuch.	German.	Explanation.
	T	62 Ko.			The Heart, the Mind, Affections, Intentions, Will, Inward.  A Lance, Arms.
•		64 Show	Hou.	Hu.	An inner door.
		65 Che.	Tchy.		A branch, Limbs of a Tree. To receive Take Aid Spetain
		67 c Wan.	Po.	Ven	A slight stroke. Affairs, Business, to arrange, govern
		68 Tow.	Teou.		A Chinese measure of Ten Line Composition, Line
		69 Kin			A Barrel. A Firkin. Measures of Liquids.
-		Taxan.			Chinese pound. Book. Proper name.

		_	874.	••••	Typo	grap	hia.		
95 Henen. 96 Yuh, Yo.		93 e New. Nièou. Keuen. Keuen	90 Chwang. 91 Peen.	87 c Chaou. 88 Foo.	84 Ke, Kee. 85 Shwuy, Shùy.	80 Woo, Wû. 81 Pe. 82 Maon.	77 Che. 78 Tae. 79 Shoo, Chu.	74 Yue. 75 Muh, Mo.	70 Faug. 71 ° Woo, Vû. 72 Jih, Je.
French.		Nièou. Keuen.	Pan. Pien.	Tchào.	Chy. Choùy.	Py. Mao.	Tchy. Ya.	4	Jy.
Yuen.	Class V	Nieu. Kiuen	rao.	Chao.	Xu.	Pi.	Сы.	Yue.	
Blackish. Dark Colour. Profound.  A Gem. Precious Stones. Precious.	Class V. Characters formed by Five Strokes.	Nieu. A Cow. An Ox. Kinen A Dog.	To mutate. Immation. Undefined. Support. Dr. Hager calls it an Outward Prop. A splinter. Support, Division. An Inward Prop. A Numeral of the Petals of Flowers, or Leaves of a Book.	H	A Family name. Title. Surname. Air. Living principle. Vapour. Water.	Not, Do not. Denial. Dr. Hager calls it Mu, Mother. To compare, Examination. To Assimilate. A measure. A Rule. Hairs, Wool, Feathers of Birds, Down, Grass.	to owe, tangence, want, a <i>Denot</i> , beneetiey. To Stop. Discontinuation. Interruption. Finish. An Impediment. Evil, Bad. Corrupted Bones, Death, to Die. To kill by striking. a Staff.	The Moon. Month.  Wood. A Tree.  The Moon. Latree.	gative.

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No. Portuguese. 118 ° Chuh, Cho. 119 Me. 120 ° Meih, Sze, See. 121 Fow, Feu. 122 Wang.	75 Kwa. 75 Kwa. 75 Kwa. 79 Kwa. 79 Kan. 79 Yung. 79 Yung. 79 Pe. 70 Yung. 70	
Tcho. My. My. Feou. Ouang.	Konah. Konah. Konah. Konah. Konah. Konah. Konah. Konah. Kohy. Kohy	
German.  Mi. Mie.  Vàng.	German Kua, Va, Va, Pie. Cie. Cie. Pi. Min. Meu. Xi. Xe. Geù.	
L. Characters formed by SNE STORES.  Expansion.  Bandboo, Reed.  Paddy or Rice, Husked or ground Rice. Silk-Thread. Silk.  Crockery, Vessels of Earthenware.  A Net.  A Steep, Lamb, Goat, or Kid.		

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143 145 146	139 140 141 142	135 136 138	132	128 129	124 125 126
143 Heue. 144 Hing. 145 E. 146 Ya, Hea.	39 Sih, Se. 40 °Tsaou. 41 Hoo. 42 Chung.	134 Kew. 135 She. 136 Chuen. 137 Chow. 138 Kan.	131 Chin. 132 Tsze, Tsee. 133 Che.	128 Urh. 129 Yu. 130 ° Jow. Jo.	126 Urh. 127 Luy, Lac.
Hue. Y. Hia.	Tsao. Hou. Tchong.	Kièou. Che. Tchouen. Tcheou. Kén.	Tchin. Tsé. Tchy.	Eùl.	Lao. Eal. Louy.
Hioe. Si, the	Sao. Hu. Hoei,	Kiéu. Xe. Chuen. Cheu.	Su. Chi.	Ulb.	I U
Blood. To Go, to Walk, to Do, Proceed, Make, Operate, the Elements. Clothes, Garments, Outer Hahit or Vest, to Clothe. To Cover.	Colour, Figure, Luxury, Herbs, Plants, Grass, Flowers. A Tiger. An Insect, Worms. General name for Animals.	A Mortar. The Tougue, TO Disturb, Error, Dance, to Err, Contradict. A Boat, a Ship, a Girdle. Disobedient, Force, Strength, Robust, Solid, Firm. Limit, Boun-	A Servant, a Minister of State, a Public Servant, a Vessel, Key of Magistrates, Ministers, and Mandarins. Self, Himself, Precedency, From, out of. Reaching to, at, to the extreme point, even to, Summit, Solstice, arrive at, very.	The Ear, To Hear, To Understand. A Pencil, obedience, to obey. An auxiliary character whose deri- A Pencil, obedience, to Draw, Paint, Write, &c. Hager. Flesh.	Feethers, Wings. A Whaker, and, but, conjunction. A Whaker, and, but, conjunction. Handle of a Plough, Harrow, Hoe, an Instrument for cutting the

		Q	Lypog	rap	ħia		. 3	77				
167 Kin. 168 cCh'hang, Chang. Tchang. 169 Mun.		165 Peen, Tsae. 166 Le.	163 Yih, Yay. 164 Yew.	160 Sin. 161 Shin.	159 Chay, Keu.	o Tsu	154 Pei. 155 Chih, Chay.	153 Che.	151 Tow.	149 Yen.	147 Keen.	No. I Portugues
Tchang. Muên.	Cle	Pién. Ly.	Yeòu.	Chin.	Tche.	Tseou.	Pey. Tchy.	Tohy.	Teóu.	A.O.	Kién.	C
Muên.	Class VIII.	Say.	Ye. Yeù.	Xin.	Che,	So.	Poéi. Che.	Chi.	Teu.	_	Oeiman.	lass VII
German, Metal, Gold, Explanation.  Muchal, Gold, Remote, Great, Lasting, Always.  Much.   A Door, a Gate, chiefly the exterior.	Characters formed by Eight Strokes.	To Pluck, or The About one fourth of an English Mile; Place, Habitation, Village. About one fourth of an English Mile; Place, Habitation, Village.	Walking Swiftly, to Run. A City, Village, or Camp. An Enclosure within Walls. Matured, New Wine, Finished, Liquor. The hour from 5 to 7 in	Bitter, Distressing.  To Tremble. The Chinese hour of the morning from 7 till 9.	A Wheel, a Carriage, a Mill; to be carried.	To Walk, to go hastily, to Run. The Foot, the Feet, Rich, Wealthy, to Suffice.	Pearls, Sea-Shells, a Precious thing. Carnation-Colour, Purple.	A Hog, Swine.  Reptile, Animals covered with hair, or without feet, Worms.	Pulse, Leguminous Plants as Peas or Beans.	Words, to Express.	To See, to Look on, Perceive.	Class VII. Characters formed by Seven Strokes.

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To Fight, a Battle, Quarrels.	Teu.	Teóu.	191 Tow.
A Bone. A Bone. High, Loftiness, Lofty, Eminent, Noble, Excellent. Long Hair, Beard.	Piéu,	Ko. Kao. Pieou.	188 Kuh, Kwo. 189 Kaou. 190 Peaou.
Explanation.	German	French.	No. Portuguese.
Class X. Characters formed by Ten Strokes.	Class		
Smell, Fragrance, Odour.	-	Hiang.	186 Heang.
The Head, Beginning, Origin	Xen.	Cheòu.	185 Show
To Fly, a Wing.	7	Fey.	183 Fe, Fei
The Wind.	ie.	Fong.	182 Fung.
A Sound, voice.	Nieu	Yn.	180 Yin.
Back to Back, Soft Leather, Tanned Leat. Skins.	Goei	Oêy.	178 Wei, Vei.
The Face, Surface, Outside. Untanned Leather, Skins, D		Mién.	Med
Class IX. Characters formed by Nine Strokes.  Explanation.	German.	French.	No. Portuguese.
Azure, Blue Colour. False, Not, No, Negative.	Sing.	Fey.	174 Tsing. 175 Fei.
Short-tailed Birds, Wings, Union, Conjunction.	Chui	Tchouy.	172 Chuy, Chue.
At, or to a certain point, Highest, Extremity, to Extend, what re-	Tai, Y	Tay.	171 Tae.
_	German	French.	No Portuguese

Ton	gan	an	hia.		 37	ç

Even, to Arrange or Adorn, an Ornament.	Pi. Si.	Py. Tsy.	209 Pe. 210 Tse.
Characters formed by Four	Class XIV.	Ch	
55	Ku.	Kou. Chù.	207 Koo. 208 Shoo.
A Tond, Sea Monster, Turtles, Frogs, Worms. A Tripod, a Vase, to Renew.	Min.	Mong.	No. Portuguese.
I. Characters formed by Thirteen Strokes.	Class XIII.	Cla	
To Embroider, Embroidery.	Chi.	Tchy.	204 Che.
Millet, a Species of Maize.  Block Rischness Obscurity	Xù.	Chù.	202 Shoo.
B. Vollow Vallowness	German	French.	No Portuguese.
I. Characters formed by Twelve Strokes.	Class XII.	CI	
Wheat, Barley, Grain. Hemp.	_		198 Luh, Lo. 199 Mih, Me. 200 Ma.
A Bird. Insipid, Tasteless, Salt, Salt Earth, Barren Ground.	Lù.	Lou.	197 Neaou.
_	German.	French.	No. Portuguese,
Characters formed by Eleven Strokes.	Class XI.	C	
_	Lie. Kuèi.	Ly. Koùey.	193 Leih, Lee. 194 Kwei.
Fra	German	Tchang.	192 Ch'hang, Chang. Tchang.

A or one ome

moving. fund

dwelling yo medicine

addressed Junt. thing

four k'ho can.

neighbours

saving. separating veih shay MA

Heang\*
while past

leclined respect king

tso Neighbours

kon

keann trouble nosia

present

give (you Doctor

Having thus concluded our description of the Chinese Key-Characters, we next proceed to give some translations and to notice a few of the peculiarities of the language. At the upper part of Table II. No. I. Vide end of the Article, is a ludicrous tale extracted from Dr. Morrison's Chinese Dialogues; for the reading of which the figures down the right hand side, and on the tops of the columns, are intended as directions, Vide also ante, page 369. Freely translated, the tale alluded to as follows. will present each of you with a packet of Medicine. The neighbours excused themselves by saying they had no complaint. The Doctor said, 'only This paraphrase was requisite to elucidate the following, which is a literal translation placed beneath the Chinese words in Roman letters, all arranged according to the positions of the characters in Table JI. "A Surgeon who was going to remove said to his neighbours. I have hitherto given you much trouble and now on parting have nothing to give in token of respect. I will present each of you with a packet o ake my physic, and I will warrant you will soon be sick enough."

- Gr - D- mpy - m	
true and a re- t as con- congue, his coun- tition a few to a f	
wood wood work wood work wood work work work work work work work work	
pung Self Self Self Self Self Self Self Self	
Doctor  Jen Truly of particles case in the access in the former access of access to the access of a access to the access of a access in a	0
when happen the happen to be happen to	
my larve eth but said boctor sick not but said but but said have lesses up broduce a hape.  Come disease up broduce hape in the profit of the state of the state hape.  Lis evident that in the above there is a great want of particles or connecting words, and a redundancy of other minor expressions; and this is the case in the greater part of the ancient and the Basten languages, for in general they possess words only as the signs of things, not as connecting members of construction or discourse. Hence, too, arises that almost unintelligible English which is spoken by natives of China and Africa, when they first attempt to learn the tongue, glish which is spoken by natives of China and Africa, when they first attempt to learn the tongue, and which they can never wholly forget. They imagine that it is with the language of this connecting members of construction, that as few principal words and general features of a sentence are affined to a convey it with clearness, if not with delegance. But at the same time they overload their discourse with the leaser parts of speech improperly placed. Before passing on to as few and of searching it out from the Dictionary; these shall be taken from the first line a character, and of searching it out from the Dictionary; these shall be taken from the first line a character and in prince holes, and the latter are the characters of flax-mail. this specimen differ from those in the Table of Keys all the latter are the characters of flax-mail. this specimen of the lower land of its and elsewe additional strokes are placed above. Them, to move on removing, the third character, while formed are the left the key, Yer, which forms the No. I, nor Table II; and it is its own key. Viet Table I. We fourth character, which she main and the left-land of the character; and it has 12 additional strokes. The hand alled; and it has 4 additional strokes. The hand half of the left-land half it the land alled; and it has 4 additional strokes.	0
keth  khe  khe  in the abov  in the abov  in the abov  for in ger  for in ger  construction  by natives  with clear with  with clear  with	
heave pring the disease dident that of other man and anguages en heave of the control of the con	
my fag. Come Come Come Come Come Come Come Come	
	-

† A Chinese Idiom to signify all around or on every side, \* Chinese point, shewing a portion of the sentence to be complete

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Radical Hung, which forms the outer square, with 2 additional strokes placed within. The seventh character Lin. Neighbours, is derived of Yew, the 163rd Radical, a varied form of which appears on the right hand half of the letter: and it has 12 additional strokes. The Eighth character Yne, to say or saying, is composed of the 73rd Radical in its own unornamented form. Heung, time past, or heretofore, is the ninth and last character of the first line, which consists of Kow, the 30th Radical, standing alone in the centre, with 3 additional strokes drawn around it. examples will be sufficient for the present purpose; but it should be observed, that it is of considerable assistance to the young Chinese Student, to practise searching in a dictionary for characters the sound of which he already knows. and to refer to a table of Radicals and words only, whenever he is at a loss. No X. on Table II., is a native expression sometimes used for the Country of China, namely Chungkwo, or the Middle Nation. No. XI, is Lun-yin, i. e. "Silken sounds evolved with consummate order and harmony." an expression used for the Imperial Mandates and Official Declarations. A similar phrase is used to express the classical examination of literary candidates, Sze-lun, or the unfolding of the silks. In No. XII, is shewn the style of address to Officers of the first and second rank in China. and which is also used by courtesy to those of the third; the characters signify Ta-yin, or Great-Man, and they are sometimes used for the title Sir. It is common for the Chinese when conversing of or with a person who is older or superior to themselves, to avoid all personal pronouns, as I, Me, &c. and by a periphrasis which is far from being inelegant, modestly to allude to themselves. Thus they will say Heo-sang, your pupil, Vide No. XIV. Wan-sang, Eveningborn, and as in No. XIII, Kea-foo, or House-family-father, for my father. No. XV. shews a broad tone which may be expressed by Ah, used principally by servants to signify their understanding of orders; it is also sometimes translated Yes. No. XX, shews another specimen of Chinese idiom in the use of numbers: the characters signify. "Wan sze yew t'heen, mo keung kew," literally, Ten thousand affairs from heaven not violently to be sought; and freely rendered, Every thing is from Heaven, do not seek to obtain by violence. In No. XXI. is a specimen of a Chinese interrogative, namely, "Mun shang yew jin mo?" literally, Door above have man what? or, in free translation, is there any one at the gate? No. XVI. contains the forms of Yih, Choo, and Shih, the 1st, 3rd, and 24th Radicals in the Chung-Ting-Wan form, explained on page 364 ante. In No. XVII. is Fang, the 22nd Radical drawn in the same form; and the last four characters in No. XXII, are the Chuenthe forms for Hwang, More or farther: Seven, to Revolve

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between two: Uri, Two or both, the seventh Radical: and Ya, Ugly. In Nos. XVIII. XIX. and the first character in XXII. are shewn the Tsaou-tsee forms of Hwang, Seuen, and Ya, as before. All these expressions, significant of the various kinds of writing in China. have already been ex-

plained on pages 363-365.

All words in the Chinese language are indeclinable, and their quantity is denoted by a numeral and a word agreeing with some property of the noun to be numbered; thus Che, is the concordant word, when speaking of a ship, or a quadruped; as Yay Che Chuen, one single ship, Yay Che Keu, one single dog. If the noun be in the plural, the numeral only is altered, and the agreeing word retained, as in three ships of war have arrived: Ping chuen sun che taou leaou, Soldier ship three single ones come to have. Numbers themselves are expressed by three different series of characters: as the plain hand, a formal hand for legal writings to prevent alteration in quantity, which is similar to the English custom of using words, and a running hand, which as it is employed chiefly in accounts, may be called the figures of the Chinese. These last are shewn in No. 111. Table II, and the following is a list of their names and value placed in the same order. keeu tee ie \*4.

10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 Trh-she She-teu Shr-pa She-tes She-leShe-moo She-seushe-san She-urh She-yaw 2x10, 20 19 18 17 16 15 14 13 12 10x1, 11

Urh-She-Yay, form 21, and San-She, or 3x10 are 30. Yay-Pe, stand for 100, that is, Yay, one, and Pe, a centimal power. Ya 1-pe-ling-yay, are 101; as Yay one, Pe the word denoting hundreds, ling a cypher, and Yay, one. Yay-tseen, are 1000. Ordinal numbers are produced by prefixing Te Order, to those before-mentioned; as Te-sun, Order Third. In Chinese writing there is seldom any Punctuation: but it is general in Historical Books and Commentaries. The points which are used are two: One is a plain point or dot, as may be seen in Table II. No. I. appended to the lower parts of the 8th, 18th, 24th, 30th, 32nd, 38th, and 45th characters. This is called Tow, a full point, or stop in reading; and it is placed between the characters of a sentence, to part off any member of it: it may be considered as equivalent to our comma. The second point is called Keuen-twan, or a round cut off. Its form is that of a small capital o. and it is placed by the side or below the final character when the sense is complete; as "Yo che we lue, seen chae wang o" Desire to know not come, first examine already past. or He who wishes to know the future, must first examine the past.

On pages 363-364 ante, we have mentioned that the earliest ideas of Chinese characters were supposed to have been taken from the marks on the shell of a Tortoise, and that some of the later ones were adopted from the letters

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engraved on the fragments of ancient metal vases. Table II. Nos. II. and IV. are illustrations of both of these circumstances. The former is a reduced fac-simile from a Chinese Antiquarian Work, in small Folio, as it is shewn on the left hand side of the figures, endorsed, Sung Wang Fuh Chae Chung Ting Foo-Kwa Shih: i. e. Sung Wang-Gan-Shih, returned order, Bells and Tripods supported on stone engraved letters on utensils; or In the Dynasty Sung, Wang-Gun-Shih, (a famous scholar and statesman,) renewed the order of the letters engraven upon Bells and Tripods, and supported upon stone. The Book is also marked, Fac-similes of the Characters on Ancient Bells, Vases, &c. The Characters on the figure itself are in the Ancient Chang-Ting-Wan form, and most probably signify Shing Fung Yih Kin Shih Urh Leang Shih Urh Choo Yung Yih Shing: i. e. Sound seal one Kin, ten two Leang, ten two scarlet contain one Shing : or A voice, (viz. letters), is sealed up in this Vase (a fragment of which it was), of one catty twenty Leang (weight): to contain twenty Shing of scarlet. It is not likely from these inscriptions, that the rude figure in No. 11. can be meant for the Tortoise whence some of the more ancient Chinese characters were taken. as it has been supposed; they plainly evince that it was a fragment of a metallic vase, bearing the form here delineated. No. IV. on Table II. contains a representation of the Testudo Scripta or Lettered Tortoise, drawn from Dr. Shaw's General Zoology, Vol. III. Part I. London, 1802. Octavo, page 56, plate 12. Schoepf describes the animal as being a Tortoise with an orbicular depressed shell, with all the scutella marked by variously-formed characters, and the twenty-four marginal pieces spotted beneath. The delineations on this creature's shell, might by a vivid fancy be formed into letters, and it is certainly not improbable that Ts'hung-hee, already mentioned, might have derived his characters from such a source. It has also been noticed upon page 361, ante, that some have supposed that the Chinese are descended from one of the Tatar Nations that came down from the Steppes of Imaus; which are the vast Plains and Flats, situate in that extensive chain of mountains, traversing Independent and Russian Tartary. This argument receives some support, from a similarity which is to be found in the language of some of the Tatar nations bordering upon China, and the speech of that Kingdom itself. Mons. L. Langlès, in his Alphabet Mantchon, redigé d'apres le syllabaire ex le Dictionnaire universel de cette langue; 8rd. Edit. Paris, 1807, Octavo, page 159, has the following Tartaric proverb, which is given in the original characters on Table II. No. XXIII. Mantchon pitke-be our ounaked ourdbou akoûtsi Nikan pitké-bé khavoukiamé ketoukélémé moutempio: that is to say, Accustom thyself readily to

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read the books of the Mantchous; (for) if not, how shalt thou well understand those of the Chinese ? In these words then there seems an inferred acknowledgement that the Chinese language was so much augmented by the Tataric, for its original is doubtless the Hebrew, that it is as it were the key of it. From the manner in which the Mantchou-Tataric writing is formed, and it appearing, when, viewed horizontally, somewhat like the Syriac, it has been supposed, although with considerable doubtfulness, that this branch of the Tatar characters, was derived from the Syrian; and by this hypothesis, another link is created, connecting the Chinese and the Hebrew, It cannot however be conceived that the speech of China either is in reality, or approaches to the original Hebrew as spoken by Adam and Noah: but it will perhaps be admitted, that there is enough of the Hebraic character still to be found in it, to identify its descent from that universal parent of languages. Beside the authorities already cited, the following works contain the best information on the subject of the Chinese tongue, whence the above article has been compiled. Encyclopedie Francaise, Livourne, 1772, Folio: An Explanation of the Elementary Characters of the Chinese; with an Analysis of their Ancient Symbols and Hieroglyphics, by Joseph Hager, D. D. Lond. 1801, Polio: Dictionnuire Chinois, Français et Latin, Public d'apres l'ordre de sa Mujesté l'Empereur et Roi Napoleon le Grand; Par M. De Guignes, Paris, 1813, Folio: A Grammar of the Chinese Language, by the Rev. Robert Morrison, Scrampore, 1815, Quarto: A Dictionary of the Chinese Language, in three Parts, by the Rev. Robert Morrison, Macao, 1815, et sey. an. Quarto. Dialogues and detached sentences in the Chinese Language; with a free and verbal translation into English, Macao; 1816, Octavo; the Article China in the Supplement to the Encyclopedia Britunnica. Quarto.

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The Indo-Chinese Nations are those which lie between India and China, and the greater part of the Islands of the Eastern Sea. Their languages are divided into two general classes, polysyllabic and monosyllabic, and the Pall or Ball tongue, which does not exit as a vernacular speech, but is used like the Sanskrita, in the sacred compositions of the Badd libst sect. The Malayn is placed at the head of the polysyllabic languages, although in some instances it is monosyllabic. It is extensively spoken in various dialects, and is so soft in it's construction that it is sometimes called the Italian; it has a singularly close affinity with the Sanskrita. An excellent account of its may be seen in the children of the construction of the Indo-Chinese Nations. Pay Dr. John Leyden. The other polysyllabic languages are those of Java, the Bujs, spokenin the Island of Celebes, the Bina, the Batta, and the Ta-Gala. The monosyllabic languages are the Rukheng, the Barran, the Mon, the They, the Khohmen, the Law, the Anam, and the Pall of Learned language.

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TABLE II.

I



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#### ALPHABETS OF INDIA. SANSKRITA.

Ar the head of all the languages of India, is placed this most comprehensive and powerful tongue; which is involved in the profoundest darkness as to its origin, and in its descent is connected with so many other dialects, as to render the tracing of its history at once uncertain and difficult in the attempt, unsatisfactory and erroneous in the conclusion. Dr. Marshman, in his Clavis Sinica, as we have already mentioned in the Chinese Article, has denied that there exists any relationship between the Sanskrita tongue and that of China; because the former is polysyllabic, while the latter is confined to words of one syllable. latter is indeclinable in every state, while the former varies sometimes in a thousand ways from the original Dhatoo. or Root: and finally there are sounds in the Sanskrita alphabet, which the oracular organs of a Chinese could never be enabled to pronounce. Notwithstanding all these difficulties, Dr. Marshman knew, that in the first century, A. D. when the Indian Priests of Budh were permitted to enter China, they endeavoured to introduce both their religion and their language; and he found in the Dictionary of Cang-he, the Deva-nagari series of characters; which is that hereafter given, placed at the commencement of it. It is however stated in the preface to that work, that it was a system brought from the West, (Hindoostan), which the learned of China could never be induced to adopt. He then proceeded to actual experiment upon the two languages, by taking the Ramayu, and the most ancient Sanskrita poem, and the She-King, the most ancient one of the Chinese, and in ten pages of the former he found only 13 monosyllables out of 459 words; and out of these thirteen. seven only occured in the She-King. As his object was to identify the purity of the Chinese, he next took four pages of the Mahabaru in the Bengalee dialect, which is derived of the Sanskrita, and in 265 words he discovered 7 monosyllables, of which 3 only were Chinese.

But although it is comparatively easy to say what the Sanskrita language did not descend from, it is next to impossible to ascertain from whence it did; since Arabic, Persian, and even Latin and Greek words, are to be found in it. Its very high antiquity however, is not to be doubted, since many traces of it are to be found on coins and seals, and more particularly in some volumes belonging to the learned Rajah of Kishnagur, wherein it was stated, that a communication formerly existed between India and Egypt, and wherein the Egyptians are described as disciples rather than instructors. Without implicitly receiving this asser-

tion, the Sanskrita tongue doubtless extended over a very considerable part of Asia; indeed vestiges of it are to be found in almost every district, however remote; and whoever is well acquainted with it, has acquired more than a foundatory knowledge, of a large proportion of the vernacular dialect of India. The characters of numerous tongues, are also derived of the Sanskrita; but though its influence be so wonderfully extended, as a separate language it is confined to the libraries of the Brahmans, and appropriated solely to the records of their religion. The term Sanskrita was invented to distinguish that branch of the Hindu language properly so called, from the Prakrita, or the dialect spoken by the common people: it is a compound particle signifying altogether or completely, done, or formed, and when applied to a language it means polished. In the different provinces of India there are not only several dialects. but there are also several different kinds of characters, but the Deva-Nagari, which are the following, are those in which the Sanskrita is usually written and the most elegant in form. All languages of the Hindu class, are read from left to

All languages of the Hindu class, are read from left to right; and the Alphabet by which the Sanskrita is taught, is arranged on the following plan. The letters themselves are called *Karah*, make or form, as *A.Karah*, *Ka-Karah*, &c. and although they would amount to fifty in number, yet their simple articulations are not more than 28, of which five are vowels and twenty-three are consonants. The following five simple vowels are represented by the characters to express their long and short sounds, similar to the ar-

rangement of the Abyssinian alphabet.

Power.	8.	1	u	ri	lri
Short	अ	इ	3	翇	लृ
Long	आ	ई	उ	ऋ	ॡ

There are also four compound vowels or dipthongs, which are thus represented :---

ह हे ओ अं

short Ai Oshort

The thirty-four consonants contain only twenty-three separate sounds; as the remainder consists of ten aspirates

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and one letter compounded of two others. This will be more readily shewn in the following list, in which it will be perceived that in the first twenty-five, ten are Aspirations of the letters which immediately precede them; and the last character Kska, is an union of Ka the first, and Ska the thirty-first letters. The ensuing table is the arrangement of the Deva-nagari consonants.

क	ka	ख	kha	ग	ga	घ	gha	उ.	nga		
च	cha	छ	ch'ha	ত্র	ja	झ	jha	ञ	nya		
ट	ta	ठ	tha	उ	da	ढ	dha	ण	na		
त	ta	थ	tha	द	da	ध	dha	न	na		
प	pa	দ	pha	ब	ba	भ	bha	म	ma		
य	ya	₹	ra	ल	la	व	va.				
श	sa.	ष	sha	स	sa	ह	ha	क्ष	ksha		

Like the other Eastern languages, some letters vary in shape, according to their positions, as Initials, Medials, or Finals. The characters for the vowels already given were the Initial forms of them, and the following marks are added to, or put for them, when they stand as Medials, or Finals.

A Ishort Ilong Ushort Ulong Rishort Rilong

Lri short Lri long E diph- Ai diph- thong, short.

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Every open consonant not followed by a vowel, has the sound of a attached to it; but it frequently occurs that a word ends with a consonant, or that two or more consonants meet together without an intermediate vowel. In the former case the vowel is cut off, with a small inclined line affixed to the lower part of the character; and in the latter instance, a compound character is formed, somewhat on the plan of the ligatures in Greek, or the connected letters in Short-hand. These compounds are formed in several different ways: as by putting one letter beneath the other, by blending them together, or as it is most usual, by placing them in their natural order, with their bodies and heads in contact, and omitting the final perpendicular stroke of every letter which possesses one, excepting in the last. A few instances of these compounds are annexed.

SA kk	त kt	क्र kr	व्य ky	य ch	' '	S) ch'hy
ङ्ग	<b>ਜ</b>	त्र tr	<u>इ</u>	₹ ddn	झ <sub>dm</sub>	ड dw
ᅜ	म्र	₹ sht	8 shth	₩ shl	ध shy	न्न

There are also certain other extraneous characters used in the Sanskrita language, which are as follow. In the disions of verse, as in the ensuing extract from the introduction to the Hitopadesa, a single mark is placed at the conclusion of an Hemistich, and a double one at the end of a distich.

"A wise man should consider science and wealth, like

one not subject to sickness and death.

He should practise the duties of religion, as one seized by death in the hairs of the head.

Another additional character is the following s which is frequently used as an apostrophe, to shew that a vowel has been dropped by rule.

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This character  $\Phi$  is occasionally placed over a consonant, which by the rules of orthography has been substituted for a nasal letter.

A final HA, is sometimes represented by this mark ! which is called Visargah; and one such point, placed over a letter, is called Anuswarah, denoting a final nasal. The vowels have also marks to distinguish the tone with which they are to be pronounced: thus a short perpendicular line placed on the top of a vowel, signifies that it is to be enunciated high; a parallel line drawn beneath a vowel, alters it to a low sound; a semi-circular line above the letter, unites the foregoing; and there may be considered as equivalent to the original purposes of the acute, grave, and circumflex accents, which are used in English. To regulate the length of pronunciation, the vowels of the Sanskrita have sometimes three horizontal lines drawn above them, or a figure of three, as given below, placed after them; either of which signifies that they are to be held longer than usual, as in calling or crying. The Numerals used in this tongue are as follow---

9 2 3 8 4 5 6 7 8 9 0

Then, as in most other languages, the Cardinal numbers count ten and one-eleven, &c. and nineteen is frequently expressed by "less twenty;" then twenty, one twenty, two twenty, &c. to (one) less (than) thirty, and so of the rest. Such then is a very brief explanation of the principal characters which are used in that powerful, but difficult language the Sanskrita; the letters for which were in the handsomest manner lent for the present work, by Dr. Charles Wilkins, the erudite Librarian to the Honourable the East India Company; from whom also, the ensuing Bengalese types were obtained. From the same source likewise, the preceding detail of the Sanskrita tongue has ultimately been deduced; since the chiefauthority used in the present article. was the admirable Grammar of the Sanskrita Language by Charles Wilkins, L L. D. F. R. S. Lond: 1808, Quarto: in addition to which however, the Sanskritan student will derive much benefit from Cosha, or a Dictionary of the Sanscrit Language by Amerha Sinha. With an English Interpretation, and Annotations by H. J. Colebrooke, Esq. Serampoor, 1808, Smull Folio: and Dr. Wilkins' edition of the Heeptopudes Veshonoo Sarma, translated from the Sanskrita, Octavo. Dr. Wilkins, to whom the Oriental languages owe so much, has not only excellently displayed the genius of this tongue for the benefit of European students, but he has also given the most elegant examplars of the Deva-Nagari letter, in

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the types which we have already exhibited. When he had compiled from the most celebrated native Grammars and Commentaries, a work entirely new to England, on the structure of the Sanskrita tongue, he cut steel letters, made punches, matrices, and moulds, and cast from them a fount of the Deva-nagari Character, his only assistance being the mechanics of a country village. Early in 1795, he had commenced the printing of this laborious undertaking in his own dwelling house; but, on the second of May in that vear, the whole of his premises were destroyed by fire : his books, manuscripts, and the greater part of the Sanskrita punches and matrices were preserved; but the types which had been prepared with so much labour, were all either lent or rendered useless. This is a circumstance not less interesting as a typographical anecdote, than it is as an instance of honourable and erudite industry; it is like Mercator engraving and colouring his own Maps, or Aldus and Stephens working at their own presses and letter-cases. About ten years afterwards, the Court of Directors of the East India Company encouraged Dr. Wilkins to resume nis labours, and to cast other types; as the study of the Sanskrita had become an important object in their new College at Hertford. The work which followed, from the Preface to which this account has been abstracted, gave abundant proof how well the Directors had made their choice; and as that was the earliest, as well as the best work on the subject in this country, Dr. Wilkins must ever be considered as the Father of the Sanskrita language in England.

#### BENGALESE.

EXCLUSIVE of the Sanskrita language, there are three different dialects used in the Kingdom of Bengal : the Persian, which will be treated of hereafter, the Hindoostanic, and the Bengalese, properly so called; each of which has its own appropriate department in the affairs of the country. The Hindoostanic, or Indian tongue, seems to have been spoken for ages throughout Hindoostan proper; and it is a derivative of the Sanskrita, with which it has the same connexion, as the modern French and Italian languages have with the Classical Latin. Almost universally, the same sounds are applied to the same words and ideas, but in their inflexions there is a considerable difference. Hindoostanic characters are also the same with those of of the Sanskrita, but they are of a ruder shape. The original Hindoostanic tongue has not preserved either its purity or its extensive influence down to the present time: for the modern inhabitants of India, differ from the ancient ones both in speech and in religion. The Gentous have sealed up the mysteries of their faith in Sanskrita; and

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their most eminent Lawgivers have endeavoured, under severe penalties to both the Tutor and the Puvil, to confine the study of that language to their own principal tribes only. The elevant and erudite Halbed supposes. however, that when the Mahometan invaders first settled in India, they, for the effecting of a communication with the Natives, applied themselves to study their dialect, but that some of the more abstruse Sanskrita terms, being rendered unintelligible by the reserve of the Gentoos, those foreigners recurred to, and ultimately naturalized, their own native expressions. A repetition of these causes, in-troduced a multitude of exotic words into the pure Hindoostanic tongue: but while its original phrases, were thus altered, the grammatical principles of the language remained the same; and at the present time, those persons are considered to speak the modern Hindoo most elegantly. who blend with pure Indian Verbs, the greatest number of Persian and Arabic Nouns. Of Indian Characters it is supposed that there are seven different species, all deduced from the Sanskrita, and all comprised under the general expression Naagoree, or Writing, of which the pure banskrita itself is denominated Daeb Naagoree, or the Writing of the Immortals. Another branch of the Sanskrita is the Bengalese Characters, which "probably," says Halhed, "is one of the most ancient modes of writing in the world." In this general alphabet the Bengalese Bramins have their Sanskrita books copied, after which they are transcribed into the Daeb Naazoree Character for their own perusal.

The Bengal Alphabet consists of the following fifty characters, which are thus divided into Vowels and Consonants.

VOWRIA.

1011200,								
অ	o	আ	aa	इ	ee	ঈ	ee	
ડ	00	ડુ	00	श्र	ree	34	ree	
8	lee	83	lree	7	a	27	i	
ઉ	0	3	ou	এ°	ung	য়ঃ	oh	

The vowels vary in figure when in composition, as in the Sanskrita.

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<u> </u>	CONSONANTS.											
₹	ko	માં	k,ho	4	go	ঘ	g,ho	જ	ngoo -			
2	cho	চ্হ	ch,ho	ত	jo	ক্	j,ho	J3	gnee			
ব	to	ठ	t,ho	তূ	do	ট্র	d,ho	×	aano			
उ	to	থ	t ho	দ	do	¥	d,ho	ন	no			
거	ро	ফ্	p,ho	ব	bo	१९	b,ho	য	mo			
য	jo	র	ro	ল	lo	ব	wo					
×	sho	ਥ	sho	म	50	৶	ho	ফ	khyo			

These are also used in the Bengalese language, eleven subservient marks or signs, denominated P, holaa, or adjuncts; to prevent the too frequent repetition of the short vowel, which is dependent on all the consonants of this tongue. These P, holaa may be attached to all the foregoing consonants; and they consist of small arbitrary marks significative of some vowel, which are placed above or beneath the other characters. The arrangement of the Bengalese numbers is exactly similiar to that used in the Sanskrita. The natives of Bengal write with a peculiar slender but tough reed, common through the East, which they shape somewhat similiar to an European pen. This they hold in the closed hand, as people of China do their writing pencils, already mentioned on page 369, ante. The nib or point of the pen, is turned downwards towards the wrist, the thumb pointing upwards, and lying on the pen with its whole length, keeps it firm against the middle joint of the fore finger. The posture which the Bengalese use to write in, is very different from that of the Europeans; as they have no chairs nor tables, they sit down, either upon their heels of their hams, and the left hand held open is used as a desk

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to support the writing paper, which is kept in its place by the thumb laid over it. Thus, a large sheet of paper is never used, without its being folded down to a small and convenient surface. It will have been observed that the Bengalese letter, no less than the Sanskrita, is difficult to be imitated in type, on account of the intricacy, the inequality, and the various combinations of the characters, which differ very considerably, when they are placed in different positions. After Mr. Bolts, who was supposed to be every way competent to the fabrication of a series of Bengal types, had entirely failed, Dr. Wilkins, who was then in the Civil Service of the Hon. the East India Company in Bengal, undertook their construction, and with what success will be seen by the foregoing beautiful specimens. As in the manufacture of the Sanskrita types, he united in himself the various and opposite occupations of Metallurgist, Engraver. Type-Founder, and Printer: and these products of his highly meritorious labours, he has liberally permitted to appear in the present work. The authority consulted for the above notice, has been the admirable work of Nathaniel Brassey Halhed, Esq. entitled " A Grammar of the Bengul Language. Printed at Hoogly in Bengal, 1788," Quarto.

#### TAMOUL.

THIS language, which is of the same class as the two last treated of, is spoken in the division of Mysore, in the South East part of Hindoostan, between Madras and Cape Cormorin; and its name is derived of the word Sentamil. or Codundamil, the general names of the inhabitants of that partion of the country. It is sometimes confounded with the Malabaric, because Europeans include under the term Malabar, all the nations dwelling on each side of the Mysore. The language is written from the left to the right, and it is usually inscribed upon long narrow leaves of palm, of a light olive-brown colour, with a pointel or style, of about a foot in length. In some instances, the Tamoul, or Tamul tongue, greatly resembles the ancient Greek, and like that speech, its alphabet originally contained but sixteen letters; while in its modern state also, some of its characters are used as numerical figures. Like those of the Sanskrita and Bengalese, the Tamoul letters are divided into ten vowels without consonants, which are again equally parted into long and short vowels; --- and into eighteen consonants, each of which includes a short A, the absence of which, whenever it is cut off, is indicated by a point or small circle placed over the letter. The Tamoulic vowels are metaphorically denominated Uyir, or Soul, and in form they are as follow:---

the words used for Yowels and Consonants, namely letter, and they are formed according to the llable, in the Tamoulic tongue, is

Tamoulic Consonants admit of two kinds of divisions, first as to sound, secondly as to form. With respect to sound, they are arranged into three classes, agreeing with the arrangement of the Mutes in Greek; that is to say, 1. Those which are Asperæ, or Rough, and which in the native speech are called Vallinam, from Vallu, Strong, and lnam, a Class or Tribe: 2. Mallinam, or those which are Level

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as before: 3. Ideiyinam, those of the Medig, or intermediate tone: from Idei Middle. In conjunction with the strength of their sound, should also be considered the length of it: and for the regulation of this, there is in the Tamoulic a measure of time denominated Mattirei, which is said to occupy the space of the twinkling of an eye, or the snapping of a finger. Thus, like the increase of the notes in music, the pronunciation of a Consonant, requires but half a measure, that of a short Vowel a whole one, and that of a long Vowel, two measures. With respect to their formation, the Tamoulic Consonants may be parted into four divisions, all of which however, are partial in their extent. Firstly, certain Consouants to the number of nine. are properly considered as Initials, that is to say, such characters with which only words can originally commence: these are marked in the foregoing list with a small capital 1. Secondly, there are eight finals or letters with which original words must conclude; and these are specified by a small capital I placed beneath them. Thirdly, there are three Medials, or characters which in original words must be placed in the centre; and these are pointed out by a small capital M. Fourthly, in passing through their connections with the ten vowels, the Consonants change their forms, in a manner similar to that which has aiready been shewn in the Sanskrita, &c. The Tamoulic types, for different portions of the Sacred Scriptures have frequently been printed in this tongue, are very small, and of an exceedingly beautiful form, having but little variation in their thickness, and more resembling the original native writing, than the characters above exhibited. Teloogoo or Telinga language, which is spoken in the Northern Circas, is a dialect of the Tamul; and the Carnarse and Malayalim, have sometimes erroneously been considered in the same light; but some particulars of their difference may be seen in the supplement to No. xxxi. of the Periodical Accounts of the Baptist Missionary Society, Vol. VI. Bristol, 1817, 8vo. which contains " A Memoir relative to the translation of the Sacred Scriptures at Serampore, addressed to the Society, March 1816." The best works on the subject of the Tamul language are Grammatica Damulica, que monstrat viam brevissimam qua lingua Damullica sen Mulaburic facile disci possit, concinnata a B. Zeigenhatz. Hula, Saxonum, 1716, 4to: Grammatica Lutino-Tamulica, in qua de Vulgari Tamulica Lingua Idiomate dicto fusius tractatur. Auctore P. C. J Beschio. Madraspatnam, 1813, 410. Rudiments of Tamul Grummur, combining with the rules of Kodun Tamul, an Introduction to Shen Tamul. By Robert Anderson, Esq. London, 1821, 4to.

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#### PERSIAN.

It has already been shewn upon page 296, that the modern Persian language was partly derived of the Arabic, and that its letters, with some variation, were communicated to the Turkish; but it may now be remarked, that even this tongue, may in some measure, claim a nearer connection with the Hebrew, since, from the descendants of Elam, the son of Shem, mentioned in Genesis, Chap. x. v. 12, the country of Persia was called Elam or Elamais. About 1900. years previous to the Birth of Christ, which was nearly corresponding with the time of Abraham, this was a powerful state; but its limits have been various, at different periods of its history. The name of Persis, or Persia, was first given to a large province, situate in the southern part of the present Kingdom, next the Persian Gulf, called Pars or Fars, which was originally derived from the Oriental Noun Pars or Parsh, a Leopard, whence also comes Parsi, a Persian. Of the most ancient language of Persia, every trace is supposed to have been lost; and no genuine accounts of any are extant, until the times of the Kings of Sassan, who flourished from the commencement of the third, till the middle of the seventh century. In the year 351, a dialect of the old Persian tongue, greatly refined in the Academy of Gandispor, in Khorassan, was spoken at the Court of Beharam Gur, whence it was denominated Deri, or Courtly, to distinguish it from the older Pehlevi idiom, or language of the country. Besides these two dialects of the more ancient Persian tongue, there were several others which were also peculiar to different Provinces. Thus, the Deri was spoken at Court, in Modain on the Tigris, and in the Provinces of Knorassan, and Balk. The Pehlevi, which Sir William Jones considered as having arisen from a Chaldean original, derived its name from Pehla, a tract of land comprehending the five capital Cities where it was used: namely, Isaphan, Rei, Hamadan, Nehavend, and Aderbigiane. The Sogdi, was the language of the province of Sogdiane, in the centre of which is Samarcand. The Za-The Sogdi, was the language of the Province of buli, was so called from the Province of Zablestan, the limits of Hindostan, which comprised the Cities of Gazna, Bamian, Meimend, Firouzcouch, Caboul, &c. The Herari was the common speech at Herah, in Khorassan. The Khouzi, which was a species of the Deri tongue, was peculiar to the Court at Khouzistan, in the Province of Fars, and at Bassora. There were also the Tartarian and Souriani. or Syrian dialects; and the Carchouni, a language compounded of Persian and Syrian, which was used in letters missives. A very ancient and abstruse dialect of the Sanskrita, was also used by the Persian Priests and Philosomhers, which was entitled the language of the Zend, and

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a sacred volume on Moral and Religious subjects, which was written in it, was known under that name; but properly speaking, only the letters of the work should be called Zend. and the tongue itself Avesta. An instance of a similar kind may be found in the Vedas, or sacred books of the Hindoos. which are written in the Sanskrita language, and the Deva Nagari character. The Zend, however, considered as the ancient and sacred tongue of Persia, as well as the Pehlevi, are now nearly extinct; while the Parsi, of which some pure instances remain, has been so much altered by its connection with the Arabic, the history of which we shall presently trace, that it has become almost a new language. Sir William Jones regarded the Parsi as the great source of all the dialects of Persia, the Sanskrita, and even of the Greek, Latin and Gothic tongues. He found that many Parsi nouns were almost pure Sanskrita, and that an equal number of Persian imperatives formed the roots of Sanskrita verbs. From this he deduced, that the Parsi tongue, like many of the Indian dialects, arose out of the language of the Brachmans; and that the pure Persian is without any trace of the Arabian. In confirmation of this it may be observed, that one of the most ancient Persian alphabets now extant, greatly resembles the rude form of the older Bengalese; but in the reign of King Jezdegerd I. about the sixth century, the Arabic letters were first adopted by the Persians.

About the close of the sixth century, Anushirvan, surnamed the Just, commanded his chief Physician Barzuieh to go into India, to procure a copy of certain moral Fables, then in the possession of the Indian Monarchs, translated into the Pehlevi, or common dialect. He went, studied the Sanskrita, and returned with the work, the celebrated Fables of Pilpay, which about an hundred and forty years subsequent, was again translated into Arabic, by order of Almansar, second Khalife of the house of Abbas, Barzuieh's Pehlevi translation is not known to be extant, and therefore the language used in Persia in the second period of its literary history is likewise nearly extirminated. But the principal cause of the loss of the Deri and Pehlevi dialects, polished and elegant as they were by the patronage of Anushirvan, was the arbitrary establishment of the Mahometan faith. About the time of the first publication of the Koraun in Arabia, some Persian Romances were introduced into that country by a travelling merchant, and the inhabitants openly professed that they found them considerably more amusing than the moral lessons of Mahomet. To oppose this feeling, a portion of a chapter was immediately written, in which the merchant was condemned, and his tales treated as the most pernicious fables hateful to God and his Prophet; whilst the Khalife Omar,

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acting upon the same principle, commanded all foreign books to be destroyed, burned the second Alexandrian library, and the records of the Persian Empire, in A.D. 640. One book, however, as it is related in a life of the poet Ferdusi, was preserved from this indiscriminate destruction by Saad, one of Omar's Generals; who found it after the victory of Cadessia. It consisted of a History of Persia compiled from the Sassanian annals, and was written in the Pehlevian dialect, from which it was ultimately translated into some of the other Asiatic languages. Under the Khalifes of the house of Abbas, the Persian tongue was but little encouraged, though the literature of the Arabians met with considerable support; but when the power of those Princes began to decline, and a number of independant chiefs sprang up in the Empire, Poets and Literary men were greatly patronised, and about the tenth century a new dialect of the Persian tongue was introduced, blended with words from the Koraun, and expressions from the Arabian Poets, who then began to be imitated in Persia. The elegance of the tongue was afterwards greatly increased by the magnificent poetical writers which the country itself produced. Of these, Ferdusi, a native of Tus or Meshed, is the oldest, as he flourished in the close of the tenth, and commencement of the following century, at the Court of Mahmoud in the City of Gazna. His principal work was a very elegant Epic poem on the History of Persia, which occupied him thirty years, but for which his only reward was as many small pieces of money, as the work con-He wrote in retaliation an animated intained couplets. vective against the Sultan, and then leaving Gazna in the night, fled to Bagdad, where the Khalife protected him till he died, which was in the year 1020. Ahmed Ebn Soliman About Ola, called Alami from his blindness, was an eminent Arabian poet who was born in 978, and was the instructor of several Persians who were peculiarly eminent for the purity of their compositions in their own tongue: and about the close of the tenth and commencement of the eleventh century, the Persian poems in general became enriched with Arabian phrases and verses amalgamated into their sentences. Aboul Ola died in 1057. Early in the twelfth century, Anveri, a native of Abinrd in Khorassan, flourished at the court of the Sultan Sanjar; and in the year 1193, the famous Poet Sadi was born at Shiraz, in whose elegant works the Arabian and Persian were most happily combined. The fourteenth century produced Shemseddin. surnamed Hafiz, the Anacreon of Persia, also a native of Shiraz; and he experienced the patronage of Tamerlane, who like many other Tartarian Princes conquered Persia, but who still continued to encourage its language, its religion, its literature, and its Fine-arts, nor did any of their in-

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vasions tend in the least to corrupt them. Mahomet II., Emperor of the Turks, was likewise a protector of the Persian poets; since Noureddin Jami, the author of the splendid loves of Joseph and Zelikha, flourished at his Court; whilst his contemporary Catebi was entertained at that of Mirza Ibrahim, one of the descendants of Tameriane. Under the family of 8cfl, in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, the Persian language began to lose its aucient purity; and even to partake of the Turkish, which was then commonly spoken at the Court; and annexed is a summary view of the modern dialect, to which the preceding history, abstracted from the admirable works of Sir William Jones, (Vide Edit. Lond. 1799, 4to. Vol. 11. pp. 303-828,) has at length conducted us.

The Persian language is written from the right hand to the left, and the following are the thirty-two characters of their alphabet, which, as it has been already stated, were derived from the Arabian, with the addition of five others.

The words in the last column contain the proper sound of each character, particularly pointed out by having the corresponding letters printed in Italic.

#### Modern Persian Alphabet.

Name.	Cons.				Pewer.	Sound.
Alif	-1	1	_	_	A.	Hall
Be	ب	ب	_	ر	B.	Bar
Pe		ٺ	1 -	,	P.	Peer
Te					T.	Too
Se		ث	ı	. 1	1	Thou
Jeem	1,	l			1	Gem
Che or Chim.	٠	٣	-			Chain
Не	Œ	_				StrongAspirate
Khe.	•				Kb.	Ditto
1)		ל	<u>~</u>		l	
Dawl	7	ادا	_	_	D.	Deer

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# Modern Persian Alphabet continued.

Name.		als. III.			t-	
Rame.	Conn.	Uncon.	Cos.	Use	Power	Sound
Zawl	ذ	ن		-	Z.	Zenith
Re	,	ر	_	-	R.	Rest
Ze	ز	ز	$\vdash$	-	Z.	Zone
Zbe, or Zje.	;	ز	┝	-	J.	j French
Seen	س	س	-	س	s.	Send
Sheen	m	ش	1	ش	Sh.	Show
Sawd, or Swad.	ص	ص	حإ	-	S.	Says
Zawd or Zwad.	ض	ض	ف	نصا	Z.	Graze
То	ㅂ	ط	-		T.	Canght
Zo	ظ	ظ	-	-	Z.	Bassar
Ain	ح	ع	*	2	A .gut tural.	Anoint
Ghain	خ	غ	ż	غ	Gb.	Ghost
Fe	ن	ف	ė	ۇ	F.	Fall
Kaaf	رق	ق	ğ	١	G.gut tural.	•••••••
Kawf	_	کئ	-	5	K.	Kind
Gawf	گئ	- 1	2	5	G.gut tural.	Glass
Lawm	ل	ل	1	}	L.	Land
Meem	۴	م	•	~	M.	Moon
Noon	ی	ا ن	اذ	j	N.	Now

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#### Modern Persiun Alphubet continued.

Name.	Coan.	als. III.	II.Is	Yel I	1_	
Waw,	,	,	_	-	W,or	Warn Heat,slightAspir.
He	۵	ŏ	4	ھ	н.	Heat, slight Aspir.
Ye	ي	ي	=	ړ	IorY.	Year
Lawm-Alif	Ĭ.	ľ	-	צ	Ĺa.	

The Initials and Medials which are not inserted are the same as the Finals. The second and fourth of the above columns, counting from the right-hand, are used only when the letters are connected with a preceding one; and every letter also should be joined to that which follows it, excepting Alif, Dawl, Zawl, Re, Ze, Zje, and Waw. Eight of the above letters, namely Se, Jeem, Sawd, Zawd, To, Zo, Chain, and Kaaf, were adopted from the Arabic, and are not to be found in any words that are not purely Persian; but on the other hand Pe, Che, Zje, and Kawf, are peculiar to the Persian alphabet, and from these are formed their short vowel points. The alphabet itself is divided by native grammarians into three parts; namely, Musoory, which contains fifteen of those characters that are formed but of two letters in the Persian spelling: Mulfoozy, containing fourteen letters of three characters each: and thirdly, Muktooby, in which the Initials and Finals are the same, and of which there are only three letters. Alif, Waw, and Ya, are the long vowels: but the short ones according to the custom of the Hebrews and several of the other more ancient nations, are omitted in writing as sn, for sun, &c. To supply the proper powers, the Persians sometimes use small points placed above or below the letters according to the sound required; but these, as well as their orthographical marks, are very rarely written in their books. The following instances will give an idea of the nature of these characters.

Is an inclined line placed above the letter, which is denominated Futtah, or Zubber; it possesses the power of

a. or ai.

Is an inclined line placed at the foot of the letter, it is called Kess or Zeer, and supplies the place of i, and sometimes of e.

, Fum or Peish, is inserted for o, oo, or u.

When placed over a consonant shows that the syllable ends with it.

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Medda, when placed over Alif, gives to it a long and broad sound; but Mad over the same letter, thus , causes it to be pronounced as a short s, and sometimes like an i

or u.

Bussa is a mark placed at the end of a word, and when the sign of the short i has been expressed or understood in the course of that word, it stands for the letters ye, in words which end in he. It also represents the article as in Namahi, a book; the former of two substantives as in Nafahi Mushk, a bag of Musk; and the second person singular in the preterites of compound verbs, as in Dadahi, thou hast given.

w The mark Tashdid, is also written above the word, and shews a consonant to be doubled, as Turruk, a lock of

hair.

The Pensians use a variety of different hands for their writing, but those which are the most common, are the Niskhi; the Talik, or Hanging; and the Shekesteh, or Breken. In the first are all Arabic manuscripts together with most Persian and Turkish histories, written, and it likewise forms the character of our printed books. Poetical works are transcribed in the Talik, a beautiful small letter which corresponds with the most elegant of our Italian hands; but the Shekesteh is used only for the letters of the Princes of the country, and by the Indians in rapid writing, as its characters are imperfectly and rudely shaped.

The Persians do not use their alphabetical characters as Numerals, but the following figures have been invented for

that purpose.

# ITTESTVA9

Eek Doo Seh Chicar Punje Shish Hift Hisht Nuh

Ten is formed of the following character, \$ with Eek, and is called Deh; Eleven is made of two Eeks, and called Eecz-dek; Twelve of Eek, with Doo, and called Doocz-dek, &c. There are no other characters used in the Persian numerals, for twenty is made of the short mark used for ten with that two placed after it; and twenty is written one two. A hundred is compounded of the one, and two short marks or cyphers; and ten thousand is written one and four cyphers, similar to the English. As the Persian letters vary their forms according to their places in the wood, so likewise they vary according to those characters with which they are combined, as may be seen in the following specimen:

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#### Persian Combinations.

ha	ابا	kha	6.	bd	۲.	nh	نح	ph	: ١
ya	ايا	ja	جا	yd	یر	nkh	نح	ah	
. p <b>a</b>	إإ	cha	چا	pd	پر	nj	5	th	-
na	ll	яв	6	nz	<b>,</b> ,	nch	5	sh	*
ta	li	ga	6	Ьz	<i>i</i> .	th	5	nnı	نمنح
82	CC	fa	6	уz	نږ	tkh	څخ	m	تمتم
sma	Ĝ,	ka	6	рz	<i>)</i> ,	¹j	بح	sm	ثم تم
tma	.قا	ka	R	kl	VI	tch	3	hm	,کم
nma	رفا	ļa	UU	kla	18	nh	y	٧m	.,کم
ma	4	md	ماريز	bn	ئ.	th	,	ml	1
ha	Ł	mz	ند نیر	yn	ين	bh	ب		
ha	عا	nd	ند	nn	٠٠.	yh	یا		

It is stated by Theodoret and St. Chrysostom, that the Scriptures were very anciently translated into the Persic tongue; although there be neither any account of the conversion of the whole Persian nation to Christianity, nor are there any fragments of this original version extant. About the eleventh or twelfth century, a Jew made a faithful

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translation of the Hebrew Pentateuch, for the benefit of the Jews in Persia, which was afterwards printed in the fourth volume of Bishop Walton's Polyglott Bible; and he also mentions two Persic versions of the Psalms, vet in mannscript, one of which was executed by a Portuguese Monk in the year 1618, and the other by some Jesuits from the Vul. gate Latin. Brian Walton likewise published an ancient and valuable Persian translation of the four gospels. from a manuscript dated A.D. 1314, in the possession of Dr. Pococke, which was made from the Syriac, and in which Syriac words were sometimes retained, having a Persian translation. Another version, supposed to have been made from the Greek, was published in 1652-57. All these however, having become obselete, Lieut. Col. Colebrooke completed and published the four Gospels at Calcutta, in 1804: and the Rev. H. Martyn produced an entire and elegant version of the New Testament at Shiraz. in 1811.

Some of the hest works illustrative of the history of the Persian language and the modern structure of the tongue. are the following --- Introductory Grammatical Remarks on the Persian Language. By George Hadley, Esq. Bath, 1776. Quarto. A Vocabulary of Persian. Arubic, and English. By William Kirkpatrick, London, 1785, Quarto. The Persian Interpreter, By the Rev. Edward Moises, M. A. Newcastle. 1792. Quarto. Dissertations on the Rhetoric, Prosody, and Rhime, of the Persians. By Francis Gladwin, Esq. Calcutta and London, 1801, Quarto. The Persian Moonshee, By the same, Calcutta and London, 1801, Quarto. A new Theory and Prospectus of Persian Verbs, By James Gilchrist, Calcutta, 1801. Quarto. A Grammar of the Persian Language. By Sir William Jones, London, 1804, Quarto: of which a new edition is in the press, and Richardson's Persian, Arabic. and English Dictionary, Edited by Dr. Charles Wilkins, London, 1806, Quarto, 2 Vols. A more extended list may be seen in the Catalogue of Books on Oriental Literature, published by Messrs. Kingsbury, Parbury, and Allen.

#### ARMENIAN.

THE tract of land which is denominated Armenia, is situate in the North Western part of Asia on the borders of the Black Sea; and it is supposed to have originally received its name, either from Armenus, one of the companions of Jason in the Argonautic expedition, who afterwards settled in this country, or else from Aram the son of Shem, or perhaps a King of Armenia bearing the same name. Buchart derives the name from the Hebrew Har, a Mountain, and Miai a province in the country, mentioned by the

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Prophet Jeremiah in chap. li. v. 27. "Set ye up a standard in the land, blow the trumpet among the nations, prepare the nations against her, call together against her the kingdoms of Ararat, Minni, and Ashchenaz; appoint a captain against her; cause the horses to come up as the rough caterpillers:" and again by Amos, chap. iv. v. 3. which in the Chaldaic version reads, "and they shall break open upon your walls, and lead you forth together, every one at the place which is before him, and carry you beyond the mountains of Armenia, saith the Lorp." Vide Biblia Sacri Polyglotta, a Briani Waltoni. Vol. III. From these it is ascertained, that the place spoken of by them stood between the mountains Ararat and Ashchenaz; and that Har-mini signifies the mountainous part of Mini, Menni, Mynias, or Mylias, a name given at first to one Province only, but afterwards becoming common to the whole country of Armenia. Bryant in distinguishing betwixt Armenia and Aramea, the land of Aram, which is parted from it by Mount Taurus, supposed that the Harmunah, or Mountain of the Moon, mentioned by Amos, gave the country the name of Armen or Harmen, the mountain where the Ark rested. Others however have imagined, that its name is more truly derived from Har, a mountain, and Menni which is formed from a Hebrew word signifying metals, because the country abounded The original inhabitants of Armenia are with mines. sometimes supposed to have been Phrygians, a neighbouring nation, as several words of their language are to be found in the Armenian; and a colony of Ascanians, which came from Phrygia, made an early settlement in Armenia. Some authors have conceived, that Noah resided several years in Armenia, upon leaving the Ark on the top of Mount Ararat in that country; and that on his departure thence he left several of his descendants residing there, whence Hul, or Chul the son of Aram, and Mesech the son of Japhet, have alike been called the progenitors of the ancient Armenians. The hypothesis however that is most commonly received. is that they were originally Syrians, or at least were a tribe of the same nation; and from these circumstances it can hardly be doubted, that their most ancient language was a dialect of the Hebrew, Syro-Hebraic, or Syrian, the characters of which they certainly once used, and between which latter and their present tongue there are still some points of resemblance; but as in process of time both Phrygians, Greeks, and Persians settled in Armenia, the speech became confused and altered into a mixed phraseology. The invention of their present characters is attributed to several different persons. The Armenians themselves believe that Haik, who according to their statements lived before the

destruction of Bahel, was the founder of the kingdom of Armenia, and the first who used the Haikian language; the purity of which they state to have been correpted by its mixture with that of the Genthunians a people of Canaan. the Bagaratides, and the Amatuniens, Jewish tribes, the Medes, and many others. Until the third century the Armenians are said to have used indifferently the letters of the Greeks, the Arabians, and the Persians; but at that period, one Miesrob. Prime Minister and Secretary of the Kings Warazdate and Arsace IV., invented for them the alchabet which they still retain. Some time after the Haikian language ceased to be commonly spoken, when the kingdom of Armenia became the prev of the Hungarians, the Saracens, the Egyptian Khalites, and the Tatars under Tamerlane The literal language, as the Haikian is now called, is to be found only in their sacred manuscripts: a knowledge of it is considered a great literary accomplishment, and is all that is required of the Vertablets, or Armenian Doctors, whose province is to preach and instruct the people. Angelus Roccha, George the Patriarch of Alexandria. Sixtua Sevensis, and others, are however in favour of the claim of St. Chrysostom to the invention of the Armenian letters. It is certain that when he was banished from Constantinople by the Emperor, he finished his days at Comanis in Armenia, in A.D. 467; and there is still extant an alphabet which is known by his name. The truth however seems to be, that upon the decline of the Syriac tongue in Armenia, the historical records of the country were written in the Greek language, to which succeeded the Persian, with the old sacred dialect, with which, Sir William Jones imagined the Armenian was originally at win speech, descending from the same Indian source; and in conformity with this hypothesis we have caused it to succeed our account of the Persian. Towards the close of the fourth, or commencement of the following century, Miesrob. whom we have already mentioned, conceived the idea of inventing a series of letters which should express the sounds of the Armenian tongue. This, after many vain attempts and fruitless journies to procure the assistance of the learned, was revealed to him in a uream; and although some part of this tradition may be questioned, yet it is commonly believed that if the Armenians did not derive their letters from the Persian Pelilevi, yet that they were invented by some of the most learned of their own country about the Afth century.

The Armenians write and read from the left to the right, and there are thirty-eight letters contained in their Alphabet, the smaller forms of which, used for their fine printing,

are shewn in the following specimen :---

because they were formed with such powerful lines as to resist the injuries of time;

The state of the s

gures, animals, flowers, ornaments, planets, &c. which are used for the titles of

hassanacher, or letters of animals.

The second

These letters at the present time are called Chelhformed of small and delicately drawn human which Schröder explains to allude to the style of iron, with which the Armenians anciently writ their letters on parch-ment. They were formerly used for the writing of entire volumes, when they were of a very large size; but at the

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present time they are confined to ornament the titles and frontispieces of books, and the heads and initials of chapters as they answer chiefly to the English two-line upper-case letters. They are of a strong but not inelegant form, and are always broken at those parts which should be connected by hair lines. The French have given to them the name of Lapidaire or Stony, because they are used for public inscriptions. The second principal class of the Armenian writing consists of the Polorerchir, or small round, the use of which is confined to their less and more delicate manuscripts, and to the ordinary matter of printed books. The fourth species of characters is denominated Notrchir. Cursive, or running-hand, of which there are both large and small letters, and which are appropriated to Commerce and epistolary correspondence. The Armenian language is used in Great and Little Armenia, Asia Minor, Syria, Persia. and Tartary.

The Armenians are also indebted to Miesrob, the author of their characters, for a translation of the Scriptures into their own vernacular tongue, which he executed towards the close of the fourth or early in the fifth century, from the Alexandrian Septusgint. Uscan, an Armenian Bishop. who went to Amsterdam to superintend the edition of the Bible, printed there in 1666, altered the old translation. which is sometimes attributed to St. Chrysostom, fromthe Peschito, or old Syriac version. The translation of the New Testament, which proceeded likewise from Miesrob. or the Patriarch Isaac, about the time above mentioned. was made twice from the Syriac, and then from the Greek; but Haitho, or Hethrom, King of the Lesser Armenia from A.D. 1224-1270, being well skilled in the Latin, and attached to the Romish Church, altered it in several instances to make it accord with the Vulgate translation. Some of the best works on the subject of the Armenian Language, are Francis Rivola's Dictionarium Armeno-Latinum. 1621-1633. Folio; Grammutica Armena, by the same, Milan. 1624. Quarto; and John Joachim Schröder's Thesaurus Lingua Armenica, Antiqua et Hoaierna. Amsterdam. 1711. Quarto.

#### TURKISH.

This language is very far inferior either to the Arabic or the Persian; of both of which it is compounded, together with several other dialects. The characters used in writing it are the Arabian, with the five additional ones of the Persian; and the pronunciation of the tongue is somewhat between those of the two nations, excepting about the City of Constantinople, where it is spoken with almost as much softness as the Persian itself. The Turks have seven spe-

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cies of writing; namely the Nesqhi, which is used for tran scribing the Koraun, and the greater part of their books of history: the Diwasi, which is devoted to state papers and law instruments; in which the lines commonly run disponally from the lower right-hand to the upper left: the Talik, which we have already noticed in our account of the Persian: the Kirma, which somewhat resembles the last, and which is used chiefly for registers: the Sulus, or Schulei, which is appropriated to the titles of books and the Imperial Letters Patents: and the Iakonti and the Refmai which were so called after the names of their authors. The first printing in Turkey, excepting the Hebrew books of the Jews, commenced about the year 1730, under the superintendance of Ibrahim Effendi, at Constantinople. He has produced a history of the Othman Empire, in his own language, and a French Grammar of the Turk ish tongue.

#### PHORNICIAN.

THE language of the Phœnicians stands, with respect to most of the modern tongues, in nearly the same degree of relationship as the Hebrew does with respect to the ancient. It was certainly, as we have hereafter considered, one of the immediate progenitors of the Greek; whence descended the Latin, and from which several of the Continental dialects were formed: but it is also to be traced in so many other tongues, that its influence on the specch of markind, so far as the earth was anciently known, seems to have been like the intercourse of the Phœnician people, almost universal.

The inhabitants of Phonice are supposed to have been acquainted with the use of letters at as early a period as any nation in the world; and some have not hesitated to attribute to them their invention. Together with the inhabitants of Egypt, they were descended from the impious race of Ham; and their country was situate on the North-west shores of Canaan, upon the borders of the Great, or Red Much of their Theological history, like that of the Egyptions, was derived from the hieroglyphical records which Hermes, or Taaut, also the father of Egyptian learning, had engraven upon pillars of stone, and although their first language was doubtless a dialect of the ancient Hebrew, and their original letters very much resembled the older Samaritan characters, yet in the year of the Flood 531, when Noah's descendants were scattered abroad, Taaut, or Thoth, the son of Misor, called the First Hermes, invented letters in the Phoenician settlement. About the year of the World 2629, Taaut is supposed to have travelled into Egypt with King Cronus, and to have taught in that nation

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the use of his sacred symbols and characters. For fifteen generations, about 400 years, his posterity ruled at Thebes; but at that period, the Prime Ministerof King Menes, who is also called Thoth, or the Second Hermes, greatly improved both the arts and the literature of the Egyptians, as we have already stated on page 319, anter. There are not

and from Syrian Medals. themselves, signifying Wanderers, derived from Pelagus the Sea. are sometimes called the Pelasgian, a name given by the ancient palm trees, called in Greek Phoinikes, which grew Phonix, the son of Agenor, one of its Kings, and by others from the It remains to be added, that the Phœnician history yre by Alexander in the year of the Flood The nation of Phoenice is said by 2016, or 332 years previous The Phœnician letters Greeks to the people great number o to the name from

specimen of them was taken by the Abbe

furnish forth the ancient shape and

now extant, but several of their alphabets

Barthelemy, from Maltese inscriptions,

powers of their letters.

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BRFORR we enter upon the history of the Greek letters, that of their contemporary and cognate tongue, the

Coptic; i

inasmuch as from

COPTIC

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the circumstance of their having been used in Egypt, the account of them will naturally conclude our detail of the rise and progress of literature in that nation. De la Valle erroneously supposes, that the Coptic characters were the enchorial, or the common ones of the country; and Kircher imagines, that they were some of those which were invented by the First Hermes, having their forms designed from the Ibis, the serpent, the bull, the hawk, the ram, and other sacred animals. Bedford, in his animadversions on Sir Isaac Newton's Chronology, conceives that the Coptic letters were the original of the Greek, and that the Samaritan were the ancient Egyptian; but perhaps the truth is, that a part of the alphabet is formed of the Grecian, whilst the additional seven letters used by the Copts, were taken from the original characters of Egypt. It is scarcely improbable that the Egyptians, when in later times they had nearly lost the remembrance of their ancient letters and learning, might make use of the Greek alphabet, the introduction of which they had forgotten, and adding to it what remained of their own letters, imagine that they had recovered the ancient ones which were used by their ancestors. The City of Coptos. Coptis, or Coptus, now called Kypt or Kepht, whence the Cophtites derived their name, stood in Upper Egypt, three miles distant from the Nile. The word, in the ancient Egyptian language, signifies Want or Privation; because according to Plutarch, it was given to commemorate the grief of lais, when she cut off one of her locks on being informed of the death of Osiris. The City was inhabited both by Egyptians and Arabians; it was the centre of communication between Egypt and the Red Sea; and Pliny calls it the emporium of merchandise brought out of India and Arabia, which was conveyed by the Nile to Alexandria. The Christians were formerly very numerous in Coptos, and the Mahometans in derision, gave the name of Copt to all the Christians in Egypt; but in the time of the Emperor Dioclesian, the tenth persecution commenced against them in A.D. 303, when many of the inhabitants of Coptos were put to death, and the remainder sent into exile. fragments of this once famous City still evince its former extent: they occupy a space of about two miles in circumference, and consist of columns of grey granite stones engraved with hieroglyphics, and a portion of a bridge over a canal, yet navigable, by which water was anciently conveyed from the Nile to a bason within the City. The Coptic tongue, at the present day, is almost wholly confined to the books of the Egyptian Christians; and it consists of a mix-ture of Greek, Persian, Latin, and Arabic words, which have been added to it during the government of each of those nations, to supply the deficiency of some part of it which has been lost; but the present Copts, or native Egyp-

The state of the s

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tians, speak Arabic, the ancient tongue being unknown to the common people, and is scarcely understood even by their priests. There are thirty-two letters in the Coptic alphabet, which are formed according to the following examples---

Modern Contic Alphabet.

mouern Coptic Alphabet.										
Figures	Nume.	Power.	Figure.	Name.	Power.					
Da	Alpha	A.	Ππ	Bi	P.					
Bß	Vida	B. V.		Ro	R.					
יז יל	Gamma	G.	C c	Sima	S.					
$\lambda_{\lambda}$	Dalda	D.	TT	Dau	Т.					
С С С С С С С С С С С С С С С С С С С	Ei	E.	J. 2	He orHu	Y. U.					
ξ, ε~	So	S.		Phi	Ph.					
53	Zida	Z.		Chi	Ch. Gr.					
Ня	Hida	I.Æ.		Au	O long.					
θө	Thita	Th.	Щщ	Schei	Sh.					
1 1	Jauda	J.	$\tilde{q}$	Phei	F.					
Rĸ	Kabba	K	b あ	Chei	Kch.					
λλ	Lauda	L.	D S S S	Hori	Н.					
n ss U	Mi	М.	ΔX	Ganga	g, soft j.					
пН	Ni	N.	50	Skima	Sb.					
& & O o	Exi	X.	- 4	Dei	D.					
Оо	O short.	o	Ψψ	Ebsi	Bs.					

The Copic is written and read from the left hand to the right, and in its construction as a language, it is widely different from all others. The nouns are indeclinable, and the verbs are never conjugated; but particles, sometimes formed of syllables, and at others of a single letter, are prefixed to them to denote the 'case, gender, number, and person. Some of the yowels are indicated by lines and

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points placed over the consonants, and they are likewise noted by similar marks to express that they possess a separate sound, as in the following instances.

# á rón se í ká s

There are also some characters used in the Coptic language, which like the Greek contractions stand for whole words or syllables, such as the following.

# र्गः प ∻ ज्य

Like the other ancient nations, the inhabitants of Egypt used their letters for numerals; and such of that c untry as wrote in the Coptic language, placed a line over each character whenever they employed it as a figure, acording to the following scheme, which has been taken from Athanasius Kircher's Prodromus Egyptiacus. Rome, 1636. Quarto. Cap. II. De Numeris Copitarum, p. 326.

Mona.	<u>&amp;</u> 1	Phente.	=	_		-	
Dio.	R,	Phente.	<u>E</u>	5	Okthe.	н	8
	= '	Ex.	23	6	Enia.	$\overline{\Phi}$	9
Tria.	1, 3	Entha!	=	~	Doki	ī	
Tria. Theissan	a. 🔂 4	Dpulai.	ζ	′	Deni.	,	.0

Enteko or Eleven, is formed by placing the small *lauda* by the side of a capital *Alpha*, with a stroke over both; then *lauda* with *Vida* for Dodeko or twelve, and so on to

# Ikosi. K 20

Twenty-one or Ikosi Mona, is made of Iunda placed after Kubba, then Vida after Kubba for twenty-two, thus continuing till

				· ·
Driante.	30	Okdeinte.		Diarokose. 7 300
Serante.	40			Therason. 🕿 400
Pentinte. 1	50	Eneninte.	_	Pentekese. $\overline{\Phi}$ 500
Exinte.	ᅄ	Ekaton.	<b>P</b> 100	Exakose. 600
Entaminte.	70	Diakose.	C 200	Ebtokose. W 700

One thousand, Sheo, has a character peculiar to itself; but 2000 begins again with Vidu with a double line above it, standing for Seau Esheo, or two and one thousand. There

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are two dialects in this language; the Coptic, properly so called, which was spoken in Lower Egypt, and the Sahadic, which was the speech of the upper parts of the same country. The Old and New Testaments are extant in both these dialects, and Dr. Wolde imagined from their peculiarities, that they had been made from the Greek Septuagint. The proximity of Egypt to Judea, caused the inhabitants of the former country to be acquainted with the Gospel at a very early period.

#### GREEK.

ALTHOUGH it be generally admitted that Cadmus, the son of Agenor King of Phoenice, was the great founder of the Greek language, yet it cannot with reason be supposed that the Grecians were ignorant of letters until he introduced them. Their original language was that of the sons of Japhet, who first inhabited Greece—soon after the Dispersion of Noah's descendants (2247 years before the Birth of Christ.) from Thracia, which was situate in the North Western part of Greece next the Black sea, down to the peninsula of Peloponnesus, in the South, next the Mediterranean, now called the Morea. It is related by Tacitus, that when Cecrops led his colony from Sais in Egypt to Attica, about 1556 years previous to the Christian Era, he took with him the first Greek letters; and hence came the fable that he was half man and half serpent, because he understood both the Greek and Egyptian languages. But although there be not any proof for this hypothesis, it cannot be imagined that Cecrops was uninformed with respect to the characters of Egypt; and if he found the original inhabitants of that country where he planted his colony, destitute of literature, there can be but little doubt that he would have instructed them in that, as well as in the ceremonies of Religion, and rules of Civil Government. settlement of Cecrops took place about fifty years previous to the arrival of Cadmus in Attica; but Inachus, also said to have been an Egyptian, had in the year 1856, before Christ, founded the kingdom of Argos in the Southern parts of Greece, which lay to the West of the Ceropiam territory: and he doubtless had also carried his native characters with him, but there is not any evidence stating that he taught them to the inhabitants of Peloponnesus, inasmuch as it may be inferred that he found them already provided with

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characters very nearly resembling his own. This might readily be, since the Phænician letters of Taaut, were discovered upwards of 850 years previous to the arrival of Cadmus in Greece; and, as the people of Phonice were so continually migrating from one country to another that they were denominated Wanderers, those of their colonies which settled in Greece, gave to the other inhabitants the same letters that Taaut had carried into Egypt. Perhaps, however, in the long space of time which elapsed between the arrival of the Phænician characters and those of Cadmus, they had become considerably altered, and he might so have rectified their order or pronunciation, as to give him some claim to the title of their inventor. This arrangement, too, accounts for the statement of Josephus, where he says, in his answer to Appion, that the Greeks had never been able to prove the antiquity of their letters; whence it has been asserted that they were not known even so late as at the Siege of Troy, which began 1193 years before the Birth of Christ. These particulars being stated, the history of the Greek letters seems to be reduced to the following program. They were most probably invented, as we have already stated, by Taaut, the son of Misraim, in Phœnicia, soon after the Dispersion of Noah's descendants; and they were then carried into Egypt, whence the knowledge of them spread by commercial intercourse or colonial settlements into Syria, Arabia, Chaldea, and Ethiopia. By the Pelasgi they were carried into Attica, the Ægeon Sea, and Peloponnesus, where they founded the ancient kingdoms of Sicyon and Argos. The PELASGIAN alphabet was probably carried out of Phoenicia, before the inhabitants of that country had augmented the number of radical letters of which it was originally composed: it was written from the right hand to the left, according to the Phænician custom, which was also followed by the ancient Etrurians and the Eolians. The Pelasgi had, however, too small a number of original letters distinctly to express the different sounds of their language, and for this cause they were obliged to attach several sounds to the same letter, but in the course of time they remedied this defect by the invention of other characters. But these changes were wrought by degrees, and several of the new letters must have been invented before the modern practice was introduced of writing from the left hand to the right, since certain of them are to be found on Pelasgian coins and inscriptions, which are written from the right hand to the left. custom was continued by the Athenians, for near three centuries and a half after the building of Rome, (B.C. 753.); and the descendants of the ancient Pelasgi, and particu larly the Samnites, continued to write so until about 230 years before the Birth of Christ. The Osci continued it

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still later, but the Ionian Greeks adopted the present mode of writing, so early as the third century after the erection of Rome. The letters themselves were sixteen in number, and to these was added the H, which although rejected by some, was without doubt an original Greek letter; they contained thirteen different sounds, and were of the following form, according to Dr. Swinton.

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Father Gori has endeavoured to prove that the tables, whence these letters were taken, were written two centuries previous to the Trojan War: at the same time two other tablets were discovered, written in the Roman character.

Another branch of the Pelasgian nation, which migrated into Europe not many ages after the Dispersion, consisted of those Phænicians who settled in Etruria, and to whom was given the name of the ETRUSCANS. The ancient Etruria was a country of Italy, a part of which is now known by the appellation of Tuscany, although the original province was far more extensive. It was separated from Liguria on the West, by the River Macra; from Latium and Umbria on the East, by the Tiber; its boundary to the North-east, was a part of the Appenines; and the Southwestern side was washed by the Mediterranean Sea, which was formerly called Mare Tuscum or Tyrrhenum, the Tyrrhenian Sea. The Etrurians or Etruscans, originally derived their name from Athuria or Aturia, the Chaldean word for Assyria, of which country Phœnice was a part: and as the permetuations of the letters A and E are continual in Oriental words, especially when they are written in Greek characters. Atura and Etura must be regarded as the same word, and as the ancient name of Etruria. Etruscans were also called Raseni, Terseni, or Tyrrheni, from Rasen or Rasan, the name of the leader under whom they marched from Lydia to Italy, and who is sometimes named Tyrsenus. The title of Tusci or Thusci, is of a later date, and was given to the Etruscans by the Grecians, perhaps from the Greek word Thuske, Offerings received for the Gods, on account of their burning of frankincense in their sacrifices. It has been supposed that the Etruscans were, at one period, masters of all Italy, since the whole of that region which the Latins denominated Italia, was named Tyrrhenia by the more ancient Greeks; and Livy and Plutarch intimate, that the Tyrrhenian, Ionian, and Adriatic Seas, which partly surround Italy, were once known as the Etruscan Sea. The Etruscans were certainly some of the most ancient inhabitants of Italy, although that proof of their antiquity, which is adduced by Duret, will scarcely be believed; namely, that twelve cities or tribes were established in Etruria by Noah, and that they wrote in the same character as those used by their descend-To this he adds, that these letters were entrusted to the Priests, who varied them according to their own pleasure as to their order, value, and import, writing them sometimes from the right-hand, and sometimes from the left. It will already be conceived that the Etruscan tongue was the same as the Phoenician; and their letters were almost the same in form as those of the earliest Greeks, being most commonly written from the right-hand to the

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left. The following is an Etruscan Alphabet originally published in France, from undoubted Pelasgian monuments preserved in that country.

The Etruscan language was spoken in the age of the Emperor Augustus, in whose time Christ was boru, and it was also patronised by Claudius, who reigned about forty

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years subsequently; but there are not any manuscripts in this tongue now extant, although the Etrurian records were preserved in the College of Augurs, until the middle of the fourth century of the Christian Era, when those Soothsayers initiated the Emperor Julian into their mysteries by means of them: probably this was done at the period when Julian reformed the Pagan worship. Christianity was established in the reign of his successor, and the Pagan learning was offensive to the Christians, they have been charged with destroying the Etruscan records; from this period the ancient Pelasgian tongue was disused, and in a short time after it was not understood by the inhabitants of Italy. Although it remained obsolete for nearly thirteen centuries; yet, about forty years since, it again rose into notice, and it was cultivated with great success by several eminent men of Italy, France, Germany, and England; from whose labours it may be deduced, that the Pelasgian language and characters are preserved in the monuments which have been called Etruscan, and that every thing relating to the religious, civil, military, and naval establishments in the Roman nation, was derived from the Etruscans. Farther information on the history of the Etrurians, may be found in The Universal History, London, 1748, Octavo, Vol. xvi. pp. 1-130; and at page 51 of that work, is a Catalogue of Modern Authors who have written on the subject of the Etruscan language. Vide also Jackson's Chronological Antiquities, London, 1752, Quarto, Vol. iii. pp. 111-134. Astle on the Rudical Letters of the Pelasgians and their derivatives, London, 1785, Quarto: and The Origin and Progress of Writing, by the same author, London, 1803, Quarto. pp. 51, ut supra, et 229-240. An account of the other dialects into which the Greek language was divided in the different Pelasgian colonies, will be found on page 275 ante, together with many other particulars concerning it.

Such then is the history of the most ancient Greek letters, which are commonly said to have been brought by Cadmus from Phœnicia into Bœotia, about 1493 years before the Birth of Christ. His alphabet consisted of sixteen letters only, that is to say, Alpha, Beta, Gamma, Delta, Epsilon, Jota, Kappa, Lambda, Mu, Nu, Omicron, Pi, Rho, Sigma, Tau, and Upsilon: but Palamedes of Eubœa, at the Siege of Troy, upwards of 250 years after, added the aspirates Theta, Phi, and Chi; and the double letter Zeta. Simonides, an eminent Poet of Cos. nearly 650 years subsequent, added the other double letters, Xi and Psi, the two long vowels Heta and Omega, and the character for the diphthong Omicron...Upsilon, but the long E is omitted in the later Greek alphabet, after the time of Simonides, though it was undoubtedly an original Greek

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letter. The letters Zeta, Heta, Theta, Xi, Chi, Psi, and Omega, were unknown to Homer. The following is an ancient Greek Alphabet containing all these letters, which has been copied by Montfaucon, from the Coins of the Antiochi, Kings of Syria; three of which name, that is to say, Antiochus Soter, Antiochus Theos, and Antiochus the

as deeply skilled in magic, and concerning whose wonderful actions, there is extant curious old black letter romance, printed at Amsterdam by John Doesbrock, which reateth of the lyfe of Virgilius, and of his deth, and many maruayles that he dyd yle-time by whyche-crafte and nygramancye, throughe the helpe of the devylso books, are perhaps about as authentic as the romance The characters following, in

bear this peculiar form of character, which lles Perlées, from its resemblance to a string of pearls Eastern monarchs, as well as on those of some Grecian letters already given at pages 300-301 ante, are called appears to have

quoted; for farther particulars concerning which, Vide Goujet Biblioth. Franc. ix. 225. Catal. de la Bibliotheque Nationale, II. 5. and De Bure, No. 3857.

It is supposed to have been engraven and erected

has been rendered more properly Toeporchon, from To onta ep'orchon, signifying that in the perpendicular way of writing, the words were arranged like trees planted in

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rows from the top to the bottom of grounds. The inscription which is upon the ancient Sandwich marble, is written somewhat in this manner; but the letters of each line stand exactly in order under each other, and every line has the same number of letters: this marble is written on both sides, and is supposed by Dr. Taylor, to have been engraven 374 years before the Birth of Christ. engraving their characters upon stones, the Greeks used many other kinds of materials for preserving their writings and inscriptions; of which, as they were in some measure common to most other nations, we shall proceed to give a succinct account, premising that we are indebted for it to an excellent work, entitled "Herculaniensia; or Archaelogical and Philological Dissertations, By the Right Hon. William Drummond, and Robert Walpole, Esq." Lond. 1810. 4to. pp. 98, 107. Tablets of lead have been considered by some to be of extreme antiquity; and the passage in Job, xix. v. 23, 24. "Oh that my words were now written! oh that they were printed in a book! That they were graven with an iron pen and lead in the rock for ever!" has been thought to afford a proof of it, but this has arisen from the erroneous translation of the Vulgate, which renders the latter part of it, "Quis mihi ut exarentur in libro. Stylo ferreo, et plumbi lamina, vel celte sculpantur in silice:" that is to say, "that my words were written in a book. With an iron pen and plates of lead, or graven with a chisel in the rock." Now the true meaning of the passage is, that Job wished that his words were to be cut out of the rock, and those interstices to be filled up with thin plates of metal in the manner of Mosaic. Viewing the text in this light, King James's is evidently the best translation, and the Greek Septuagint, the Chaldean Paraphrase, and the Syrian and Arabic version, all concur in thus rendering the pas-Vide Biblia Polyglotta, à Briani Waltoni, Vol. 111. pp. 40,41. Pausanius, a celebrated Historian who settled at Rome, A.D. 170, relates, that the works of Hesiod, who lived in the days of Homer, were written upon lead : and Pliny, although Vossius censures him for his expressions, states, that public documents were anciently written in leaden volumes. Eneas Poliorceticus, however, who flourished about 720 years before the Birth of Christ, relates, that the women conveyed secret intelligence by means of small leaden volumes, or rolls of very thin metal, which they wore as ear-rings. He adds further, that they were beaten with a hammer until they were so pliable, that they were sewed up between the soles of the shoes, and that even the messenger who carried them, was unconscious of the circumstance. Whilst he slept, they were taken out by the person to whom they were addressed, and others replaced without exciting suspicion. In the letter of instructions.

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addressed by Humphrey Wanley, 26th April, 1720, to Andrew Hay, concerning his continental commissions for the Earl of Oxford's library, mention is made of a leaden book, given by Father Montfaucon to Cardinal Bouillonthe Preface to the Catalogue of the Harleian Manuscripts. Some account of two Brazen books will be found in the Archaologia, Vol. xii. p 332, and the Gents. Mag. Vol. lxxii. pp. 993, 1109. Wooden tablets are stated by Calmet to have been used by the Jews from very remote antiquity, although he produces but uncertain evidence of such a practice. Eustathius asserts, that the custom of writing upon Wood existed in Greece even in very distant ages; and Pliny, citing Homer, states that the Pugillures, or small Writing-Tables which could be held in the hand, were known before the Siege of Troy. In Humphrey Wanley's letter already cited, several writings on wood are enumerated; as "the Egyptian Board or Table of Isis, adorned with Hieroglyphics;"--- "some original Letters or Epistles, written by the hand of St. Hierome upon Phalira, or Bark;"--"four Instruments of the Emperor Theodosius, Junior, (now imperfect,) upon Phalira;" and numerous other manuscripts and instruments also upon Bark. The wooden tablets used by the Greeks were of various kinds: firstly, the Achones were square tables of wood, but the name is sometimes applied to those made of brass; and Aullus Gellius relates, that the Laws of Solon were written upon such in the Boustrophedon manner. The Kurbeis were triangular pieces of wood or stone, or rather pyramids of three sides, on which religious laws are supposed to have been written. Of this species also must have been the Greek Delton, a book perhaps so called on account of its resemblance to the letter Delta in its triangular form; but the Hebrew Deleth, which might have been its etymon, signifies a door, and probably the name alluded to, its having folding leaves like doors and gates. Euripides remarks, that the Delton was generally formed of the wood of the Pine-tree. The Pinax was a square board on which the Greeks were accustomed to write in the time of Homer, from whose expressions it would seem that it folded with two leaves; it was, however, never appropriated to works of any extent, but only to indexes and heads of chapters. The Hon. William Drummond imagines, that the name of this article might have been derived from the Chaldean word Pinac, to Educate, supposing it originally to have been a table for teaching children their letters. Pinakion, he adds, was the title for the wooden tablet on which the judges, or members of any public assembly, wrote their sentence or vote; and Pinakes signified a board on which wax was spread out for writing. Sanis was another name for a wooden tablet, perhaps derived from the Hebrew Saniss,

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a branch of the Palm-tree, of which wood the Sanides were made. The Puxion was the name of a tablet formed from the wood of the box-tree, and this title may be traced to the Hebrew, since the Jews classed the box-tree with pines. calling them Thasur, viz. eminent, excellent, fortunate, which in the Phoenician tongue is written Puk, whence the translation to Paxion, is natural and easy. The last species of Greek wooden books was called Abax: it was square in shape, and is usually understood to signify a table on Its etymon which Mathematicians drew their diagrams. is probably the Hebrew Ab. a beam of wood. Tablets of Wax were a fourth material used for the writings of the Greeks and Romans; and they were prepared by spreading a layer of wax melted with resin, upon a board. Occasionally, however, they used a substance called Maltha, which signified mortar, plaster, or clay. Tablets of Brass of a cubical form, were also used for the writing of public documents; as Plutarch mentions the finding of a brass plate. with Egyptian characters, at Thebes in Beotia: and Pollux states, that the Laws of Solon were inscribed upon Brass. Polybius mentions, that the Treaty made between the Romans and the Carthagenians, at the end of the first Punic War, B. C. 241, was engraven on brazen tables; but Dionysius remarks, that the Roman Laws were carved on Tablets of Oak, because they were not then accustomed to recording on Brass. The Libri Elephantini, or Elephantine books, have been imagined by some writers to have been composed of parchments made from the caul of the elephant; but in all probability they were formed of his ivory tusks, sawn into thin leaves, which Pliny mentions as a very ancient custom. Books of Skins and Parchment, as used by the Greeks, were of several different kinds; as the Diptherai, formed of the skins of goats and kids; the Derma, a general name for skins used for writing upon; and the Pergamenai, the name of certain parchments in the possession of the Kings of Pergamos. With respect to the period when these materials began to be used, there is no certain information; but Dionysius of Halicarnassus writes, that an ancient treaty between the Romans and the Gabini, was written on a wooden shield, which had previously been covered with the skin of an ox, that had been sacrificed when the parties concluded the terms of agreement.

Similar to the writing materials of the Greeks, appear to have been those used by the Jews; thus Stone was adopted for preserving the Decalogue, vide Exodus, xxxi. v. 18, xxxii. v. 15, 16, and a plate of Goldi a directed to be engraven with the words "Holiness to the Lord," in Exodus xxxix. v. 30. In Numbers, xxii. v. 2. the names of the twelve tribes, are directed to be written upon twelve wands or rods, which

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certainly had some connection with the writing upon wood of the Greeks; and a passage in Isaiah, hereafter quoted, has been thought by some to imply, that the Hebrews used the Papyrus; but Pliny states, that it was not employed until the time of Alexander: and even such writers as have controverted the point, admit that it was not common before that period. It has been supposed, that the Jews learned the art of preparing skins into parchment for writing, from the inhabitants of Pergamos, where it is said to have been invented 887 years before Christ. Rolls are mentioned by Isaiah, chap. xxxiv. v. 4.; by Jeremiah, chap. xxxvi. v. 2.; and by Ezra, chap. vi. v. 2. who wrote in the seventh, sixth, and fifth centuries before the Birth of our Saviour. Pens of iron are mentioned by Job, chap. xix. v. 24. and Jeremiah, chap. xvii. v. l.; but perhaps reeds were also used, for in Judges, chap. v. v. 14, mention is made of some of the tribe of Zabulon, who " handle the pen of the writer:" David in Psalm, xlv. v. l, speaks of "the pen of the ready writer:" and Jeremiah, in the passage referred to above, states that Baruch wrote down all his words with ink in a book. The Hebrew manuscripts are of two kinds: Rolled. which are those alluded to in the foregoing references, used in the Synagogues, and Square, or private manuscripts. The Rolled MSS, which contained the Law, were long and narrow, attached at each end to a roller of wood, which served to wind off the columns as they had been read. These copies must be made from the most authentic ancient manuscripts now extant; with pure ink, on parchment made by a Jew for this particular purpose, from the hide of a clean animal, and fastened together by the strings of clean animals Every skin must contain a certain number of columns of prescribed length and breadth, each column comprising a given number of lines and words; no word must be written by heart or with points, or without being first orally pronounced by the copyist; the name of God is not to be written but with the utmost devotion and attention, and, previously to writing it, he must wash his pen. The want of a single letter, or the redundance of a single letter, the writing of prose as verse, or verse as prose, respectively, vitiates a manuscript: and when a copy has been completed, it must be examined and corrected within thirty days after the writing has been finished, in order to determine whether it is to be approved. or rejected. These rules, it is said, are observed to the present day by the persons who transcribe the sacred writings for the use of the Synagogue. The Square Manuscripts, which are in private use, are written with black ink, either on vellum, on parchment, or on paper, and of various sizes, folio, quarto, octavo, and duodecimo. Those which are copied on paper, are considered as being the most

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modern; and they frequently have some one of the Targums or Chaldee Paraphrases, either subjoined to the text in alternate verses, or placed in parallel columns with the text, or written in the margin of the manuscript. The characters are, for the most part, those which are called the square Chaldee: though a few manuscripts are written with rabbinical characters, but these are invariably of recent date. Biblical critics, who are conversant with the Hebrew manuscripts, have distinguished three sorts of characters, each differing in the beauty of their form. Spanish character is perfectly square, simple, and elegant: the types of the quarto Hebrew Bibles, printed by Robert Stephen and by Plantin, approach the nearest to this character. The German, on the contrary, is crooked, intricate. and inelegant in every respect; and the Italian character holds a middle place between these two. The pages are usually divided into three columns of various lengths; and the initial letters of the manuscripts are frequently illuminated and ornamented with gold. In many manuscripts the Masora is added; what is called the larger Masora, being placed above and below the columns of the text, and the smaller Masora being inserted in the blank spaces between the columns. Farther information upon this particular branch of the present subject, will be found in An Introduction to the Critical Study and Knowledge of the Holy Scriptures, by the Rev. T. H. Horne, Edit. Lond. 1821. 8vo. Vol. II. pp. 36-50. In addition to the above, the same authority also mentions that an Indian copy of the Pentateuch is written on a roll of goat-skins dyed red. and was discovered by Dr. Buchanan in the record chest of a Synagogue of the Black Jews, in the interior of Malayala, in the year 1806. It measures forty-eight feet in length, and in breadth about twenty-two inches, or a Jewish cubit. The book of Leviticus and the greater part of the book of Deuteronomy are wanting. It appears, from calculation, that the original length of the roll was not less than ninety English feet. In its present condition it consists of thirtyseven skins: contains one hundred and seventeen columns of writing, perfectly clear and legible; and exhibits a noble specimen of the manner and form of the most ancient Hebrew manuscripts among the Jews. The columns are a palm in breadth, and contain from forty to fifty lines each, which are written without vowel points, and in all other respects according to the rules prescribed to the Jewish scribes or copyists. As some of the skins appear more decayed than others, and the text is evidently not all written by the same hand, Mr. Yeates is of opinion, that the roll itself comprises the fragments of at least three different rolls, of one common material, viz. dyed goatskin, and exhibits three different specimens of writing,

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Instruments and writings upon the Bark of trees have already been mentioned; and that of the Philurg, a species of Linden, was most commonly preferred, although from a passage in Plutarch, it has been imagined that the bark of the oak was also employed. The word liber, the Latin for a book, also signifies the rind of a tree. Previous to the general use of the Papyrus, the leaves of the pulm-tree, and of the plant now called mallow, were written on: Pliny and Vopiscus have led some to suppose, that Linen books once existed; but perhaps these were only boards covered with linen, and afterwards spread over with a coating of wax. The time when the Papyrus-rush was applied to the purposes of writing, is much disputed. It is supposed to be alluded to in Isaiah, chap. xix. v. 6, 7. "And they shall turn the rivers far away; and the brooks of defence shall be emptied and dried up: the reeds and flags shall wither. The paper reeds by the brooks, by the mouth of the brooks, and every thing sown by the brooks, shall wither, be driven away, and be no more." --- although some attribute its discovery to the reign of Alexander the Great, which was nearly four hundred years after the time of the Prophet. The Papyrus, according to Pliny, is a reed or rush which grows in the marshy places of Egypt, where the Nile overflows and stagnates, in the form of a large bulrush. It has a fibrous root, and runs up in several triangular stalks, somewhat tapering, to the height of about fifteen feet, and in the thickest parts they are a foot and an half in circumference. They terminate in large tufted heads, which in the making of paper are thrown aside, and the stem was anciently divided into two parts, from which the bark was taken, and the thin films or coats cut off with a sharp instrument, the innermost being considered the best. These coats were then laid upon a table, two or more transversly, and glued together with the muddy water of the Nile: after which they were pressed and dried, made smooth with a roller, or rubbed with a semi-globe of solid glass. For farther information on these interesting subjects, vide An Essay on the Origin and Progress of Letters, By W. Massey, Lond. 1763. Octavo, up. 38-72; and the articles, Book, Paper. Parchment, and Roll, in Dr. Rees' Encyclopedia.

We now proceed to give some account of ancient Greek Manuscripts, commencing with those found in the ruins of Herculaneum. This famous town originally stood in Campania or Italy, but it was swallowed up in an earthquake produced by an eruption of Mount Vesuvius on August 24th. A.D. 79, together with the City of Pompeii; and after having been buried under the lava for more than 1000 years, Herculaneum was discovered 24 feet beneath the surface of the earth, by labourers digging for a well in 1713, and Pompeii about forty years subsequently, 12 feet below the surface.

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The houses and streets in a great measure remain entire. and from them at different times, have been recovered busts, statues, paintings, utensils, and ancient manuscripts written on Papyrus, both in Greek and Latin. Thirty-nine years after the ruins of Herculaneum had been laid open. an excavation was made in the garden of a house at Resina. and there, in the remains of a house, was found a great number of volumes of burnt Papyrus, many of which were at first destroyed by the workmen; but when it became known that they were fragments of ancient MSS. the unfolding of them became an object of the greatest interest to all the classical world. The precise spot where the discovery of the first of the carbonised rolls of Papyrus was made, was the Bosco di Sant' Agostino, a shrubbery belonging to the Church of St. Augustine, close to Portici to-wards Torre del Greco; it was covered over with ashes. and a hard tufa or lava to the depth of 120 English feet. In the space of a year or two, about 250 Greek and Latin rolls were found; and the Library near which they were contained. appeared to belong to a large palace. Its floor was of elegant mosaic; and the books, which in 1754, were found to be 337 in number, all in Greek, were preserved in presses inlaid with different sorts of wood, disposed in rows and ornamented with cornices. These volumes were all rendered brittle by the fire, but there were likewise eighteen larger rolls in Latin, lying separately, and more injured than the Greek. The first Papyrus was at length unrolled, and proved to be a Treatise of Music by Philodemus the Epicurean, whilst another was on the subject of that class of philosophy. These Papyri, were however, at first so firmly connected together, that every roll was almost as hard as if it had consisted but of one piece; all attempts to open them seemed to be in vain, and it was only by slitting them that some words were discovered. At length the King of Naples sent for one father Antonio Piaggi, a writer at the Vatican, by whom a machine was invented which held the back of the roll, whilst he began to open the volume, to separate one leaf from another, to line the laming which he cut off with goldbeater's skin, at the same time wetting the roll to soften the gum which held it together. When a piece was loosened, it was taken off at a place where there were not any characters and placed between two pieces of glass, after which an exact fac-simile was made of it also by Piaggi, and this copy was delivered over to the Cardinal Mazzochi, who endeavoured to illustrate and restore the fragment. These however were laborious and slow operations, since a whole year was consumed in opening about half a roll; and some of the Papyri were so fine, that unrolled they would have extended to nearly one hundred feet in length. The Treatise on Music was a small philosophic tract, written in the

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maraner of Plutrarch; not illustrative of the art itself, but condemning it as pernicious to society. The commencement was wanting, but the Papyrus was written across in columns of about twenty lines, each of four inches long, with the space of an inch between each column. The letters were capital ones, very legible, and the words were without any abbreviations. Such was the state of the Herculanean MSS. when his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales, proposed to the Neapolitan Government to defray the expenses of unrolling, decyphering, and publishing them; which offer being accepted, the Rev. John Hayter was sent to Naples in 1802, and under his superintendance many Papyri were unrolled, of which an account will be found in his very interesting Report upon the Herculaneum Mannscripts, in two Letters addressed by permission to His Royal Highness the Prince Regent, Lond. 1811. Quarto. A much more extended narrative concerning these rolls, their history, contents. and unfolding, will be found in the Herculanensia already cited, pp. 108-169, and the article Herculaneum in the Smoplement to the Encyclopedia Britannica, Edinb. 1820, 4to. vol. iv. part ii. pp. 624-632: See also the Bibliothecu Britunnicu, By Robert Watt, M. D. Edinb. 4to. Vol ii. under the word Herculaneum. We have next to speak concerning Greek manuscripts of a later period, and since, in so doing, it will not be possible to give a better general idea of them, than that which was written by the Rev. T. H. Horne, in his work before-mentioned, we have abstracted the following account from vol. ii. pp. 50, ut supra. "The Greek manuscripts which have descended to our time, are written either on vellum or on paper; and their external form and condition vary, like the manuscripts of other ancient authors. The vellum is either purple coloured, or of its natural hue, and is either thick or thin. Manuscripts on very thin vellum were always held in the highest esteem. The paper also is either made of cotton, or the common sort manufactured from linen, and is either glazed or laid (as it is technically termed), that is, of the ordinary roughness. Only three manuscript fragments on purple vellum are known to be extant; one in the Cottonian Library in the British Museum, another in the Imperial Library Vienna, and the third in the University Library at Dublin. The first of these, consisting only of four leaves, contains fragments of St. Matthew's and St. John's Gospels; the letters are silver on a faded purple ground, and the Greek words for God, Jesus, Lord, Son, and Saviour, are written in letters of gold. The Vienna manuscript comprises fragments of the book of Genesis in Greek, and a small portion of St. Luke's Gospel. The Dublin manuscript is a Codex Rescriptus of St. Matthew's Gospel. The Codex Claromontanus, is written on very thin vellum All manu-

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scripts on paper are of much later date; those on cotton paper being posterior to the ninth century, and those on Muen subsequent to the twelfth century; and if the paper be of a very ordinary quality, Wetstein pronounces them to have been written in Italy, in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. The letters are either capital (which in the time of St. Jerome were called uncial, i. c. initial) or cursive, i. e. small: the capital letters. again, are of two kinds, either unadorned and simple, and made with straight thin strokes, or thicker, uneven and augular. Some of them are supported on a sort of base, while others are decorated, or rather burthened with various tops. As letters of the first kind are generally seen on ancient Greek monuments, while those of the last resemble the paintings of semi-barbarous times, manuscripts written with the former are generally supposed to be as old as the fifth century, and those written with the latter are supposed to be posterior to the ninth. Greek manuscripts were usually written in capital letters till the seventh century, and mostly without any divisions of words; and capitals were in general use until the eight century, and some even so late as the ninth; but there is a striking difference in the forms of the letters after the seventh century. Great alterations took place in the eighth, ninth, and tenth centuries: the Greek letters in the manuscripts copied by the Latins in the ninth century, are by no means regular: the a, s, and y, being inflected like the a, e, and y, of the Latin alphabet. Towards the close of the tenth century, small or cursive letters were generally adopted; and Greek manuscripts written in and since the eleventh century are in small letters, and greatly resemble each other, though some few exceptions occur to the contrary. Flourished letters rarely occur in Greek manuscripts of the thirteenth, fourteenth, and fifteenth centuries. All manuscripts, the most antient not excepted, have erasures and corrections; which however were not always effected so dextrously, but that the original writing may sometimes be seen. Where these alterations have been made by the copyist of the manuscript (à prima manu, as it is termed,) they are preferable to those made by later hands, or a secunda munu. These erasures were sometimes made by drawing a line through the word, or, what is tenfold worse, by the penknife. But, besides these modes of obliteration, the copyists frequently blotted out the old writing with a sponge, and wrote other words in lieu of it: nor was this practice confined to a single letter or word, as may be seen in the Coder Bezæ. Authentic instances are on record, in which whole books have been thus obliterated, and other writing has been substituted in the place of the manuscript so blotted

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out. These manuscripts are termed Codices Palimpsesti, or Rescripti. Before the invention of paper, the great scarcity of parchment in different places induced many persons to obliterate the works of ancient writers, in order to transcribe their own or those of some other favourite author in their place: hence, doubtless, the works of many eminent writers have perished, and particularly those of the greatest antiquity; for such as were comparatively recent were transcribed, to satisfy the immediate demand; while those which were already dim with age, were erased. It was for a long time thought, that this destructive practice was confined to the eleventh, twelfth, thirteenth, and fourteenth centuries, and that it chiefly prevailed among the Greeks; it must in fact be considered as the consequence of the harbarism which overspread those dark ages of ignorance: but this destructive operation was likewise practised by the Lating, and is also of more remote date than has usually heen supposed. In general, a Codex Rescriptus is easily known, as it rarely happens that the former writing is so completely erased, as not to exhibit some traces; in a few instances, both writings are legible. Montfaucon found a manuscript in the Colbert Library, which had been written about the eighth century, and originally contained the works of Saint Dionysius: new matter had been written over it three or four centuries afterwards, and both coutinued legible. Muratori saw in the Ambrosian Library a manuscript, comprising the works of the venerable Bede. the writing of which was from eight to nine hundred years old, and which had been substituted for another upwards of a thousand years old. Notwithstanding the efforts which had been made to erase the latter, some phrases could be deciphered, which indicated it to be an ancient pontifical. The indefatigable researches of the Abate Maio (who has recently been appointed the principal keeper of the Vatican Library at Rome) have discovered several valuable remains of biblical and classical literature in the Ambrosian Library at Milan. Before quitting the subject of manuscripts in general, we must take the opportunity of referring the reader to the Prefaces attached to the Catalogue of the Harleium MSS.; Ayscough's Catalogue of Sir H. Sloane's and Dr. Birch's MSS.; Notices et Extraits des Manuscrits du Roi.; Astle's Origin and Progress of Writing already cited; and the First Day of the Rev. T. F. Dibdin's Bibliographical Decameron.

The ancient manuscript copies of the Scriptures in the Greek tongue, which are still extant, are both numerous and authentic; since of those which have been collated, there are nearly five hundred, whilst of those which are scattered through private collections, the amount is unknown. The Greek was selected as the language in which

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the New Testament should be written, because it was rend. spoken, and generally understood, throughout the Roman Empire, and more especially in the Eastern Provinces; and to the universality of its use. Cicero, Seneca, and Juvenal bear record, since it was as well known, and stood in the same degree of utility in the higher and middle classes of society, as the French tongue does at the present time. Very few manuscripts contain the whole, either of the Old or New Testament, as by far the greater number have only the four Gospels, since they were the most frequently read in the Primitive Churches; but some again are composed of the Acts of the Apostles and the Epistles of St. Paul, and a very few possess the book of the Revelations. The ancient Scriptural Manuscripts are written without accents. aspirates, or any separation between the words, although they exhibit nearly the same orthography which is to be found in Greek printed books; with the exception that many words are abbreviated by putting only two or three of the letters, and drawing a line above them; as K C, for Kurios, Lord, v c, for Vios, a Son, &c. Between the tenth and the fifteenth centuries, the Greek MSS. contain a great variety of abbreviations, or compound characters for certain words, similar to those on which we have already given an article at page 290 ante; but monograms or joined letters, were of very high antiquity with the Greeks, since in the Sicilia Veterum Inscriptionem, &c. Palermo, 1769, p. 54, there are several proofs of their having been used in Syria, Egypt, and Greece: the practice was afterwards adopted by the Etruscans, Romans, Saxons, and by most other nations. The most ancient Biblical Manuscripts extant, have their contents divided by Titloi, Titles, and Kephalia, Heads; but originally, the Sacred Books were written without any partitions into chapters or verses, so that a whole book copied out according to the ancient custom of placing all the words continuously, formed but one extended word. At the commencement of a new book, which is always on the top of a page, the first few lines are very frequently written in vermillion. It would not accord either with the space or the plan of the present work, to enter into a detail of the systems which Biblical Critics have invented concerning the authority and the value of the various families or editions of the Sacred Manuscripts, especially as this subject has been so copiously and so ably treated by the Rev. T. H. Horne, from whose Introduction to the Scriptures we have already so larged quoted: but as one of the most eminent and ancient of those Manuscripts has been printed in fac simile, and Mr. Richard Taylor has (with the consent of the Proprietor, the Rev. H. H. Baber, one of the Librarians of the British Museum,) obligingly

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furnished us with a specimen of the types used for the publication, we shall conclude this article with a short account of it. The Codex Alexandrinus, or Alexandrine Manuscript; preserved in the British Museum, was deposited there in the year 1753. It was originally sent as a present to King Charles I. from Cyrillus Lucaris, a native of Crete, and Patriarch of Constantinople, by Sir Thomas Rowe, Ambassador from England to the Grand Seignor, in 1628. Cyrillus brought it with him from Alexandria, where, probably it was written; and in a Memorandum attached to it, he states, that it was written according to tradition, by a noble Egyptian lady, named Thecla, soon after the Council of Nice; (A. D. 325.) but that although Thecla's name had been obliterated from the end of the Manuscript, yet that the other books of the Christians had been so treated after the Turks had expelled Christianity from Egypt. Notwithstanding that such was the original account of this manuscript, Mattheus Muttis a friend and contemporary of its possessor Cyrillus, states that it was brought from one of the twenty-two Monasteries on Mount Athos, in Greece; which the Turks never destroyed, and which were the great repository for Manuscripts of the New Testament. It is certain that Cyrillus visited Mount Athos previous to his going to Alexandria; and it has been imagined that having procured the Manuscript in Greece, he carried it into Egypt, and then brought it back with him to Constantinople. The Manuscript itself, is written on vellum, in uncial or initial letters, without either accents or aspirates, and with some abbreviations similar to those already men-It occupies four folio volumes, of which the first three contain the whole of the Old Testament, and the Apocryphal books, whilst the fourth consists of the New Testament, the first Epistle of St. Clement to the Corinthians, and the Apocryphal Psalms ascribed to Solomon. There are some omissions in this manuscript, and some interpolations; as the Epistle of Athanasius to Marcellinus preceding the Psalms, followed by a Catalogue containing those which are to be said in prayer for every hour of the day and night. There are also fourteen hymns, partly apocryphal, partly biblical, one of which is to the praise of the Virgin Mary. The arguments of Eusebius are prefixed to the Psalms, and his Canons to the Gospels. The following is a specimen of the letters taken from page 34 of Mr. Baber's edition of this MS. hereafter described, the words of which are from Genesis, chap. 50. v. 26. which is followed in the original by the words GENESIS KOSMOU, the Beginning of the World, written in larger capitals than the rest. To make the ensuing extract intelligible, we have added a reading in common Greek, and an English translation set up to resemble the original.

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Kai eteaettheen 'iodhg' eton **ΚΑΙΕΤΕΛΕΥΤΗCEΝΙωCHΦ'ET**ω EN TH ZOPO EN AIFTITO . TEAOS ATTON, KAI EOHKAN ATTON EKATON AEKA KAI EOA¥AN ENTHCOPWENAIFYTTW: 75) NOT AYNAYHOBIYY. NOLAY GKATONAGKA KAIGHA LAN

We have already observed, that the greater part of this invaluable manuscript has been published, and we shall make one extract more from Mr. Horne's volumes, to give a tew particulars concerning this amazing undertaking, "A fac-simile of the Codex Alexandrians was published in folio by the late Dr. Woide, principal librarian of the British Museum, with types cast for the purpose, line for line, without intervals between the words, precisely as in the original. The following is the title of Dr. Woide's splendid work.—Nousm Testumentum Gracum, e Codice MS. Alexandrino, qui Londini in Bibliothece Musei Britannici usservatur, descriptum, a Carolo Gudafredo Woide. Londini ex prelo Jouanis Nichols, Typis Jacksonianis, MDCCLXXXVI. Twelve copies were printed on vellum. The fac simile itself fills two hundred and sixty pages; and the preface,

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comprising twenty-two pages, contains an accurate description of the manuscript, illustrated by an engraving representing the style of writing in various manuscripts. To this is subjoined an exact list of all its various readings, in eighty-nine pages; each reading is accompanied with a remark, giving an account of what his predecessors, Junius, (i. e. Patrick Young), Bishop Walton, Drs. Mill and Grabe, and Wetstein, had performed or neglected. To complete this work, there should be added the following: Appendix ad editionem Novi Testamenti Graci, e Codice Alexandrino descripti a C. G. Woide, in qua continentur Fragmenta Novi Testamenti juxta interpretationem dialecti superioris Ægypti quæ Thebaica vel Sahidica appellatur, e Codd. Oxoniens. maxima ex parte desumpta cum dissertatione de Versione Bibliorum Egyptiaca, quibus subjicitur Codicis Vaticani cul-latio. Oxonii: E Typographeo Clarendoniano, 1799, Folio. This work was edited by the Rev. Dr. Ford. In 1812, Mr. Baber published, by subscription, a fac-simile of the book of Psalms, from the manuscript now under consideration, of which twelve copies are on vellum, to match with the same number of copies of the New Testament. To complete the Old Testament in a similar manner, was an undertaking too vast and extensive for an unbeneficed clergyman. In consequence, therefore, of a memorial by Mr. B., seconded by the recommendation of several dignaturies of the church, as well as professors and heads of colleges in the two universities, the British Parliament engaged to defray the expenses of completing this noble undertaking; (See the Memorial and other Proceedings in the Literary Panorama, vol. i. N. S. pp. 465-478.); and Mr. Baber is now rapidly proceeding in his laborious task. The Pentateuch and the Historical Books, together with the Prophetic Books and the Psalms, are completed in a splendid folio size, so as to represent every iota of the original mapuscript in the most faithful manner. The better to preserve the identity of the original, instead of spinning out the contracted various readings, in the margin, by letters in full, (as Dr. Woide had done in his fac-simile of the Alexandrian manuscript of the New Testament) fac-similes of such various readings, cut in wood, are inserted precisely in the places where they occur, filling up only the same space with the original. The tail-pieces, or rude arabesque ornaments at the end of each book, are also represented by means of fac-similes in wood. The work will consist of four volumes in folio; three comprising the text of the Old Testament, and a fourth containing prolegomena and notes. The edition is limited to two hundred and fitty copies, and twelve are on veltum. They are such as reflect the highest credit on the printers, Mesers R. and A. Taylor."

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#### PALMYRENEAN.

The country of Palmyrene, in which this language first had its rise, was a spacious and fertile province situate in the midst of a frightful desert in Syria; bounded by the River Euphrates to the East, Rocky Arabia to the South, Cælesyria to the West, and the country of Chalybontis to the

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ILLVRIAN LANGUAGES. THAT country which in ancient Geography was called Illyria. Illyricum, or Illyris, although situated in Europe, next the Adriatic Sea, has never had its boundaries precisely ascertained; for whilst some would confine it to the space between the rivers Naro and Drilo, in Greece, others, as Pliny and Ptolemy, extend its limits to include Liburnia and Dalmatia, which border upon the South of Germany. Its original language was most probably the Greek; but the great Eastern and Western divisions of the country, had each, according to Duret and John Baptist Palatin an alphabet of its own. The provinces upon the Eastern side. used one that still resembled that common to their neighbours the Grecians; but the people who dwelt upon the West, are said to have adopted a series of letters invented by St. Cyrill or St. Jerome, which was very similar to the Sclavonian. Dalmatian, and Modern Russian. The invention of the same characters, are also attributed to one Methodius a Bishop and a native of Illyricum, who lived about the period of the Incarnation of Christ; who translated the Scriptures into his own tongue; and who persuaded the Illyrians to discontinue the ceremonies of the Roman church, and the Latin language, which had probably been brought into the country when the Pro-Prætor Anicius Gallus triumphed over Gentius the King of Illyricum, in the year of Rome 585, or about 168 years before the Birth of Christ, and reduced it to a Roman province.

SCLAVONIAN.

Prom this tongue, as one of the most ancient descendants of the Illyrian Greek, numerous others have been formed. The Sclavi or Salvi were a wild and wandering people, of obscure origin but of very great extent throughout the Northern nations, of Europe and part of Asia. The Greeks and Romans called them Scythians and Sarmatians; and Poland, the Northern parts of Russia, Prussia, and Lithuania, were probably their ancient holds, but from those countries they spread out to Dacia, Germany, and the lands lying beyond the Danube. Their name is said to have been derived from the word Slava, which in their own tongue signifies praise or glory; but others on the contrary deduce it from the expression Slave, alluding to their wretched situation after they were conquered by the Venetians, about the eighth century. The Sclavonian language is considered next to the Arabic, of the universality of which we have already spoken of at page 310 ante, to be the most extensive in the world; since it is spoken from the Adriatic to the North Sea, and from the Caspian to the Baltic, by a great variety of people whose descents are all deduced from the ancient Sclavi. The Sclavonian or Cyrulician characters are of that genus denominated Glagolitican. In the ninth

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century after the Birth of Christ, a Grecian Philosopher named Constantine, first wrote the Sclavonian language in the Greek capital letters, as previously to that period, it had been universally written in those of the Latin. As however, the Sclavonian tongue contained sounds both of vowels and of consonants which the Greek alphabet had not the power of expressing, Constantine supplied these peculiarities by the invention of new characters, and he also gave new names to the ancient Greek letters, as well as to those which he had thus designed; and on this account he is denominated the inventor of the Sclavonian alphabet. In the year 880. Pope John XII. first granted to the Sclavonians the privilege of performing Divine Service in their own tongue. These letters however did not retain the name of their author until his death; for, as he became Bishop of Moravia under Pope Nichilas I. in 887, so, upon going to Rome, he changed his Latin name of Constantine to the same word in Greek, namely, Cyrillus, which mutation has caused Historians to call the early letters of the Sclavonians the Cyrillician; and sometimes to write of him as two persons, father and son. Arising out of this character, which from the Bull of Pope John was permitted to be used in sacred matters, were those letters called the Glagolitican, the name of which is derived from the Sclavonian word Glagoliti. speech; signifying the language of the common people, in contradistinction to that used by the Priests. characters are sometimes called the Hieronymianum, because their invention has sometimes been attributed to St. Jerome; but as that eminent father lived in the third century, and the Glagolitican letters are even younger than the Sclavonians, it is evident that such a supposition is erroneous. Farther information on the history of the Sclavomians will be found in Gibbon's History of the Decline and Full of the Roman Empire. vols. vii. x. and in the first vol. of Tooke's Russian Empire. Concerning that of their language the reader may consult De Origine, Jure, ac Utilitate Lingvæ Sclavonicæ, by John Fischer, Wittemb. Quarto. Origo Characteris Sclavonici, by John Leonard Frisch. 4to. Historiam Lingua Scluvonica, by the Same. 4to. And of Elementary Books a list will be found in A Catalogue of Dictionaries, Vocabularies, Grammars, and Alphabets, by William Marsden, F. R. S., &c. London. 1796. 4to.

DALMATIAN.

THAT extensive tract of country, which was anciently called Dalmatia, was situate on the Eastern shores of the Adriatic Sea, now the Gulf of Venice; and formed a part of Illificum. It was separated from Liburnia or Croatia, by the River Titus, to the North-west; and Naro flowed upon the South-east. Ancient tradition states, that Dalmatia abounded with gold; and "the land which produced gold."

is an enither bestowed upon it by Marrial, in one of his epigrams. Its name was originally derived from Delmium or Delminum, the title of its ancient capital, which the Romans took and destroyed in the year of Rome, 579, or 175 years before the Birth of Christ. When the Avari obtained possession of this country, it was called by the Christians Pagania, because the Avari were idolators; but the Myrians altered the word to Poganin. The Dalmatians were a brave, but rude and savage people, who lived by plunder; and who, after having been conquered by the Romans under Metellus, 175 years before Christ, five several times shook of their voke, and for the space of two hundred and twenty years opposed their power; but in the reign of Augustus Caser, when the Roman Provinces were divided between the Emperor and the Senate. Dalmatia became the property of the latter, though it was afterwards voluntarily ceded to Augustus, who governed it by a Quest. or. At the decease of Constantine the Great, which occurred on Whitsunday, May the 22nd, A. D. 337, Dalmatia was considered as a part of Illyricum. The inroads of the Northern barbarians at one period ravaged this country. and it was for some time under the power of the Goths. until the Emperor Justinian, in A. D. 586 re-conquered it. along with the whole of Italy. About the end of the reign of Heraclius, A. D. 640, the Slavi, or Sclavonians, established themselves in Dalmatia, and the land was then governed by its own peculiar Kings: the last of whom dving without issue, bequeathed the kingdom to his Consort, who again left it to her brother Ladislaus. King of Hungary. In the 15th century the Venetians conquered the whole of Dalmatia, and restored only a portion of it to the Mungarians, reserving for themselves the best maritime parts. The Turks afterwards dispossessed the Venetians of some Provinces, and a small maritime territory was allotted to the Republic of Ragusa. The present language of Dalmatia, is the Sclavonian; but the following alphabet, which is said to have been invented in the third century. by St. Jerome, who was himself a native of that country. is usually called Dalmatian. Duret, page 788 of his volume, already referred to, states that it is difficult to pronounce, but that many Missals, the Latin Breviary, and even the Old and New Testaments have been translated into it from the Hebrew and Greek. Perhaps this alludes to the ancient Sclavonian version of the Scriptures, which Cyrillus of Thessalunica made in conjunction with Methodius, by whom also, the Christian Gospel was preached to the Bulgarians. Croatia, the ancient Liburnia, forms one of the boundaries of Dalmatia, and use the same characters as those hereafter exhibited. The New Testament, translated by Truber, the paster of Tubingen, was first published there in 1551; and the whole of the Scriptures at Wistenburg in 1584.

Georgians have a Patriarch of their own, who resides upon Mount Sinai in Palestine radition asserts, that the Georgian version of the Scriptures was originally made in ras called Georgia, from the Georgi, who anciently nemory the written character is supposed to be dedicated; but others assert, that it anguage, Postellus states, that the Georgians use in their prayers, although they employ ave received its name from the Martyr St. George, the patron Saint thereof, to whose autants of Iberia are supposed to have been a wandering people of Christian Gospel was brought into Georgia in the time of the Emperor Constanrartaric tongue upon all other occasions. particularly appropriated to that territory which letters is said to have been formed from the Greek, which Asia between the Caspian and the Black Seas, but oroniated to that territory which lies between the This country inhabited the adjacent countries. Mount Caucasus

the eighth century, by Euphemius a native of Georgia, and founder of the Iberian Monastery upon Mount Athos, in Greece, where his original MS. was discovered in 1817. In this version, however, the greater part of the books of the Old Testament was lost in the wars between the Persians, the Turks, and the Georgians. The ensuing letters are written from left to right, and are the cursive or ranning-

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namely, the larger acred letters, the leaser acred letters, and the characters used by the common people.

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signified a province of Asia situate in Russian Tartary, beyond the River Volga, on the banks of the Kama, Bielaia, and Samara Its ancient capital was called Bulgar, Beloger, Belgard, or Borgard; and it stood, according to some authors, thirty versts, or about twenty-two English miles and nalf from the Kama, and five versts, or about three miles and an half from the Volgs: others state, that the

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Volga flowed past the town. Bogard was first ravaged by the Tartars in 1224, and in 1500, was entirely destroyed by the Russians. Little Bulgaria is a province of European Turkey, bounded on the North by the Danube and Walachia, on the East by the Black Sea, on the South by Mount Hæmus, which separated it from Romania and Macedonia, and on the West by Servia. It was formerly denominated

us, which separated it from Romania are to the above letters are in the Bulgarians will be found in the sevente before 3 and in vols. vii:.--xi. of Gibbon's Decking and in vols. viii:--xi. of Gibbon's Decking and in vols. viii:---xi. of Gibbon's Decking and in vols. viii:---xi. of Gibb

Russian; but the Sclavonian Тив modern Sclavonian language is that known at the present time under the title of the itself with its own peculiar character, is still used RUSSIAN

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offices of religion in Russia. Schlætzer considers it as preferable to all the European languages; and it is soft, expressive, and rich in words, but it requires great flexibility in the organs of utterance. The Russian alphabet of the present day is exhibited in the annexed table; but even the native grammarians are yet undetermined respecting the real number of their letters, for whilst some estimate them at forty-one, others have stated their amount to be only thirty-eight, but it should be observed, that some of them are but notes of accents in pronunciation. sian historians relate, that the Muscovians were without a written character until the time of Michel the Paphlagonian, Emperor of the East, in A. D. 1034-40; under whom they assumed the letters and language of the Sclavonians. According to the same authorities, however, it is ascertained that previously to this adoption, about the year 959, Olga, the wife of Igor, Sovereign of Russia, sent Ambassadors to Otho, Emperor of the West, for Missionaries to instruct her people; which was complied with by St. Adelburg, Bishop of Magdeburg, in 962. These Missionaries brought with them many curious Grecian pictures of Saints, &c. which are frequently illustrated by inscriptions in the Greek characters of that period; and it has been imagined that not the Art of Painting only was then introduced into Russia, but all that the inhabitants of the Don knew of letters, perhaps until the time above mentioned, was thus originally made known to them. Upon the introduction of the Christian faith, according to the profession of the Greek Church, the Russians received the paintings of the Messial, the Saints, and the Virgin, brought to them by their new instructors with the greatest joy; but to protect them from destruction in a country where they could never be renewed, they were covered over with plates of gold excepting the faces only. The Sclavonian, or ancient Russian version of the Scriptures has been already mentioned; but although this be the received translation of the Greek Church, it is no longer intelligible to the common people of Russia. For their peculiar use, M. Gluck, a Livonian clergyman, made a new translation into the modern Russ, which was printed at Amsterdam, in 1698; but as the language, even since that period, has undergone considerable changes, the Emperor Alexander I. by an edict issued in February 1816, directed the Holy Synod of Moscow to prepare a New Version, and in March 1819, it was commenced by the publication of the four Gospels. The Bible in the Sclavonian tongue used formerly to sell in Russia from twenty-five to thirty rubles, or about six guineas of English money; but a new edition of it appearing in 1751, reduced its price to about twenty shillings. St. Cyrill of Jerusalem is the favorite Russian commentator upon the Scriptures; but the

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works of St. John of Damascus, St. Gregory Nasianzen, St. John Chrysostom, and Ephraim of Edessa, are also held in very great estimation. Having thus briefly stated some few particulars concerning the Russian language, we now proceed to exhibit its alphabet, the types of which were cast at the Letter Foundery of Dr. Fry in Type Street, from Alphabets in the Vocabularia totius orbis Linguarum comparativa, collected and published by command of the late Empress of Russia, in 2 vols. 4to.

#### Modern Russian Alphabet.

Figure.	Pow.	Name.	Va-	Figure.	Pow-	Name.	Va- lue.
Aa	a	Az	1	Ιï	ï	1	10
Бб	b	Buki	2	Kκ	k	Kako	20
Вв	v	Vædi	-	$\lambda_{\lambda}$	1	Liudi.	30
$\Gamma_{\Gamma}$	g	Glagol .	3	Мм	m	Mislæt.	40
1				Нн			
Еe	ď	lest	5	Oo	o	On	70
жж	j	Schiviet	-	Пπ	p	Pocoi.	80
Ss	z	Zelo	6	<b>P</b> . <b>P</b>	r	Rtzi	100
З з	z	Zemlia	7	Сc	s	Slovo	200
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Modern Russian Alphabet continued.

Figure.	Pow-	Name.	Va-	Figure.	Fow	Name.	Va.
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Ъъ	уегі	Scha	_	уу	i	Ischitze	_

The authorities which have been used in this article were the following, besides those which are continually referred to: Grammatica Russica, by H. W. Ludolf. Oxford. 1696. 8vo. Universal History. Vol. xxxv. Rossiskya Grammatika, Michaila Lomonosova, Petschatana (Petersburg.) 1755. 8vo. written entirely in the Russian language. Elemens de la Langue Russe, by John Baptiste Maudru. Paris. 2 Vols. 8vo. New, Familiar, and Easy Dialogues in Russian and English, by James Langen Petersburg. 1809. 8vo. Travels in Russia, Tartary, and Turkey, by Edw. Daniel Clarko, LL. D. Cambridge. 1810. Quarto. See also Marsden's Catalogue of introductory books published by Messrs. Boosey and Sons. 8vo.

# GOTHIC LANGUAGES,

WHEN the sons of Japhet migrated from their paternal country of Asia, they spread themselves over Europe, and

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the earliest of their tribes which inhabited the cuests of this quarter of the world were the Celts, and the Commerians or Gomerians, so called from their leader Gomer, the eldest son of Japhet. It is supposed by Herodotus, Melpom. i xi. that they were settled in Europe before the year 680, B. C., about which time also the Goths who were descended from Magog, the second son of Japhet, seated .. emselves in the countries lying to the North of the Baltic, in the South-Eastern part of Sweden. Jornandes, in his Re. rum Geturum, in which he abridges the Gothic History of Cassidorus, states that the Goths originally came from the great Peninsula of Scandinavia, which consisted of the present countries of Sweden, Norway, Lapland, and Finland; thus supposing them to have been a formed colony, instead of an original nation. It has also been imagined, that after the Gomerians had passed from Asia through Russia, and had been for some time settled in Sweden, that Bric, a contemporary with Serug, the grandfather of Abraham, conducted a colony from the original people across the Baltic, which peopled the Islands in that sea, the Chersonesus, and the adjacent countries upon the Continent. Westward of the Goths were seated the Vandals. who from their great similarity to them in manners, complexion, religion, and language, are imagined to have formed a part of the same great and powerful people. The Goths by subsequent emigrations, continued to spread over Sevthia, and around the Euxine Sea, whence they despatched numerous colonies to Dacia, Thrace, and Mosia or Italy. every where forcing the ancient inhabitants to give up their possessions. Although the Goths, according to the situations of their colonies, were called by many different names, yet through all they consisted of the same people. Thus, the Eastern Goths, who occupied that part of Scandinavia which borders upon Denmark, were denominated Westrogoths, or Western Goths, which was softened by the Latine into Visigoths; whilst those who dwelt in the more Eastern parts near the Baltic, were entitled Ostrogoths, or Eastern Goths. This nation is also called by such writers as were their contemporaries, Getes and Scythians; but their name of Goth is said to have been derived from the ancient German word Goth, good, from their kindness and hospitality to strangers. As the Goths increased in Scythia, they resolved to seek new settlements; and for this purpose they emigrated Eastward, under the conduct of the celebrated Odin, or Woden, King of the Asgardians, who were seated in that part of Scythia beyond Mount Imaus to the West. After performing many heroical adventures, Woden led his band into Sweden, where he settled and reigned until his death; after which he became so famous, that the Northern nations considered him as a Deity, and paid divine

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nonours to his memory. The country of Asgardia, from which Woden had emigrated, consisted of that part of Asia, which is now called Georgia, and which is connected on the Southern parts with Persia; and in this land, before he encroachment of the Roman Armies had induced him o retire from it, he had invented the characters which are now called the Runic. The forms of these letters consisted chiefly of rude straight lines, which greatly resembled the Roman Capitals; and perhaps it was from this circumstance that they derived their name from Rune, an ancient Gothic word, signifying to cut, or else from Ryn a a furrow, or from Ren a gutter or channel, as these letters were originally cut in wood or stone, and thus bore a strong resemblance to a trench. Others, however, derive the word Runic from Ryne, Art, and especially signifying Magic. Dr. Hickes, and some who have coincided with him in sentiment, consider that the Runic character was borrowed from the Roman; though Wormius remarks, that they might with equal propriety be traced to the Hebrew or Greek, but their form, number, order, and names, shew that they are independent of all these, and history proves that they were known long before Christianity penetrated into the remoter regions of the North. The Runic characters considered as magical signs, were divided into several classes: thus, the Noxious, or Bitter Runes, are said to have been employed by the Goths to bring evils upon their enemies; the Favourable to avert misfortunes; and the Medicinal were inscribed upon the leaves of trees for healing. Some were used as a preservative against shipwreck, and others as antidotes against poison; and they were alike adopted to render a mistress favourable, or as protections against the resentment of enemies; in all which operations the difference consisted chiefly in the ceremonies observed in writing them, in the materials upon which they were written in the places where they were exposed, and in the manner in which the lines were drawn, whether like a serpent, a circle, or a triangle. But the Runic characters were also used for writing epistles and epitaphs, and in Blekingia, a Swedish province, there is a road cut through a rock which contains an inscription in Runic characters, that is said to have been engraven there by King Harold Hyldetand, in honour of his father, about the commencement of the seventh century. The more ancient these inscriptions are, the better they are sculptured, and they are rarely written from the right hand to the left, though it is not uncommon to meet with the characters carved in a perpendicular line, and reading either upwards or downwards; in which latter case the reader turns to the left hand, and reads upward until he arrives again at the top, when he proceeds a second time to the bottom. This resembles the ancient Greek manner of writing, called the

Boustrophedon, or ox ploughing, mentioned at page 423 ante. The greater number of the ancient Runic more uments now extant, are large fragments of rocks, bearing inscriptions, dispersed through the fields of Norway and Sweden; although they are sometimes to be found in There is also another churches and other buildings. species of Runic alphabet, somewhat varying from the above, but still consisting of sixteen letters, called Runor, which are to be found upon certain stone obelisks erected in Sweden to the memory of the dead, and of some of which, an account may be found in the Philosophical Transuctions, for 1737-38, vol. xl. No. 445, art. iii. page 7. The peculiarity of this dialect, which, from the letters of it being found in Helsingland, is called the Helsingic, is, that the same character according to its place and altitude between two parallels, is indicative of different sounds. It is supposed that in the reign of the Emperor Gallienus, about the middle of the third century, that the ancient Goths were converted to Christianity by the Greek Priests, Ascholius, Bishop of Thessalonica, and Audius, who, it is also imagined, introduced their letters with their religion. The Runic language, on account of its magical uses, lay under the severest denunciations of the Christian Missionaries: and it is asserted, that Uphila, or Gulphila, a native of Cappadocia, and Bishop of the Goths in Mœsia, a country which lay to the South of the Danube, next the Black Sea, invented those characters called the Moso-Gothic, after the Greek letters, and translated the Holy Scriptures into them and his own native language. In the tenth and eleventh centuries, the Runic gave way to the Roman character, and at length the Missionaries succeeded in wholly abolishing them, as they tended to preserve the people in their ancient superstitions. In the year 1001, Pope Sylvester 11. and Sigfrid, a British Bishop, persuaded the people of Sweden to resign their use, and in 1115, they were condemned in Spain by the Council of Toledo. They were abolished in Denmark in the beginning of the fourteenth century, and in Iceland soon after. The use of the Runic character in England, did not last beyond an hundred years; for the Saxons, who were proud of tracing their descent from Wo-den, introduced his language and letters, when they became possessors of this Island in the fifth century, but in the sixth, when they were converted to Christianity, those characters were considered unhallowed and necromantic, and the common writing of them grew obsolete. A few monuments of their use, however, still remain; such as Danish and English medals, having their legends engraven in the Latin tongue, and the Runic letter; inscriptions cut upon stones, a coin struck by King Offa, and a few manuscripts. Farther information upon the history and construction of the Runic language, may be found in

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Antiquitates Danica, seu Litera Runica et Lexicon Runicum, by Olaus Wormius. Hafn. 1651. Manductio compendiosa ad Runographiam, Scandiam untiquum, recte intelligendam, by Olaus Wormius. Upsal, 1675. Folio. Lexical Islandicum; sive Gothica-Runa, vel Lingua Septentrionalis Dictionarium, by Gudmundus Andreas. Hafn. 1683. 4to Linguarum Veterum Septentrionalism Thesaurus Grammatico-Criticus et Archaologicus, by the Rev. George Hickes. Oxford. 1705. Folio. De Runarum in Seccia Antiquitate, origine, occasu, by J. Ihre, and U. Von Troil. Upsal. 1769-73. 4to. Northern Antiquities, translated from the French of Mons. P. H. Mallet, Lond. 1770. 2 yols. 8vo.

GOTHIC.

BISHOP Ulphilas, after all the disputations on the subject, is allowed to have produced his Moso-Gothic characters, the first properly denominated Gothic, at a period long subsequent to the first use of the Runic. This prelate who received his education in Greece, was held in great estimation by the Emperor Constantine the Great, who called him the Moses of his time; in the year 359 he assisted in the Council of Constantinople, and in 378 he was dispatched on an embassy to the Emperor Valens, to solicit a settlement for the Goths in Thrace, after they had been expelled by the To accomplish this purpose, he is said to have embraced Arianism; and to have propagated Arian doctrines in his own country. His translation of the entire Scriptures was made from the Greek text, although from its frequent coincidence with the Latin, it has been suspected of having been interpolated since his time from the Vulgate; but notwithstanding, its unquestionable antiquity and general fidelity, have procured for it a very high degree of estimation with Biblical critics. The celebrated copy of this translation however, has not descended to the present time in an entire state; and the only parts extant in print, are, the greater part of the four Gospels, and some fragments of St. Paul's Epistle to the Romans. The manuscript original. whence some of these extracts have been published, is called the Codex Argenteus; it contains the four Gospels according to the version of Ulphilas, and is preserved in the University of Upsal. It is written on vellum, and has received the name of Argenteus from its silver letters; it is of a 4to. size, and the veilum leaves are stained with a violet colour; and on this ground the letters, which are all uncial or capitals, were afterwards painted in silver, excepting the initial characters and a few other passages, which are in gold. From the deep impression of the strokes, Michaelis has conjectured that the letters were either imprinted with a warm iron, or cut with a graver, and afterwards coloured; but Mr. Coxe, after a very minute examination, was couvinced that each letter was painted, and not formed in the

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manner supposed by Michaelis. Most of the silver letters have become green by time, but the golden ones are still in good preservation. This Codex is mutilated in several places, but what remains, is for the most part perfectly legible. It was originally discovered in the year 1597, in the Library of the Benedictine Abbey of Werden in Westphalia, whence it was brought to Prague; and, at the capture of that City in 1648, was sent as a valuable present to Christina, Queen of Sweden. It subsequently came into the possession of Isaac Vossius, at whose decease it was bought by Count Magnus Gabriel de la Gardie for 2501. and was by him presented to the University of Upsal. Three editions of it have been printed. Concerning the age of this manuscript, there are two hypotheses; one is, that it is written in the language and character of the Mœso-Goths, the ancestors of the present Swedes, as they were used in the fourth century, and that it is a true copy of the ancient version of Ulphilas: this is supported by Junius, Stiernhelm, David Wilkins. Benzelius and Lye. Others on the contrary, assert that it is a translation in the Frankish idiom, copied in the reign of Childeric, between the years 564, and 587: and this is warmly detended by Hickes, La Croze, Wetstein and Michaelis. Of the remainder of Ulphilas' translation of the Scriptures, some fragments of the Gothic version of St. Paul's Epistle to the Romans were discovered by M. Knittel, in the year 1756, in a Codex Rescriptus belonging to the library of the Duke of Brunswick at Wolfenbuttel: they were published by him in 1762, and reprinted in 1763, in 4to. at Upsal, with notes by lire. The Brunswick manuscript contains the version of Ulphilas in one column, and a Latin translation in the other: it is on vellum, and is supposed to be of the sixth century. In the eighth or ninth century, the Origenes Isidori Hispalensis were written over the translation of Ulphilas; but the ink had become so exceedingly pale as not to admit of deciphering the original manuscript, without great difficulty. In the year 1817, a most important discovery was made among the Codices Rescripti, in the Ambrosian Library, by the Abate Angelo Maio, the present keeper of the Vatican Library; of two voluminous manuscripts containing the Mœso-Gothic translation of the thirteen Epistles of Saint Paul, made by Ulphilas, the loss of which has hitherto been a subject of re-These manuscripts are covered by Latin writing of a later date, and appear to have been written between the fifth and sixth century. What is wanting in one manuscript is contained in the other: and eight of the Epistles are entire in both, so as to afford the advantage of colla-The characters are stated to be large and handsome; the titles of the Epistles are at the head of the manuscripts; and there are also marginal references in the same language. Of this very important discovery Signor Maio has announce

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ed his design of publishing an extensive specimen in a preliminary dissertation: and a complete fount of Mæso-Gothic types has been cast, at the expense of a public-spirited individual, of different sizes, both for the text and notes. Besides the two manuscripts just noticed, the Abate Maio has collected twenty more pages in the Mæso-Gothic language, extracted from several other Codices Rescripti in the same library; in these pages are found those parts of Ulphilas' version of the Gospels, which are wanting in the mutilated editions of the Codex Argenteus, together with great part of the homilies or commentaries on them; and, what is still more interesting, some fragments of the Books of Ezra and Nehemiah: a discovery this, of the greatest importance, as not the smallest portion of the Gothic version of the Old Testament was hitherto known to exist. Farther particulars concerning this valuable version may be found in Analecta Ulphiana, duabus comprehensa dissertationibus: prima, de Codice Argento et litteratura Gothica; altera, de Moesogothorum nominibus, substantives, et adjectives, by J. Ihre, Upsal. 1769. 4to. Travels in Russia, Poland, and Sweden, by Archdeacon Coxe. Lond. 1784-90. Michaelis J. D. Introduction to the New Testament, translated with notes by H. Marsh. Lond. 1801-2. 8vo. 4 Vols. Introduction to the Holy Scriptures, by the Rev. T. H. Horne, vol. iv. already referred to, from which a large portion of the foregoing has been abstracted.

Olaus Magnus in his legendary History of the Northern Nations, states that the Goths wrote upon wood, upon the bark of trees, and sometimes upon skins made into sheets, with an ink prepared from coal finely pulverised with milk or water. An introduction to this language will be found prefixed to the Dictionarium Suxonico et Gothico-Latinum. by Edward Lye, and Owen Manning. Lond. 1772. 2 Vols. The Gothic, according to the hypothesis of Dr. Hickes, as it appears in the Preface to his Institutiones Grammatica Anglo-Saxonica, contained in his Thesaurus already referred to, is the original root of the old Saxon, or Anglo-Saxon; the Franco-Theotise, and the Cimbric or old Icelandic. Out of these, from the Anglo-Saxon he deduces the English, Native Scots, Low Dutch, and the Frisic; whilst from the Frankic are derived the German dialects, and the Cimbric gave birth to the Icelandic, the Norwegian, the Danish and the Swedish. In treating therefore of some of these languages, this scheme shall be adopted in preference to our own given at the commencement of this article.

ANGLO-SAXON.

This forcible and ancient tongue, is properly speaking, the original English; as, it was the language used by our Saxon ancestors in Britain, when they arrived here from the Cimbric Peninsula and its vicinity, in the fifth and sixth cen-

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turies, soon after the Romans had quitted it. As they advanced, their laws, language, manners, government, and rude customs, overspread that land, into which the late possessors had introduced somewhat of civilization and art. The name Saxon, originally signified upon the Continent, that of a single State; although it subsequently denoted an association of Nations; and Ptolemy mentions, that antecedent to A. D. 141, a people called Saxones, inhabited the territory now called Jutland, and three small islands at the mouth of the Eibe; at present denominated North-Strand, Busen, and Heiligland. Their derivation he considers to have been from that tribe of the Scythian people, which was called Sakai or Sacæ: and the word Sakai-suna, or the Sons of Sakai, to have been the etymon of their name. The Saxon tongue, as it was anciently spoken in Britain, is divided into three periods: namely, firstly the British Saxon, which extended from the entry of the Saxons on the invitation of Vortigern, A.D. 449, until the invasion of the Danes under Ivar in 867; secondly, the Danish Saxon, which extended from the Danish invasion till that by the Normans in 1066; and thirdly, the Norman Saxon, which commencing at the Norman accession, was very rude and irregular, and which continued until near the close of the twelfth century. After this period, the French tongue prevailed in England, and even so early as the year 652, the Anglo-Saxon youth were commonly sent to France for their education. The laws were also written and administered in Norman-French, until 1376, when King Edward III, in the fiftieth or jubilee year of his reign, granted as an especial favour, that judicial proceedings might pass in English, but that all acts should be enrolled in Latin. Several of the ancient charters however had been written in Anglo-Saxon, and that the knowledge of their liberties might not be lost, some of the British Monasteries, particularly those at Croyland and Tavistock, still taught the language. Of the pure Anglo-Saxon as it was spoken during the first period, there is but one fragment now extant, which occurs in King Alfred's version of the Venerable Bede's Ecclesiastical History. There are several specimens of the Danish Saxon still preserved, especially some translations of the Scriptures finely illuminated: and of the third, there are also many MSS. scattered through the kingdom. The antiquity of the Saxon tongue is by some authors carried to an extravagant excess; as they do not hesitate to declare that it was spoken in Paradise. and that from it are derived the names of the antediluvian Patriarchs. It was, however, more probably descended of the Teutonic of the upper dialect, which embraces most of those tongues, now known as the offspring of the Gothic.

Notwithstanding the probability of all this, Mr. Astle considers that the Saxons arrived in Britain wholly ignorant of letters; and that they adopted the Roman charac-

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ters which they found in this island, which had already been barbarised from their original Italian form by the British Romans and Roman Britons. Dr. Whittaker, in his History of Manchester, Lond. 1775, 4to. Vol II. p. 329, also supports this argument against Humphrey Wanley and Dr. Hickes, who maintained that the Anglo-Saxon Alphabet arose out of the Gothic. Perhaps, however, an

orms, and were written after the present Roman shape. imilar to the Roman letters of the present day, and have the same names and powers; out about the ninth century however, the small letters, g, r, and t, lost their Saxon There are twenty four letters in the Anglo-Saxon alphabet which are formed The other alterations are equally evident.

Astle prefers their shapes to any which have since been cast.

Birth of Christ; but those letters that are marked with a cross, are of modern addition. ncient Roman Alphabet which was derived from the Ionian like the G in the ensuing Saxon alphabet, was curved into C; the triangu-Greek letters to the Roman language, the Gamma, which was originit still bears the name of Ionic, were altered, amended, or improved by the Latin To shew their similarity, we have annexed a very It was used about 714 years before the Greek letters, in conse-

to D, and to give the sound of Gamma, C

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#### Mozern Saron Alphabet.

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E C C C C C Child.  D D D D D Down.  E E E E E Hair.  F F F F f Find.  L G Z G G Gem.  H D h H h Heavy.  I I I i Ionian.  K k K k Kent.  L l L l Land.  M D m M m More.  P P P P P Rend.  R p R T Rend.  T T T T T T T T T T T T T T T T T T T	A	A	a	A	a	В	er.	N		n	N	$\mathbf{n}$	None
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There are also many abbreviations almost peculiar to the Saxon tongue, on the principal of which we have already treated; but those at present in use are the following—

# T et, and. T thaet, that.

In the Saxon Chronicle, a small g with a dash above it, stands for gear, or year; k with a comma, is kynning, or kyng; t scored through is put for vel, or; b with a similar mark is biscop, or bishop; and cw with a dash over the latter ter put for cwett, or yutoth. From this exhibition of the language, after a brief list of the best works introductory to its study, we proceed to mention two noble national memorials which are written in it.

The best Anglo-Saxon Grammars, independent of that by Heke already mentioned, are the following-Dictionerism Saxonico-Latino Anglicum: accessit Elfric Abbatis Grammatica Latino-Saxonica cum Glossario, Edited by William Somner. Oxf. 1669. Folio. Grummatico Anglo-Saxonica Somner.

Thwaites. Oxford. 1711. Octavo. The Radiments of Grammur for the English-Saxon Tongue, By Elizabeth Elstob. Lond. 1715. 4to. Grammatica Anglo-Saxonica, By Francis Junius, Edited by Edw Lye. Oxford. 1743. Folio. A Dictionary in two Vols. Folio, was also compiled by the latter, and published by the Rev. Owen Manning in 1772. Folio. 2 Vols. The Elements of Anglo-Saxon Grummar, by the Rev. J. Lisson. 1819. 12mo. But perhaps the best and the most interesting for learners, is that published in 1823, by the Rev. J. Bosworth, as it is conducted according to the genius of the Anglo-Saxon itself, and not according to that of the Latin. which was the case in nearly all of the former. There are also copious notes appended to the whole work; and it is preceded by a curious introduction concerning the origin and progress of Alphabetic writing, with fac-similes, For the history of the Anglo-Saxon language with specimens of it at different periods, see The History of Great Britain to the Accession of Edward VI. by Robert Henry, D.D. Lond. 1771-93. 4to. 6 Vols. and A History of the Anglo-Sarons, by Sharon Turner. Lond. 1799-1805. 8vo. 4 Vols. The Anglo-Saxon manuscripts are adorned with a great variety of ornamented and illuminated capital initials; but Mr. Astle supposed, that writing was very little practised by the Britons previous to the coming of Snint Augustine, in the year 596; for although suppositious alphabets of the abortginal Britons have been produced, yet there is not extant a single manuscript that is written in them. The Saxon writing, as it is usually denominated, is of five kinds; namely, first Roman Saxon, which prevailed in England from the coming of St. Augustine, until the eighth century; and of this there is a beautiful manuscript of the four Gospels, preserved in the Royal Library in the British Museum, the second leaf of which is of a violet colour, containing many gold and silver letters.

Manuscripts in the Roman Saxon character, are frequently written partly in uncial or initial letters, and partly in demiuncial, interspersed with some small letters. The second class of Saxon writing, is the Set Saxon, which began to be used about the middle of the eighth century, and continued common until the same period in the ninth: but it was not wholly dis-used till the commencement of the tenth. In the manuscripts of this class, the square or cornered capitals are used in the titles of books, and the first letters are often converted into the figures of men or animals. Towards the latter end of the ninth century, as learning became diffused in England under than century, as learning became diffused in Engineer under the patronage of King Æifred, and as many more books were in consequence written, an expeditions, or free Saxon hand, which had specified by the contrary only in a few charters of the latter part of the eighth century, came into general use; this is the third species of manuscript Saxon, which Mr. Astie de-nominates England Saxon. In MSS. of this period. nominates Running-hand Saxon. dominates Running-hand Saxon. In MSS, of this period, there are many contractions which render them exceedingly difficult to be read. In the ninth, tenth, and beginning of the

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next century, many volumes were written in England in the fourth class of Saxon manuscript, or what is denominated Mixed Saxon; that is to say, partly in Lombardic, partly in Roman, and partly in Saxon characters. Early in the tenth Roman, and partly in Saxon characters. Early in the tenth century, the fifth kind of written Saxon, nearly, the Elegant Saxon, was first used; and it was more beautiful, says Mr. Astle, than the writing either in France, Italy, or Germany, at the same time: it lasted until the Norman Invasion, but it was not wholly disused until the twelfth century. This subject the reader will find interestingly pursued and illustrated, in Astle's Origin and Progress of Writing: in a Descriptive Catalogue of the Manuscripts in the Slowe Library, by the Rev. Charles O'Connor, D.D. Buckingham, Bil8-19. 4to 2 vols.: in the Elements of Angle Saxon Grammar, by the Rev. J. Bosworth, Lond. 1823. 8vo.: and in Professor Ingram's Observations on the Manuscripts of the Saxon Chronicle, prefixed to his new translation of that invaluable record, Lond. 1823, 4to.

man Saxons, is the celebrated record formerly called Liber de Wintonia, or the Winchester Book, from its place of custody: but now known by the name of the Domesday Book Of several of the abbreviations peculiar to this ancient and noble survey, we have given an account, at page 250 ante, together with a specimen of its text, and a notice of the printed edition of it at page 258; but we now purpose giving a concise history of its original, a description of the autograph manuscripts of it, and another extract from the contents, to elucidate the manner in which it was originally compiled. name of Dom-Boc, or Domesday Book, has most commonly been derived from the Saxon Dom, doom, or judgment; alluding by metaphor, to those books out of which the World shall be judged at the Last Day. But although its wonder-ful minuteness in the survey of British property, might have made this the original of its title, yet its Latin names do not support it, since they signify only, the Winchester Rolls, he Writings of the King's Treasury, the King's Book, the Judicial Book, the Assessment of England, &c. The design of the work was to serve as a register of the possessions of every English freeman, although it is still doubted whether it were done to record the names and divisions of England in imitation of the Winchester Roll of Ælfred; to ascertain what quantity of Military Service was owed by King William's chief tenants; to fix the homage due to the Sovereign; or to record by what tenure the various estates of Britain were held. The survey was, however, undertaken by the advice and consent of a great council of the Kingdom, which met immediately after the false rumour of the Danes' intended attack upon England, in the year 1085, as it is stated in the Saxon Chronicle; and it did not occupy long in execution, since all the historians who speak of it, vary but from the year 1083, until 1087. There is at the end of the second volume, a memorandum, stating that it was finished in 1086. The manner of performing this Survey was expeditious: certain Commissioners, called the King's Justiciaries, were appointed to travel throughout England, and to register - upon the oaths of the Sheriffs. the

Lords of each Manor, the Priests of every Church, the Stewards of every Hundred, the Bailiffs and six Villains, or Husbandmen of every village, — the names of the various places, the holders of them in the time of King Edward the Confessor,

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book, may be had on reference to the fac-similes engraved for the Reports of the Commissioners of the Public Records, whence the foregoing account has been abstracted: to Registrum Honorts de Richmond. Lond. 1722. Fol. Sign. B .: to The History noris de Richmond, Lond. 1722. Fol. Sign. B.: 10 Ine History and Antiquities of the County of Lelcester, by John Nichols. London. 1725. Folio. Vol. I. part I. pp. xxx.xxxiii. To Collections for the History of Worrestershire, by the Rev. Treadway Nash, D. D. Lond. 1782. Folio. Vol. II. after p. clxviii. and to The History and Antiquities of the County of Secrey, by the Rev. [Owen Manning, and William Bray. Lond. 1804.

Folio. Vol. I. after p. cviii.

There are however other manuscripts known by the name of Domesday: as a third survey was also made by the order of William I., and a fourth is preserved in the Exchequer, which, although it be an abridgement of the former, consists of a very large volume. The Remembrancer's office in the Exchequer, likewise contains another copy of the fourth Domesday, which is adorned with several paintings and illuminated letters, referring to the reign of King Edward the Confessor, whence it has been erroneously supposed, that it was executed in bis time. Alfred the Great is said to have had a Register, which has been lost since his period, which was known by the name of Dom-Boc; but although some historians have considered this as a survey of England, made when that Monarch is reported to have divided his kingdom into Counties, Hundreds, and Trethings, yet it was in reality only the Code of Anglo-Saxon laws; but the title of Dom-Boc being the most familiar to the English, and William's survey being considered as similar in contents, the popular name was transferred to it. There is preserved in the Archives of ExeterCathedral, another Domesday book, usually called from that circumstance, the Exon-Domesday; which consists of a description of five counties in the Western parts of the kingdom, copied from the in-quisitions made for King William's survey. Its size is a small Polio, having 532 double pages of vellum, the sking, or sheets of which, vary in number from one to twenty; as the lands of each of the more considerable tenants begin upon a new sheet. and those of almost every tenant upon a new page. A difference of hand-writing and a variation in the contractions, evince that different scribes must have been employed upon the several parts of the manuscript; and three leaves relating to the Hundreds of Wilts, are in a character more minute, and upon smaller vellum than the rest of the work. The whole is now bound in one volume; but about the close of the fourteerth. or the beginning of the following century, the manuscript was made up in two volumes and paged, yet so erroneously, that the leaves containing the lands of the same tenants, were placed at different parts of the book. Other manuscripts called Domesday, or those of a similar nature, are the Inquisitio Ellensis, a Register of the property of the Monastery of Ely. preserved in the Cottonian Library in the British Museum: the Winton Domesday, a Survey made in the reign of King Henry I. to ascertain the demesnes of Edward the Confessor in Winchester, preserved in the Archives of the Society of Antiquaries; and various copies of the Boldon Book, an Inquisition

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into the rents and tenures due in the Bishopric of Durham. the name of which was derived from the village and parish of Boldon, near Sanderland, by whose inhabitants its contents were furnished. Authentic copies, and particular descriptions of all these, will be found in Libri Censualis vocati Domesday. book, additamenta ex Codic. Antiquits, printed on the Record Commission. Lond. 1816. Folio. We now proceed to give a short account of the printing of these Records, inasmuch as they form an important epoch in the modern typographical histhey form an important epoca in the mouer it typographic in in-tery of England. The excellence and authority of the Domes-day Survey, had been celebrated by many eminent authors, and a printed edition of it had long been considered as an Antiquarian desideratum; but it was not until the year 1767, when the House of Lords determined upon printing their Journals and Parliamentary Records, that its publication became strongly urged to their consideration, that in the event of any acci-dent occurring to the original, so important a national register might not be entirely lost. In consequence of this petition, the Treasury Board referred the affair to the Society of Antiquaries, as to the means through which it should be published; whether by printing-types, or by having a copy of the MSS. engraven in fac-simile. By the examination of several eminent printers, it was learned that according to the first plan. very many unavoidable errors would occur; and a tracing of the record was then proposed to be transferred to copper-An estimate of the expense of this was next ordered by the Treasury Board, which amounted to £20.000, for the engraving and printing of 1250 copies, each containing 1664 plates; but this sum, however proportionally moderate, was considered too large, and the first plan was again reverted to. It was then proposed by the learned Dr. Morton, that a fount of fac-simile types should be cut under his superintendance, but this scheme was also abandoned, on account of the letters in the MSS continually varying in their forms. Notwithstanding this objection, however, there is in *The History of the Origin and Progress of Printing*, by Philip Luckombe, Lond 1770, 870, p. 174., a specimen of Domesday type cut by Mr. Tho. Cotterel, the Letter Founder; but the fac simile is unfaithful, and the extract very corrupt. When Dr. Morton's plan was resigned, the publication of Domesday was entrusted to Abra-ham Farley, Esq. F. R. S. a gentleman of great record learning, and who had access to the ancient manuscripts for upwards of forty years. His knowledge, however, did not induce him to differ from his original in a single instance, even when he found an apparent error; he preserved in his transcript every interlineation and contraction, and his copy was then placed in the hands of John Nichols, Esq. F.A. S. &c and was finished in 1783, in two volumes, Folio, with the types of which we have shewn specimens, devised by himself, and cut by Mr. Joseph Jackson

Another Angle-Saxon record, which in national importance may almost claim an equality with the Domesday-book, is the celebrated Saxon Chronicle, of which we shall give an account and specimen, abstracted from the elegant new translation of that work, by the Rev. J. Inzram, already referred to. The Saxon Chronicle, or as it might be more properly denominated from the extensive nature of its contents, the Saxon Annals is an original and authentic record of the most important transactions of our Saxon ancestors, from their first arrival it Britain down to the year 11 4; but the register commences will an introduction containing a memoranda of the great events and periods from A. D. I. compiled from various sources. opens with the following account of England, which by the kim-ness of Mr. Richard Taylor, we present to the reader printed with the same elegant Anglo-Saxon types, as those whichex ecuted the beautiful edition of the Chronicle already mentioned and the interesting Grammar of the Rev. J. Bosworth.

W 11 ctured; but Professor Ingram appears to imagine that the Kent and feasex Chronicles, might have been commonced inder the direction of feasex Chronicles, might have been commonced the superintendance e Archibishops of Canterburg, or perhaps beyond the superintendance The names of the Writers of these Annals can be little more than noon TRANSLATION

hund mila bhad ehta hund

t hundred miles long, & two hundred five nations: English, & British

his decease in 923; whilst he also seems to t King Alfred himself might have written of about the eighth or ninth century, which is kept at Corpus Christi College, Cambridge. Of all these, a particular description, with fac similes, will be found in Professor Ingrams translation of the Secretary translation of the Saxon Annals, pp xix xxiv. where also far ther references, upon this particular, subject are given.

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separate Chronicle

, which are preserved in the

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The Anglo-Saxons do not appear to have possessed any nattive versions of the Scriptures, until the eighth century; when about the year 706, Adheim, the first Bishop of Sherborn, translated the Fasiter into Saxon, and soon after, Exbert or Eadfrid, Bishop of Lindisfarne, produced a version of the four Gospels, a MS copy of which is now in the Cottonian Library in the British Museum. Some years subsequent, Venerable Bede translated the whole Bible into Saxon; and several portions of the Scriptures, as well as entire versions of them were executed after his time. Thus, King Alfred had translated about half the book of Fasims when he died in the vera 900; and Ælfric, Archbishop of Canterbury in 995, put the Pentateuch, Joshus Judith, a part of the book of Kings, Esther, and Maccabees, into Anglo-Saxon; and it is probable that all these were made from the old Latin. The Anglo-Saxon Bible has never yet been printed entire, but King Alfred's version of the Psalms, with a Latin text interlined, was published by John Spelman in 1640; and the Pour Gospels have been thritee printed.

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>1

ENGLISH.

THE history of our own tongue is related in those of the Gothic nations, since with them for the foundation and with words derived from numerous other dialects, the present language is constructed. Previous to the entry of the Anglo-Saxons, the speech of Britain is supposed to have been the Gaelic, which very much resembled the language of France at that period; and of which only corrupted fragments remain in the Gaelic or Erse tongue, the Irish, and the Welsh. When Britain became a Roman province, its laws and public edicts were written in the Latin; but as there had been at all periods but a limited resort of Romans hither, as this country was not entirely reduced until about the middle of the fourth century, and as the Imperial Legions were recalled to defend their own land soon afterwards, their language never made the progress here which it did in Lombardy, Spain and France. Of the calling in of the Saxons by Prince Vortigern, to oppose the Scots and Picts we have already spoken; for their services they were rewarded with the Isle of Thanet, but as they grew powerful they became discontented, and dispossessing the inhabitants of all the country to the East of the Severn, they spread the Saxon language throughout England. We have also treated of the changes and decline of the Anglo Saxon tongue, its mixture with the Norman French, and have exhibited its ancient Roman and Gothic characters; it now remains only to be added that the English letters used for printing, were originally of the Black, or Gothic form, the change of which for the Roman and Italic, we have already detailed at pp. 2, 10 of the present volume. For ornamental works, however, and for reprints of ancient books, the Black character is still occasionally used; but the modern shape of it no longer retains the manuscript form which it originally bore when it

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was intended to appear as the hand-writing of some conventual scribe. The Modern Black, as it is termed, is a fat-7 faced full-bodied letter, in which the Roman Capital is conjoined with the Gothic Text.

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Christianity is said to have been introduced into Britain by some Disciples of St. Philip, about the year 60; but there is not any proof of the English possessing any part of the Scriptures, before the Anglo-Saxon Versions already men-The first translation of them into the English tioned. tongue, which is now known, was about 1290, by an anonymous author; but there are three manuscripts of this Version now extant. In 1380, the celebrated John Wickliffe translated the whole Bible, from the Latin Vulgate, into the English of his own time; and in 1429, manuscript copies of his New Testament were sold for four marks and forty pence. 21. 16e. 8d. of the present currency, or about 201. calculating the difference of the value of money; thus rendering it a volume, which only the wealthy could ever hope of procur-Of this New Testament, an elegant printed edition with an historical and biographical introduction, has been published by the Rev. H. H. Baber, Lond. 1810, Quarto. A violent opposition followed the Christian labours of Wicklife, through all of which he was supported by the powerful and excellent Duke of Lancaster; but in 1408, a Convocation held at Oxford under Archbishop Arundel, decreed that there should not be any future translation of the Scriptures. and that none should read the books of Wickliffe; in consequence of this constitution, several persons were put to death for reading of the Scriptures in English. In 1526, appeared the first printed translation of the English Bible, in Octavo, which was published anonymously in Belgium; but the supporters of it were William Tindal, John Frith, and William Roye, who re-translated it from the Greek Version. The copies which were sent to England were speedily bought up and destroyed, but before 1530, numerous other editions appeared in Holland. It was not until 1535, that a printed translation appeared, allowed of by the royal authority; but in that year Miles Coverdale published a Folio Bible, under the sanction of King Henry VIII., and in 1536. the excellent Lord Cromwell, a great patron of the Reformation, issued injunctions for its dispersion and general use throughout the realm. Farther information on this subject, which now becomes involved with the History of Printing. will be found in the Rev. T. H. Horne's Introduction to the Scriptures, Vol. II. p. 240, and in A Complete History of the several Translations of the Holy Bible and Testament into English, by the Rev. John Lewis. Lond. 1818. Octavo. The history of the English language in general will be illustrated by the following works : A Dictionary of the English Language: with a History and Grammar of the same, by Samuel Johnson. Lond. 1755. Fol. 2 Vols. Vide also the Edit. by the Rev. H. J. Todd. Lond. 1818. 4to. 4 Vols. History of English Poetry, by Tho. Warton. Lond. 1775. Quarto. 3 Vols. An Introduction to Dr. Lowth's English Grammar, by John Ash, LL. D. Lond. 1780, 12mo.

An Introduction to the English Grammar, by Robert Lowth. Lond. 1804. 12mo. The History of Greut Britain, by James Petit Andrews, F. S. A. Lond. 1794. 4to. 2 Vols. Essay on the Language and Versification of Chaucer, prefixed to the Edit. of the Canterbury Tales, by Thomas Tyrnhitt, F. R. S. Oxf. 1786. 4to. Vol. 1. Diversions of Purley, by John Horne Tooke. Lond. 1798-1805. 4to. 2 Vols. The Philological Works of James Harris. Lond. 1803. 8vo. 5 Vols. Works of Thomas Sheridan, M. A.

#### FRANKIC.

About the reign of the Emperor Valerian, A. D. 254, that ancient Roman valour and discipline, which had so long maintained the quiet possession of Gaul, after its final conquest in the time of Julius Cæsar, began to decline, and the German nations, which had never been wholly subdued, made more frequent and more successful attacks upon France, than they had ever previously effected. One of these nations was composed of a people, whose ancestors are said to have escaped from the destruction of Troy, and who resided with the Saxons upon the banks of the Rhine, called Franks; because it is supposed, that the inhabitants of the Lower Rhine and of the Weser, about the time of the Emperor Gordian, A. D. 236, entered into a confederacy, and assumed the name of Franks, or Freemen. Valesius states, that upon their first irruption into Gaul, in A. D. 254, they were but few in number, and were repulsed by Aurelian. the subsequent Emperor; but two years after they made a second attack, and were again defeated by the Co-Emperor Gallienus; and that at length they poured into Gaul in such numbers, that Gallienus, no longer able to resist them, entered into a treaty with some of their Chiefs, to defend the country against all its various enemies. The defeat and captivity of Valerian in Persia, A. D. 260, caused the Franks again to enter France, and that with such success, that they could not be driven thence for fifteen years afterwards; when the Emperor Probus totally defeated them in Spain, pursued them even to their own country. and there erected several forts to keep them in subjection. Nine of the Frankic kings then promised annual tribute to the Emperor, which was paid until the year 287, when, with the assistance of the Saxon pirates, they again visited the coasts of Gaul, and brought away very considerable spoils. The Emperor Maximian entered the country of the Franks in the following year, and reduced two of their kings; whilst to such of the nation as were willing to reside in Gaul, he allotted certain lands in the vicinity of Treves and Cambray. About A. D. 293, the Franks possessed themselves of Batavia and part of Flanders, but those places they were forced to surfender to Constantius, the father of the Emperor Constantine the Great, by whom

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ey were transplanted to Gaul. By the year 355, the irrepressible spirit of the Franks had triumphed over forty cities in Gaul; and although the Emperors Julian and Theodosius both defeated them, yet in 388, they cut off a whole Roman army which was sent out against them, and antil the war with Aëtius, they were harassed more by their fellow-barbarians than by the Roman Legions. Pha-

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468.... Typographia. The foregoing Alphabet, which is cited by Duret in his Histoire de l'Origine des Langues de cest Univers, p. 267, is given on the authority of the Abbé Triteme; and a mix-ture of Gothic, Greek, and Saxon, may be observed in its characters. It is farther related, that in these letters one Vuastbal, wrote a history of the Frankic conquests, comprising a period of 758 years. This species of writing is also

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Additional information upon the subject of this language, may be found in Glossarium, &c. ad Caroli-Magni, & Ludovici Pii Capituli, by Pet. Pithzus, Paris, 1630, 8vo. Tresor des retherches et Antiquitez Gaulois et Françoises, by P. Borel, 1655, 4to. Les Origines de la Langue Françoise, by G. Menage, Paris, 1630, 4to. Essai sur les langues en général, sur la langues François en particuliér, et us progression depuis Charlemagne jusqu'à present, by M. Sablier, Paris, 177, 8vo.

TRUTONIC AND GERMAN.

UNTIL very recently, the modern Gothic character was not wholly disused, inasmuch as it was retained for the printed books of this language, although somewhat altered in a way peculiar to the German nation. The term of Modern Gothic, however, does not always apply to the descent of the black letters, but to the barbarity of their shape; as the writing which is known by that name, spread itself over Europe in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, and took its rise in the decline of the arts, from the indolence of the conventual scribes and schoolmen. It consists of a degenerate form of the Latin writing, and it lasted in general, until the restoration of the arts in the fifteenth century, but much longer in Germany and the Northern nations. The ancient language of Germany was called the Teutonic, and many consider it to have been one of the original tongues of the world. In its present state it is parted into two grand divisions, the upper and the lower: of which the former embraces two principal dialects, namely, firstly, the Scandinavian, Danish, or perhaps Gothic, to which belong the languages spoken in Denmark, Norway, Sweden, and Iceland; and, secondly, the Saxon, of which the English, Scots, Frisian, and the other languages, to the north of the Elbe, are derivatives. The Lower Teutonic dialect comprises the Low Dutch, Flemish, and the other provincial tongues peculiar to the Netherlands. The Teutonic tongues thus extend from the boundaries of Lapland and Finland, to the verge of France and Italy. The similarity of the Tentonic to other languages is particularly striking; since, in the middle ages, the German and English Missionaries who travelled to Sweden, Denmark, and Norway, were readily understood in each of those countries. whose works on Gothic Literature have been already re-ferred to, mentions a striking similarity between the Old Teutonic and the Persian languages, and its conformity to the Greek is also remarkable.

That dialect which is known by the name of Low German or Low Dutch, is at the present period confined to the rulgar in Pomerania, the kingdom of Westphalia, and the Duchies of Mecklingburgh and Holstein; it bears a great resemblance to the Dutch. The High German, or High

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Dutch is remarkable for its strength and richness; and it is apoken in the greatest purity in Upper, and a part of Lower Saxony, and upon the banks of the Necker and the Mayne. There are twenty-six letters in the German alphabet, the names, powers, and sounds of which are as follow:

	The German Alphabet.										
Name .	Pi	cure.	Po	we!	Sound.	Name.	Fig	jure.	Po		Sound.
Ah	X	a	A	a	Ahl	En	98	n	N	n	None.
Bay	B	6	В	Ь	Bale.	0	D	٥	0	6	Robe.
Tsay	Ø	c	c	c	Fits.	Pay	P	p	P	þ	Pale.
Day	D	b	D	a	Date.	Koo	á	a	Q	1-	Cool.
A	Œ	e	E		1	Er	1	E2	1	•	Ardent.
Ef	8	f		f	Free.	Ess	8	ſŝ	1	1	Save.
Ghay	G	8	G	g	Gold.	Tay	E	t	1		Tame.
Hah	Đ	þ		1-	Hand.	00	u	п			Mood.
Ee	3	i	ı	1	Field.	F∪₩	23	b	v		Favour.
Yot	L	i	_	li	You.	Vay		m	w		Wine.
Kah	R	ŧ	K	k	Kind.	Iks	æ	T			Erpend.
Ei	8	ı	L	ı	Life.	Ipsilon		ŋ	Y		Fine.
Em	W	m	M	m	Mine.	Tset	3	8	z	ΓI	Fitz.

The German language has also certain compound consonants and diphthongs, which are usually cast in type as one character; and which are of the ensuing forms and powers:

	Pow.		Pigare.	Power.	Sound	1
<b>35</b> 6	Ææ		Dæi	œ	Jenne.	l
ď)	Ch	{ Character. } Sex	fi .	si	) Bird.	
ď	Ck	Bakken.	ıπ	88		l
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	er.		ß	8Z		
11.	2		8	13	Tateztet.	•
а	11		øů!	ue	Waning.	

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The Black Gothic character in Germany, is now almost superseded by the Roman for the purposes of printing; but it was nevertheless considered prudent to furnish the compositor with the forms of the ancient letters, that he might be pussessed of an instructive reference if he should ever be called upon to compose from an old German publication. For the same reason too, the following copy of the German Manuscript Running hand is also given, as the characters used in common writing would be absolutely unintelligible to an English printer, without such an assistant.

CAPITALS.

CC QLLLLPAPLICEZ Lx ID & L DE COLLL VR TTU POV XYZ.

SMALL LETTERS.

Elmnogy y NA

Farther information on the history of the German language, will be found in those works already referred to concerning the Gothic; and a list of the best elementary works in Messrs. Boosey's Catalogue of Foreign Grammars, Dictionaries, Sec. Lond. 1892. 800.

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### CELTIC LANGUAGES.

THE descendants of the ancient Celts were the aboriginal inhabitants of Gaul and Britain; but the name more properly belonged to certain of the Gauls, who resided in a district situate between the Seine, the Marne, and the Garonne, which was denominated Gallia Celtica. The Celts and Scythians were both descended from Gomer, the eldest son of Japhet, who, as some as have assumed, was the eldest son of Noah; and of their early settlement in Europe, we have already given some notice at page 448, aute. The generations of Gomer, were soon divided into several nations, bearing peculiar names; as the Gomro or Cymro, the Issue of Gomer; the Galatians or Gauls, so called from the redness of their hair; and the Celtes, which name is supposed to have been taken from the Greek word Keletai, used by Homer and Pindar to signify Horsemen. Cluverius makes the Celtic nation to comprise the regions of Illyria, Germany, Gallia, Spain, and the Britannic and other Northern lsles; and he states that they all spake the same language. A host of historians might be quoted to prove that this was the Gomeraeg, or Language of Gomer, which is almost the same as that still preserved by the Welsh; but which, from its extent, became parted into a great variety of dialects, each bearing the indubitable marks of its descent. That the Gomeraeg still retains the Hebrew tongue in very astonishing purity, may be seen in Charles Edwards' very learned publication, entitled, Hebruismorum Cambro-Britannicorum Specimen. Oxf. 1675. 4to.; where may be seen a considerable number of phrases taken out of the Old Testament Hebrew, opposed to those in the Welsh tongue, and the likeness is so strong, that it is evident they were once the same, varied only by the accidents of time and place. These and other particulars however, the reader will find discussed more extensively in Parallellismus et convenientia duodecim linguarum ex matrice Schyto-Celtica Europa. Wittemb. 1697. 410. Antiquites de la Nation et de la langue des Celtes, by P. Pezron. Par. 1703. 8vo. Archaologia Britan. a British Etymologicon, by Dr. Parry. Oxf. 1707. Foli. Literator Celta, by V. E. Loescherus. Leips. 1728. 8vo. Memoire sur la langue Celtique, by M. Bullet. Besangon. 1754-60. Fol. 8 Vols. See also the authorities cited in The Universal History, ancient part, vol. vi. pp. 6, 7, 30: and for initiatory works for the different branches of the Celtic tongue, vide that article in Marsden's Catalogue of Grammars, &c. already referred to. The primitive letters of the Welsh, says Dr. Fry, Pant. p. 805, formed an alphabet of sixteen radical characters and powers, and twenty-four secondary ones : and it was abciently known under the name

of Coelbren y Beirz, the Billet of Signs of the Bards, or the Bardic Alphabet. Their original manner of writing was by cutting the letters with a knife upon sticks, which were most commonly squared, and sometimes formed into three sides; consequently, a single stick contained either 4 or 3 lines. Thus in Ezek, xxxvii, 16. "Moreover, thou son of man, take thee one stick, and write upon it. For Judah, and for the children of Israel his companions: then take another stick, and write upon it, For Joseph, the stick of Ephraim, and for all the house of Israel his companions." The squares were used for general subjects, and for stanzas of four lines in poetry; the trilateral ones were adapted to triades, and for a peculiar kind of ancient metre, called Triban and Englyn Milwyr, or triplet, and the Warrior's Verse. sticks, with writing upon them, were put together, forming a kind of frame, which was called Peithumen, or Elucidator: and was so constructed, that each stick might be turned for the facility of reading; the end of each running out alternately on both sides of the frame. See also the introductory chapters to A Dictionary of the Welsh Language explained in English, by W. Owen, F.A.S. Lond, 1803. 8vo. 2 Vols.

#### GARLIC.

THE Gaelic, or Erse tongue, is the name of that dialect of the ancient Celtic, which is spoken in the Scottish Highlands; and of the derivation of the word Gaëlic, Gealic, Gallic, or Gaulic, we have already spoken. As a language, it possesses but two genders; and its nouns are like those of the Hebrew, varied by their prefixes, and not by their terminations. Of the old alphabet no traces remain, but Mr. Astle has engraven specimens from several Gaelic manuscripts, from the ninth or tenth century down to the fifteenth, which are written in the Anglo-Saxon characters of the various periods. Notwithstanding the acknowledged antiquity of the Gaëlic, the translation of the Scriptures into it is but a recent work; yet the language is far from being on the decline, as it is regularly taught and frequently spoken even in the metropolis of England. Two excellent works on this dialect of the Celtic, are An Analysis of the Galic language. Edin. 1778. 8vo., and A Galic and English Dictionary. Lond. 1780. 2Vols. 4to. both by W. Shaw.

IRISH.

GENERAL Vallancy, in his Grammar of the Irish tongue, Dublin. 1762. 8vo. considers this speech to have been a Punic-Celtic compound; and that Ireland was once inhabited by a colony of Scythians, which had originally emigrated from the borders of the Euxine and Caspian Seas to Spain; that they were instructed in the letters and arts of the Phonicians, and that finally they settled in Ireland, about 1000, or perhaps only 600 years B. C., carrying with them their

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own elementary characters. As the ancient Irish alphabet, however, differs from that of any other nation, the General farther supposes, that it might have been derived from a colony of the Carthaginians, which also settled in their country, about six hundred years previous to the Birth of Christ. Some of the native Irish historians have adopted hypotheses concerning the origin of their nation, language, and letters, which are extravagant in the extreme. Thus the antiquity of the former has been endeavoured to be magnified by a quotation from a volume, entitled Leabhuir Dromnasnuchta, or the Book with the White Cover: which states. that the three daughters of Cain took possession of Ireland, and that the eldest, who was called Bamba, gave her name to it. Dr. Parsons in his Remains of Japhet. Lond. 1767. 4to., relates that Ireland was inhabited about three hundred years after the Flood; and Dr. Keating, in his General History of Ireland. Lond. 1738. Folio, makes one Partholanus, a Giant, who had descended in a right-line from Japhet, to have first landed on the coast of Munster, on May the 14th, in the year of the World 1978. Concerning the language, equally improbable legends have been brought forward; for some have written that Fenius Farsaidh, or Finiusa Farsa, a great grandson of Japhet, esta-blished a school on the plain of Shinar, where he invented the Hebrew, Greek, Latin, and Irish characters. More of these wild traditions will be found in the Authors already referred to, and in Ogygia: seu Rerum Hibernicarum Chrunologia, by R. O'Flaherty, Lond, 1685, Fol. and A History of Ireland, by S. O'Halloran. Dublin. 1803. 8vo. 3 Vols. In speaking of Irish manuscripts, Dr. Keating states, that the Psalter of Tara was written about 972 years before the Birth of Christ; and there is an ancient alphabet, called an Irish one, now extant, which is said to have derived its title of Babeloth, from the names of certain persons who assisted in forming the Japhetian language. Mr. Astle, however, following Dr. Whittaker, asserts that all the lash characters were of Roman origin, derived either from Britain, or from the Northern nations; and he also states, that he never met with an Irish manuscript of a greaterage than the tenth century. To prove that the inhabit-ants of Ireland in this manner received their letters, he adduces their stone monuments, their coins, their manuscripts, and the works of their Historians; and all these arrive at the same conclusion. Such monuments as bore inscriptions, even the most ancient, were marked with letters which were evidently of Roman, and Roman-British formation; added to which, there were none of such great antiquity, as to have been engraven before the intercourse of the Irish with the British. They prove, however, the use of letters previous to the arrival of St. Patrick in Hibernia, A. D. 430; but the Caledonians, who also used the Roman

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letters, had probably imparted them by that easy intercourse which they could carry on with Ireland, between
Port Patrick and Carrickfergus. Sir James Ware, in his
Works concerning Ireland. Dublin. 1764. 2 Vols. Fol. remarks, that there were not any coins struck in that country,
excepting those by the Saxon and Danish Kings, until the
twelfth century; previous to which, he proves from the Annals of Ulster, that gold and silver were paid and reckoned
by weight. The forms of the native Irish letters, however,
as used at the present time, may be seen in the following
specimen, and they bear evidence in themselves of their
British original; but, says Mr. Innes, in his Essay on the
Antiquities of Scotland and Ireland, the Beth-Louis-Nion,
or Alphabet of the Irish, is nothing but an invention of the
Seanachies; who, since they received the use of letters, put
the Latin Alphabet into a new arbitrary order, and assigned
to each chaacter the name of some tree.

to	to each character the name of some tree.							
		igun			Pronunciation.	Derivation		
26	4	A	d	941lm	aw	the fir tree		
33	ь	В	ь	<b>B</b> ejċ	beh	a birch tree		
£	c	C	c	Loll	k	an hazel tree		
	б	D	d	<b>D</b> ալր				
Æ	e		е			an saben tree		
250	F	F	f			an alder tree		
Œ	3	G	g			an ivy plant		
3	,,	I	i	30 <del>5</del> 4	i French	the yew tree		
T	1.	L	ı	<b>T</b> այր	1	a quickset tree		
41	1	M	m	91u17	m	a vine plant		
31				Жиլո	n	an ash tree		
0	0	0	0	O14	o <b>.</b>	the broom tree		
P	p	P	P	Pejt	peh			
33			r			an elder tree		
S		8	8			the willow tree		
L	2	1-	t			the furze shrub		
11	u	U	u			the heath shrub		
S	h	H	h	Tatat	h	the white thorn		

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The Ancients also	used the following	g in their alphabet.

Figure.		Name.	Derivation.		
Qq	q	celht	an apple tree		
Z s	ro i	rehalt	a black thorn		
Ng	175	nzjadal.	a reed stalk		
Ea	e4	eabab	an aspen tree		
Io	10	ויי מולקו	a gooseberry tree		
Oi	01	op	the spindle tree		
Y	¥	սլել	the honeysuckle		
Ae	46	amancoll	from amhan		

a river, and coll, the hazel tree, of which were made hurdles for crossing of brooks and rivers.

The foregoing eighteen modern letters are, as other alphabets, divided into vowels and consonants. The former of these are called by the Irish, Gutaide, or sounds; and they consist of the letters a, o, u, which are named broad vowels, and e and i, which are denominated small. The consonants are termed Consoineada, and these are parted like the Greek into mutable and immutable. Of the former class there are nine, namely b, c, d, f, g, m, p, s, and t; and these, by placing a full point over them, or by the addition of an h, either entirely lose their original sound, or else become aspirated. "Some of these mutables," says Mac Curtin, in the Irish Grammar annexed to his English-Irish Dictionary, Paris, 1732, 4to. p. 675, "some of these mutables, or prime consonants, when an h is added, or a point set over, as it is most common in the manuscripts of the four last centuries, become other consonants, which therefore may be called Secondaries, or auxiliary mutes; and others are entirely suppressed. The force or pronunciation of each secondary mute is so different from the prime. that it requires a farther explanation." The following table will make these mutations sufficiently intelligible

rio "	1. 1			•••	or an articular bu		• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	·y	•••		ingibie:
33	D		V		Mo Brig, my Power.	41	m)		V		Don Muir, to the Sea.
Ĺ	ċ	50	ch		Mo Coans, my Head	ន	ŕ	e ch	h		Mostil, my Bye.
Ď	ŏ	;	y or	2	A Daine, O Man.	太	Ė	2	h	5	Mottob, my Side.
`,	Ė	Ē	h	-		Þ	þ	into	f		
B	3	1	gh		Roga, Choice.						

"When Pearon is aspirated," says Mac Curtin, "It is entirely mortified, and it is the following vowel that carries the sound; notwithstanding the f must not

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As abbreviatious and contractions were common in the ancient manuscripts of all countries, so they were used to a considerable extent in those of the Irish; and many of these were retained, even after they possessed a knowledge of printing. Mac Curtin, at the close of his Grammar, p. 716, gives a collection of such as he considered of the most common occurrence; and the following list will acquaint the reader of the present work, with those which are usually executed in type.

4 . ar 7 . chd
4 . air 9 . ea

2 . éa

3 . fr. chd
7 . nn
7 . ui
1 . . eadhon
1 . rr

Before we proceed to a brief account of the Oghum characters of the Irish, we shall insert one specimen of their language in connection, executed in the Bethliusnion character, which was cast by Dr. Fry, for the purpose of printing the Irish version of the Pentateuch, of which Genesia and Exodus have already been finished and stereotyped, under the title of The two first Books of the Pentateuch, from the original Irish Manuscripts, under the direction of T. Connellan, Lond. 1820. 12mo. We have, as usual, followed the passage by a reading in the Roman character, and a literal translation into English.

See Biobliu Naomhtha, for the following, printed for the

British and Foreign Bible Society, Lond. 1817, 8vo.

NA SEANBAITE, Caibidil IX. PROVERBS, Chapter IX.

heagna: agus éolus na náomh is tuigse sin. wisdom: and the knowledge of the Holy is understanding so-

11 Oir is liomra meideochthar do For there is by me multiplicity of

lacte, 7 rojulion ran bliabna bo raozail. lacthe, agus foirlion ar bliadhna do shaoghail. thy days, and I extend the increase of the years of thy life.

be smitted, for it maintains the primitive sense of the word, as A fir-feil, you

12 41a bịon tứ chiona, biảich từ crionna, biảich từ crionna, biảich từ crionna, biảich từ khait be thou

chioña duit féin: acht má tharcuis ighionn críonna dhuit féin: acht má tharcuis righionn wise to thy self: but if scorn

Cú, 17 Cú FÉID AMAID 10MCONAP É. tú, is tá féin amáinn iomchoras é. thou, it is thyself only that shall carry it.

The OGHAM, or OGUM characters of the Irish, have been considered by many to afford a sufficient proof of the antiquity of their national letters; but when their nature and power are fairly considered, it will be found that nothing is gained by adducing them in evidence. The words Oga, Ogum, and Agma, are asserted by Ledwich in his Antiquities of Ireland, Dublin, 1790, 4to. to have been adopted from the Celtic language, and that they imply letters written in a cypher, or indirectly an occult science: it may also be remarked, that Ogan, in the Welsh lunguage, is divination. By the Ogham writing is understood a cryptographic, secret, or cypher writing, which some would fain deduce from the Druids, since O'Halloran remarks, that the Irish letters were anciently called Feadh, alluding to wood; and that the Oghams are still entitled Ogum Croable or the Branchy type, as the name of each character is taken from some tree. The sentiments of Mr. Innes, upon this subject, have been already given; but O'Halloran, in farther proof of the Druidical origin of the Oghams, adds, that the first Irish writings were made upon tablets of the Birch tree, and that the pieces, when collected, were called Taibhle-Fileadh, or the Philosophical Tablets. Now, there is not an author of any authority who pretends even to have seen these tablets; but although the terms alluding to wood be allowed, yet, in all the Northern languages, in the words expressive of an alphabet, there is the same reference : thus, in the Icelandic, Runa Stafr, or the Mysterious Staff, also signifies an alphabet, and in the German Bog-stab, or Buchstab, is synonymous with a letter, but literally translated, it means a Staff of the Beech tree. Moreover, the Oghams were a secret or stenographic writing, a short hand, in which it has been asserted that the Druids alone sealed up their mysteries; but such historians as treat of them, deny that they had any letters at all; since they perpetuated their knowledge and ceremonies by oral traditions only, and therefore still less was it probable, that they should refine upon the arts of language and writing, by inventing a sacred or hieratic character. We proceed, however, to give

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some description of the Oghams themselves, concerning which so many disputes have taken place. According to the best authors on the subject, they were of three species; the first of which was called Ogum Beith, wherein the Irish letter Beith, the first consonant, was used instead of the wowel a, and the remaining vowels, with the diphthongs, were transmuted in the following manner.

A E I O U | AE IA UA IO OI bh fe ng dl ft | mm | ll | bb | cc | pp.

Dio, and Suetonius in his Life of white Casar, relate of that Emperor, that when he wished to preserve his writings a secret, he used the fourth letter after that which he should have employed; and leidorus also shews, that he sometimes waried his own cypher upon the same principle. Hence it is evident, that this Ogum was known to the Romans; and one of the many kinds of cyphers which they used, was introduced wherever they planted a colony or station; by which means they became adopted by all the rude people whom they had subdued. There are also instances of an Ogum of the above kind, as well as the ensuing, being used by the Runes, the Anglo Saxons, and other Gothic and Celtic tribes. The second species of Ogum was denominated Ogum Coll, from the letter Coll or c, forming the sole key to it, as in the following instances:

A E I O U EA IA OI IO UA

. cc cccc ccccc cc CCC The third species of Ogum was entitled the Ogum Croabh, or Branchy type, the age of which has already been It was composed of certain strokes and marks, which derived their power of letters as they stood in relation to one principal horizontal line, over or under which they were written. The upper part was called the left hand, and the lower the right, whilst the perpendicular, and diagonal lines which were drawn through it, stood for twenty letters, parted into five divisions of four letters each, the first fifteen standing for the consonants, and the last five for the vowels; and for the diphthongs and the letter z, arbitrary marks were added. It was in this Ogum, that King Charles I. corresponded with the Earl of Glamorgan, when he was in Ireland. There was however another kind of Ogum, which approached somewhat nearer to alphabetical writing, consisting of arbitrary characters called Marco-Wormius states, that they agreed with the munnic Runes. Runic in shape and name, but it is asserted by O'Halloran, that the occult manner of writing used by the Northern nations, was derived from Ireland. These however, by many circumstances and authorities, might be proved to be of Teutonic origin. Farther information on the subject of the Ogham characters will be found in Dr. Rees' Encyclopædia, and in Astle's Origin and Progress of Writing, p. 179, pl. 31.

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There are also several other languages belonging to the Celtic family, as the Manks, which sprang from the ancient Irish: the Cornish and the Armorican, or that dialect spoken in Bas Bretagne, in France, which were derived of the British: but as these are all now written in the Roman character, we do not proceed to notice them more particularly. Indeed, with respect to the foregoing collection of Ancient and Modern Alphabets, and their illustrative historical and antiquarian notices, we must be free to say, that a similar article, containing such a number of specimens, references, authorities, and interesting citations, has never before appeared in a work of this nature. It has stretched considerably beyond the limits to which we originally intended to have confined it, and yet we have frequently felt reluctance at the narrow space into which it has been compressed; for as the history of a language is pursued, a thousand lights and links of connection, which had before been unobserved, burst upon the view, and astonish by their novelty or their singular analogy. certain, that a large work on the ancient and modern languages of the world, with copious quotations and examples, must prove interesting to all persons; since philology is not alone concerned, but history, poetry, the rise and improvement of arts and science, are all involved in it. The production of such a work must, doubtless, occupy many years, and "the task," we may say, almost in the very words of Sir William Blackstone, "may be reserved for some masterly and comprehensive genius, elegant in his style, faithful in his narration, able and impartial in his judgment, who, being possessed of a thorough insight into the rise and gradual improvements of kingdoms, the frequent revolutions of ecclesiastical and civil polity, the classics, historians, and poets of all nations, the manuers of their people at different periods of time, and their general connections and commerce; he, being accurately supplied with particular facts and occurrences by the laborious researches of others, might regulate and bring to perfection in a finished degree, this great and extensive work." Even in the pages which we have devoted to the subject, although they have consisted of little more than of compilation, the occupation has been one of considerable labour. Whilst we are sensible of its defects, and acknowledge that if the article were to be written again, many improvements might be made, we may still sum up what has been done, in the quaint but expressive language of old Anthony & Wood, and say, "a painful work it is, I'll assure you, and more than difficult, wherein what toil hath been taken as no man thinketh. so no man believeth, but he that hath made the trial."



### CHAP. XIII.

#### THE DUTY OF AN OVERSERS.

Those persons whose ability or ambition induces them to aspire to the attainment of this most important situation, should be endowed with something more than an ordinary capacity, together with an even and forgiving temper; and whose rules of conduct should be founded upon the strict laws of Equity and Justice; not deviating in the least from the above standard in order to favour either the Employer or the employed; otherwise he may stand a fair chance of losing the good-will and esteem of one, or perhaps both of the above-named parties; he should always bear in mind, in all his actions, that a reciprocity of interests exist between them, which is indispensably necessary to the forwarding and excellent execution of any branch of Art, and that it falls precisely within his province to promote and maintain this union of interests to the utmost of his ability.

In houses where several presses are employed, an Overseer is indispensably necessary; it is true a small concern, may be conducted by an Employer, if he were not liable to frequent interruptions while in business, together with the necessary absence from home: on which occasions a trustworthy Agent is of course required, not only to answer all applications, but also to attend to every department of the machine; otherwise (compositors and pressmen being at all times dependant on each other) one or both may probably stand idle, from the absence or neglect of duty in either party, or from the Employer's engagements abroad. Having presumed thus much, we shall now venture to offer a few hints for the benefit of those who are now, or who may hereafter be selected to fill this highly important situation.

It has been observed, that an Overjeer should be the first and last in attendance at the office, in order that he may be satisfied that every person on the premises does his duty, likewise to observe that those on the establishment attend at their regular time: \*we suggest, that the task of an early attendance in the morning would be more properly filled by the second in authority; because the principal manager would of necessity be frequently required to attend late in the evening to dispatch proofs, &c.

The office being now swept, and the type selected from the dust by the errand boy, that found in the body of the rooms should be given to the Overseer, or his deputy (if any), who ought immediately to distribute it, and then walk round the house in order that he may discover if the compositors:

<sup>\*</sup> We are sorry to offer a remark apon this subject; but its justness, we trust, will excuse as with those whom it may concern—we have known few, very few, of the gentlemen of the above class, who deserve our praise for a conscisutious fulfillment of every portion of this most important duty.



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have followed his example, by disposing of the portion found in each respective frame, likewise that no pie be left either on the frames, bulks, or gallies; should there be any, even a single letter, he should insist upon its being immediately distributed. Attention to this particular is of vast importance, because it not only keeps the office clear of pie, and thereby gives it a neat sppearance, but it also prevents useful and valuable sorts from being buried, which would

necessarily accrue from such neglect of duty.

He should likewise be possessed of a thorough knowledge of the state of every work in progress, and as a more effectual mode of expediting them, he may adopt the following rules. 1. In companionships, no man should be suffered to hold too large a taking of copy, otherwise he would keep his companions composing at random much longer than were necessary, which would of course retard the imposition of the sheet, and also require a much greater scope of letter to enable them to proceed with the work; from which cause, it is not at all improbable, but that the pressmen will have to remain idle in the first instance, and consequently the compositors in the second. 2. The moment a sheet is composed and made up, he should order in to be imposed, provided there be room on the imposing stone for that purpose. 3. The same expedition should be used in getting the proof pulled when imposed. Reader should receive it instantly, send it up leaf by leaf. to be corrected; which the Overseer of course will direct to be forwarded immediately, should no obstacle occur to prevent it 5. This duty performed, a second proof should be taken, which the reader should forward to the author. (if required,) or otherwise read it carefully through for press, the same expedition should be used in getting it finally corrected for working off.

A close attention to the above hints will enable an Overseer to conduct and keep in regular motion a concern of great magnitude, not only with satisfaction to himself, but also with credit to his Employer, for punctuality and

dispatch of business.

Soits not in general use, chases, furniture, leads, &c. should be locked up under the care of the Overseer'or his deputy, in order that they may be in readiness when required; he would also find a memorandum book, in which an entry of such sorts should be made, highly beneficial.

He would also find a book, which we shall denominate a Press Book, of vast importance, in which he should regularly every evening, make an entry of the paper intended to be given out to wet, for the various works in progress. Upon the pressmen enquiring of him what they are to lay on next, he informs them, and in this book fills up the necessary columns, agreeable with the heads of the annexed table.

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# The Press Book.

į	Nov. 7.	When given out
, and a second s	Magna Charta. Puckle's Club. Physiconomical Portraits	Names of Work.
	575 575	,
, g	OE'S	Signature.
	Nov. 19	Date when laid on.
,	W. Lovatt.	1 .
	90 m. b. 10 m. 90 m. t. 10 m.	Hour when laid on.

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After he has entered into this book an account of the paper intended to be wet, he sets down the same articles with the numbers and date, in a book called the Wetting Book: from this book the warehouseman receives his instructions for giving out the paper. It frequently happens in works of a large number, that one sheet is laid on by two presses; when this is done it is entered as the Portraits, in the annexed plan; viz. signature G, the outer form was laid on November 15, by William Watts, at 8 o'clock in the morning; the inner form @ 2, was laid on November 17, by William Lovatt, at half past ten in the morning. appear, to some, triffing and unnecessary to specify in this book the hour of the day the pressmen lay on a form; but we would observe, that it is of importance to the Overseer, in his arrangements to provide for the presses, to be able to ascertain, by referring to the book, when they are likely to be off. This book also informs him of the quantity of wet paper, and the length of time it has been wetted; this is of importance when authors sometimes detains proofs so long, that the paper allotted for those sheets will mildew, if it be not hung up to dry within a seasonable period.

It is generally the business of the Overseer to revise the proofs for press, in doing which he will be careful not only to ascertain whether all the corrections marked in the proof are made, but also to cast his eye carefully over the sides, head, and bottom of each page, as it frequently happens that the folios or catch words drop out of the form in lifting it off the imposing stone; also in leaded matter, letters at the beginning and end of lines frequently fall out of their proper place, and by their standing crooked have a slovenly appearance. Before the revise is given to the compositor. the names of the pressmen who are intended to work off the form, should be entered in the Press Book. It should be an invariable rule with the Overseer to require a second revise. in order to see if all the corrections have been made which were marked in the first: this is indispensably necessary, particularly with foul compositors, as no sort of dependance can be placed on them. He should, (where there is not a person engaged expressly for the purpose, as is the case in houses employing ten or fourteen presses,) go regularly round, about every quarter of an hour, to the different presses, and examine their work, point out defects, if any, and glance again over the heads, sides, and bottoms of the pages, to see if any thing has been drawn out by the balls. which frequently occurs from bad justification of the lines, and careless and improper locking up of the form. An active and conscientious Overseer will not be content with merely managing the concerns of the composing-room; he will also see that the business of the warehouse is attended to with regularity and accuracy; and that the warehouseman, errand boys, and apprentices do their duty.

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Having, in the present Chapter, presented the Overneer with the plan of a book called the Press Book, we shall introduce another of equal importance, (which we shall call a Check Book,) for the purpose of checking the bills of both the Compositors and Pressmen; by this book he would be enabled, at a single glance, to discover if any and what signatures are overcharged, the amount of corrections, and likewise by what pressmen the forms were worked at press; there being also a column left at the end of the table for him to euter down any observations which may think necessary upon any of the items mentioned.

of a Book for checking Compositors' and Pressmen's Bills.

In addition to the foregoing tables, we shall now lay before our readers another, equal in every point of view, which we shall designate with the title of the Job Book.

p <b>hia.</b>	486Cypograp
Date	
Compo. Names	
Compo. Charge	
Pressus. Name	
Ditte Charge.	
Corrections.	
No. printed	
For whom printed	
Size and Description.	
Pol.of Day took	
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# Typographia....487

By means of a Job Book, an Employer or Overseer will be enabled at a single glance, (without referring to the bills of the Compositors and Pressmen), to discover not only every charge that had been made upon a Job, but also for whom, the number printed, and the size and description. together with the full charge. An Overseer should be in possession of a thorough knowledge of every branch of his profession. It not unfrequently happens, either from a press of business, or the absence of the reader, that he may be necessitated to read for press; he should make it his study to qualify himself for that important duty: to this point we most particularly invite his earnest attention. and beg to reter him for useful hints upon this subject. to Chap. IX. p. 228, &c. ante. And should he conscientiously sustain the character which we have laid down at the commencement of this article, he will not only acquit him. self with credit to his employer, but also prove by his conduct that he is an ornament to society in general.



Th' man who aspires to this high station, Should for his guide seek moderation; And Justice keep in view : But few there are who reach the wish'd for height, That justly keep strict equity in sight, And render each his du

To the Employer too much court is paid, When by the men th'entrapping source are laid, To catch the wary elf:
Who, unsuspecting, daily plots along,
Nor heeds the snares placed by the wily throng,

Tentrap his nobie self.

The habble, thus kept up in air so long, Thre dattering tales and falsome tongue, By schemes at length is burst;

His office lost, he then most deeply wails, To hide his shame he now invents new tales, And deems his lot most curst.

t warning this, for those who dare aspire. When in this birth to raise themselves much higher. And think 'twill last for life : Should they but once o'erstep the campose bound, By foily they're quickly brought to the ground, To end their days in strife.

### 488 . . . . Typographia.

### Rules and Regulations to be observed in a Printing-Office.

#### COMPOSITORS.

1. Compositors to receive their cases from the overseer, or other person appointed by him, free from all pie, or other heterogeneous matter, with clean quadrat and space boxes both Roman and Italic, which they are to refurn to him in the same state, or forfelt sixpence for each pair of cases.

2. When a compositor receives letter, farniture, &c. from the overweer, he is to return what he does not use, in the same state he received it, the same day, under the forfeiture of three-pence.

3. Compositors to impose their matter when desired by the employer or overseer, or forfelt two-pence for every hour's delay. The same for proofs that are desired to be corrected, unless in either case it shall appear that all the stones were engaged.

4. When the compositor imposes from furniture in chase, he is directly to the up the pages of loose matter, or forfeit one penny for every neglected page, besides being obliged to clear away the pie thereby occasioned.

6. Forms, immediately after they are imposed, to be carried to the proof press, and the proofs when pulled to be given to the reader, or carried lato the reading closet, with, if a first proof, the copy, and, if a second, the foul proof, under the forfeiture of one pegmy, for every quarter of an hour's delay.

6. Every compositor who shall leave a foul stone, either of letter, furniture, &c. shall forfeit one penny for every such offence,

7. Should a compositor detain an imposing stone longer than the nature of the business may require, he is to be fined two-pence for every hour's unnecessary delay.
8. When any cases are taken out of the racks, the compositor is

 When any cases are taken out of the racks, the compositor is to return them into their proper place immediately after he has done with the same, under the forfeiture of one penny for each case.

9. No cases to be placed over others, or under the frames, under the penalty of one penny for each case.

10. Gallies with head-lines, or other useful materials, during the course of a piece of work, to be cleared the day after the work is all completely at press, or the compositor to forfeit three-pence for each day's neglect.

11. When a work is completely finished, the compositor or composition concerned shall, before lie or they begin another work, unless prevented by the employer or overseer, clear away the forms, taking from them the head lines, white lines, and direction lines, as also the leads and rigitest which, with the furniture of each sheet, and the matter properly tied up for papering, are to be given to the overseer, or any person he may appoint.

12. Sweepings of frames to be cleared away before one o'clock every day, under the forfeiture of two-pence for each neglect. Matter broken by accident to be cleared away on the same day under the like penalty.

13. A compositor mixing any two separate founts, without an express order from the overseer, to be fined one shilling.

14. When a compositor carries his form down for press, he is not to put two forms together without a partition between, on forfeiture

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of two-pence; and in case, through neglect of such partition, a form should be battered, the compositor guilty of such neglect shall forfeit six-pence.

15. The saw, saw-block, bowl, sponge, letter-brush, sheers, bellows, &c. to be returned to their respective places as soon as done with, under a forfeiture of one penny.

16. Any person taking a candlestick, bodkin, snuffers, composingstick, &c. not his own, without permission of the owner, shall be fined three peace.

17. Any person misplacing cases in the rack, or taking an upper arithout the lower case, (vice versa), shall be fined two-pence.

18. That pie of any sort, on boards, windows, frames, &c. shall be cleared after five minutes notice, under the penalty of six-pence.

19. That any person detected of taking sorts from the frames or cases of another, without leave, be fined one shilling. Should any person be detected in hoarding useful sorts, not wanting or likely to want them, he shall be fined six-pence.

20. Any person in the house, (except the master or overseer,) who shall call off the errand boy while he is sweeping his rooms, to be

shall call of the errand boy while he is sweeping his rooms, to be fined three pence.

21. That the master forfelt two shillings and six-pence, overseer

one shilling, and compositor six-pence, for every candle left without proper charge. The boundaries of the office to be considered the open air.

22. Jobs to be cleared away immediately after notice being given by the overseer, under the penalty of two-pence for every hour's delay.

23. All fines to be paid on Monday, before 13 o'clock, under the pernalty of six pence. The Treasurer to make application for the fines before that time, or be fined six-pence.

24. Those regulations, in cases of extreme hurry of business, by heave from the master or overseer, may be suspended; but, when thus thus coased, to be instantly resumed under the same for feltures.

#### PRESSMEN.

 All proofs to be pulled within five minutes after notice, or the pressmen who are in proofs to fine one penny for each form.

 Immediately after pulling a proof, the pressmen to rub over thre forms and chases with a lye-brush, and place them against the compositors' frame to whom they belong, where they are to leave the proof, or forfeit one penny for every neglect.

3. Working without a figure, unless particularly ordered, a fine of three-pence.

4. As soon as a form is wronght-off, the pressman to carry it to the lye-trough, and there completely rub it over with lye, rinse it with water, and then carry it to the wrought-off place, or to the end of the compositors' frame it belongs to. Three-pence for each neglected form.

s. Leaving the lye-jar uncovered, a fine of one penny.

The eastem of working with figures is grown into diseas; in truth, they only diseigned the page without being of any utility; the absentity for this is obviated by means of one of the preceding table.

### CHAP. XIV.

#### THE BEST MEANS OF EXPEDITING BUSINESS.

To concentrate the employment of workmen as much as possible in every branch of business, is the best and only sure means of acquiring expedition and dispatch. This observation most forcibly applies to the Art of Printing. When pamphlets and other works of temporary and urgent nature are required at a very short notice, great exertion must be made, together with skilful management, to attain the object in view: we shall now submit the following plan, which we doubt not will answer the purpose.

When a work of this nature is put in hand, it is the province of the Overseer to select those men that are best able to go through the quantity of work required within the given time. The number being now selected, their first concern should be to fix upon the person best acquainted with his business, to take upon himself the entire management of the work; to make up, and do every thing which interferes with the regular business of distributing, com-

posing, and correcting.

Having done this, they next proceed to the distribution of their letter; and the clicker (the person so appointed) applies to the overseer for the copy, receives instructions respecting it, and procures leads and every other necessary sort. He then draws out the following table:

Compositore' Names.	Police of Copy.	Lines compos.	Memorandume.
`		1	
	1		

In the first column he sets down the name of each compositor when he takes copy; and, in the second, the folio of the copy, that he may be able to ascertain instantly in whose hands it lies. In the third column he notes down the number of lines each man has composed, opposite to his name, as fast as the gallies are brought to him. In the fourth he sets down such remarks respecting the copy, &c. as may be necessary, and also any circumstance that may occur in the companionship.

By this means each compositor will receive a share of the amount according to the number of lines he composes, and the clicker must have an equal share with the person

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who sets the greatest quantity: or it may be done by limiting the quantity each man is to compose in an hour; whoever is deficient in this quantity must suffer a proportionate reduction from his share of the work.

When the companionship are ready for their first taking of copy, they are to receive it from the clicker in pieces as short as possible, taking care that the two first have shorter takings than either of the others, to prevent as much as possible, any delay in the making up. During the time the first taking is in hand, the clicker sets the half-head, head lines, white lines, and signature lines, together with notes (if few), and other extraneous matter.

As soon as the first person brings him his matter, he counts off the number of lines, and inserts them in the table; then gives him another taking of copy, and proceeds with the making up. The same plan is observed with the

rest of the companionship.

When the first sheet is made up, he lays the pages on the stone, and informs the overseer of it, who will then

immediately procure chases and furniture.

The work will now proceed rapidly, provided the compositors stick close to their business, and there be no delay with respect to letter, &c. which depends on the good management of the overseer. If the clicker finds that he cannot make up the matter as fast as it is composed, he should call one of the compositors to his assistance, who must be the person last in copy. In this case he counts the lines he has composed, sets them down in the table, and takes notice of the time he is off, which is to be made up to him by a deduction from the share of each person.

The proofs should be read immediately after they are pulled, and given to the clicker to be corrected. As soon as this is done, he lays up the forms, and gives the proof to the compositor whose matter stands first, who should immediately correct it, then forward it to the next, and so on, till the sheet be corrected; the clicker then locks it up,

and carries the forms to the press.

As soon as one of the companionship is out of copy, and there is no more to give out, the lines of the whole must be counted off, and set down in the table, which closes the account, and then every one does as much as he can, for the general benefit. If there be not work enough to employ the whole, those who are not wanted may go to their regular work, and the time of their absence, till the rest of the companionship return to theirs, be deducted from their respective shares.

It would save time in making calculations, could the companionship agree to divide the amount of the bill between them in equal proportions, and merely fine those who may absent themselves from the office; but as some

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compositors will set considerably more than others, the above mode will, we conceive, be found to answer best, as it excites a spirit of emulation, and induces them to pursue their work with vigour.

#### RULES TO RE ORSERVED IN COMPANIONSHIPS.

The disputes which frequently arise in printing-offices upon triffing as well as intricate points, can only be settled by a reference to the general custom and usage of the trade. These misuaderstandings, which annoy and retard business, often take place in companionships consisting of three or four compositors; it is therefore highly desirable that the generally received rules and regulations on this subject should be explicitly and clearly laid down for the future comfort and government of the compositor.

#### Taking Copy.

If printed copy, and the compositor is desired to follow page for page, each sheet, as it is given out, should be divided into as many parts as the compenionship may consist of, and the choice of each part, if it materially varies, should be thrown for. During the absence of either of the companionship, if he be likely soon to return, some one should throw for him, on condition that be will be able to get through this fresh taking, with what remains of the last, so as not to impede the imposition of the abect.

Another method may be adopted, vis. for each person to agree to receive regularly of the different takings a certain number of pages; but if this plan be followed, the bulk of the copy must not be subject to the inspection of the companionabily, but kept by the overneer, and dealt out by him as it is wanted, or it will inevitably cause contention; for the companionability, but kept by the overneer, and dealt out by him as it is wanted, or it will inevitably cause contention; for the companionability of the page of the page of the subject of

## Cypographis....493

positor should hand a part of it to the person next in the mak-ing up, to set up to himself.

If parts of the copy should be particularly advantageous or

otherwise, each of the companionship should throw for the chance of it: the person to whom it may fall, if he have copy in hand, must turn that copy over to him who is about to receive more copy: but for trifling variations from the general state of the copy, it cannot be worth the loss of time necessary to contest it; though it frequently happens that a litigious man will argue half an hour on a point that would not have made five minutes' difference to him in the course of his day's work.

If one of the companionship absent himself from business, and thereby delays the making up, and there is the smallest probability of standing still for want of letter, the person who has the last taking must go on with this man's copy, whether

it be good or bad.

Making up of Letter.

The number of the companionship, if possible, should always be determined on at the commencement of the work, that they may all proceed upon an equal footing. It should be well ascertained that the letter appropriated for the work will be adequate to keep the persons on it fully employed.

If any part of the matter for distribution, whether in chase or in paper, be desirable or otherwise, for the sorts it may contain, it should be divided equally, or the choice of it thrown for.

When a new companion is put on the work after the respective shares of letter are made up, and if there be not a sufficiency to carry on all the companionship without making up more, he must make up an additional quantity before he can be allowed to partake of any part of that which comes from the press.

Making up Furniture.

Two of the companionship who may have the greatest proportion of the first sheet, should make up the furniture for that sheet; and though it may be thought that a disadvantage will the right marking up the first sheet, they having to ascertain the right margin, yet, properly considered, this disadvantage is sufficiently belanced by their not being likely to meet with a scarcity of furniture, which will frequently occur after several sheets are made up. The other companions in rotation, as their matter is made up, will take an equal share of the furniture. Should an odd sheet be wanted, it will be better to throw for the chance of making it up.

Imposing and distributing Letter.

The person to whose turn it falls to impose, must lay up the form for distribution; but as continual disputes arise on this subject, and as it can only be ascertained by comparing the number of pages composed, with the number put in classe by each person, we therefore recommend their keeping an exact account of these pages, which had better be done agreeable to the following plan:

### 494.... E progravbia.

П	Compositors' Names.								
Signatures.									By whom Impered.
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С	_								
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F				_					

This scale should always be kept by the compositor in the making up; who, when he gives it away to the person that follows him, marks down the number of pages he has made up opposite to the proper signature, and under his own name; also when he imposes, he inserts his name in the column appropriated for that purpose. By following strictly this mode, every sort of dispute will be prevented: and though a private account may be necessary for individual satisfaction, yet it will not avail in settling a general misunderstanding, as the various private accounts may differ, and the charge of inaccuracy may be alledged with as much reason against one as the other; but in this general scale a mistake can be immediately detected. It also operates as a check on those who may be in-clined to write out of their proper signature, or to charge more pages than they have imposed.

As the letter is laid up it should be divided in equal proportions; and, if it can be so managed, each person had better distribute the matter originally composed by him; for by this means, the sorts which have made his case uneven will again return to him. It may happen, from one of the companionship absenting himself, that his former share of letter remains undistributed at a time a second division is taking place; under these circumstances, he must not be included in this division. In the event of a scarcity of letter, if any man absent himself beyond a reasonable time, his undistributed matter should be

divided equally among his companions, and when he returns, he may then have his share of the next division.

Correcting.

The compositor, whose matter is in the first part of the proof, lays up the forms on the imposing stone, and corrects. He then hands the proof to the person who has the following matter. The compositor who corrects the last part of the sheet. locks up the forms.

The compositor having matter in the first and last part, but not the middle of the sheet, only lays up the form and corrects his matter; the locking up is left to the person who corrects last in the sheet.

A compositor having the first page only of the sheet, is required to lay up one form; also to lock up one form if he has

only the last page.

If from carelessness in locking up the form--viz. the furniture binding, the quoins badly fitted, &c. any letters or even a page should fall out, the person who has thus locked up the form must immediately repair the damage. But if from bad justification, or in leaded matter the letters ride upon the ends of the leads, the loss attending any accident from this circum-

stance must fall upon the person to whom the matter belongs.

It is the business of the person who locks up the form, to ascertain whether all the pages are of an equal length; and though a defect in this respect is highly reprehensible in the person to whom it attaches, whose duty it is to rectify it,) yet if not previously discovered by the locker-up, and an accident happen, he must make good the defect.

The compositor who imposes a sheet must correct the chargeable proof of that sheet, which is also generally at the same time corrected for press, and take it to the ready place. He must also rectify any defect in the register, arising from the want of accuracy in the furniture.

Forms will sometimes remain a considerable length of time before they are put to press. When this happens, and parti-cularly in the summer, the furniture is liable to shrink, and the pages will, in consequence, if care be not taken, fall out; it is therefore the business of the person who has locked up the form, to attend to it in this respect, or he will be subject to make

good any accident which his neglect may occasion.

When forms are wrought off, and ordered to be kept standing, they are then considered under the care of the overseer. When they are desired to be cleared away, it is done in equal proportions by the companionship. During the time any forms may have remained under the care of the Overseer, should there have been any alteration as to form or substance, such alterations not having been made by the original compositors, they are not subject to clear away those parts of the form that were altered. If the pressmen unlock a form on the press, and from carclessness in the locking up any part of it fall out, they are subject to the loss that may happen in consequence.

The compositor who locks up a sheet takes it to the proof press, and the pressman, after he has pulled the proof, puts by

the forms in the place appointed for that purpose.

Transposition of Pages Each person in the companionship must lay down his pages properly on the stone for imposition. The compositor, whose turn it is to impose, looks them over to see if they are rightly placed; should they, after this examination, lay improperly, and be thus imposed, it will be his business to transpose them; but should the folios be wrong, and the mistake arise from this inaccuracy, it must be rectified by the person to whom the matter belongs. Pages being laid down for imposition, without folios or head lines, must be rectified by the person who has been slovenly enough to adopt this plan.

Plan of a Compositors' Check Book.

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Prom Thee, O Press! what blessings flow T' anworthy mortals here below! Life's path to smooth:

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Life's path to smooth:
The Widows' cause, the Infants' tear,
In Thee a friend are sure to rear;
Their loss to soothe.

Through Thee fair Liberty will stand, Brition's proud boast throughout this land; See Hist'ry's page! The Press enslav'd, She'il inly monn, And England's Sons in challes may groun, From age to age!

HAVING now (agreeable with our notice in Chap. X.) presented our readers, in that and the two following Chapters, with an account of the various characters made use of in printing, together with a copious detail of the Ancient and Modern Alphabets, which we most humbly trust will be received, not only by the Literati, but by compositors in general, as a desideratum of no small importance. In the further prosecution of our labours, we purpose, as far as our confined limits will admit, to do ample justice (to the best of our humble ability) to the subjects which still remain to be treated of in the present work; therefore we propose (as our motto speaks) to devote the present chapter to the subject of the Press department, in which we shall glance at the various machines which have been obtruded on the notice of the Profession for the purposes of printing; whether they be considered as improvements, or only attempts at improvements, from which we shall make our selection, and present engravings of those only which, in our humble judgments, appear best adapted to the purposes for which they were intended by their projectors, and also worthy the consideration of the profession. It is our intention. in the concluding chapter, to glance at Steam Engine and Stereotype printing, as they regard the Printer, the Bookseller, and the Public in general.

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## 498 . . . Cppographia.

'Twas thus, in the Art's carly slage, Thus Frinter's form'd the letter'd page; And onch solby fill'd his station. To sid th' riving generation; And has fair howevingle; (qua to sprend, Fell Superstition voil'd her head; And quickly hast' and from uv'ry part, On night of th' Typographic Art.

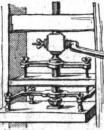


A good idea of the Presses on the old principle will be derived from the annexed subject, (an engraving of which was frequently used by Printers on the Continent, at that period, as a mark or device,) as well as from that given on page 555, in Vol. 1, and we shall now proceed to describe those which are of a more recent invention.

# Eppographia....499

We are of opinion that the largest wooden press in this country is in the possession of Mr. Couchman of Throgmorton Street, from which the present sketch of the work-

ing part was construction bles those of vention, by platin attachspindle with bolts, as here it stands foll the tympans ingly low. it was work pound powwas attached screw. inches above



taken. much resem-Blaew's inhaving the to the screws and represented: high. are exceedand heavy: ed by a comer. which to the top of about eight the head, as

we were told by the men: this apparatus, Mr. C. informed us, was stoten from the office some years back, during the lifetime of his tather: the press is now worked with a common bar. We have been informed, that the power which was attached to the top of the spindle, and by which it was said the press was worked, was only a common fly, which was composed of two crooked S's laid crossways, and well charged with lead at each end. The platin is 2 feet 2 inches long, by 1 foot 8 inches wide, the coffin is 3 feet 71 inches long, by 2 feet 54 inches wide between the corner irons, and will print more than a double royal sheet. This press was made for the old Duke of Norfolk to amuse himself with; he could also boast of having the largest, as well as the smallest sized press; the latter would only print a small card. These two presses, the type, &c. were sold upwards of fifty years back, when the late Mr. Couchman purchased the large press, and likewise a case-rack.

We could not conceive how it were possible for a press to be worked by such a power; first, the arms of the fly (to work between the cheeks) would be too short to produce an impression; secondly, it would be impossible for a person, standing upon the floor, to have had the least power over such a lever: we deem the use of this fly not for the purpose of giving the impression, instead of the bar, but as a compound power by which the motion of the bar was accelerated by the force of the fly above, consequently the pull was comparatively easy in propos-

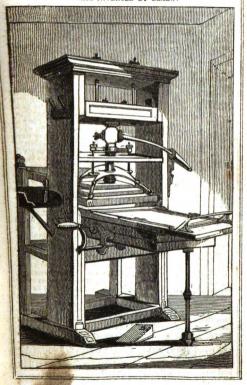
tion to the impression given.

#### 500 c. . Typegraphia.

#### ON THE CONSTRUCTION OF PRINTING PRESSES.

The improved Presses were in general use throughout Holland, several years before their introduction into England, and the first change in their construction was wrought by an ingenious artist, named Willam Jansen Blaew of Amsterdam, a man as famous for his excellent Printing, as for his Astronomical and Geographical productions. the early part of his life he was employed as a joiner; but, having served out his time and being of an inquisitive disposition, he rambled to Denmark, about the period that the famous Tycho Brahe was establishing his Astronomical Observatory, by whom he was entertained, and under whose instructions he was employed in making Mathematical Instruments, in which curious art he made very considerable improvements; this occasioned it to be generally reported, that all or most of the Syderal Observations published in Tycho's name, were the work of Blaew, as well as the Instruments with which they were made. Before these Observations were published to the world, Tycho, to gratify Blaew, gave him the copies of them, with which he went to Amsterdam, and there practised the making of Globes, according to those Observations. As his trade increased he was enabled to deal in Geographical Maps and Books, and became so particularly curious in his plates, that many of the best Globes and Maps were engraved by He projected also a Universal Atlas, in the exehimself. cution of which he engaged all the most celebrated geographers, and the best works of his time. It was published at Amsterdam, in 8 vols. folio, in 1688, in which year he died, aged 67; but his two sons, John and Cornelius, produced a new edition of his work in 1668, consisting of 14 folio volumes. When these books are found entirely coloured, they are both rare and valuable; as a fire destroyed a large portion of the stock of Blaew's sons. Jansen Blaew was likewise the author of a Treatise on the Globes, and by his frequent Printing of books, he got such a knowledge of the practical part of the art, that he set up a Printing-House for the transaction of his business; wherein he soon found the inconveniencies attending the structure of the old Presses, which induced him to contrive remedies for every inconvenience, in which he succeeded so much to his expectation, that he caused nine new Presses to be made, each of which he called by the name of one of the Muses. As the excellence of these improvements soon became known to other Printing Houses, which induced their proprietors to follow Blaew's example, so that Presses of his structure became, in the course of a few years, almost general throughout the Low-Countries, and from thence. of late years, notwithstanding the opposition of the igno-rant, they have been introduced into England.

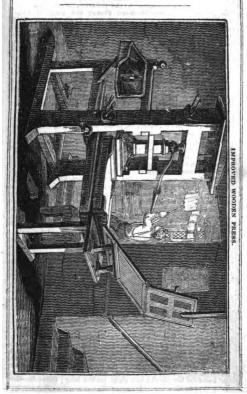
PRESS INVENTED BY BLAEW.



## 502 . . . . Typographia.

IMPROVED WOODEN PRESS.

Ir would have been impossible for our Readers to have formed any thing like a correct idea of the mechanism of Blaew's Press from the engravings heretofore given; we have endeavoured to obviate this difficulty in the foregoing subject, by representing it as clear as possible. construction, it differs very little from those of the present make, the most material alteration appears to have taken place with respect to the steadying of the spindle; that is, the crane, and likewise the flange to which the plattin was attached, are removed, and a square box, with a collar at the upper, and four hooks at the lower end, are substituted: this box was made sufficiently hollow to admit the spindle to pass through it, the toe of which entered into the cup placed on the plattin; it passed through the till, and gave equal or more solidity to the spindle, than the crane invented by Blaew. These Presses (similar to the annexed engraving) have been in general use in this country for more than the last century, and they would most probably have remained so, had it not been for the iron press invented by the late Earl Stanhope, an engraving of which will be given in our next article: but no sooner had these presses made their appearance, than several of the Printers' Joiners and Smiths suggested to the Master Printers the advantages to be derived from the addition of a compound power attached to the wooden press; this suggestion was embraced with avidity by several, and most of the others speedily followed; but they were little aware of what they were about; and in most instances they had done even worse than nothing, for they were no sooner altered than they were again out of repair, as some part or other generally gave way; in truth, the Wooden Press was not calculated to bear the extreme pressure thus applied, and not unfrequently this power was attached by persons little capable of appreciating the force of the leverage thus given. At this period about half a dozen beautiful presses upon the French construction, with long levers, which were pressed downwards, were in the possession of three or four Master Printers of the Metropolis, who, from the solicitation of these would-be connoisseurs in presses, were induced to consent to have them altered according to the fancied improvements; but they were no sooner put to work than the Masters found to their cost that they had purchased a blank, rather than a prize: but it has ever been, and still continues to be, the general practice of a majority of the Printers of the Metropolis, to adopt almost every new invention upon its first introduction; and many, we are firmly persuaded, have had too great reason to regret their over anxiety for new-fangled articles, before they were sufficiently in possession of their real qualities, whether good or bad.



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It will not be irrelevant in the present place to glance at the properties of the Wooden Press; the build in this country (excepting those only upon the French plan) were uniformly made with small plattins; consequently it was necessary to pull twice with every full form: it was difficult. and almost next to an impossibility, to prevent some of them from doubling in the impression, particularly in Twelves: but, notwithstanding the pressmen had to pull twice for each impression, they could get through equally as much, if not more work than the iron press with one pull: this may appear strange to those unconnected with the Art. but we are fully persuaded that most practical printers will coincide with us in the above opinion: we do not pretend to state that the work so done would bear an equal comparison; that by the iron one would undoubtedly be far superior; our observation only applies as far as regards common work. When the extra power was applied, they were generally made to act with one pull; but the plattins (although many of them were faced with iron) were apt to spring at the ends, and consequently failed in producing that even impression, which is so essentialy necessary in production of good printing.

This Press consists of the following parts: the feet, ehecks, cap, visiter, head, till, hore, garter, hooks, spindle, worm, nut, eye of the spindle, shank of the spindle, to ag the spindle, plattin, bar, handle of the bar, hind-posts, hind-rails, wedges of the till, carriage, outer frame of the carriage, independent wooden ribs on which theiron ribs are fastened, stay of the carriage, coffin, plank, gallows, tympans, frisket, points and point screws. These are the different names of the parts of the Press; but to convey a more perfect idea of its construction, we shall present our Readers with engravings of struction, we shall present our Readers with engravings of

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the repective parts, and their proportions.



A to B, 3 ft. 1 in. and 5 in, square-

The feet are thirty-seven inches long, and five inches square: the distance asunder, one foot ten inches. Three inches and three quarters from each end, the mortise holes are to be made on the middle of the breadth of the upper side of the foot, for receiving the tenons of the cheeks and hind-posts. The mortise holes for the cheeks are eight inches long; those for the

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hind-posts, two inches and a half, and one foot seven inches asunder. For the sake of ornament, the ends may be be elled off according to the taste of the joiner, but care must be taken not to weaken them by so doing.

#### The Cheeks.

The cheeks are six and eight inches and five inches at each end. The the fore part of the eight inches long, half deep, to fit tenon at the upper across the ters the cap within The cheeks fastened together pins, distant from three inches. Two from the bottom of H of the thickness of long, is cut away. sage for running in fin. In the middle der of this cuttingof seven inches and three inches wide, tenon made at each Four inches from this cutting-away, the same depth, half long, to admit and a half thick, of cheek, on which this, two mortise inches and a half ing with the tenons till. Three inches ther piece is cut and a halflong, and half through the cheek, to admit the this Just above a square mortise in cheek, two inches

a half long, breadth wide and

eet one inch long, and a half broad, thick, with a tenon lower tenon enters foot, and is cut and three and a the mortises. The end of the cheek is breadth, and enhalf an inch of the and the feet are with two wooden each other about feet eleven inches the cheek, one half a foot, and an inch to admit a free pasand out of the cofof the lower shoulaway, is a mortise in which is fitted a end of the winter. the upper part of another is made, of two inches and a a block two inches the width of the the till rests. Above holes are made, two long, correspond. at the end of the above the till, and away, nine inches four inches wide, of the depth of the head. cutting-in, is made the middle of the eight.

inche	s long, for the tend	ons of the	neau to play in.
A to B	6 ft. 1 in.	I to K	0 ft. 9 in. and a half
B to C	0 3 and a half	KtoL	1 2 and a half
D to E	1 10	a to b	0 7 and a half
E to F	of the later of the	c to d	0 2 and a half
F to G	0 4	d to e	0 2 and a half

f to g

0

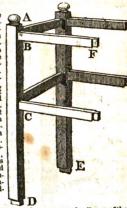
G to H 0 5

9 and a half

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The Hind Posts and Rails.

Six rails are hindthem betwo on each hindplaced two the top, the with the upthe winter. rails are teeach end. that long may stand the cheeks. nons are let ses made in of the bindfastened in pins. rails are teeach end. the mortises cheeks and and fastensame manhind-



fitted into posts, two of hind. side; one of rails to be inches from other level per side of These two noned and made so the posts even with These teinto mortithe insides posts. and with wood-The sidenoned and let into made in the hind posts. ed in the ner by the rails.

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In the centre of the lower hind rail, one of the girths is either nailed or fastened with a screw.

On the top side-rails and hind-rail, the back-board is placed, for defending the ribs from dirt, and also for affording a convenient shelf for the pressmen.

Their distance asunder, from B to C . . . 1 Sand a haif.



The cap is three feet long, eleven inches wide, and four inches thick. The front and two sides are ornamented with a nest moulding: the front projecting about an inch and a half, and the sides three inches and a half, over the cheeks.

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About three inches from each end, two mortise holes are made, to admit the tenons of the cheeks; also two holes through which the head bolts pass

#### The Winter.

The length of cluive of the F foot eleven width, nine half; the depth. The projection tenons is two tenons are whole depth of fit and fall into B



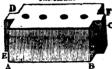
the winter, extenons, is one inches; the cinches and a nine inches. of each of the inches. These made the the winter, to the mortises

Length, from B to A

A to C
C to D

1 ft. 11 in. 0 9 and a half 0 9

Projection of the mortses, F and



The length, from A to B . . . 1 ft. 11 in.

Depth, from D to E . . . 0 10 2nd a half.

Width, from B to C . . . 0 9

Projection of the mortise, D and F
The length of the head, exclusive of the tenons, is the same as
the winter, vis. one foot eleven inches; the width, nine inches
and the depth, ten inches and a half. The projection of the
tenons, two inches. The front of the head projects half an
inch over the range of the front of the checks. The tenons
like the winter, are also cut from the top to the bottom of the
bead, and made to fit easily into the mortises in the checks.

In the centre of the bottom of the head, a hole is cut about four inches square and three inches and a half deep to admit the brass nut in which the screw of the spindle works. This nut is secured and kept in its proper place by means of iron boits, about three quarters of an inch square, and nine laches and a half long, which go quite through the head, having at their ends a book turned square, to clasp upon the underside of the nut. At the top of these bolts there are screws that project about an inch above the head, which, by the help of nuts and washers draw the book of the boits close against the nut, and

thereby keep it in a fixed and a perpendicular position.

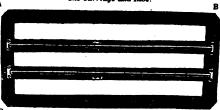
In the centre of the top of the head a small, round hole is bored, to admit oil into the nut and spindle when necessary.

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Three inches from each end of the head, two bolts ness through that and the cap, of twenty inches in length, and about three quarters of an inch square. These bolts have a square head. which stop against and are let in level with the under side of the head. They the top, coarse screws at furnished with nuts and washers. Upon the weight of the washers. these bolts rests

them the head is screwed up or let down as occasion requires. The Carriage and Ribe.

head, and by



Length, from A to B aft. Width, from A to C 2ft. 2in.

The carriage is a frame of five feet long, and two feet two hes broad on which the ribs are placed. The two end rais inches broad, on which the ribs are placed. are each four inches thick, and the side rails, two inches and a half thick.

Between the two side-rails, are framed into the end-rails two wooden ribs, two inches and a half broad, and an inch and a half thick. They are placed at an equal distance from each side-rail, and the same distance between each other. Upon these the steel ribs are fastened. These ribs are made about four feet eight inches long, and an inch thick. The upperment sides, on which the cramps rest, are of a convex form, the others perfectly flat. The two ends are flattened to about a others perfectly mat. The two enus are nationed to anout a quarter of an inch thick, and holes drilled for the purpose of lastening them to the end rails. In the middle of the outer end of each rib, a small piece of iron, about a quarter of an inch thick, with holes drilled in it, projects, which is also nailed to the wooden ribs. The inner side of each rib is polished, to admit the shoulder of the two first and two last cramps, is a late improvement on the common press. It prevents the shaking of the coffin, and the slur on the work which consequently attended it.

The ribs must be of an equal height and thickness, and lie exactly horizontal, in straight lines: for the smallest irregularity in this respect will affect the cramps, so as to render some

of them useless.

ij 15

The Coffin, Plank and Cramps.

The plank of on three feet long, and one inch thick, on which cramps and the fin is a square seven inches wide, and three this the stone in the ston

this the stone is Upon each of ers of the coffin called a cornerand screwed with the wood turn-sides about on each side, an inch thick, and a quarter broad. per outer sides plates another fastened with through vets iron is half an angles outer but the inner tuse, being slopthe inner angle, therend of each A the purpose of with B chase hinder end of coffin, two iron ed, by means of screw and nut. tympans, which half-joints keep the tym-steady, without be impossible to

C Back View.



A the coffin is now of mahogany, two feet wide, and a quarter is fastened the coffin. The cofframe, two feet, long, two feet inches deep; in hedded.

the four plots are two feet in the feet in t

inches deep; in the four cornan iron plate, iron, is let in perfectly level work, with resix inches long eighth of two inches and Upon the upof each of these strong iron is two or three rieach side. This inch deep; the only are square, angles are obed away from towards the farinner side, for the securing quoins. At the the frame of the joints are fastenan iron plate, to receive the have also two

as in the last fitance of the from 0 ft. 5 in.

pans perfectly which it would

keepinregister.

These

E

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match.

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#### The Press Stone.

Marble stones are the best; and could the bedding of them in the coffin be always depended on, they would turn out to be the cheapest. Purbeck being much cheaper than marble, is

now generally used.

The stone should be of an equal thickness, about a quarter of an inch less than the depth of the inside of the coffin, as the bedding will raise it the necessary height above the surface of the comin. Its length and breadth must be a quarter of an inch less than the length and breadth of the inside of the coffin, to admit of justifiers between the stone and coffin, which are put to keep the stone steady after it is bedded. The face should be perfectly smooth and level.

The Spindle.

The worm of the spindle should be made with such declivity, that it might come down at an assigned progress of the bar. In a whole revolution of the spindle in the nut, the toe ought to come down two inches at work, makes more than tion, at one pull; in which five eighths of an inch. five inches; and its cirand a quarter. The whole

twenty one inches. The called the toe, which is R in diameter, made of welllong or careless use the

one quarter of a revolu-B The length of the worm is The length of the worm is a cumference, seven inches C length of the spindle is bottom of the spindle is about a gnarter. about a quarter of an inch neter, made of well-r careless use the point of pressure wear not on one side, but remain in the axis of the spindle.

The length of the worm, from A to B 3 and a half. The distance across, from a to a C to D t and a quarter. E to the toe

The Hose, Garter, and Hose Hooks.

The hose is composed of a long, square box, or block of wood, through which is turned a hollow cone, fitting the conical or tapering part of the spindle. The spindle is held firmly in this cavity of the hose, by the following arrangement: to the inner face of the piece DD, and the corresponding pieces on the other side of the hose, are fixed curved pieces, as shewn at E in the small figure. This is called the half-moon garter, and is used to hold the spindle by the groove E. (see f-

gure of spindle) by shewn in the figure is cased with thin side, from the piece the hooks shewn at are fixed to the low-

the groove E, (see f-tightening the screws of the hose. The hose sheet iron on every E DD, downwards; and in the

end screws.

The side, from A to B 4 in. and three quarters. The height, from B to C 10

Bar and Handle.



A to B . Oft. 4 in. | C to D . 1 ft. 4 in.
B to C . 1 5 | E, (the handle) the same length

The bar is made of wrought iron, of about three feet long, and its greatest thickness, in circumference, five inches, except the shoulder. The square pin, about an inch and a half thick, and three inches long, from the shoulder, enters the eye of the spindle, which it should be made to fit with a great degree of nicety. At the end of this pin an eye is made, through which an iron key is put to fasten it perfectly tight to the spindle.

The wooden handle is twenty inches long, and, in the thickest part, ten inches in circumference. A taper hole is made through the handle, into which the small part of the bar enters, and is fastened by a screw at the end of the handle. About four inches from the shoulder it is bent, agreeable to the above sketch, which lies ready to the pressman's hand, that he may eatch at it to draw the handle of the bar within his reach.

#### Catch for the Bar.

The catch for the bar is made of two pieces of beech, in the form of a cross. The short piece is eight inches and a half long, and two inches wide, bevelled at each end, and in the center of the side which

tre of the side which the cheek, a piece is inches long, and half mit the other piece tapered off to the rests. This cross is cheek, and fixed in to retain the bar

from the



cut out, about two an inch deep to adof ten inches long, end on which the bar screwed against the such a position, as on its rebounding form.

Length of the piece A B. 8 inches and a half.
Ditto, of the catch D C. 10 inches.

Spit and Wheel.



The axis, or spit, is a straight bar of iron, about three quarters of an inch square, and is about three inches longer than the whole breadth of the carriage. The further end of it is filed to a round pin, three quarters of an inch long, and three quarters of an inch in diameter; the near end is filed away to another round pin, but is two inches and a quarter long. At an inch

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and a quarter from this end, is filed a square pin, three quarters of an inch long; and within half an inch of the end is ano-

ther round pin, with a screw and nut on it.

On the square pin is fitted a winch, on which is placed the rounce, five inches long. The round ends of the spit are brung upon two iron sockets, fastened with screws on the outside of

the two outer rails of the carriage.

The wheel, or girth barrel, is made of beech, of fuch alongth that it may play easily between the ribs; and of such diameter, that in one revolution a longth of girth may wind about equal to balf the length contained between the fore-end of the inner tympan, and the inside of the rail of the inner tympan.

#### The Fore-stan

The fore-stay is pieces of wood, for the purpose of of the carriage, to ed by means of of about five inch.

Height, trom A to B Width, from C to D

made of four mortised together supporting the end which it is screwtwo inch-screws, es long, with nuts.

2 fl. 5 in.

The Till, or Shelf.

The till is made of mahogany, one foot, eleven inches long, nin e inches wide, and two inches thick. It has two dovetail-tenens at C each end,

tenens at about an half long, an and an inch distant from these tenons the mortises cheeks. In A



each end, inch and a inch broad, and a half each other: are laid in the

cheeks. In A
the middle of
the till, a square hole of four inches and three quarters is made,
lined with brass plate about the sixteenth of an inch thick,
through which the hose passes. This square should be made
to fit the hose with much nicety.

Length, from A to B . . . Ift. 11 in.

A to C . . . . . . . . 0 9
The square for the hose . 0 4 and three quarters.

The Plattin.

The plattin is ma'e of mahogany, one foot seven inches long, thirteen inches wide, and four inches thick. The face of the thirteen incines wide, and nour incine times. In or race of the plattin must be perfectly level and smeoth. Near the four corners, on the upper side, four iron hooks are placed, with their shanks wormed and screwed, and leaning towards the plattin plate. In the centre of the plattin, the iron plattin plate is let in a quarter of an inch deep. This plate long, four inch-quarter of an

the middle of it inches an inch high, is coive the stud of A brass plattin pan.

is eight inches es broad, and a inch thick. In an iron frame square and half olaced to fhe circular

The stud is made to fit nicely into the iron frame, which keeps the pan firm and steady, and may be taken out with ease if required In the middle of the bottom of the pan is a small steel cen-

tre hole, in which the toe of the spindle works. Length, from A to B 1 ft. 7 in.

B to C C to D

The Outer Tympan

The outer tympan is a square frame, both sides and one end of which are made of beech, and the other end of iron. It is two feet wide, and inches long. The end, which is fas-fin by an iron ed on to another inch and a quarinch deep; the per from this to which is about window caseinch wide. Upon this iron, about from the end of iron half joints, about three quarcircumference, this half joint and the frisket, fas-

and enables it to

two feet seven breadth of the tened to the cofmatch joint pinnhalf joint, one terwide, and one two sides run tathe iron the thickness of a ment, and half an the outer edge of an inch and a half it, are made two to contain a pin, ters of an inch in which, entering the match joint in tens it securely,

work easily on the tympan. In the middle of each side of the tympan, a mortise is made through, half an inch wide, and six inches long to receive the square shanks of the point screws, and to allow

them to slide easily backward and forward. The length, from A to C 2 ft

Gallows and Sockets.

On the hind part of the plank, at three inches distant from each side, are nailed the sockets to receive the gallows, on which

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the tympans rest height nine inches. inches and a half and a half deep. holes are cut which the gal-The sockets are ed down on the be easily moved



wide, and socket slanting. lows reclines screwed or nail-plank, and may backward or forlower the

wards, to raise tympan, agreeable to the wish of the pressman, In the space on the plank, between the sockets, one of the girths is fastened on with a thumb screw, which answers the purpose much better than nails, as they injure, and frequently split the plank.

wide, and two feet the sides and one also made of wood. of iron. It is made the onter than outer edge of the tympan may the iron of it is made so much inside of the outer venient space may a vellum between outer tympan and inner tympan. The fastened by books tympan, and eyes

The length, from A B to C

The Inner Tympan. The inner tympan is also a square frame, one foot ten inches

Bsix inches long. end of which are and the other end so much shorter tympan, that the within the edge of onter tympan; and narrower than the tympan, that a conbe allowed to paste the inside of the the outside of the two tympans are fixed on the outer on the inner.

to B 2 ft. 6 in. & a hal

Points and Screws. Points are made of sheet iron, of different lengths about the

sixteenth part of an inch thick, and in shape agreeable to the above cut. The spur of the point is rivetted at the small end, about projects inch; the top of it is point. The large end the square shank of the screws are made of about an inch square, just under the head, an inch square. Unis made, with a nut, when put through the the head of the shank

three eighths of an filed away to a fine of the point fils into point screws. These iron, with a thin head, and a square shank an inch deep, and half der this shank a screw and washer, which, inner tympan, draws close down to the tym-

pan, and by that means secures the point in its proper place, on the outer tyn pan.

### Eppographia....515

The frisket is a made of different ioints at one end. iron pin is placed. of the near side of piece of iron procar, or

Leagth, from A to H A to C



thin iron frame, sizes, with match through which an About the middle the frisket, a small jects, called the thumb piece.

2 ft 2 in, and a half.

The fisk-block. The ink-block is bottom of it two

three length inches, three quarters of an thirteen This block is fas. upper rail and hind



made of beech. the inches and the sides inch thick: inches, the depth width nine inches. tened to the near post; and the left

The Brayer and Slice. and flat on the bottom; handle, is about seven tom part about two inches The slice is a small iron about four inches, and

The brayer is also made of beech, and turned round on its sides, its length, including the inches long, and the bot-and a balf in diameter. shovel, the broadest part about the eighthof an inch thick. Its length, including the handle, is eight inches long.

The Ball Stocks and Ball Racks.

The ball stocks are made of dry, well-seasoned elm, and turned hollow, of a conical form; thei greatest diameter ave inches and a quarter, and their length cour inches. The handle of the stock is made of beech, four inches and of the stock is made of in diameter. The racks a half long, and an inch and beech, the sockets are also made of elm the pins beech. The which is nailed on the of which are elm. and sockets of the first rack

nine inches and a half near check, two feet from the bottom, is nine inches wide, and four and a half long; that end of it which receives the pins is one inch and a half thick, the opposite end only half an inch thick. The pins are nine inches long, and distant from each other three inches.

Another rack, double the width and containing four pins, is also fastened to the near cheek, eight inches from the top.

Bank and Paper-horse.

The hank is a deal table, three feet four inches long, twenty-two-inches wide, and three feet high. About five inches from

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the bottom, a board is placed within two inches of the length and breadth of the bank, and fastened to the legs, which serves as a convenient shelf for pressmen to lay their worked of heaps. The paper-horse is also made of deal, two feet two inches long, and twenty inches wide, forming an angle of aborty-five degrees, six inches of the highest end of it rising nearly to a perpendicular. The horse receives the wet paper, and is placed on the bank near to the tympans.

Practical Directions to Pressmen.

We shall now briefly lay down a few directions, which if properly attended to, will, we are persuaded, enable the pressman to do credit to himself, and justice to his employer, as well as to uphold and preserve that superiority which now so eminently distinguishes the British Press.

Of putting up a Press.

An understanding pressman should know not only how to direct a printer's joiner to set up and fasten a press when it is made, but also how to give a strange joiner and smith instructions to make a press, perfect in all its parts, and in

a symmetrical proportion, to any size.

This knowledge every pressman should be anxious to obtain, as he would then be able to detect and mend those accidents and defects which frequently happen in the common press; we therefore recommend particularly to his attention, the foregoing description of the parts of the common press, which will give him a thorough knowledge of its principles and operation.

The joiner having set together the frame, viz. the cheeks, feet, cap, head, till, winter, hind-posts, ribs, carrriage, &c. the pressmen directs, and sees him perform as follows:

Before the head is put into its place, the pressman rubs the whole tenoned ends and tenons well with soap or grease, and also the mortises the head slides in, and so much of the cheeks as the ends of the head work against, that it

may the easier work up and down.

The feet must be placed upon an horizontal level floor, and the cheeks perpendicularly upright, the stays or braces placed so as the press may be kept in the most steady and stable position, as well as to give a check to the force of the hardest pull and most violent blow the bar may give by rebounding against the farther cheek, if by chance it slip out out of the pressman's hand. This consideration may direct him to place one brace against the end of the cap they hangs over the near cheek, and in a range parallel with the fore and hind side of the cap: for the more a brace stands aslope to the two parellel sides, the less it resists a torce offered to the end of them, viz. the near end of the cap which is one main stay to the whole press. If he places another brace against the hinder corner of the farther end

upper sibrace in for the contract of the contract of the side square, the cap, the force But it stronges; apress, admit of the press;

for the p

The carriage and the coff bedded. So ter of Paris, are the stor the surface o hea, from w iner, which great care i stone touch

the stone is

are placed

of the cap, it will resist the spring of the bar, when it may slip out of the pressman's hand: and placing two other braces, one against the near corner of the hind side of the cap, and the other against the farther corner of the fore side of the cap, the press will be sufficiently braced up, if the room will afford convenience to place the farther end of

the braces against it.

By convenience, is meant a firm solidity to place the end of the braces against, be it either a stone wall, brick wall, or some principal post, or a girder, &c. that will not start or tremble at the force of a pull. The braces ought to be straight, and of substance strong enough proportionable to their length; and, if possible, to be fixed in such a position that they may stand in the same straight line with the upper surface of the cap, viz. that the farther end of the brace neither falls lower or rises higher than the upper suide of the cap. Neither ought the brace, though thus placed, to stand aslope or askew, that is, make unequal angles with the side of the cap it is fastened to, but it ought to stand square, and make right angles with the respective sides of the cap; because in those positions the braces best resist the force of continued pulls.

But though this be, by the rules of architecture, the strongest, firmest, and most concise method for bracing up a press, yet the room the press is to stand in will not always admit of conveniences to place the braces thus; therefore the pressman oughtto consider the shape of the room, both for the places to fit the braces to, and the positions to set the braces in; placing his braces as correspondent as he can

to these rules.

The press being thus far fastened, the carriage is laid on; and if the joiner performs his part well in making the wood work, it will first lie exactly horizontal; if not, it must be altered where it is amiss, before the pressman can lay the stone, and before the stay of the carriage can be fitted under the end of the ribs.

Laying, or Bedding the Stone.

The carriage being flat and horizontally laid on the winter, and the coffin placed on the ribs, the stone should then be bedded. Some pressmen lay them in bran, others in plaster of Paris, and a third class prefer brown paper: in either case the stone should be raised about a Double Pica above the surface of the coffin, a few good pulls will reduce it to a Pica, from which it ultimately will settle to that of a Brevier, which ought to be the standard.

In laying the stone on either of the above substances, great care should be taken that the whole bottom of the stone touch the bedding at the same time; to this end, when the stone is laid on the edge of the coffin, two strong cords are placed under it, by which the pressmen gently lower it

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into the colon, the least unevenness of which being likely to disturb the bedding; having pressed it down, a small portion of water laid on the centre will sufficiently prore whether it be even or not, should the water incline to either side, the stone must then be-relain.

Setting the Rounce

Properly, saves labour and facilitates the work: the girthsbeing nailed on the barrel, and the press run out, the near girth will be half a turn on, and the off girth about three turns round it. In the old presses the girths were nailed to the head of the coffin and the plank; but this is now obviated by means of screws, so that the pressmen can alter the rounce with little trouble. The rounce should be set in such a position, that the fore-end of the tympan will just rise and fall without touching the fore-edge of the plattus.

Hanging the Plattin.

A heavy form should be laid on the press, and either two blankets, or about a quire of paper placed on it; the plattin is set on the head of the coffin, and gently rolled in, at the same time his companion holds the plattin in a slanting direction, in order that the point of the spindle clear the top of the pan, so that it may fall into the cup destined to receive it: the plattin is then placed on the form, in the centre of the press, parallel with the fore sides of the cheeks, and adjusted with the greatest nicety. The bar is then pulled down, by which means the toe of the spindle is forced into the cup on the plattin; a paper-board is then placed between the off cheek and the bar, by which means it is kept down; it is then securely fastened to the near cheek with a strong rope. Having provided cord with a noose at one end, they begin at opposite diagonal corners of the plattin, to lash the cord under and over on the hooks with as much force as possible, till about two feet only of the cord remain, which should be twisted round the previous lashings to bind them close together, and then fasten them off with three or four hard knots; having finished the first tying, they then proceed with the second in the same manner, which will make each part firm and tight.

Justifying the Head.

To justify, or scaleboard the head, is to put in a sufficient quantity of scaleboard, into the mortises left in the cheeks for the head and winter to play in; the quantity should be exactly equal, in order that the head and winter may have an exact bearing on each side. The pull is made either long or short, by adding or diminishing the wadding previously placed in the mortises. A long, soft, or soaking pull, is when the form feels the force of the spindle by degrees, till the bar comes almost or quite to the near cheek of the

press, in a soft, soaking, and easy manner; on the contrary, the short pull is termed a hard pull, because it is

suddenly performed.

In justifying the head, the nuts of the head screws, or loop bolts, must be loosened, in order that the head sink enough to admit the removal or addition of the scaleboard in the mortises: this done, the head is screwed up sufficient for the carriage to run in, the bar should then be pulled down, and the screws drawn up with the finger and thumb, which will allow the head sufficient space to work freely.

A new press should always be well employed for the first few months with Meavy forms, and the pressmen ought to be particular in doing their duty, by taking care that they always keep on a sufficient power, and see that the bar be well pulled down. This is the only sure means of making it work free and well ever after; many a press has been spoiled by this neglect, and also that of working jobs at them before they are properly brought to their bearings.

Making ready a Form.

Before a form is laid on, the pressman should carefully wipe down the stone, or table of the press, for if any hard particle, though ever so small, remain, it will raise that part of the form, cause the impression to be hard, and probably injure the tympans: the same caution should be taken with the backside of the form. The form being laid on the press in the centre of the plattin, and properly quoined up, he then lays down the tympans and gets his blanket, or blankets, which should be well rubbed if they are the least hard; Welsh flannel was formerly used, but the fine printers substituted broad cloth: within the last two years a superior article has been manufactured of different qualities, suitable for every description of work.\* Having put in the blankets, he then fits the inner tympan into the outer, and fastens it with the hooks, or button for that purpose, which serves to keep it from springing. He next folds a sheet of his paper according to the position of the crosses of the chase, which is his guide for placing it in the centre of the form; should his crosses be equal in the chase, he folds his paper in Quarto, and for Twelves accordingly. It was customary, formerly, to wet the tympans for all works, and even jobs of almost every description; but since the introduction of fine printing, and particularly the iron presses, this old custom is well-nigh banished, excepting for extraordinary heavy forms, composed with old letter, which of course require more softness to bring them off: having laid his sheet even upon the form, he then lays down the tympans, which with the least possible damp will cause

<sup>#</sup> These blankets are manufactured by W. Whitehead & Company, Oak View Mills, Saddleworth, Yorkshire; and sold by Mr. John Brealey, 17, Leve Lane, Resteheap, Lendon.

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the sheet to adhere to them: should it happen to have been laid uneven, it is much better to relay it, because this sheet (which is denominated the tympan sheet) is the guide by which the whole impression of the form of white paper is worked. He next selects his points, for large paper shortshanked, and for small, long-shanked points, and others in proportion to the intermediate sizes of paper; for his points ought to be so placed, that they may prick the point hold within the grasp of the hollow between his right hand thum and fore-finger; because, when he works the reiteration, he may the better manage and point the sheet when he is lay ing it on the tympan. The points should not be placed too near the edge of the paper; because, in working the reiteration, he would be forced to carry the off point hole the further from him, which in a long number is a loss of time; as the laying of the sheets quickly on the point holes add much to dispatch. Also the less distance between the points the better, as it saves time: because he must draw his body so much the farther back, to place that hole on its point; therefore for Folios, Quartos, or Octavos, &c. the near point should be placed farther in than the off one; but for Twelves they should be placed at exact distances from the edge of the paper. By placing the points unequally in Folios, &c. as before-mentioned, he also secures himself the more from a turned heap when he works the reiteration. When a press has a run upon the same work, they seldom of ever remove the quoins on the further or right hand end of the carriage or table, but let them remain as guages for the following forms: for by thrusting the chase close against those quoins, the register is almost, if not quite made; provided the chases run equal as to size. Having fixed on his points, he then lays down the tympans, within about an inch and a half of the form, in which position he holds it at the upper part with his left hand, while he sinks his body till he can see between the form and the tympan, and with the ball of the middle finger of his right hand presses gently upon the tympans over the ends of each point successively, to ascertain if they fall in or near the middle of the grooves of the short cross, if not he moves them; should the sheet have been taken up properly, and the points carefully fixed according to it, there can be little doubt but the points will be t fall in their places. Under the head of making ready the form, are comprehended several operations, viz. 1 The frisket should be covered with stout paper, and when the paste is sufficiently dried, it is pulled on the form, the frisket is then taken off the tympan and laid on a board, and the pages cut round with a sharp knife, about a Nonpareil from the edge of the margin of each page, it is then replaced on the tympan; after which it would be adviseable to put a few cords across, not only to strengthen the bars of paper, but also to keep the sheets much closer to the tympan than

would otherwise have been the case if the paper bars had been left to perform this office alone: at times it is necessary to work with cords only, where the margin is too small to admit bars of paper.

2. He next examines his form, to see that it is properly

locked up and plained down.

 That no letters or spaces lie in the white lines of the form, nor between the lines in leaded matter; which sometimes happen after the compositor has finished correcting.

4. Should any wood cuts be in the form, they must be brought to an equal height with the type; that is, by filing or scraping away, if too high, or by underlaying with card or paper, if too low: they may be humoured a little by means of an overlay, or by cutting them out of a sheet in the tympans if too high: should there be much card or paper underneath, they will be found to sink a little from the repeated impressions, consequently the cuts will require an

additional underlay when that takes place.

5. If any white page or pages happen in a form, and he uses a newly-covered frisket, he does not cut out that page; but if he works with an old frisket, and that page is already cut out, he pastes on a piece of paper to prevent it from blacking; he then puts on a bearer, to keep the adjoining pages from having too hard an impression: some pressen use reglets, others have furniture cut to a proper height, and a third class adopt cork, which from its elasticity, in many cases is very useful: spring bearers, made of hard paper rolled up, are also very serviceable to guard the sides and bottoms of light and open pages, when there is an inclination to slur, which with some presses cannot be prevented.

6. He examines whether the frisket bites; that is, whether it keep off the impression from any part of the pages; if it does, he cuts away so much, and about a Nonpareil

more, off the frisket where this happens.

7. He examines if the beards of the letter print at the feet of the pages; if they do, he considers whether the too short or too far running in of the carriage causes it; or whether it be only the beard of a short page that comes off: if the

last be the cause of it, he remedies it by a bearer.

8. If the carriage be run in too short, and the feet of the pages stand towards the plattin, the hind-side of the plattin will press strong upon the feet of those pages; and if the carriage be run in too far, the feet of the pages that stand towards the hinder rail of the tympan, will most feel the force of the plattin; and according to a greater or less proportion of that force, and to the softness or yielding of the paper, tympan, and blankets, and all other springs in the paper, tympan. In this case he runs the carriage under the plattin, till the further edge of it just covers the feet of

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the upper pages, he then makes a mark on the off side of his tympan on a line with the front of the plattin, as a guide for his first pull; he next runs in so as to clear the lower pages, when he makes a second mark to which he is to go

for the second impressiou.

9. He examines if the catch of the bar will hold it when the spindle makes a small spring, viz. when the bar flies but a little way back from the pressure of the form; if it will not, he knocks up the catch higher, and then screws the screw on the shank, and consequently the catch close and firm against the cheek of the press. But if the catch stand too high, so that it will not without a great spring (viz. when the bar is pulled hard from the further cheek) fly up, he then knocks upon the top of it, to sink it lower; and, when it is well fitted, screws it up again as before. catch stands too low, it will not hold the bar, but will come down when he is at work; for if, as it often happens, he lets the bar fly back harder than ordinary, or if it slip out of his hand, it will knock hard against the cheek, and spring back again. If the catch of the bar stands but a little too high, the violence of the bar's flying back to make it stick on the catch, will soon loosen the square of the bar in the eye of the spindle, and indeed subject the whole press to an unstable condition.

10. He considers whether the catch of the frisket stands either too forward or too backward. It may stand too forward, though when it is leisurely turned up it stays the frisket; because, when the pressman is proceeding in his work, though he generally throws the frisket quick un with an accustomed, and, as he intends, equal strength, yet if his guess at strength in throwing it up varies, and it comes though but a little harder up, the catch will make the frisket return; and though, as it sometimes happens, a solid wall serves to do the office of a stay for the frisket, yet with a little too hard throwing it up, the frisket itself will so shake and tremble from end to end, that before it recovers rest, its own motion will, by the quick running of a spring, throw it back again. If the catch stands too backward, then, after he has given the frisket a touch to bring it down, it will be too long before it comes down, and retard the progress of the work, and not unfrequently cause the sheet to slip out of its proper place; he therefore places the catch so, that the frisket may stand a little beyond a perpendicular backwards, that with a near-guessed strength in the tossing it up it, may just stand, and not come back; for then, with a small touch behind, it will again quickly come down upon the tympan.

11. He fits the gallows so that the tympan may stand as much towards an upright as he can, because it is the sooner let down upon the form and lifted up again. But yet he will not place it so upright as to prevent the white sheets of paper from laying secure on the tympan; and for relteration sheets, their laying upon the points secures them.

12. He considers the situation of the foot-step, and he

places it so as may best suit his own stature; for a tall man may allow the foot-step to stand farther off and lower than a short one, because his legs reach further under the carriage, and he can tread hard to add strength to his pull; when a short man must strain his legs to feel the foot-step. and consequently diminish the force of his pull.

13. Few pressmen will set the range of the paper bank to stand at right angles with the plank of the carriage; but they draw the further end of the paper bank so as that the near side may take an angle of about seventy-five degrees, more or less, with the near side of the carriage. son is, if the near side of the paper bank stand at right angles with the hear side of the carriage, he must carry his hand farther when he lays or casts sheets, which would occasion delay: besides, his companion has a nearer access to it to look over the heap, which he frequently does, to

see the colour of the work.

14. The pressman brings his heap, and sets it on the horse, on the near end of the paper bank, as near the tym-pan as he can, yet not to touch it, and places an end of the heap towards him. He then takes the uppermost or outside sheet, and lays it on the bank: and taking three or four, or five quires off his heap, he shakes them at each end, to loosen the sheets, that with pressing, stick close together, and not finding them loose enough, he shakes them long-ways and side-ways, to and fro, till he finds he has sufficiently loosened or hollowed the heap. Then with the nail of his right hand thumb, he draws or slides forward the upper sheet, and two or three more commonly follow gradually with it, over the hither edge of the heap, to prepare those sheets ready for laying on the tympan.

Rubbing out Ink.

Before the pressman goes to work, he rubs out his ink. If it has lain long on the ink-block since it was last rubbed out, the surface of it is generally dried and hardened into a film or skin, for which reason he carefully takes this film quite off, before he disturbs the body of the ink; for should any, though ever so little of it, mingle with the ink, when the ball happens to take up the little particles of film, and delivers them again upon the face of the letter, they produce picks, print black, and deface the work; and if they get between the face of two or more letters, or the hollows of them, they will obliterate all they cover; and if they be pulled upon, and the pressman not careful to overlook his work, they may run through the whole heap. Having carefully skinned off the film, he brings forward a small quantity of ink near the edge of the block, which he rubs well

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with the brayer. Care should be observed not to brayer out much at a time: for if this be done, it will be impossible to preserve any degree of uniformity in taking ink.

Of Beating.

Beating is an important part of a pressman's business, which, if not properly done, renders every other operation almost useless. A careful beater will never be found to take much ink at one time, but keep brayered out in the front of the ink-block a small quantity, that he may be certain of never receiving more than is necessary. The great art in beating is to preserve a uniformity of colour, which is easily performed by paying a proper attention to the taking of ink: this done regularly, and the form beat well over, the beater may be said to have done his duty.

All pressmen do not beat alike; but the method generally followed by good workmen is, the moment the tympans are lifted up, to lay the balls on the left hand near corner of the form, that he may the more readily carry them to the near right hand corner, while his companion is casting the sheet on the bank; if this opportunity be lost, it occasions delay, and in all probability leaves that corner untouched by the ball, and makes what is technically termed a frier.

In beating over the form, the elbows should be kept rather inward, and the ball stock handle inclining outward, in order that the balls may be perfectly upright; it will also enable him to go over the corner before mentioned with greater ease and certainty. This plan, if strictly followed, is unquestionably the most expeditious, as well as the least liable to defects, if common attention be observed by the beater. He begins, as already observed, at the right hand near corner, and goes up that side of the form and returns, and leaves off at the left hand near corner, taking care to make the form feel the force of the balls by beating hard and close. In the operation of beating, the balls should be constantly turning round in the hands, as it keeps them in their proper shape, and thereby renders them more safe and pleasant to work with.

The bails should not go too far over the forth, for they are liable to gather dust, and consequently throw picks on the form, which are not easily got rid of. These picks, and every other defect, it is the business of the beater to look carefully after, and to endeavour to mend and prevent. His companion can also, when taking off the sheets, give a slight glance over them; but the uniformity of the work will depend principally upon the beater. He will point out to the puller any defects in laying on the sheets on the tympan, or if he neglects to pull down the work with the force it requires.

Having thus gone twice upwards and downwards with the balls, beating close and strong, the form may then be

considered aufficiently beaten; but if he beats the first sheet of a fresh form, or after the form has been lately washed and consequently damp, or makes a proof, he goes three, four, or five times upwards and downwards, for the letter will not take the ink without several beatings.

Of Pulling.

The puller lays on sheets, lays down the frisket and tympans, runs in and out the carriage, takes up the tympans and frisket, takes of the sheet, and lays it on the heap. All these operations are in general mingled and lost in the name of pulling; and as in pulling, so in beating; for though the beater brayers out the ink, distributes it on the balls, peruses the heap, &c. yet these operations are also lost in the gene-

ral name of beating.

To take a sheet off the heap, he places his body almost straight before the near side of the tympan : but he nimbly twists the upper part of his body a little backwards towards the heap, the better to see that he takes but one sheet off. which he loosens from the rest of the heap by drawing the back of the nail of his right thumb nimbly over the bottom part of the heap, (but in the reiteration care should be taken to draw the thumb on the margin, or between the gutters. that the sheet may not smear or set off), and receiving the near end of the sheet with his left hand fingers and thumb. catches it with his right hand about two inches within the further edge of the sheet, near the upper corner, and about the length of his thumb below the near edge of the sheet. and brings it nimbly to the tympan, and at the same time twists his body again before the tympan, only moving his right foot a little from its first station forwards under the coffin plank; and as the sheet is coming to the tympan, (supposing it to be white paper) he nimbly disposes the fingers of his right hand under the further edge of the sheet near the upper corner; and having the sheet thus in both his hands, lays the further side and two extreme corners of the sheet down even upon the further side and extreme further corners of the tympan sheet; but he is careful that the upper corner of the sheet be first laid even upon the upper corner of the tympan sheet, that he may the sooner disengage his right hand. If, however, by a quick glance of his eye, he perceives the sides of the sheet lie uneven on the tympan sheet, with his left hand at the bottom corner of the sheet, he either draws it backwards, or pulls it forwards, as the sheet may lie higher or lower on the near corners of the tympan sheet, while his right hand, being disengaged, is removed to the back of the ear of the frisket, and with it gives it a light touch to bring it down upon the tympan, laying, at the same moment, the tympan on the He then, with his left hand, grasps the rounce, and with a moderate strength nimbly gives the winch about

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one turn round : but to regulate his running in, he first makes a mark, as before observed, on the further rail of the tympan, to which mark he runs the carriage in, till he brings the mark in a range with the fore-edge of the plattin; and as it is running in, skips his hand to within an inch or two of the end of the bar, and then gently leans his body back, that his arm, as he pulls the bar towards him, may keep a straight posture; because in a pull it has then the greatest strength. He now puts his right foot upon the footstep. while his left hand holds fast by the rounce. as well to rest on the footstep and rounce, as to enable him to make a stronger pull; which will prove longer or shorter according to the strength put to it. Then disengaging his right hand azain from the handle of the bar, he slips it to the bow of the bar, before the handle rebounds quite back to the cheek of the press; for should the bar by its forcible spring knock hard against the cheek of the press, it might not only shake some of its parts out of order, but subject the whole machine to injury; besides, the further the bar flies back, the more he is retarded in recovering it again. But yet he must let the bar fly so far back as that the plattin may clear the tympan; lest, when he runs in for his second pull, the face of the plattin rub upon the tympan, and force the sheet upon the face of the letter, which slurs or doubles it, and destroys the sheet,

Having made the first pull, and the rounce still in his left hand, he turns it round again, till the carriage runs in so far as that the second mark of the rail of the tympan comes in a range with the further edge of the plattin, as before, and then pulls his second pull as he did his first. and slips his right hand again off the handle of the bar to the bow, guides the bar expeditiously to its catch: and just as he has pulled his second pull, he gives a quick and strong pressure upon the rounce, to turn it back, and run the carriage out again; and, as soon as he has given this pressure he disengages his left hand from the rounce, and clans the fingers of it towards the bottom of the tympan, to assist the right hand in lifting it up, and also to be ready to catch the bottom of the sheet when the frisket rises and conveys it quick and gently to the catch; and while the frisket is going up, he slips the thumb of his left hand under the near lower corner of the sheet, which, with the assistance of his two fore-fingers, he rises, and by so doing allows the right hand also to grasp it at the top in the same manner, which lifts the sheet carefully and expeditiously off the points, and nimbly twisting about his body towards the paper-bank, carries the sheet over the heap of white paper to the bank, and lays it down upon a waste sheet or wrapper put there for that purpose; but while it is coming over the white paper heap, though he has the sheet between both his fore fingers and thumb, yet he holds it so loosely, that it may more

between them as on two centres, as his body twists about from the side of the tympan towards the side of the paper hank. Thus, both the pressman's hands at the same time are alternately engaged in different operations; for while his right hand is employed in one action, his left is busy about another; and these exercises are so suddenly varied that they seem to slide into one another's position, begin-

ning when the former is but half performed.

Having thus pulled a sheet and haid it down, he turns his body towards the tympan again; and, as he is turning, gives the next sheet on the white paper heap a touch with the back of the nail of his right thumb, as before, to draw it a little over the hither edge of the heap, and lays it on the tympans, &c. as he did the first, and so successively every sheet, till the whole heap of white paper be worked off. As he comes to a token sheet, he undoubles it, and smooths out the crease with the back of the nails of his right hand, that the face of the letter may print upon smooth paper. And being printed off, he folds it again as before, for a token sheet, when he works the reiteration.

Having worked off the white paper of twelves, or any form imposed like twelves, he places his right hand under the heap, and his left hand supporting the end near him, turns it over on the horse, with the printed side downwards: if octavo, or similar works, he places his left hand under the heap, and also supports the outside near end with high thand, and turns it over, viz. one end over the other. In performing this, he takes from the worked off heap so much at once between both his hands as he can well govern, without disordering the evenness of the sides of the heap, viz. a token or more, and lays that upon the horse; then takes another lift, and so successively, till he has turned the

whole heap.

Having turned the heap, he proceeds to make register, which he does by laying one of the sheets just printed, on one side, upon the tympan sheet, for a register sheet, and a waste sheet over that to keep it clean from any filth the face of the letter may have imprinted upon it, and pulls these two sheets. He then runs out the carriage, lifts up the tympan, and takes off the two sheets, laying the waste sheet by ; but turns the other side of the register sheet, to observe if the second impression falls upon that of the first; if they do, the register is then made: but should the last impression stand uneven with the one first printed, either the whole length of the sheet or a part, he then moves the form accordingly; that is, he either drives it from, or brings it towards him, by means of the quoins against the corner irons; or brings the form higher or lower, by the same means, should the heads require putting into register. A considerable portion of the trouble attending the making of register for a sheet would be saved, if the pressman would be very

particular in placing the form in the centre of his press for the white paper, this is found by running the carriage gently in, and observing that the mark on the front of the plattin falls in line with the centre of the long cross; and also the putting on of his points, which is of the utmost importance, either for a sheet or a half sheet of Twelves in particular, without which it will be almost next to an impossibility that he can even make register, much less to keep it afterwards, because for this size almost every thing depends upon the exactness of the points. With a half sheet, the register should be properly made before the form is proceeded with, although in some cases we are free to admit, that through the least unevenness of the long cross in particular, it will be necessary to make an alteration in one quarter, when the first side is worked off; a great matter in the making of register depends on the proper locking up of the form; which should be gently tapped up all round, (after the quoins have been forced up tight with the finger and thumb, and so proceed from quarter to quarter, repeating the locking up until it is sufficiently tight to secure the type from dropping out. In locking up a form, the quoins at the feet should be gently struck first to force up the pages and prevent their hanging; but in unlocking the side quoins are first slackened, otherwise, should the matter be leaded, the leads are very liable to be bent, if not broke, by the foot of the page being first unlocked.

But it sometimes happens that the compositor has not made the white exactly equal between all the sides of the crosses; in this case, altering the quoins will not make good register; the pressman therefore observes which side has too much or too little white, and, unlucking the form, takes out or puts in such a number of scaleboards as he thinks will make good register, which he tries by pulling a sheet, and if it be necessary, alters it again, till he has pulled a

sheet with good register.

Having made register, he proceeds to work it off; but he somewhat varies his posture in laying on the sheet; for, as before, when he worked white paper, he caught the sheet by the upper further corner with his right hand, he now, having taken up the sheet, catches it as near the further side of the further point hole as he can, with the ball of his right hand thumb above the sheet, and the ball of his fore finger under the sheet, the readier to lay the point hole over its respective point; which having done, he slips his body a little buckwards, and both his hands with it; his right hand towards the near point hole, with the back of the nails of his fingers to draw or stroke it over the point; and the fingers of his left hand, as they come from the further corner, nimbly slipping along the bottom edge of the sheet, till they come to the hither corner; and then with his fore finger and thumb lays hold of it, in order to guide the point

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hole on that point also; then pulls that sheet, as before, as he did the white paper, and so successively all the rest of the reiteration. The token sheets, as he meets with them, he does not fold down again, as he did the white paper.

Covering the Tumpans.

The tympans are covered with velium, forrels, or parchment. They should be of an equal thickness, and about two inches and a half wider, and three inches longer than the tympans.

Tympans have been sometimes covered with Irish cloth, which, on second of its evenness, would answer the purpose; but it is so apt to stretch, that the tympans become slack in a short time, and bag (as it is termed,) which occasions a slur on the work. Muslin also hasbeen used, but it is likewise subject

to the same objection as the cloth.

Having provided some stiff paste, he lays so much of it on the edges of the skin, as will cover the tympan, which is also well pasted. He then lays the skin on the tympan, and draws it regularly, as tight as possible, on all sides. That part of the skin that comes on the grooves of the tympan which receive the point-screws, is cut and wrapt round the inside edge of the groove, which admits a free passage for the screws. After having fastened the skin on the sides of the tympan, he draws it towards the joints which receive the frisket, and with a knife cuts across these joints to let them through the skin; he then puts the frisket pins through the same, and makes that end of the tympan fast. He next proceeds to the lower joints, and brings the skin as tight as he can round that part of the tympan. The point-screws and duck-bill are then put on, which prevent the skin from starting. The inner tympan is covered in the same manner, and in order to prevent its warping, a stick or a piece of furniture is placed in the centre of it, till it be perfectly dry. The skins are put on either wet or dry; if dry, they should be afterward well wet, which makes them give for the moment; they are then drawn as tight as possible. As they dry, they contract, and are by this means rendered much tighter than they would be if put on wet.

Of Wetting Paper.

Paper is commonly wet in a trough full of clean water. The pressman places the dry heap on the left hand of the trough and a paper board with its breadth before him on his right, laying first a wrapper or a waste sheet of paper on the papersord, that it may not soil the first sheet of the heap. Then he takes up the first token, and lays it with the backs of the quires towards his right hant, that he may the readier catch at the back of each quire with that hand, he lays that token across the rest of the heap, that he may the easier know when he comes to the end of it.

He takes a quire by the centre of the back in his right hand, and the edge of it in his left, and lays it down upon the waste

sheet, opens it, and lays on it a few sheets.

Having laid down his dry laying, he takes the remainder of the quire off the dry heap, with the back of it in his right hand, and the edge of it in his left, as before, and closing his hand a

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little, that the quire may bend rather downwards between his hands, he dips the back of the quire into the left hand side of the trough: and discharging his left hand of the quire, draws it through the water with his right; but as the quire comes out, he quickly catches the edge of it again in his left hand, and brings it to the heap; and by lifting up his left hand, bears the under side of the quire off the dry paper laid down before, lest the dry sheet should stick to the wet before he has placed lest the dry since singular state to the west before in his present the quire in an even position, and so perhaps wrinkle a sheet or two, or else put a dry sheet or two out of their even posi-tion. But this drawing the quire through the water, he per-forms either quick or slow; if the paper so weak and apoury, he performs it quick; if strong and stubborn, slowly. To place this quire in an even position, he lays the back of it exactly upon the open crease of the former, and then lets the side of the quire in his left hand fall flat down upon the heap; and discharging his right hand, brings it to the edge of the quire, and with the assistance of his left thumb, still in its first position, opens or divides either a third or half of the whole quire according to the quality of the paper; and spreading the fingers of his right hand as much as he can through the length of the quire, turns over his opened division of it upon his right hand side of the heap. Having wet his first token, he doubles down a corner of the upper sheet of it on his right hand, so that the further corner may lie a little towards the left hand of the crease in the middle of the heap, and that the other corner may hang out on the near side of the heap, about an inch and a half; this sheet is called the token sheet, as being a mark for the pressman, when he is at work, to know how many tokens of that heap are worked off.

Having wet the whole heap, he lavs a wrapper or waste sheet of paper upon it, that the paper-board may not soil the last sheet of the heap; then, three or four times takes up as much water ashe can in the hollow of his hand, and thrown it over the waste sheet, that it may moisten and soak downwards into the unwet part of the last division of the quire.

The paper being thus wet, he takes up the whole heap upon the paper-board, and sets it by in a part of the room, appropriated for that purpose, and lays another board upon it; and upon the middle of the board sets about half a hundred weight, and lets it stand by to press, commonly till next morning; for pressmen generally wet their paper after they have left work at night. All paper would be better if it were to be separated and turned in the course of the next morning, if it has been wet over night, and pressed again for seven or eight hours.

Knocking up Balls.

Pelts are used for this purpose, and such are chosen as have a strong grain, and the grease well worked out of them. They are purchased either wet or dry; if dry, they are put to soak in chamber-jre. One shin generally makes two proper sized halls. When the skin has soaked sufficiently, which will require about fourteen or fifteen hours, it is taken out of the lye, and curried; that is, by putting the skin round the currying iron, or any upright post, and taking hold of each end of it, and

drawing it with as much force as possible, backwards and forwards, against the post, which discharges a good deal of the water and lime, and renders it more pliable; he then cuts the skin exactly in two, and puts them under his feet, and contiones to tread them till he is unable to discover the smallest particle of water, or till it sticks to the foot in treading. skin is then laid on a wetting board, or a vacant press stone, and stretched, by rubbing the ball stock on it, as much as pos-He then places a lining, (which is a worn-out skin, and which has been previously soaked, but not trodden,) on the skin, and nails them with one nail to the ball stock; he then proceeds to lay the different cardings of the wool one upon the other, crossways, till he has sufficient for the ball; he then takes it up by the bottom corners, and grasps it into a circular form, with which he fills the ball stock, then brings the skin opposite the part already nailed, and makes that also fast with another nail. He then puts two nails immediately opposite each other between the fastenings already made, and proceeds to put the skin in plaits, about an inch wide; through each plait a pail is driven; the superfluous skin should then be cut off, within half an inch of the knocked up when the wool nails. Balls is so placed as to form a full even face, that every part of the skin may bear upon the letter; not rising in hillocks, or falling into dales; not having too much

render them soon hard and uneasy for the pressmen to work with; or too little, for that will make the skin, as the wool set-tles with working, soon flap, and wrap over into wrinkles, so that he cannot so well distribute the ink on his balls.

Haying knocked up the balls, he dips them into the chamberlye, and immediately scrapes them with the ball knife, in order to make them pertectly clean; he then procures a clean sheet of stout paper, and puts it on the ball, and continues rubbing and patting it till the ball is perfectly dry, which is considered in that state when it will readily take the ink on every part of Having thus dried the balls, he proceeds to take ink; but if he finds that scarcely any of the skin is black, they are not sufficiently dry; he then returns again to drying it with paper, or burns a piece of waste paper, and waves his ball to and fro over the flame of it, but so quick and cautiously that he neither scorches the leather nor dries it too much: in winter time, when a fire is at hand, he dries it gently by the fire. If the balls are greasy, they should be frequently rubbed up with the pelt blankets, and well scraped; and dried, as before, with

We have introduced the foregoing account of the pelt balls, not only because several printers still continue to use them, but in order to shew the alteration which has taken place in this respect. About the year 1815, composition balls were introduced at Weybridge, by Mr. B. Foster, a compositor: upon their introduction into London they were opposed by some masters and also by many pressmen, but they gradually came into pretty general use; there are yet a few who still adhere to the old mode. These balls are made of molasses, glue, and a portion of tar, which are boiled together to a proper consistency,

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it is then poured upon a piece of cloth, and when sufficiently cold is knocked up according to the crues before hid down; by this means the nuisance of the pelt pot and its attendant filth is dispensed with. Should these balls be hand, when dirty, they may be washed with a little weak lye, and rinsed with water; if soft, a little ink might be put on them, and then scraped: but the pressman must use his own judgment in this respect, because composition will vary so much from the boiling, and likewise the weather, that no decisive rule can be laid down.

In 1814, the Times newspaper was first printed by a Steam Engine, consequently, from its being a cylindrical power, rollers were indispensably necessary; these were made of a conposition of molasses, glue, and tar, as before observed; in the following year the composition balls were brought into use; and in 1819, hand rollers were introduced to the notice of the profession, which very rapidly came into general use, and are likely to conti-

manufactured of the made in the form they are excel-

composition si above, and are here lently

shewn:

adapted

for heavy forms, but not so much for light ones: they are likewise subject to the changes of the weather as well as the balls, and should be treated in a similar manner; but as they vary so much in the nature of the composition, we recommend the pressmen to study the best mode of treating them, as no general rule can here be laid down.

Printing Red, or other Colours, with Black.

When red and black are to be printed on the same sheet, as in Moore's, and other almanacks, the form is made ready in the usual way, and a line traced all round the outside of the chase on the stone with chalk, or any thing that will accurately shew the exact situation in which the form must be placed after it has been taken off the press. The pressman then pulls a sheet in order to get those words or lines marked, which are to be worked red; while this is doing he washes the form thoroughly, as the least dirt remaining on it will destroy the beauty of the red. The form is then laid with its face downwards on a letter-board covered with a press-blanket. Those words marked to be red are then forced down, (which the soft and spongy nature of the blanket readily admits of.) and Nonpareil rigiets nicely fitted into the vacancies, which raise the red lines and words all of an equal distance from the other matter. A sheet of paper is then pasted on the form, which keeps the Nonparell underlays in their proper places. The form is again laid on underlays in their proper places. The form is again laid on the press, observing the utmost care in placing it agreeable to the marks before made on the stone. It must then be made perfectly fast to the corner irons, as it is highly important that ir remain firm and immoveable during its stay on the press. The frisket (which is covered with parchment,) is then put on, the form beat over with the red balls, and an impression made The red words are then cut out with a sharp-pointed penknife, with so much nicety as not to admit the smallest soil on the paper from the other matter.

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The red being finished, and the form washed, the composi-tor unlocks it, (which is best done on the imposing stone, as the pressman can easily lay it agreeable to the marks made on the press,) and draws out the red lines, and fills up the space with quadrats. When this is done, the pressman cuts out the frisket for the black. An extra pair of points are used to prevent the black from falling on the red, which is termed riding. When a very extensive number is to he printed, two forms are generally used, one for the red, an i another for the black. There is another method of placing the underlays, which is adopted for broadsides, &c. with large letter, and with perhaps only two or three lines of red in them. The red lines are taken out on the press stone, and the underlays put in with a bodkin, upon which these lines are placed, and the frisket cut out as before-mentioned. The custom of printing broadsides, &c. with various coloured

inks having become so very much into general use, has induced some of our ink makers to turn their attention to the manufacture of coloured inks; consequently the printers can now be supplied with that article without the delay and labour of making. Composition balls are also an additional advantage in the working of colours, from the easy manner in which the colours, except black, are removed off the balls; th's may be done either by washing with a little lye, if hard, or scraping

with soft varnish or spirits of turpentine, if soft.

Mixing and grinding Colours with Varnish Varnish is the common menstruum adopted for all colours in printing. Hed is the colour generally used with black. Ver-million, with a small portion of lake, produces a beautiful red, which should be well ground with a muller on a marble slab, till it be perfectly smooth. If it be in the seallest degree gritty, it clogs the form, and consequently produces a thick and im-perfect impression; no pains should therefore be spared to render it perfectly smooth; it may then be made to work as clear and tree from picks as black. A cheaper red, but not so brilliant, may be prepared with orange mineral, rose pink, and red lead. The Prussian blue makes also an excellent colour. and will require a good deal of time and labour to render it perfectly smooth. It is also ground with the best varnish, but made considerably thicker by allowing a greater portion of colour with the same quantity of varnish, than the red; it will then work clear and free from picks. As this colour drys rather rapidly, the halls will require to be frequently scraped.

Other colours may be made, viz lake and russet, which produce adeep red; verditure and indigo, for blues; orpiment pink, yellow ochre, for yellows; verdigresse and green ver-diture, for green, &c. All these colours should be ground with soft varnish, being in the meeters dryers, or they will so choke up the form, as to require it to be frequently washed, as well as dry and harden the balls, and so render them useless.

The best colours for printing are those of the lightest body

and brightest colour.

Boiling lees, made of American pearlash, should be used for washing the forms.

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Rules and Remedies for Pressmen.

It is the business of the pressman to pull proofs whenever they are wanted. In most offices of any extent, an empty press, called a proof press, is generally placed in some part of the composing room. The slovenly manner in which proofs are too often pulled, cannot be sufficiently reproduced. It is the duty of the corrector to notice whatever appears faulty or defective in the type; consequently, upon dirty, or almostilegible proofs, the marks will be numerous, and the trouble and loss of time to the compositor great and vexatious. This is not the greatest evil; the most careful and attentive reader will not, in such proofs, be able to discover faults, which, if he but glance his sey over the sheet at press, will so stare him the face, as to make him almost involuntarily cry out, with Macheth-

"Thou caust not say that I did it !"

No proof should be received by the reader, that has not been pulled perfectly clean and legible; the pressman would then be obliged to take some pains in this respect. After a proof has been made, the form should be well rubbed over with clean lye.

About every three sheets a small quantity of ink should be taken, and during the intervals the beater is not employed in brayering out or taking ink, he should be overlooking the heap in order to detect any want of uniformity in the colour; to observe if any letters, quadrats, or furniture rise: that no letters are drawn out, or battered; that the register be good, and the work free from picks: during this examination, the balls must be distributed as much as When, through carelessness, too much ink has been taken, it should be removed by laying a piece of clean waste paper on one of the balls, and distributing them till the ink is reduced to the proper quantity. If letters, quadrats, or furniture, rise up and black the paper, they should be put down with the book in, and the quarter locked up tighter. If any letters are battered, the quarter they are in must be unlocked, and perfect ones put in by the compositor. When bearers become too thin by long working, they should be replaced by thicker ones. When the form gets out of register, which will often happen by the starting of the quoins. which secure the chase, it must be immediately put in again, as there can scarcely be a greater defect in a book, than a want of uniformity in this particular. If picks, which are produced by his of paper, skin, or film of ink and grease or filth, get into the form, they are removed with the point of a pin or needle; but if the form is much clogged with them, it should be wail rubbed over with clean ye, or taken off, and washed: in either case, before the pressuan goes on again, it should be made perfectly dry by pulling a waste sheet or two, in order to suck up the water deposited in the cavities sheet or two, in order to suck up the water deposited in the cavities of the letter. The puller should habituate himself to glance his eve over every sheet, is he takes it off the tympan: this may be done without retarding his progress; by following this plan, he will be enabled to detect imperfections which may escape the beater. In order to ensure uniformity in receiving ink from the block, care should be taken to brayer out at the edge of the block, small quantitles at a time. While this is doing, the balls must rest on the ball-rack, with the right hand on the upper ball-stock handle. Torn or stained sheets met with in the course of work, are thrown out and placed under the bank; but the pressman should be particularly careful to have them supplied by others from the warehouseman. Creases and wrinkles will frequently happen in the sheets, through

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careless wetting of the paper; these should be carefully removed by smoothing them out with the back of the nails of the right hand.

In twelves, and other works where the plattin pinches twice upon the centre pages, doubling frequently happens; the following, among many others, are the causes of, and remedies for this evil. It happens when the face of the plattin and the inner tympan are both dirty, which occasions them to stick; they should always be kept perfectly clean. Slack or rickety tympans will also cause doubling; and leaning the body against the carriage in reaching the bar, in presses without guidecramps, and in those also where these cramps do not act with truth. The nut being loose in the head will also occasion this defect; the short bolts should be screwed up as tight as possible. If the plattin be slack, or otherwise improperly tled up, this defect will always happen; also doubling will happen from the following causes, which must be remedied by the joiner and smith; viz. when the tenons of the head are so narrow as not to fill the mortises in the cheeks. The nut and garter so working casy and steady in the shelves. The wheel on the spit not well justified, and its having too much play in the car, which causes an unpleasant check. The paper being rather too dry, will also sometimes cause the impression to double. Slurring and mackling will frequently happen when the tympans are carelessly and suddenly put on the form; they should always be laid down easy, and the slur-acree made use of.

Leaning against the carriage, as before-mentioned, will also cause a
slur. If the plattin rub against the rail of the tympan, it will inevitably
cause a slur and mackle. This can easily be remedied by moving the
tympans so as to clear the plattin. The ear of the frisket being so long as to cause it to rub against the cheek, always produces a slur; this can be prevented by aling off a part of it. Loose tympans will at all times slur the work; great care must therefore be observed in drawing them perfectly tight. Independent of the above causes, slurring and mackling will sometimes happen; it will be better in this case to tie as many cords as possible across the frisket, which will keep the sheet close to the tympan.

Before the presuman leaves his work, he covers his heap. He first sturns down a sheet like a token sheet, where he leaves off, then puts a quantity of the worked off sheets on it, taking care to have the printed side upwards, that his companion, if he have any, on coming to work first in the morning, may not be deceived in taking it for the reiteration. Laying the blanket on the heap, after leaving off work, is a bad custom. If the paper be rather dry, it will be better to put wet wrappers on it. The blankets should always be kept as dry as possible, that they may not make the inner tympan damp and siack.

The presuman's next care should be to look after his balls. They

they may not make the their sympan damp and stack. They resuman's next care should be to look after his balls. They should be well rubbed with a blanket soaked with chamber-lye, if they should be well rubbed with a blanket soaked with chamber-lye, if they day's work. They must be left well covered up-ribb his nexts; but if they are already sufficiently soft, they will not require rubbing, and what is termed a dry blanket will answer the purpose, viz. one from which the water does not run. When the balls have been over-soaked, they should be left on the rack all night, with merely a piece of paper

which are water oos not run. When the Dalls have been over-soaked, they should be left on the rack all night, with mertly a piece of paper round them, as they will not bear the process of what is termed capping. The presuman next observes whether his form be clean; if 80, he puts a sheet of waste paper between the tympan and frinket, and lay puts a sheet of waste paper between the tympan and frinket, and lay clean lie. On his return to work in the morning, he takes care to write the tympan, (but not for very light word). If there should cape to be any pages in the form particularly open, those parts of the tympan where they fall must not be wetted.

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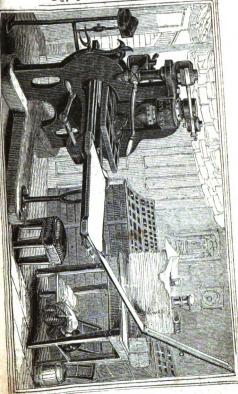
#### THE STANHOPS PRESS.

THIS press is the invention of the late patriotic nobleman whose name it bears; who after many expensive and labo-rious experiments, at length succeeded, with the assistance of an ingenious mechanist (the late Mr. Walker) in bring-ing the press to a state of perfection. The first press was finished in the year 1800, and its powers were tried at the office of Mr. Bulmer, (the Shakespeare Press) in which house it at present remains. They have undergone several alterations since the first of them were made, particularly in the rounce, and the ribs; the handle of the former was attached to a rod which crossed the plattin, this rod was connected with the spit by means of machinery; the carriage, instead of running on cramps in the ribs as at present, was carried upon wheels on a straight edge, which made a very disagreeable noise; the gallows for the tympans is also removed, and the bearings are attached to the ends of them. At first they were very apt to break in one part or the other, particularly in the staple, which was at length discovered to have been cast too weak to bear the extraordinary power applied; this evil was afterwards remedied, by casting them considerably stouter; since which they have maintained their character for being excellently well adapted for the purposes of printing, as well as being durable, and not likely to get out of repair, provided they are kept clean and well oiled, which are the most essential requisites, not only for this, but also for all kinds of machinery-

His Lordship having objected to the taking out of a Patent for his invention, it was consequently thrown open. upon which several Engineers and Smiths began to manufacture presses on the same principle; it is true some of them made trifling alteratious, but in truth they were scarce worthy of notice; therefore, in order to find a market for them, they sold them somewhat cheaper; but we can asseat, without fear of successful contradiction, that those from the original manufactory were infinitely superior to what were made in other quarters: the idea of saving induced many printers to purchase them; but we are firmly persuaded that they have long ago had reason to regret (from their so often being out of repair, &c.) their overanxiety for cheap, and, as we have before observed, slovenly manufactured articles: however, we must injustice admit, that the presses manufactured by Mr. Brooks, (who for several years was considered as one of the best workmen in the original concern), are in every respect equal to those made at the last-mentioned establishment. We shall bow introduce to our readers an engraving of the Stanhope press, and feel strongly persuaded, that every one will allow it to be the best representation of this machine that has

ever appeared before the public.

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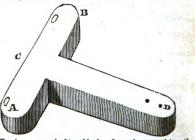
Notwithstanding the very extraordinary power of the Stanhope Presses, when contrasted with that of the wooden ones, still we must observe, great as this power unquestionably is, yet on one occasion we found that it was not at all adequate for what was required, we allude to the printing of the wood engraving of the Assassination of L. S. Dentatus: at the press from which our subject was taken we attempted to pull a proof; the block was well beat over and ink twice taken, a damp piece of India paper was laid upon it and a blanket, with a second one inside the tympans, when the bar was well pulled down by two men for several seconds, with all the power that could be applied to the press; but to our utter astonishment, we found little more than would have appeared from a plain block; this impression is now in our possession; at length, after considerable labour, and the greatest risk of breaking the press, we obtained a few inferior impressions, by means of three blankets, and other expedients: we have no hesitation in stating this to have been the greatest power ever applied to a Stanhope Press.

This press consists of the following parts, which are thus put together; The Tee, Staple, Rounce,\* Ribs, Standard, Main Screw, Short Head, Arbor, Top Plate, Long Hack, Coupling Bar, Piston, Back Plate, Ears, Balance Weight,

Bar, Plattin, Table and Tympans.

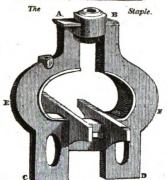
The Tee .

A to B, 3 ft. 0 in. C to D, 3 ft. 7 in. Height 8 and a half.



The Tee is composed of two blocks of wood screwed together at one end, in the form here represented; there are four holes in the upper part, two in the long, and two in the short piece; the two first are to fasten the Staple, and the other two the Standard, or Fore-stay.

\* The spit of the Rounce fits on the Ribs before they are screwed on.



A to B, 0 ft. 16 in. and a half. | C to D, 2 ft. 9 in. and a half. | E to F, 3 4 | Height, 3 11

The Staple is one piece of solid cast iron, agreeable to the engraving here shown; the arms, or bearings for the impression also form a part of it, and to which the ribs are attached: there and form a part of it, and to which the rips are attached: there are fifteen holes drilled and tapped in the Staple for the following screws; ribs four, knuckles four, ball-rack three, ink-block three, top-plate one: the box is fitted into the top of the Staple, and held up by means of a collar screwed on it; the inside of the cheeks are bevelled off from back to front, and polished to admit the Piston to work freely between them.

The Ribs.



Length ft. 3 in. The Ribs are fluted so as to admit the cramps to run freely into them; they fit on the arms between the projecting pieces, and

are fastened by four screws, and also by two others on the top of the standard; they are likewise secured at each end by cross pieces, which are screwed on them with leather between, to prevent the oil from escaping out of the grooves of the ribs.

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The Standard.

Length, from A to B, 17 in.

The Standard is made here represented; it is piece of cast iron, and by which it is fastened Tee: at the top of the through which two the sides of the ribs kept or Fore-stay.

steady.

in the form of a fork, as rivetted into an oval through it are two holes to the long part of the fork are two holes, screws are passed into and by which they are

Width, from C to D. 10 in.

The Main Screw.

Length, A to C, 3 in. C to B, 10 in. D the centre. The Main Screw is thirteen a inches long, three inches of the upper part is made herother agonal, or six square, to admit the short head, and through which a pin is fixed to keep them together; at the lower end is a garter, on which the collar of the piston works, and at the bottom is a hole to receive the plug of sented by the dotted lines: I the upper centre, as represented by the dotted lines: I the upper centre, as represented will not fit in its place as a to sposite angles; in putting bar; consequently it must be taken out again, and without the greatest caution they are liable to fall into the same error: before the screw is put into the box, the collar at the top of the piston must be placed so as to screw on when the latter is put up.

The Short Head is a piece of cast iron, in the centre of one end is an hexagonal hole made to fit exactly on the top of the main screw, through which end is separated sufficion to coupling ber to the coupling ber to made for a substantial steel boit to pass through both these projections, upon which a nut is acrewed on the bottom; this both secures one end of the coupling ber.

The

Prom A to B, I in and a half.
The Arbor is a round cast
and a half long; one inch
is a round projection,
admit the bar, on which a
site side: four inches from
rests one end of the top
hexagonal above the coller, ra
which is also fastened

Arbor. B to C, 9 in. C to D, 4 in.

iron pillar, fourteen inches and a half from the bottom through which is a hole to mu is screwed on the oppothe top is a collar, on which plate: the arbor is made to admit the long head, on with an iron pin.

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The Top Plate. Length, from A to B, 8 in. Width, 3 in. and a half.
The Top Plate has two holes in it, one to admit the upper part of the arbor, through it; and the A short hastens it to the top of the staple: part of the plate being cut away to fit exactly on the last mentioned;

and by which means it appears to form a part.

The Long Head.

Length, from A to B . . . 9 is. and a half.

The Long Head is cast somewhat like that of the short one; only with this differ-

ence, the front projection rises a little above the top, which forms an coupling bar, when the arbor, or cheek, to the pull is made; the latter having to pass over the top of the long head and arbor. The other end of the coupling bar is attached to it, as before described, in the short head.

The Coupling Bar.

Length, A to B, 15 in. and a half. Width, 1 in. and three quarters.

The Coupling Bar is a flat piece of wrought iron, made round at one end, with a hole through the centre, which is connected to the long head; the other end is rounded a little with a square head through which A told D passes a screw, and by it the power is regulated: presses against a washer which fits in the oblong hole, and through the screw that connects the bar with the short head; there is also a projection on the side which checks against the arbor in the long head, when the pull is made.

The Bar and Handle

Longth, 21 in. Shank, 3 in. & three quarters. Handle, 5 in. Thebar is shaped form here reprefits into the hole the arbor, and is the end; the

somewhat in the sented the shank in the circle on screwed fast at bandle is made

of wood, and rivetted at the extreme point.

The Piston

A to B, 17. C to D, 12 in and a quarter. E to F, 5 in and a half. Is of cast iron, with a bowl at the upper part, at the bottom of which is placed the lower centre; on which the upper one

works: the inside of the ed to receive the screw upon the garter of the the latter is completely when the Piston is put under the collar are two rest upon the ends of which the piston and ter the impression is

top of this bowl is tappof the collar which rests spindle; the bottom or enclosed in the bowl up; on each side, just small knuckles, which the balance iron, and by plattin are raised up afmade; the sides are be-

velled off, and made to fit exactly against the bevels on the inside of cheeks; a hole is tapped at the back to receive the screw which draws the piston close to the back plate: the four holes

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on the oval are for the screws which secures the plattim to the piston.

The Back Plate.

The Back Plate is a square piece of cast iron cut away in the centre of the upper part, so as to clear the bowl of the piston, and the centre of the lower part is cut through to admit the projecting piece which the piston: between these made through a projecting which draws the piston to leaving it just free working room.

The Balance Iron and Knuckles. Length of arm . . . 10 in. Fork . Width of do. . . . 5 and a half.

The Balance Iron is made in the form here represented, with the knuckles attachholes in each, which the cheeks of the stasocket to admit the fork project under the the piston, which plattin : on the arm is

ed: there are screwed against ple, and a hole on each oil; the points of the studs at the sides of draw up that and the

a sliding hook, on which the weight ishung, a screw on the top prevents its moving from the friction.

are two

The Balance is of solid cast iron, with a the centre of which is fixed arm of the fork; this the bar to return after

Weiakt groove across the top, in the an eye for the book on the weight is sufficient to cause the impression is taken,

The Plattin. Width, B to C, 1 ft. sin. & a half. Length, A to B. 2 ft. 2 in.

The Plattin is a cast iron, about A it is cast with presented; which about an inch and sequently about half an inch others they are er; the oval in the correspond with on which it fits, tened together by pass through the into the plattin: which being turn.



ed off in a lathe to the greatest exactness, so that it should bite a thin piece of paper, or even a hair, when laid upon the table.

The Table. Width, A to B, 2 ft. Length, B to C, 2 ft. 5 in. and a half. The upper part of the Table is turned off in a lathe to the greatest truth, so that the plattin, when laid upon it, ought

#### Topographia....543

to bite a single hair in any part; the corner irons are afterwards screwed on, together with the projecting pieces at the ends, to which the girths are fastened by means of slides and screws; the shanks of the screws to the tympan joints have two long holes made in each. through which screws pass, and the nuts are put on the outsides, by which the tympans are raised or lowered at pleasure: the table is cast with holes, somewhat resembling the plattin, but in form as here represented;

the table is carcramps, which grooves of the cramps are on ends of the are secured the sides) by two small screws; of the springs admit four pass through the springs, to rewhich acts as a the screws from set: these screws pose of rasing or ble, as occasion operation is pering the screws at the four cornthey are screw-

ried by four steel run into ribs: these the pivots springs. which the middle (near iron plates and the extremeends are tapped so as screws. which table and the ceive nut. check, to keep moving when are for the purlowering the tarequires: formed by turnwhich are let in ers of the table: ed tighter to

lower it, by which means the springs are drawn closer to the under part, and the table consequently sinks at the corner or corners altered; to raise it the screws are slackened, when the springs expand, and the table of course rises: it should be recollected that the nuts must be screwed up after the table has been lowered, and loosened before the screws are slackened to raise it, otherwise they will be liable to injure this part of the press: the inside white lines, which run parallel with the springs, are the bearings which meet the arms on the staple when the pull is made, at which time the springs give way, they having sufficient play for that purpose: the carriage should be so raised that the two bearings should be about the eighth of an inch apart (when they are brought one over the other) before the impression is taken; they should be carefully examined in this respect, for it sometimes happens, when the screws are drawn up very tight, that the ends are apt to project so much below the springs as to rub against the staple, as well as the bearings to strike or graze each other in running in, either of which consequently jar the carriage, and cause the work to slur.

We flatter ourselves that the foregoing brief description of this valuable press, which has hitherto maintained its character for being well adapted for the purposes of printing, will enable every pressman not only to put them together, but also to take them to pieces and clean them when necessary, which is of the utmost importance.

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NOTWITHSTANDING we had presses made by several individuals on the Stanhopean principle, which were considered fully adequate for every purpose, yet some persons were induced to bring forward others, in the expectation of sharing the profil arising from what was generally considered a lucrative employment: the first of these was invented by a German of the name of D'Eighn, which was known by the appellation of

THE SECTOR PRESS.

This press was much like the Stanhopean in formation: the principal difference consisted in its having Sectors instead of the Screw, and also in its having a large screw through the head, for the purpose of regulating the power, in place of its being at the end of the Coupling Bar, as in the Stanhope; this we consider as no improvement, because it was not so readily turned; neither where the Sectors of that advantage, for it not unfrequently happened that they would fly from the great pressure. Mr. D'Eighn afterwards disposed of his patent-right to a person of the name of Golding, who continued to manufacture them for some time. He then invented another press, and soon afterwards died, when his widow disposed of the patent to Mr. Cogger.

THE field was next entered by a firm of the names of Cogger

and Scott, their press was denominated

COGGER'S PRESS. They were composed of two upright pillars of wrought iron. upon which the cast iron head was screwed: it had Sectors, and a Screw on the head for regulating the power, similar to the first patent; the Plattin is secured by two rods, which pass through the Head and Till, and are fastened to the Plattin by two small pins; and by which the Plattin and Bar are returned by the power of the two Spiral Springs which pass over the rods, and are screwed down to the Head by nuts on the top of the rods: the power is given by compound levers, after the manner of the Stanhopean: a great objection in these presses arises from the insecure manner of the Plattin, which is by no means so effectually secured as it ought to be; we have known them to shake by the power of a person's single hand; they have a great quantity of ornamental brass work, which give them a pleasing appearance to the eye, but it is not the glitter of guady tinsel that a practical printer wants.

THE next that came forward was Mr. Ruthven, a Printer, at Edinburgh, he materially differed from all his predecessors; his was stiled

THE RUTHVEN PRESS.

This press occupies less room than any of the former, being nearly square, the *Table* of which is stationary, and the *Plattis* is drawn over by the hand, being supported by two fron springs, under which are four brass bevelled wheels,

### Typographia....545

which run on two pieces of bevelled steel : and when the impression is taken the springs give way, and consequently rise afterwards: through the Head, on the inside of springs are two bolts with screws on the top, and headed on the sides below; these heads slide into two Dogs, which are drawn down by the machinery underneath; nuts fit on the screws on the top of the Head, by which the power is consequently regulated: the works underneath, which are certainly very complicated, consist of an Elbow Piece with three holes: one fits to the Cheeks, one for the Levers, and the other for the Coupling Bur; the Levers are bolted to the Cheeks at each end, and a few inches inwards are attached the Dogs, which receive the side-headed bolts; when the Elbow Piece is drawn by the Coupling Bar, the Levers are forced down which brings the Dogs, and consequently the Plattin along with them: a bar with a weight at the end, which presses against the Elbow Piece, forces the Levers and Dogs up, after the impression is taken; they unquestionably possess great power: but we object to these presses on account of the action of the Bar, which is forced down by the pressure of the left, or by both hands: a man may sprain his wrist, or should his hand slip off, the rising of the Bar would of course injure his arm between the latter and the press; also, from the very confined position of the works, it is almost next to an impossibility to oil or clean them without taking the press to pieces, which is a very troublesome and disagreeable operation.

DR. CHURCH, a native of America, followed the Columbian: his plan differs from every other; the Table runs upon wheels on a straight edge, the Plattin, which answers the purpose of the Tympans, is jointed to the Table, and is connected to the Head by means of three Crunks from the centre of the Head and Plattin; the Frisket is jointed to the upper end of the Plattin, consequently, when the carriage is drawn out, it raises the Plattin by the check of the Cranks. which, when brought to the full stretch, give way, and let the Plattin fall gently over, into the position of a pair of Tympans; instead of girths, the Rounce has a chain, by which it is forced in and out, by which means the Cranks are brought parallel between the Pluttin and the Head, and the impression is given by the forcible check of the Ronnce. We were informed that the chain was very liable to break from the force of the sudden check necessary to produce any thing like an impression; we must freely confess, that the work which we saw the press engaged upon, was certainly below mediocrity; it is true it was but common work; therefore, we consider that he has failed altogether in producing a press worthy of notice. But it is quite of a piece with his other fancied improvements in printing: Dr. C. must imagine that he can cram John Bull with any thing

#### 546 . . . Appographia.

after the statement of his boasted machine, which was not only to cast and dress the types, but also to compose them: and afterwards print off the forms. We profess to know nothing of this boasting Theorist's plans, more than what was stated in the Public Prints: from which it would appear, that the whole of these operations were to be performed in the most easy and simple manner, which would require no more exertion than that of a person playing on the Piano; and so expeditiously was the whole business to be performed, that the types were to be re-cast each time, instead of being distributed in the usual manner. is not such an improbable statement an insult to common sense? and we wonder much, that the Gentlemen who conduct the Public Press should so far insult the understandings of their readers, by laying such nonsense before them; unless it was to show the folly of this American Theorist.

THE next which comes under our notice is one invented by a person of the name of Russell; they are manufactured by Messrs. Taylor and Matineau: this is denominated

THE RUSSELL PRESS These presses are simple, and easy to work. On the top of the Plattin is screwed a piece of iron, with grooves at each end, which extend from one side of the Staple to the other, between which it works; in the centre of the Plattin is a projection with a hole in the middle, into which fits a kind of wedge; the top has a corresponding hole, in which is a piece similar to the last-mentioned; this is met by one that passes through the Head, on the top is a regulating screw, which presses against the wedge through the head; behind the lower top of the wedge is a projection, on which is bolted a kind of swivel, that is joined to the Coupling Rod: two iron rods are screwed to the Till, on the top of each is a hook and a link; there are two projecting pieces from the back part of the Heud, on which rests the Balance Iron, the points of which take the links at the top of the rods, and the weight draws up the Plattin; a piece of iron is screwed on each side of the front of the Stuple, which forms an angle, just leaving the Tympuns room to rise and fall: the point of it is hollow to admit the Bar and Coupling Rod to work; the latter is attached to the former by means of a pin, and the Bur is fastened to the projecting piece by a bolt, the eye of the Coupling Rod works close round that of the Bar, when the wedges are drawn-perpendicular, and thus the impression is given; on the return, they fall into the position of two cranks; the lower wedge naturally presses strongly against the part next the front of the Plattin, consequently it comes down first, and rises last, the Plattin is necessarily somewhat loose; they bear a good character at present, but we question if they will not slur when the work begins to wear, from constant friction.

#### Eppographia .... 547

#### THE COLUMBIAN PRESS.

For the Press we are now about to introduce to the notice of our readers, we are indebted to the ingenuity and talent of Mr. George Clymer, of Philadelphia, in North America, who, after having manufactured a supply of them for our trans-Atlantic brethren, arrived in this country, in 1817, to introduce his press to the Printers of Europe, which had given such universal satisfaction to those connected with the Art in that portion of the Globe. The highly favourable, and very flattering testimonials which Mr. Clymer produced on his arrival in London, from the gentlemen connected with the press in different parts of the United States, where they had been in active operation, clearly evinced to the Printers of Great Britain and Europe, that his invention was well deserving their countenance and encouragement; and, notwithstanding they had presses not only of the Stanhopean manufacture, but also of several others, yet the properties of Mr. Clymer's Columbian Press, supported by the above testimonials, was the immediate cause of their introduction into several of the first houses in the Metropolis, and many of the others soon followed; they were also introduced into several of the first Printing-offices on the Continent, and we sincerely hope that Mr. C. has been handsomely remunerated from them for his ingenuity and ability. We have two of these presses now in use, and we flatter ourselves, notwithstanding the very numerous and highly-respectable Testimonials received by Mr. Clymer from the Printers of Great Britain, that we have put the Columbian Press to a much greater test, with respect to power, than any of the printers in Europe, to r even the United States: we allude to the printing of the very claborate and most extraordinary Engraving on Wood, executed by Mr. William Harvey, of

#### THE ASSASSINATION OF L. S. DENTATUS;†

There is one instance of a Columbian Press having a similar extraordinary power to the one above alluded to; it was made for Mr. John Whittaker, of Queen Street, Westminister, for the express purpose of printing a most singulary splended work in letters of gold, of the august Ceremonial of the Coronation of his most gracious Majesty, Geoge the Fourth; two parts of it are now published, which reflect the greatest credit on Mr. Waskill and judgment in this singular department: so great was the power required to produce fine impressions of the pages in gold characters, that Mr. W. actually broke the long side of the Staple, just under the part to which the Bar is attached; and consequently required him to have a new Staple, at which press he is now proceeding with this curious production.

4 This subject was drawn on the wood by Mr. W. Harvey, from a celebrated painting by Mr. B. R. Haydon, to whom Mr. H. was then a pupil. On this praise worthy performance he incessantly devoted all the time that could possibly be spared, from hir study and improvement in the Fine Arts, for the space of three years; but,

N

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which, as we have before observed, could not well be proved at the Stanhopean, nor do we believe that any other press in use at that period (three years ago), would have been capable of giving the power required (the Columbian excepted) even with an additional leverage. In truth, however powerful and extraordinary the force of the impression given, when contrasted with other presses, and many of our brethren (in their recommendatory letters to Mr. Clymer) have represented it as being capable of printing the largest forms with the greatest ease, even by boys; in this instance we found it insufficient: far be it from us to decry, or even wish in the least to detract from the merit justly due to the Columbian Press; but, having a strict regard for truth, and being possessed of a thorough practical, and not a theoretical, knowledge of the machine and its powers, we humbly hope, that what we have now to state respecting it, will be received by all, as coming from minds that soar far beyond the reach of being biassed from the strict path of rectitude, by any occurrence that may ever take place. Having premised thus much, we shall now briefly explain the operation of printing the above extensive and most curious wood engraving. The size of the subject was fifteen inches by eleven and a half, which was composed of seven pieces of wood, through which passed four strong iron bolts with nuts at each end, to draw the wood close together as it shrunk; but even this did not prevent it, particularly in dry weather, and although the nuts were drawn up as tight as possible, still they would not force the wood close on the face, notwithstanding it was full up at the bottom; consequently we were obliged to take the bolts out and alter it, before we could proceed with the printing; this being done we next found that even the Columbian Press, of which so much has been said of its extraordinary power, was not

Reader, judge of his mortification and disappointment, when (after all this toil) it was a great question if it could possibly be printed in that style which would give general satisfaction, and consequently produce to him that remuneration which his genius justificated him to. As most difficulties are to be surmounted by perseverance and industry, to in time this was accomplished; but it is much to be regretted that the public, in appreciating performances of Art on wood, are little aware of the read difficulties attending their production: they judge of them as though they were produced in the same easy maniner as copper-plates; but it is quite the reverse in every respect, and more is required of the printer than agencially been imagined otherwised this periodic that has generally been imagined otherwised this periodic manner of the him to the second printer and it has yet done, but we humbly trus that the admirers of Art will be so deservedly his due. Mr. Harvey has declined engraving on wood, having determined to step his to the upper walks of Art. Designing and Painting are now his principal employments, for which both his mind and his talents are equally qualified.

sufficient for this block: consequently we had a new Bar made, considerably longer than usual, which was so bent, that it just left sufficient room for the tympans to rise and fall, otherwise it went so far over, that a man could not conveniently reach it; even this had not the desired effect; so we next resolved upon having about two inches taken off the Connecting Rod, which enabled us to accomplish our object with respect to the impression; but, notwithstanding we had thus increased the power, we found it necessary to have two stout men, instead of one boy, as stated by many of our brethren, who little thought, when making such an assertion, that so extraordinary a power would ever be required for printing work of any description, at so powerful a machine as the Columbian Press. Having now gained sufficient power, we were next at a loss for ink which would answer the purpose; that of different ink-makers was then tried, but each failed in some respect or other: therefore we at length resorted to an expedient of mixing several of them together, which answered much better : but still that would not do, and we were then compelled to have recourse to an addition of some other ingredients, by which means it was at length accomplished. We are free to confess, that the very extraordinary power applied to the Columbian greatly exceeded our most sanguine expectation. and astonished every beholder --- even Mr. Clymer himself, who declared that the press was never intended to have such a power: but we are proud to state, that the Engraving was printed without the least accident; and we can boldly assert, that no press can possibly produce better work than the Columbian; yet we do not consider them so well adapted for light jobs, as they are for heavier work; neither are they so expeditious as some others: the Bar is too far from the hand; from the quantity of levers, the Bar can never come down or return so quick, as where the power is gained by a simple motion.

Having now given our unqualified opinion of the merits of this valuable Press, we shall next present our Readers with an engraving of it on wood; and afterwards briefly describe the different parts and their actions, to enable pressment of fix them up, or take them down, when they

want cleaning, or removing.

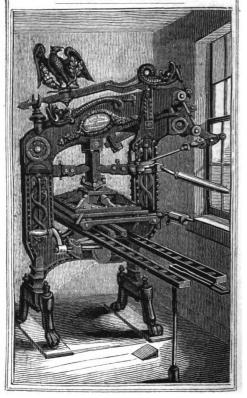
This press is composed of the following parts: the Feet, Staple, Ribs, Fore-stay, Ronnee, Main Lever, Elbon-piece, Counterpoise Lever, Links, Table, Plattin, Piston, Cheek or Guide Pieces, Back Bar, Back-return Lever, Shoulder Piece, Bar, Connecting Rod, Eagle, &c.

Having brought the Staple on, or near to the spot on which

you intend to fix the press, then put the Feet (as marked) into their respective places, and raise the Staple upon them.

The Ribs should now be screwed to the Staple, and also the Leg, or Fore-stay, by which the near end of them is supported,

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but the stay is not fastened to the floor; at the top of this stay is a projecting piece of iron, with a belster upon it, which prevents the carriage from running back.

The Rounce is attached to the Ribs by means of caps and bolts, which are fastened to the projections from the Ribs.

The Main Lever must next be raised into its station: it is connected to the Staple by a strong steel bolt, which fits according to a small mark, and is pinned on the other side to prevent its working out.

The Elbow Piece is made in the form of two sides of a triangle; it has one square, and three round holes through it; that the angle is the one which connects it to the projecting part of the long side of the Staple, in which is a mortize to receive it; this done, two holes will remain below, and the square one above; the centre round hole receives the bolt, on each end of which is the lower part of the Links; the lower hole is for the bolt which attaches the Knob Piece to the long end of the Elbow Piece: on the upper end of last-mentioned is the square hole for connecting the Back-return Lever.

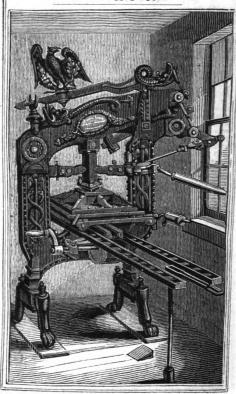
The Counterpoise Lever (whereon stands the Eagle, which causes the return of the Platits and Bar) works on two pivots on the top of the long side of the Staple, and rests upon a small piece of wood in the mouth of the dolphin, on the upper part of the Main Lever. The Counterpoise and Main Levers are connected by means of a short brass rod with a hook at one end and a screw at the other; the former fits into the mouth of the dolphin at the end of the Counterpoise Lever, and the latter passes through a hole at the end of the Main Lever, which is drawn up by a nut on the under side, and by which nut the Main Lever, and consequently the Platits, are raised or lowered at pleasure, by grewing, or unscrewing this nut.

The Links fit on each side of the Main Lever and the Ebone Piece, to which they are attached by means of two steel bolts, which are pinned on the opposite side, to prevent their working out; by these Links the Main Lever is drawn down when the impression is taken.

The Table is an iron surface torned off in a lathe to the greatest exactness, with long cramps underneath, which run in the Ribs, and which act as bearers to the Table when the impression is taken; the girths from the barrel of the Rousce are fastened to projections attached to the Table in the usual manner; corner irons are screwed on as well as the tympan joints, as before described.

The Plattis, is also turned off in a lathe so as to meet the even surface of the Table: in the centre is a high square, on which the Piston is fixed, with four holes to receive the ends of the side-headed screws which secure the Piston to the Plattis; ridges project from this square to the ends, corners, and sides of the latter, by which it is prevented from springing when the pullis made; the Plattis should now be placed on the Table with two piscos of wood about letter height under-

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### Eppographia....551

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neath; the four side-headed screws are next put into their respective holes in the Plattin (as marked) and the small wedges placed behind to keep them in their stations: a square piece of iron, or pieces of sheet iron or tin are laid in the centre of the Plattin to increase or reduce the power. The Piston is now lifted on the small piece of iron in the centre of the Plattin, and the screws passed through the four holes in the former, and the nuts screwed on, which bind the Piston and Plattis and the luts are the holes of the Plattin, are the holes of the Plattin, with the Piston and Plattis with the Piston and Plattin, is now run to the centre of the Staple, which will bring the upper part of the Piston directly under the trunion of the Main Lever, which is connected to the Piston by means of the caps and bolts attached to the latter. The Plattin must be regulated by the screws which secure the Piston, when a form is laid on

The Cheek, or Guide Pisces, which the sngles of the Piston stide through, and which keep the Piston and Plattis steady, it on two projections from the insides of the Staple, and are fastened by four bolts with nuts and screws. The left hand one is tightened by means of a small key, or wedge, which passes between the projection from the Staple and the Cheek Pisces; on the right hand one is a piece of iron with a screw through it, which the Elbow of the Bar strikes against when the latter is brought down: this screw is for the purpose of partially regulating the power.

The Back Bar slides into two bevels on the back of the Staple, behind the Main Lever, which is for the purpose of preventing the Staple from springing, when the power is applied by means of the Bar.

The Back-return Lever fits into the square hole in the upper angle of the Elbow Piece; it has a small stiding weight which acts as a counterpoise to the Eagle on the top lever.

The Bar or Shoulder Piece, fits into two projections from the off side of the Staple, to which one end is attached by a steel bolt, and in the other is a square hole made to receive the end of the Bar, which is pinned on the inside: the middle of the Shoulder Piece is east hollow to admit one end of the Connecting Rod, which is attached by a small boit.

The Connecting Rod is made of wrought iron: one end has an eye, which fits between the hollow in the middle of the Shoulder Piece, through both of which pass a small pin; the other end is tapped to screw on the swivel attached to the Roo Piece, and by which, from the Bar; the whole machinei put into motion. It should be recollected, that one side of the eye is filed away to samil the Rod to vary a small degree from a right angle, otherwise it would not meet the swivel attached to the Knob Piece. To increase the power, take out the small bolt in the middle of the Shoulder Piece and turn the rod to the left, viz. lengthen the rod by unacrewing: the filed part of the eye must always be kept downwards.

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#### THE ALBION PRESS.

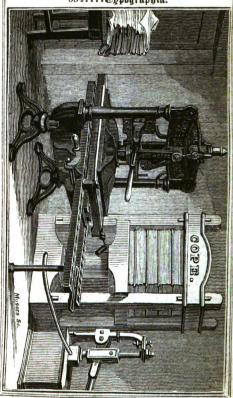
AMID the various descriptions of presses which have been obtruded on the notice of the profession, and which we have endeavoured in the foregoing pages briefly to explain: and having given our approbation of the Stanhopean and Columbian presses, as both well adapted to the purposes of producing fine printing, yet we are persuaded that most practical printers of this country will allow, that the meed of praise is justly due to the Albion Press, invented by Mr. R. W. Cope, as being entitled, though last, to a place in the front rank in the list of presses, and that in every point of view: First, they are much lighter in respect to weight of metal: Secondly, the pull is very easy; notwithstanding which, it is equal in power to any of them, not even excepting the Columbian, of the extraordinary power of which so many high encomiums have been passed by the principal printers of Europe and the United States: Thirdly, it is better adapted for expedition, because the Bur is attached to the near cheek, and not the off one, as in the Columbian: Fourthly, there are so few parts belonging to it, and consequently the machinery is in itself so simple, that there is not the least chance of their being put out of order, or liable to the least accident from wear: Fifthly, the works being so simple, are all contained in the hollow of the Piston, on which the power is given. This is the first instance of an hollow Piston ever having been used for a press: Sixthly, the Bar passes over the Plattin, just sufficient to clear the rise of the tympans; consequently the Bar-handle is soon in the hand, and as soon out again, from the short evolution which the Bar has to traverse, it not being more than one-fourth of a circle; therefore considerable dispatch is given, which must be self-evident to every one who gives the subject the least consideration: of course we anticipate no objection to our opinion from those who are well acquainted with the mechanism of presses.

Mr. Cope also manufactures Hydraulic Prissing\* of all dimensions, the power from one to one thousand tons, and upwards; with the Head and Bed, or Follower, turned off perfectly true, similar tothe Plattins and Tables of the printing presses. He likewise makes Inking Machines, with iron cylinders, for feeding the roller with ink, which are particularly well adapted for the purpose intended.

We shall now introduce an engraving of the Albion Press, (in the back-ground is a representation of an Hydraulic Press,) and then notice the principal parts of it, and their actions on each other.

Bydraulic Presses were first introduced to the notice of the Public, (about afteen years ago) by Mr. Bramab, Engineer, of Piccadilly: but at the expiration of his Patent, very considerable improvements have been made upon them, and they are now deemed a valuable acquisition to the printing profession.

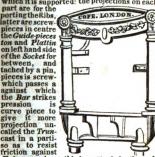
554.... Typographia.



## Typographia....555

It consists of the Feet, Staple, Ribs, Rounce, Fore-stay, Main Steel Bott, Piston, Links, Fulcrum, Brass Links, Spring Bott, Spring, Cap, Coupling Bar, Plattin, Table, Cheek Pieces, Shoulder Piece and Bar, Regulating Screw, &c.

The Staple is one piece of cast iron, in form as here represented; the two round parts at the bottom fit into the Feet, by which it is supported: the projections on each side of the lower



purpose of supand to which the ed; two of the of pillars are for which keep Pissteady; the two are for the end the Barto work which are atthese two ed a barthrough strong screw. the Socket of when the imtaken; the the head is to strength: the derthe Head is ion, which is cular manner, wear from the the top of the

Fulcrum; above this is a Slot-hole, through which the Main Bolt passes when the Piston and Links are attached; it is made oval to admit the bolt to work up and down; on the top of the Head is another Slot-hole which meets the lower one, and through it the bolt goes which draws up the Main Bolt, by the force of the Spiral Spring through which it passes.

The Ribs are next attached, and fastened to the Fore-stay, has described in the Columbian.

The Piston and Main Steel Bolt: the former is of cast iron, as here represented: the circle at the lower part Dwhich pass the bolts and has four holes, through screws which keep the Piston and Plattin together; below is a spherical end which rests upon the centre of the Plattin and this presses on the latter when the power is produced; above are two upright pieces, crum and Links work, through which the Fuland which are attached means of the Steel Bolt, to the head of press by passing through the Piston, Links, and Slot-hole in press head; the oval, or Slot-hole, is to admit the steel bolt to fall when rise afterwards by the the pull is made, and to force of Spiral Spring; on each side the circle. at the bottom of the Piston, are two angular pieces for Piston to slide between, for the purpose of keeping Piston and Plattin steady.

## 556....Cypogravhia.

The Links are made of wrought iron, as given in the engraving: the working parts, are composed of hardened on the Main Bolt, which upper end of Links, and and the lower ones act on Fulcrum, when the latter is the force applied; it also

which are the half circles, steel: the upper ones work goes through the Piston, Slot-hole in the the Lugs on each side of the brought perpendicular by brings the Links in the same position: by which means the half circle of Futures is brought in powerful contact with the Truston, and thus

the power is simply obtained.

The Fulcrum, or Mouth Piece, is solid iron, as here shown: the half circle at the top under the middle of the Fulcrum, are two project-each side, which are these Lugs are for the lower upon when the impression bottom is a mortise to re-

works against the Trunion, press head; in the centre of ing Lugs; that is, one on strengthened by a shank; part of the Links to work is given; in the circle at the ceive the eye-end of the swivel to which the Coupling Rod is attached, and through which it is fastened by a pin.

The Brass Links, one end of each is fastened to the upper ends of the Piston, and the other ends are attached to the base of the Brass Cap, in which is a Stot hole, similar to the one in the Head, through which a bolt passes, that takes the top of the Brass Links and the Spring Bolt, by which the whole works are drawn up, or counterpoised, from the force of the Spiral Spring in the Brass Cap, which is regulated by means of a nut on the top of the Spring Bolt, which presses against the Spiral Spring: thus the Plattin and Bar are returned.

an iron rod, with an The Coupling Bar is eye at one end, which fits into the middle of and is there pinned; the Shoulder Piece, the piece attached to the Fulcrum, and the other end meets the piece attached to the Fulcrum, and forms a swivel, as here represented.

The Plattin, Table, Tympans, &c. are similar to those of the Columbian: consequently they need no further description of them here.

The Cheek, or Guide Pieces are made in the form here represented, and are screwed on the projections from the pillars, and press against the Piston. The Shoulder Piece, or Socket for the Bar, is of cast iron: in the circle at the end is a hole by which it is attached to the

tre is cast hol-Staple; the cenreceive the end low, so as to of the Coupling Bar, angle with the passes to a right perpendicular of the Links, from which originates this simple but immense power, where it is fastened by a steel pin: the other end being connected by a double joint to the part of the Rod attached to the Fulcrum.

## Typographia. . . . 557

The Screw here given is which the power is regulated: it passes through an iron bar which is serewed to the two projections on the near side of the Stapte.

These Inking Frames are made in the form here represented; the whole is composed of iron, with the Cylinder turned off to

the greatest anderwhich 😅 edge that ink off the the exact quired; this by means of Levers that Table. hung two be removed the quantity quired for one end of are to press Ductor, or The Ductor

exactness. is a steel scrapes the Culinder to quantity reis regulated Counterpois pass under on which is weights, to accordingto of ink rethe work : these levers against the Regulator. and

der are fitted together so close, that it will hold water; consequently there is not the least possibility of the ink escaping more than is wanted for the purpose required; the Cythadrhas an ornamental iron cover, which is always kept on except when a fresh supply of ink is required; by which means all dirt and dust is kept both from the ink and Cythuder, the latter is moved by a small handle at one end; the Table is turned off in a lathe perfectly trae, the same as in the presses.

We have been as explicit as possible in the descriptions of the foregoing presses, which have passed under our review; we have fulfilled this arduous task to the utmost of our humble ability, and should they meet the approbation of our brethren we shall consider our labour not ill bestowed; we have endeavoured, throughout the work, to do ample justice to every subject under consideration, and we flatter ourselves that what we have advanced will be received in candour as our firm conviction: we freely acknowledge that we have heard of a variety of other presses, but not having seen them ourselves, we must decline giving a notice of them here, not wishing to risk our professional reputation on any verbal or other statements, even from whatever quarter they may be handed to us; for, had we given a notice and description of every one which we have heard of, laborious indeed would have been the task, as well as an unnecessary occupation of a number of our pages, which that the first be spared: in truth, we really consider that few, if any of them, are justly entitled (from merit) to rank with those which we have considered fully deserving of a place in the present work.

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#### CHAP. XVI.

#### THE BUSINESS OF A WAREHOUSEMAN.

The warehouse business of a printer is a highly important part of his concern; the bad management of which not only injures his own credit, but also materially affects the interest of his employers; it is therefore indispensably necessary to appoint such a man for the management of it, who has been regularly brought up to the business, and on whom the utmost reliance may be placed for honesty.

sobriety, and integrity.

Some printers, with a view to save a few shillings per week, take into their service lads or men perfectly unacquainted with the business of the warehouse, who, through ignorance and carelessness, fall into many serious mistakes: such as mixing paper of the same size, belonging to different persons, and thereby destroying the uniformity of the work; giving or setting out the paper incorrectly, which must afterwards be made good by reprinting those sheets which are found to be deficient; or if the deficiency is not very great, the sheet wanting is left out of a book here and there, and in this imperfect state the work is delivered to the bookseller, who, perhaps, if a large number has been printed, will be several years before he discovers the loss, and then cannot, after so long a time, with any degree of propriety, demand his books to be made perfect. other circumstances might be stated to shew the impropriety and disadvantage of employing persons in the warehouse not acquainted with its business; we must however observe, that the master or overseer should frequently look to the concerns of the warehouse, that the people employed there may get forward the different works with neatness and accuracy.

Having made these observations on the impolicy of employing persons in the warehouse unacquainted with its business, we shall now proceed to lay down its different stages, and begin by supposing the warehouse to be quite clear, business coming in, and the warehouse to be quite clear, business coming in, and the warehouseman just entering upon his office. He should first be provided with a book which is termed "The Warehouse-book," agreeable to the annexed plan, about the size of a foolscap quarto. When the porter or carman brings paper from the stationer or book-seller, the warehouseman should demand the bill of delivery, order the paper to be brought in, and see if it is right according to the bill, before he discharges him; and if right, dismiss him, and enter it immediately into the Warehouse-

book, as follows:

Typograph	ia	559
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Typographia559			
Nov. 3. Dec. 8 24 36 18i9.30 Jan. 7	Date.		
20 rms. of Mesars. Bowles & Gardiner 40 Ditto. with waste	Receipt of Paper, and of whom.	Jackso	
100 300 230 1039	No. of books delivered.	n's Shaksp	
John Jones. Richard Williams, Bookbinder. Edward Hughes John Warwick.	To whom deliveredwith his signature.	Jackson's Shakspeare's Genius Justified. No. (printed) 1000.	The Warehouse Book:
Mr. J. Major. Ditto. Ditto.	For whom.	i) 1000.	

#### 560 .... Topographia.

The above plan will prevent disputes with the bookseller or author, relative to the receipt of paper, or delivery of books, as the signature of the person to whom the books were delivered can be immediately produced. It also enables the warehouseman to distinguish, with more ease, the different articles he might have occasion to refer to.

Having entered the receipt of the paper, he should then write on each bundle, with red chalk, the title of the book it is intended for, and remove it into a part of the warehouse, or store-room kept for that purpose, observing to

place it so as to take up as little room as possible.

Of giving or Setting out Paper for the Press.

A bundle of paper contains two reams, or forty-three guires, and twenty-four sheets to each quire; if perfect; if not, twenty quires to the ream, of which the two outside quires are called corded or cassie, as they only serve for cases to the ream. These outside quires are by the paper-maker made up of torn. These outside quires are by the paper-maker made up of torn. Wrinkled, stained, and other damaged sheets, yet the whole quire very rarely consists of such sheets; but frequently some good sheets may be found in looking them over. But the general custom now is, for booksellers and authors to send in their paper perfect. When, however, it is sent in imperfect, it is the warehouseman's business to law by the two outside quires, and cull them when most convenient; likewise to dispose of them so, that they may neither be at the beginning nor end, but about the middle of the volume; or use them for jobs or proof paper; for they are seldoms operfect as the inside quires.

It is the general custom to print of every work what is termed an even number, either 250, 500, 750, 1000, &c. These quantities are set out for the wetter in tokens; viz. for 250 (sheets) one token, containing 10 quires 18 sheets; for 500, two tokens—one 11 quires, and the other 10 quires and a half; for 750, three tokens, two of them 11 quires each, and the other 10 quires 6 sheets; and for 1000, four tokens, three of them 11 quires each,

and the other 10 quires. If a work is printed in half sheets, it of course requires only half the above quantities.

As it will sometimes happen that other numbers different from the above are printed, we have, therefore, given the following table, which shews the quantity of paper necessary for that purpose: also another table, shewing the quantity of paper to be given out for jobs of different sizes. This table, we conceive, will be found highly useful in the warchouse, and should be stuck up in a conspicuous place, or stitched into the Warchouse-book. The calculations have been made with much care, and will, we trust, be found accurate.

No.		•	* ***	•••	••	•••	O.	Shte.	No.			•				0.	#bts.
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300		•	•	•	•	•	12	20	800	•	Ĭ	-				34	Ř
350	:	:	:	:	•	:	14	22	850	•	:	:	:			36	12
400	:	:	•	•	•	•	17	Ã	900	·						38	16
450		:	:	:	:	:	iò	ž	950	•	:	:	:			40	20
550	•	Ĭ	•	•	•	•	93	16	7.50	٠	•	-	•	,	-		

# Eppographia....§ 1

A TABLE

Shewing the Quantity of Paper to be given out for any Job,
from 25 to 5000: and from 2 on a Sheet, to 128.

from 25 to 5000; and from 2 on a Sheet, to 128															
No.	1	ť	[	4	-	υ		8	1	9	1	z	15		
No.	q.	6.	q.	9.	q	8.	q.	8.	q.	<b>s</b> .	q.	٠.	q.	•	
25		15		8	_	5		4	-		-	24	-	2	
60	1	4	1	14		9	İ	7	1	6	i	5		41	
7.5	i	16		20		14	ŀ	10		9		7	ł	54	
100	2	4	1	2		18		13		12		9		71	
150	8	4	1	14	1	1		19		18		18		ıi l	
200	4	4	2	2	1	10	1	1	ı	0		18		14	
250	8	4	2	14	1	18	1	7	1	5	1	22		18	
800	6	4	3	2	2	2	1	14	i	10	T	1	ŀ	21	
350	7	4	8	14	2	11	ı	20	1	15	1	5	1	o l	
400	8	4	4	2	2	19	2	1	1	21	1	9	1	8	
450	9	4	4	15	8	2	2	7	2	1	1	13	1	6	
500	10	5	5	8	3	11	2	14	2	7	1	18	1	9	
550	11	5	5	15	8	19	2	20	2	13	1	22	1	13	
600	12	5	6	8	4	2	8	2	2	18	2	1	1	16	
650	13	5	6	15	4	11	3	8	3	24	3		1	19	
700	14	5	7	-8	4	19	8	14	3	4	2	10	1	28	
750	15	5	7	15	5	2	3	20	8	10	2	14	2	1	
800	16	5	8	8	5	11	4	2	3	16	2	18	2	4	
850	17	6	8	15	5	19	4	8	3	21	2	22	2	8	
900	18	5	9	8	6	2	4	14	4	1	8	1	2	11	
950	19	5	9	15	6	11	4	20	4	7	8	6	2	14	
1000	20	6	10	4	6	19	5	2	4	18	8	10	2	18	
1030	21	6	10	16	7	2	5	8	4	18	8	14	2	21	
1100	22	.6	11	4	7	11	5	14	4	24	3	17	3	0	
1200	24	6	12	4	8	2	6	2	5	10	4	1	8	6	
1860	26	6	18	- 4	8	19	6	14	3	21	4	10	8	12	
1400	28	6	14	4	9	11	7	2	6	7	4	18	3	19	
1500	30		15		10	3	7	14	6	18	5	1	4	1	
1600	32	6	16		10	19	8	2	7	5	5	10	4	7	
1700	84		17		11	11	8	14	7	16	5	18	4	14	
1800	36		18		12	8	9	2	8	2	6	1	4	21	
1980	88		19		12	19	9	14	8	13	6	10	5	3	
2000	40		20		13	11	10	2	9	0	6	18	5	9	
2500	50		25		16	19		15	11	5	8	10	6	18	
3000	60				20	8		2	l 3	10	10	1	8	1	
3500	70		35		23		17	15	15	16	11	19	9	91	
4000	80	7	40		26		20	2	17	22	19	11	10	18	
4500	90	7	45		30		22	16	20	8	18	3	12	1	
500U	100	7	50	5	33	12	25	8	22	8	16	20	13	10	

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# § 2....Cppographia.

A TABLE

Showing the Quantity of Paper to be given out for any Job, from 25 to 5000; and from 2 on a Sheet, to 128.

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150	1	10		9	1	8	L	8	Į	7	ı	5 1	1	5	
200		18	1	12		104	1	10	1	9	1	7	١	6 1	
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350		23	1	20		18	١	17	ı	15	1	12	ŀ	111	
400	1	•		23	1	20	1	20	ł	17	1	14	l	13	
450	1	4	1	1	1	28	١.	22	ı	19	l	154	!	144	
500	1	7	1	4	1	1	l	0	١.	214	l	17	1	15	
550	1	10	11	6	1	8	1	2	1	24	l	19	1	174	
600	1	13	1	9	1	5 4	1	4	1	1	1	204	1	19	
650	1	16	1	12	1	8	1	6	1	8	l	22	ŀ	20 į	
700	1	30	1	144	1	104	1	9	1	4 1	ł	24	ı	221	
750	1	23	1	17		18	1	114	į.	.7	1	0 1		24	
800	2	1	1	20	1	15	1	14	1	9	ŧ	8	1	0 ł	
850	2	4	1	23	1	18	1	16	1	11	1	4	1	3	
900	2	7	3	1	1	20	1	184	þ	18	2	5 1	1	84	
950	2	10	3	3 4		28	1	21	H	15	1	7	1	. 6	
1000	2	14	2	6	3	1	1	28	ı	171	1	84	1	7	
1050	2	17	3	9	3	8	2	0 4	h	191	1	104	1	8 1	
1100	2	19	2	12	3	5 1	2	3	1		1	12	1	84	
1200	3	1	2	18	2	10	2		2	04	1	151	1	13	
1800	8	7	3	28	2	15		12 <u>f</u>		41	1	19	1	16	
1400	8	18		84		201		174			1	22	1	19	
1500	8	191		9	8	0		28	2		2	04		23	
1600	4	1	8	15	8	5 1		2	2	17	2	81	2	04	
1700	4	7	8	20	3	104	8	7	Þ	21 1	2	T	8	3 4	
1800	4	13	4	1	8	15 1		11	3	1	3	104	2	7	
1800	4	19 t	4	64	8	201	8	16		5	3	14	3	10	
2000	5	1	4	12	4	0 }	3	21	8	9	2	17	3	13	
2500	6	7	5	15	5	01	4	20	4	5	3	9	8	4	
3000	7	18	8	174		01	5	184	5	1	4		8	194	
3500	8	30	7	21	1	1	8		5		4	171		19	
4000		1	8	28	8	1	7		6	171	5	.9	5	04	
4500			10	1	9	4	8	154	7	134	6	υş	5	16	
500a	12	14	11	4	10	1	9	15	8	9	6	17 🛊	6	7	

# Typographia .... § 3

N. B. The first column states the number to be given out; the other columns, the exact quantity of paper necessary (allowing for waste) for each respective number.

No.   G.   S.   Q.   Q	(att		for was			respect	ive nu	mber.
25	No.	36	40	48	56	60	64	72
To   To   To   To   To   To   To   To		q. s.	q. s.	q. s.	q. s.	q. s.	q. s.	q. s.
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100								1
150								
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250								21
350   84								
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4400					1			
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14								
560				93				
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TOO   20								
The column   The								
800   224   204   17								
SSO								
900  0   223   19   161   152   143   123     900  1   2   0   20   174   16   18   133     1000  1   31   0   21   18   17   16   14     1080  1   41   1   12   22   19   174   16   14     1000  1   6   1   23   23   30   183   174   163     1200  1   8   1   23   23   20   183   174   163     1200  1   13   1   13   2   23   20   18   174     1200  1   13   1   13   2   23   20   20   19     1500  1   1   1   1   1   2   2   23   2   2     1500  1   1   1   1   1   1   1   1     1500  1   1   1   1   1   1   1     1500  2   1   1   1   1   1     1500  2   1   1   1   1   1     1500  2   2   1   1   1   1     1500  2   3   1   2   1     1500  2   3   1   2   1     1500  2   3   1   2   1     1500  2   3   1   2   1     1500  2   3   2   2   1     17   1   1   1   1     18   1   1   1     18   1   1   1     19   2   1   1   1     19   2   2   1     10   2   2   1     10   2   2     10   2   2   2     10   2   2   2     10   2   2   2     10   2   2     10   2   2   2     10   2   2     10   2   2   2     10   2   2     10   2   2     10   2   2     10   2   2     10   2   2     10   2   2     10   2   2     10   2   2     10   2   2     10   2   2     10   2   2     10   2   2     10   2   2     10   2   2     10   2   2     10   2   2     10   3   3     10   3								
980  2								
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1400  1   141   1   101   1   41   1   01   223   22   191   1500  1   17   1   121   1   61   1   1   02   233   21   1000  1   20   1   154   1   84   1   81   1   2   1   04   224   1700  1   224   1   171   1   101   1   1   1   1   234   1   1800  2   01   1   201   1   121   1   1   1   1   1   1   1								
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# § 4.... Typographia.

The large figures at the top specify the number on a sheet.

q & s stand for quires and sheets. The above calculations are made from the perfect quire, viz. 25 sheets.

are	maae.	TOTE	не рет	ect qu	ire, viz	. 20 8A	eets.
No.	80	90	96	100	110	120	128
	q. s.	q. s.	q. s.	q. s.	q. s.	q, s.	q. s.
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650	81	71	7	61	6	5 4	51
700	9	8	74	71	64	6	51
750	94	81	8	79	7	64	6
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850	101	91	9	81	8	71	64
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1200	153	13	121	121	11	101	94
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1400	171	154	141	141	18	111	11
1500	19	161	151	151	131	121	19
1600	201	18	161	161	143	134	121
1700	21 1	19	18	17 [	151	141	131
1800	22	201	19	181	161	151	141
1900	24	211	20	191	171	16	15
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3500			1 114				2 2
1000	2 01	1 191	1 164				6
4500						1 12	
51100	12	2 8	2 21	2 01	1 201		

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The overplus sheets are allowed for tympan-sheets, register sheets, and other incidents, such as bad sheets, faults committed in beating, pulling, bad register, &c. for all or any of these incidents, the pressum a doubtes the sheet in the middle, and lays it across the heap as waste; or in case that sheet should run short, the gatherer may chose out the best of them to make good the deficiency. In setting out the paper, the warehouseman lays each token with the folded side, or back part, one way, and the other token with the folded, or back side, the other way, that the wetter may distinguish the different tokens; when this is done, he writes a label, and puts' into the bundle, with the following inscription on it:— 'Ipporaphia, Feb. 13, 1821-or whatever may be the tithe of the book, that the pressman, when he takes up the heap, may not take the wrong one by mistake; and by writing this label, and the day of the month, he can at all times ascertain how long the paper has been wet, and thereby know the state it is in.

Of hanging up Paper to dry.
When the paper is worked off, the warehouseman takes the heap and carries it to a place where poles are fixed longitudinally, for the purpose of hanging them upon to dry, and lays it down on a stool, or table, of a convenient height, with one end of the heap from him; he then takes the handle of the peel in one hand, and lays the top part down upon the heap, so that the upper edge may reach near the middle of the sheet; after which, with the other hand, he doubles over so much of the printed paper as he thinks sufficient to hang up at one lift, which should be about seventeen sheets, as near as he can guess, or twelve, &c. as he can allow time to dry, or have pole-room to hang them on. Nevertheless, there are some warehousemen who, to get rid of their work, will hang up a quire or more at a lift, which through its thickness, keeps wet a long while, where it bears heavy on the pole; besides it often draws out turpentine from the wood, which leaves a yellow stain upon the paper. But supposing the poles well seasoned, and not likely to stain, still it is hazardous, and ought on no account to be allowed. Some paper is much more liable to mildew than others. and particularly that part which rests on the pole, as it retains the water longer than the sides, which having the advantage of the air circulating between, set dry first.

Having thus doubled the first lift on the peel, he raises it, holding it aslant, that the shorter fold of the sheets may open from the peel, in order to convey it over the pole; and then drawing the peel from under, leaves the sheets remaining on the pole, beginning at one end of the first pole, and so continuing, ill after lift, till be has completed the whole, observing that he lodges each lift about an inch one over the other, to prevent

the air from blowing them down.

Of taking down the Sheets when dry.

When the sheets are sufficiently dry, the warehouseman takes his peel and brush, and with the peel begins with the last lift hung up, on account of the wrapper being with that lift, and continues to proceed to the other, successively taking them down and brushing them, till he has finished the whole: taking

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care that he lays the single signature of each lift one over the other; if this is not done, it will occasion considerable trouble

to turn them when they are to be collated.

There is also another way of taking the sheets down from the poles, which is, by laying the flat side of the peel against the edge of that lift which hangs over the other books, and pushing the peel forward, he forces them to slide, one doubling over the other, and so finishes his basiness with more expedition. But this method cannot be recommended, because the dust, which naturally flies about, while the sheets are hanging, must lodge on them, and by pushing them forward, is rubbed in, instead of being brushed off.

Of putting by the Sheets, or Signatures, when taken down, when the whole of the impression of the signature is taken down, he then removes them to the warchouse, and there knocks them up, and puts them by in that part of the room where they will be most out of his way, or in one of the stells, till he has a sufficient number of signatures to form a gathering; but two or three sheets of each signature should be put by, in case the author, hookseller, or master, should want a copy of the work, or a specimen of as many sheets as are finished, before they are gathered; if he has not done this, and clean sheet should be wanted, he will then be obliged to lift every signature to get a sheet out of each; this will occasion a great loss of time, which may be easily prevented by reserving a few sheets as they are worked off. When he lays down the gathering, if they have not been wanted, it is easy to return them to their respective signatures.

Of laying down a Gathering.

To lay down a gathering, is to place the several heaps, with their signatures following each other, upon benches or forms of a proper height, beginning with the first signature of the body of the work, and laying it upwards, which is sometimes marked A, but in general B, placing it on the left and of the gathering-board with the length of the sheet before him, and the single signature (A or B) next him; he then rollows with C, D, &c. laying them close to each other in the same position as the first, till he has laid down a sufficient number of sheets, which is commonly from B to M, unless the volume consists only offourteen or fifteen sheets in that case he may as well lay down the whole at once, rather than make two gatherings of them, he will then save himself the trouble of booking them; but where a volume runs through the alphabet two or three times everal gatherings must be made. In such cases, eleven or twelve sheets in a gathering is enough. The title, little a, b, c, cancels, &c. if any, should be left till the last, and placed at the end of the gathering, so that, when folded, they may be found withinside the gathering.

withinside the gathering.

Should the impression of each signature be so large as to cause the heaps, when laid down, to be too high for the gatherer, he may, if there is room enough on the boards, by dividing each heap, lay a double gathering, which is done in the following manner; taking one half from the first heap, and laying them, with a wrapper undermeath, at the end of the last

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heap of the gathering, and so continuing to divide each heap successively, and laying them at the end of each other, till he has divided the whole; and as he lowers them, may, if he thinks proper, draw them up again as he finds most convenient; but where plays and children's books are done, containing three or four sheets, they should be laid down three or four times, to the full length of the gathering board.

Of Gathering.

The art of gathering chiefly consists in not taking up more than one sheet at a time, and to gather those sheets with swiftness. He begins at the left hand of the row; laying his left arm across the first heap, he takes a sharp pointed bodkin or needle in his right hand, and with the sharp end of it, just touches the right hand corner of the sheet, and raising his hand, lifts up that corner, which he immediately receives in his left, and conveys it to the next heap, and is particularly careful to place it even over the other, that he may not have much trouble in knocking them up; taking the second in the like manner as the first, he goes to a third, fourth, &c. to the end, and then proceeds to knock the gathering up; viz. to make the sheets lie exactly even over each other, which is done in the following manner; a table being provided for this purpose, or one end of the gathering board clear, on which he has placed a wrapper, he takes the ends of the sheets between his thumb and fingers of each hand, and grasping them loosely, holding them upright, with the long side or edge on the surface of the table, lifts them up about four inches high, then lets them drop quickly through his hands, and catches them up again several times until they are quite even; for by these repeated jerks, those sheets which were above the rest are driven downwards, and those that were lower, upwards, and by forcing his hands forward at the time of their falling causes them to be even at the sides; when he finds them exactly even, he lays them on a wrapper, and proceeds gathering on as before, knocking them up, and placing them on the one he has just gathered, with the single signature of each gathering, lying successively one upon the other, still going on in the same manner, till he has piled them to a convenient height; he then covers the pile with a wrapper, to keep the dust from soiling the top sheet, and proceeds working up, pile after pile, till the whole is finished; but, while he gathers, keeps his eye on the sheets, lest any should be torn, dirty, &c. and if he finds any of that description, he doubles them up, and puts them at the bottom of the heap they belong to.

The most general, and perhaps the most expeditious mode, is to use neither bookin nor needle, but damp the end of the thumb with the tip of the tongue, and by this means lift up the sheets; but great care must be taken that the fingers are per-

fectly clean, or a great number of sheets will be spoiled.
When the gatherer has worked till one of the sheets is deficient, (for it would be an extraordinary circumstance for them to be just equal), he doubles up the odd sheets upon one another, covers them up with wrappers, and then puts them by till he collates.

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Of collating Books.. The warehouseman takes some of the books which have been gathered, and puts them on a table or gathering-board, with the sigle signature before him, at his right-hand, and his left arm across the heap; he thea, with a sharp-pointed bodkin or needle, lightly pricks up the corner of the first sheets of the single signature, viz. A or B, and with the thumb of his left hand calches it up, and nimbly shifts it between the two fore fingers of the same hand, that he may be ready with his thumb te do the same to a second, &c. for if he does not thus secure the sheets between his fingers, on receiving the next, the latter sheet would immediately fall back, and obstruct his view of the following signature; for the collater cannot be too attentive in observing whether the gathering be true, that is, free from having two sheets of one signature, sheets turned the wrong way, or left out in the gathering, &c. and if he finds a sheet wanting or damaged, he may supply the defect from the heaps on the gathering-board, as it is the best and the most expeditions mode for the warehouseman to go on with the collating at the same time the errand boy, or some other person, is preceding with the gathering. If duplicates have been gathered,

their respective signatures. Having collated a gathering, he lays it on his left, with a wrapper underneath, to keep the board from soiling the sheet; then collates another, and puts that on the one he has just laid down, not even, but rather across it, that when he begins to fold, he may with ease distinguish each gathering, and continues in the same manner till he has thoroughly examined the pile. Others again do not lay the gatherings down separate ly; but, when one is done, put the collated corner from them, and draw the next near them, and so proceed, moving each gathering backwards and forwards as they collate them; and when they have got a sufficient handful, turn them over, and keep going on as before, till the pile is finished. This way, if properly attended to, is the best, as it expedites the work, and

he draws the overplus sheets from the rest, and lays them aside till he has collated the pile, after which he distributes them to

answers the same end.

Of Folding.

Having collated the heap or pile of gathered books, he proceeds to folding, which is performed in the following manner: the gatherings being on one side of him, he takes down one of the books from the rest, knocks it up on the board or table, and then keeps the single signature of the first sheet with its face downwards to the table, so that when he doubles it up, he note ownwards to the mote, so that when he doubles it up, he folds the last sheet inwards, and the first outwards. The manner of knocking the book up having been aiready described, a repetition of it here is needless; so, supposing the sheet exactly even one over the other, he lays the gathering flat on the table, and having hold of the ends, or sides, in his hand, doubles the right hand hold over to the left; but before he receives the end of the book from his right hand, he nimbly shifts it to his left; between the two fore-fineers of the same hand, and it to his left, between the two fore-fingers of the same hand, and then releases the other end from the right; for, by having it

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in that position, that is, with his fore-finger between the two folds, he can, (though not doubled quite even) shift it which way he thinks proper, without discommoding any of the sheets.

It being now doubled up, and the eiges placed exactly even over each other, he rubs the palm of his right hand hard on the fold or back part of the book, that it may remain close together. When this is done, he lays it on the wrapper near him, and works on as before, observing to fold them as the work requires: viz. if twelves, in the long cross: and if folio, quarto,

octavo, sixteens, eighteens, or twenty fours, in the short cross. Folding books is an important concern, and ought to be particularly attended to by the printer, because if they are un-evenly folded, the dust, by long standing, will work in, and soil those sheets that come out further than the rest, so that, when bound, they will have on the margin a border of dust, unless the binder cuts very deep, which must be allowed to deface the beauty of a volume. On the other hand, if the binder is nice in his work, and will not suffer a bad sheet to appear in it, he sends word that it is wanting, and it is very rarely that he sends back the damaged sheet, which impoverighes the waste, and likewise is an additional disgrace to the warehouseman for his negligence in not properly collating the books; and should it happen to be the sheet which is short in the gathering, a book must thereby be rendered imperfect, none of that signature being left to make good the deficiency. It is necessary here to observe, that though books seem apparently uneven, it is not always owing to the folder's negligence; therefore, before blame can properly be attached to him, the books should be first examined; because, though the quality of the paper has been attended to by the purchaser, yet perhaps that nicety respecting the size may not have been so

In some user the sherfs run equal enough as to size, but are not square; and if folios, quartos, octavos, or sixtens, were to be folded with the two bottom corners even together, they would be extremely uneven; therefore the best that can be done, when it so happens that the sheets run in this unsquare manner, is to knock them up well, and fold them so that they may at least be brought even at the middle of their outer margins; then the outer margin of each will share the defect alike. When sheets are fliunsy, which is sometimes the case, the more the folder knocks them up the worse they are, for the knocking them up only batters their edges, instead of bringing them even; therefore, before they are folded, the uneven sheets must be pulled even, and then gently knocked up.

much regarded by him, so that some of the sheets in a volume, or gathering, are frequently found to differ half an inch in size.

Of counting out and pressing of Books. Having folded a parcel, or the whole of the gathered books, the watchouseman proceeds to count them out into proper quantities, according to the thickness of the gathering; if very thick, only five; if thin, ten, afteen, twenty, or twenty-five, nay, sometimes afty, according to their thickness, and observes to keep the same number in the count of each different gathering throughout the work. He then lays them fast on the table,

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and gives them a blow or two with the palm of his hand on the folded or back side to make them lie close; after which he gently knocks them up even, and puts them into the standing press if empty; if not, in a convenient place, on a wrapper, or waste sheet, till the press is empty, with the folded or back side of the first parcel one way, and the second quantity of books with the folded side or back the other way, and continues in the same manner, putting them on one after the other, till the press will permit no more in height; then he proceeds to pile up, range by range, till full, observing that each range contains an equal quantity of books, and stand in a right parallel, that when they are screwed down they may all receive an equal pressure; the reason why he is particular in reversing the edges of each count is that if he did not, it would be impossible to pile them up straight with their backs to lie all one way; for, in printing, if the matter does not run close and even alike, but, on the contrary, some pages are loose and open, and others close, the open pages, receiving a deeper impression than the close, make that part of the sheet swell, while the remaining ones lie closer: therefore, were a number of books to be piled (before pressed) with their backs one way, they would be raised up at one end, and consequently would soon slide down; which inconvenience is remedied by reversing them; for, turning the thick end on the thin, they are brought to lie level; besides, their number then can readily be The press being now full, the warehouseman takes the wooden pin belonging to it, and screws it down as low as he can, after which he takes a strong iron bar, that measures about five or six feet in length, and with it works the spindle of the press round with all his force as tight as he possibly can, and lets the books remain in it about twenty four hours before he takes them out; the time being expired, he takes them out of the press, and puts them in one of the stalls, but covers them neat and close with a wrapper under and over, so that the dust may not easily penetrate; then writes a label and puts in the pile, expressing on it the title of the book, and how many the parcel contains; but should the impression be more than the press will admit of at once, he fills it up again in the like form as the first, and so continues till the whole is completed. If the impression is not very large, and will make only a

few bundles, or that he expects to have a long time under his charge, he ties them up into bundles, laying a wrapper under and over each, and writes the title and the number of books in the bundle on the upper wrapper, then puts them aside in the store room, or some convenient part of the warehouse. that he may have free access to deliver them out according to As soon as the books are finished, he acquaints the auther or bookseller that the whole of the impression is ready for

delivery.

Of making up the Waste.

After the books have been collated and folded, and the duplicate sheets that were drawn out distributed, he takes the last signature first, and shakes the spoiled or doubled up sheets out, if any, from between the others, then lays the overplus clean sheets flat on the table, with the single signature up-

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wards towards him, and opens the doubled or spelled sheets, and places them on the former with the signature the same way. This done, he turns them over, knocks them even, folds them, and puts them near him, with the single signature upwards; he then takes the sheets that lie next to the signature he has just folded, and does the same to that, placing it on the other, and continues till he has finished the whole; after which, he presses and ties them up together, and writes on the bundle which sheet is deficient, and the title of the book, then puts them in a proper place, where they will be ready to come at, whenever he may have occasion: but it must be observed, if there should be amongst the sheets distributed, any of the signature that was wanting, he gathers again, till that, or some other sheet, is deficient, collating and folding them, and putting them with the other books.

Of Booking the different Gatherings.

When a volume runn through several alphabets, it must consequently make more than one gathering; therefore to put the different gatherings together in regular succession to make a compelet volume, the warehouseman takes as many counts of the first gathering as he can conveniently carry, and lays them on the place where they are intended to be booked. He then lays a wrapper on the gathering-board, and takes the first count or reversed parcel, and places it on it, with the single signature upwards; a second quantity is then laid down in the same way, with their backs one on the other, and placed so that the end of one of the parcels may project outwards, while the end of the other is turned inwards, and continues piling them in this distinct manner, till he has got them sufficiently high; after this is done, the second gathering is placed by the side of the first, with their outer margin against the backs of that gathering, and piled up in the same manner, till contains the same number of gatherings as the first parcel.

If a book makes more than two gastherings, they are laid down one after the other, as before observed. The utility of laying down each count, so that they may project a little over each other, will be readily perceived; for should be take two gatherings of one sort, or let one slip from his fingers unperceived, which is not improbable where there is a number of gatherings in a volume,) on their being placed in this manner, he quickly discovers his error by their not running equal at the end of this sort will not be detected till he comes to the bottom of each gathering; and then to rectify the error will be attended with much trouble. When he has laid down some of each gathering; each book them, which is done by taking one from each parcel, beginning with the first; he then knocks them even, and places them on a wrapper, reversing each book. They are afterwards tied up in bundles, or piled away in a convenient part of the warehouse, with a wrapper under and over, and a label in each pile. If some odd gatherings are eaft, (which is highly probable); they are then added to the bundle of waste, and a memorandum made of it on the upper wrapper.

#### CHAP XVII.

#### ABSTRACTS OF THE ACTS BELATIVE TO SELWIPPE

We shall now present our readers with brief notices of the different Acts of Parliament which have been passed respecting printers, in order that the profession may know how far the several clauses affect them, with respect to whatever they may hereafter print.

By the Act 13 Geo. II. c. 19. (to restrain and prevent the excessive increase of horse races, &c.) it is enacted. "That every person or persons who shall make, print, publish, advertise, or proclaim any advertisement or notice of any plate, prize sum of money, or other thing, of less value than fifty pounds. to be run for by any horse, mare, or gelding, shall forfeit and lose the sum of one hundred pounds."

By the Act 25 Geo. II. cap. 35, (for the better preventing thefts and robberies,) it is enacted, "That any person publicly advertising a reward with 'No questions asked." for the return of things which have been stolen or lost, or making use of any

or times which have been stolen or tost, or making use of any such words in such public advertisement, &c. shall for every such offence forfeit fifty pounds.\* The Act 39 Geo. III. cap. 79, (for the more effectual sup-pression of societies established for seditious and treasonable purposes.) contains several provisions and penalties respecting printers, letter founders, and printing press makers.

Sect. 23 enacts, "That, from and after the expiration of forty days from the day of passing this Act, every person having any printing press, or types for printing, shall cause a notice thereof, signed in the presence of and attested by one witness, to be delivered to the Clerk of the Peace acting for the county. stewartry, riding, division, city, borough, town, or place, where the same shall be intended to be used, or his deputy, according to the form prescribed in the schedule hereunto an nexed: and such Clerk of the Peace, or deputy respectively, shall, and he is hereby authorized and required to grant a certificate in the form prescribed in the schedule hereunto annexed, for which such Clerk of the Peace, or deputy, shall receive the fee of one shilling, and no more; and such Clerk of the Peace, or his deputy, shall file such notice, and transmit an attested copy thereof to one of his Majesty's principal Secretaries of State; and every person who, not having delivered, such notice, and obtained such certificate as aforesaid, shall, from and after the expiration of forty days next after the pessing of this Act, keep or use any printing press or types for printing, or having delivered such notice and obtained such certificate as aforesaid, shall use any printing press or types for printing in any other place than the place expressed in such notice, shall forfeit and lose the sum of twenty pounds." Sect. 24 exempts his Majesty's printers, and the public presses belonging to the two Universities.

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Sect. 25 and 26 relates to type founders and press makers. Sect. 27 enacts, "That from and after the expiration of forty days after the passing of this Act, every person who shall print any paper or book whatsoever, which shall be meant or intended to be published or dispersed, whether the same shall be sold or given away, shall print upon the front of every paper, if the same shall be printed on one side only, and upon the first and last leaves of every paper or book which shall consist of more than one leaf, in legible characters, his or her name, and the name of the city, town, parish, or place, and also the name (if any) of the square, street, lane, court, or place, in which his or her dwelling house, or usual place of abode shall be; and every person who shall omit so to print his name and place of abode on every such paper or book printed by him, and also every person who shall publish or disperse, or assist in publishing or dispersing, either gratis or for money, any printed paper or book, which shall have been printed after the expiration of forty days from the passing of this Act, and on which the name and place of abode of the person printing the same shall not be printed as aforesaid, shall, for every copy of such paper so published or dispersed by him, forfeit and pay the sum of twenty pounds." Sect. 28. exempts papers printed by authority of either House of Parliament.

Sect. 29 enacts, "That every person who, from and after the expiration or forty days after the passing of this Act, shall print any paper for hire, reward, gain, or profit, shall carefully preserve and keep one copy (at least) of every paper so printed by him or her, on which he or she shall write, or cause to be written or printed, in fair and legible characters, the name and place of abode of the person or persons by whom he or she shall be employed to print the same; and every person printing any paper for hire, reward, gain, or profit, who shall omit or neglect to write, or cause to be written or printed as aforesaid, the name and place of his or her employer, on one of such printed papers, or to keep or preserve the same for the space of six calendar months next after the printing thereof, or to produce and shew the same to any justice of the peace, who, within the said space of six calendar months shall require to see the same, shall, for every such omission, neglect, or refusal, forfeit and lose the sum of twenty pounds."

Form of Notice to be given to the Clerk of the Peace, that any Person keeps any Printing Press or Types for Printing. To the clerk of the peace for \_\_\_\_\_\_ (here insert the ownty, stewartry, riding, division, city, borough, town, or place,

or his deputy. – do hereby declare that I have a I. A. B. of ---printing press and types for printing, which I propose to use for printing within \_\_\_\_\_, and which I require to be entered for that purpose, in pursuance of an Act passed in the thirty ninth year of His Majesty King George the Third, entitled, " An Act for the more effectual suppression of societies established for seditious and treasonable purposes, and for better preventing treasonable and seditious practices."

Witness my hand this —— day of -Signed in the presence of ———.

An Act was passed on the 10th of June, 1811, to amend and explain the above Act, by which it is enacted, "That nothing in the 27th Section of the said Act contained, shall extend to make any person or persons offending against the same, liable to more than twenty-five forfeitures or penalties for printing or publishing, or dispersing, or assisting in publishing or dispersing, any number of copies of one and the same paper or book, contrary to the said Section of the said Act.

By the second Section of this Act, power is given to magis trates to mitigate the same to any sum not less than 25, with all reasonable costs incurred in the prosecution; and by the 4th Section, persons convicted under this amended Act may, if they think themselves aggrieved, appeal to the Quarter Sessions; where the justices, if they see cause, may mitigate any penalty or penalties, and may order any money to be returned which shall have been paid or levied under any conviction as aforesaid, and may also order and award such costs to be paid by either party to the other, as they shall think and judge reasonable.

The Act 60 Geo. III. Cap. 9, to subject certain publications to the duties of Stamps upon Newspapers, and to make other regulations for restraining the abuses arising from the publication of blasphemous and seditious libels. Dec. 30, 1819

Sect. 1. All pamphlets and papers containing any public news, intelligence or occurrences, or any remarks or observations thereon, or upon any matter in church or state, printed in any part of the United Kingdom for sale, and published pe-riodically, or in parts or numbers, at intervals not exceeding twenty-six days between the publication of any two such penphlets or papers, parts or numbers, where any of the said samphlets, &c, shail not exceed two sheets, or shall be published for sale for a less sum than sixpence, exclusive of the duty, shall be deemed and taken to be newspapers, agreeable to the Act of the 38th, Geo. III. and subject to all the rules. &c. of all former Acts regarding newspapers, &c.

Sect. 2. No quantity of paper less than 21 inches in length,

and 17 in breadth, to be deemed a sheet.

Sect. 3. No cover or blank leaf upon which any advertisement or other notice shall be printed, shall be deemed part of

a pamphlet.

Sect. 4. Publications of the above nature, at intervals exceeding 26 days, to be published on the first day of every ca lendar month, or within two days before or after. Penalty £30. Sect. 5. The price and day of publication to be printed on

all periodicals, penalty for omission £20; persons liable to the above penalty for selling, or exposing for sale, any of the said publications for a less price than sixpence.

Sect. 5. Price not to extend to the allowance made to dis-

tributors, who buy to sell again.
Sect. 7. Pamphlets liable to the Stamp duties freed from all regulations respecting pamphlets.

Sect. 8. Persons not to print or publish newspapers, &c. or pamphlets of two sheets or under, of the above description, without entering into recognizance, or giving bond for securing fines upon conviction for libels. Penalty £20.

Sect. 9. If sureties pay any part of the money for which they re bound, or become bankrupts, new recognizance or bond

with sureties must be given. Penalty £20.

Sect. 10. Sureties may withdraw from their recognizances. moon giving twenty days previous notice in writing to the Commissioners or Distributors of Stamps in the district, and also to the printer or publisher: sureties not to be liable after the expiration of such notice. Bond or new sureties to be **given** before any more numbers are published, for every such

offence, penalty £20.
Sect 11. Bonds not subject to Stamp duties.
Sect 12. Lists of recognizances to be sent to the Commissioners of Stamps four times a year; bonds within ten days

after the execution.

Sect. 13. Extending the provisions of former Acts relative to the delivery of newspapers, &c. to the Commissioners of Stamps. Penalty for neglect of delivery of such pamphlets or papers, £100.

Sect. 14. Commissioners refusing to take any pamphlet or

paper, to give, if required, a certificate of such refusal. Sect. 15. Persons selling papers, &c. not duly stamped, to

be fined £20.

Sect. 16. Recognizance, in case of libel, to be of good be-

haviour, as well as to appear to answer.
Sect. 17. Fines, penalties, &c. to be recovered by action of debt, bill, plaint or information, &c. not more than £100 to be recovered before Justices of the Peace, for any penalty incurred in one day.

Sect. 18. Two or more Justices to hear and determine offences committed against this Act, within the limitation of three months; magistrates have power to mitigate penalties to one fourth; reasonable costs, &c. must always be paid.

Sect. 19. Persons refusing to appear and give evidence, when summoned as witnesses, without satisfactory excuse to

the magistrates, shall forfeit for each offence the sum of £20. Sect, 21. Order or conviction of Justices not to be removed into any Court whatever, nor can the execution be superseded.

Sect. 22. No action for penalties shall be commenced but in the name of the Attorney General, in England and Ireland, and Advocate for Scotland, or some officer of the Stamp duties.

Sect. 23. Duties to be under the management of the Commissioners of Stamps.

Sect. 24. Duties and discounts to be paid and allowed according to the provisions of former Acts.

Sec. 26, contains the following exceptions: Acts, &c. &c. printed for Government, School Books, subjects on Devotion, Sc. Daily Accounts, Bills of Goods imported and exported, Warrants and Certificates for the delivery of goods, Weekly Bills of Mortality, Lists of Prices Current, State of the Markets, Accounts of the Arrival and Sailing of Merchants' Ships, &c. &c. provided they contain nothing more than the nsual matter.

Sect. 27. Reprinted works published in numbers, not chargeable with the stamp duty, provided that it had been printed two years, and not first published in parts or numbers.

#### CHAP, XVIII.

## COMPOSITORS' AND PRESSMENS' SCALES OF PRICES.

We sincerely regret our having by far exceeded (particularly in this volume) the limits to which we had proposed to conflict ourselves, otherwise we should have introduced the copy that now lies before us, wherein we have taken an impartial review of the passing events in the profession during the last twenty-five years, in which we have clearly laid Employers, the Booksellers, and the Journeyman: and from that moment to the present, we have seriously regretted the occurrences that have taken place, which we never think of but with pain: and we doubt not that the principal actors in the events alluded to, have long, ere this, strongly felt the hiting stings of connactender of or their folly and short-sighteenes: we forbear to parties of the total control of the sing stings of connactenderize individuals, not wishing to yound their feedings beyond what we are firmly persuaded they must have already felt; but, as the late Earl Stanhope our yound their feedings beyond what we are firmly persuaded they must have already felt; but, as the late Earl Stanhope our house of the saddle fits his Lordship, let him were it: so, in like manner, those who imagine that our alluvious applies, we freely leave to wear the cap.

In the various conferences which have taken place between the masters and the men, we wonder much that no attempt has yet been made to define what description of work should come under the denomination of Tabular, and likewise what ought to be considered Table; we are free to admit, that the task would necessarily beattended with considerable labour, on account of the different descriptions of work which are continually occurring, as the applicability of the scale to one, would not exactly embrace the other; therefore a certain titude should be taken; and the employer would fulfil his duty, not only to himself and the compositor, but also to the party whom he was engaged, in making a fair and liberal decision as to the price of any description of extra work; by whom he was employed would find an inward satisfaction (in the payment of the extra sum), on beholding his work turned out not only with credit to the printer but also that he had

assisted in the further improvement of the Art.

It was our attention (if the above cause had not prevented us) to have attempted drawing out of an equitable Scale of Prices, in lieu of the too loose and general one now in use; by so deing, we are fully aware that we should have been liable to the accusation of egotism, but even this would not have deterted us from our duty: notwithstanding which we hambly hope that the hint will not be altogether lost, but that some individual of consideration in the profession will step forward and assist in this most desirable object, which would immediately put an end to the perpetual bickerings between the

employer and employed.

An account of the different Advances in Journeymen's Wages, from the Year 1785 to 1816, with the present Regulations

and Scale of Prices.

In the early stages of the Art, the mode adopted for the payment of those employed must have been similar to that of every other branch of art or manufacture during its infancy, viz. on established wages. The idea of laving down fixed charges for different kinds of work, was not suggested for nearly two centuries after the discovery of our Art, nor indeed till the year 1785, had there been any regular scale of prices printed. From that time to the year 1805, several advances have taken place on the wages both of compositors and pressmen.

The scale of 1785, agreed to at a general Meeting of the Master Printers, held at the Globe-tavern in Fleet-street, on Friday the 20th of November, is as follows: also the succeeding advances, including the regulations and scale

of 1805.

That the price of work paid for by letters, be advanced from four-nence to four-pence bullpens per thousand, including English and Brevier; and, in leaded matter, the ens and ens at the beginnings and enso of the lines not to be reckoned in the width.

That pamphlets of five sheets and under, be paid one shilling

per sheet above what they come to by letters.

That all works wholly printed in a foreign language, though common type, be paid fivepence per thousand.

That fivepence per thousand be paid for all dictionaries of two languages, in Brevier or larger type; but not for English dictionaries, unless attended with peculiar trouble.

That the price of Greek be advanced in the same proportion as

that of common work.

At an adjourned Meeting of the Committee of Master Printers, on Monday the 11th day of March, 1793, in consequence f a circular letter from the Compositors, dated the 14th of

February last, requesting,
1. That all works be cast up with the heads and directions in-

cinsive:

2. That em and en quadrats, or whatever is used at the ends of lines, be included as in the above article:

The Committee, having held a conference with a deputation from the compositors at large, agree to recommend to the Master Printers to comply with the first request; understanding that the head line (whether larger or smaller) is to be reckoned like the text; and that, where the length of the page is not exact even ems, if it does not exceed an en, it is not to be considered as a line.-- Directions and signatures to be reckoned in the gauge.

The above increase of price to commence on Lady-day, but not to extend to any works at that time unfinished. In periodical works,

to commence with the next new volume after Lady-day.

At a General Meeting of the Master Printers, at the Globetavern, December 18, 1795, convened by the Committee, to consider of certain propositions submitted to them by the Compositors—It was resolved, That from the 1st of January, 1796, all works printed in a larger

type than English, shall be cast up wholly as English.

# 578 . . . . Typographia.

At a Meeting, in December 34, 1800, of the Master Printers of London and Westminster, held for the purpose of taking into further consideration the state of the trade, both in respect to the workmen and their employers— It was stated, that a general dissatisfaction still remained among

the compositors, concerning the advances granted them at a former Meeting, (Nov. 29,) they expecting to have had an additional allowance of one halfpenny per thousand on works printed from

manuscript copy.

The same was taken into consideration; and, upon deliberate discussion, it was found impracticable to comply with their expectation; the Meeting being convinced, that to make any distinction between manuscript and reprint would be an anjustifiable departme from the established and long-approved principles by which works have been appreciated. But, considering the extreme and increasing pressure of the times (the article of bread alone having risen to the unusual price of one shilling and sevenpence halfpenny the quarters loaf.) it was resolved-

That, upon the first article of the compositors' scale, one farthing more per thousand be allowed in general, without making any distinction between manuscript and reprint; to takeplace on all works

begun on or after the 1st of January, 1801.

The following is the composition scale as now amended:

 That the scale of 1785 (whereby an advance of two shillings and sixpence in the pound was given)—as amended in 1793 (when the further advance of including head-lines and directions was acceded to)-and as subsequently amended in 1796 (respecting works done in larger type than English)-is a fair and applicable scale to judge and appreciate work by.

II. That the following further advances and regulations be made

on the above scale;

1. That the price of works paid for by letters be advanced from fourpence halfpenny to fivepence farthing per thousand, including English and Brevier.

2. That all works printed in any foreign language, though common type, be advanced to fivepence three farthings per thousand, including English and Long Primer.—In Bourgeois or Brevier, to

sixpence per thousand.

3. That all dictionaries of two or more languages, in Brevier or larger type, in quarto and octavo, be advanced to fivepence halfpenny per 1000; if in duedecimo or eighteens, to sixpence per thousand.
4. That corrections be advanced to fivepence per hour.
111. That jobs, and other works not specified in the above prices, or in the annexed schedule, bear a proportionate advance.

Job Masters' Resolutions, vis.

1. That every article under one sheet be considered a job, and be paid sixpence halfpenny per thousand .-- Threepence to be considered as sixpence; under threepence to be lost.
2. One sheet and under five to be cast up as usual, with one

shilling a sheet for the imposing.
3. Corrections on all jobs to be paid sixpence per hour. 4. All jobs in foreign languages to be paid sevenpence halfpenny

5. All jobs in foreign languages to be paid sevenpence halfpenny

per thousand.

6. The imprint not to be included in the square of the page. Jobs having two or three head rules, and four columns, to be idered tabular; all above to be reckoned table-work. The first considered tabular; all above to be reckoned table-work.
to be paid one and one-half; the second double price.

#### Cypographia....579.

At a Meeting held on the 19th of February, 1806, and at two subsequent adjourned Meetings on the 20th and 26th. at the York Hotel, New Bridge-street; the Deputations consisted of eight Masters and an equal number of Compositors. duly authorized by their respective bodies, when the scale of 1801 was re-considered and several additions made, particularly the article on Bottom Notes, which was then first inserted; but this article was not sufficiently explicit, and in the month of May following, the Masters issued a paragraph explaining their view of the subject, but many of the Compositors differed from them: the truth was, the Masters at length found out that they had not sufficiently been aware of the construction which the article would bear at the time it was granted. The Compositors made a proposition respecting Notes, but the Masters objected to it, and proposed the one adopted in lieu of it: therefore it was a child of their own.

#### COMPOSITORS' SCALE OF PRICES.

Agreed upon at a General Meeting of Master Printers, at Stationers' Hall, April 15, 1810.

Article 1. All works in the English language, common matter, with space lines, including English and Brevier, to be cust up at fivepence three farthings per thousand; if in Minion sixpence; in Nonpareil, sixpence three farthings. Without space lines, including English and Brevier, sixpence per thonsand; in Minion, sixpence farthing; in Nonpareil, seven-pence; in Pearl, with or without space lines, eightpence; heads and directions, or signature lines, included. A thick space to be considered as an en in the width, and an en to be reckoned an em in the length of the page; and where the number of letters amounts to five hundred, a thousand to be charged; if under five hundred, not to be reckoned; and if the calculation at per thousand shall not amount to an odd threepence, the odd pence to be suppressed in the price of the work; but where it amounts to or exceeds threepence, there shall be sixpence charged. Em and en quadrats, or whatever is used at the beginning or end of lines, to be reckoned as an em in the width.

2. Works printed in Great Primer to be cust up as English; and all works in larger type than Greut Primer, as half Eng-

lish and half Great Primer.

B. All works in foreign languages, though common type, with space lines, including English and Brevier, to be cast up at stapence farthing per thousand; if in Minion, supence three farthings; Nonpareil sevenpence halfpenny. Without space lines, including English and Brevier, supence halfpenny; Minion sevenpence; Nonpareil sevenpence three-farthings: and Peurl, with or without space lines, eightpence three furthings.

#### 580 .... Typegraphia.

4. English Dictionaries of every size, with space lines, including English and Brevier, to be paid sixpence forthing; without space lines, sixpence halpenny. (In this article are not included Gazetteers, Geographical Dictionaries, Dictionaries, of Arts and Actences, and works of a similar description, except those attended with extra trouble beyond usual descriptive matter). Dictionaries of two or more languaget, of every size, with space lines, including English and Brevier, to be paid sixpence halpenny: without space lines, sixpence three farthings; if smaller type than Brevier, to take the proportionate alreance succified in Article 1.

5. English Grammars, Spelling Books, and works of those descriptions, in Brevier or larger type, with space lines, to be paid supence per thousand; without space lines sixpeace farthing: if is two languages, or foreign language, with space lines, sixpeace tripes.

halfpenny.

of Small-sized Folios, Quartos, Octavos, and works ione in Great Primer or larger type, (English languages) which do not come to seven shillings when cust up at the usual rute, to be paid as follows: English, and larger type, not less than seven shillings; Picu, eight shillings and sixpence: English 2mo. to be paid not less than ten shillings and sixpence; and Pica not less than eleven shillings and sixpence; and

7. Reviews, Magazines, and works of a similar description, consisting of various sized letter, if cast up to the different bodies, to be paid two shillings and sixpence per sheet extra

8. Pamphlets of five sheets and under, and parts of works done in different houses, amounting to not more than five sheets, to be paid one shilling per sheet extra; but, as it frequently occurs that works exceeding a pamphlet are often nearly made up without a return of letter, all such works shall be considered as pamphlets, and paid for as such

9. Works done in Sixteens, Eighteens, Twenty-fours, or Thirty-twos, on Small Pica and upwards, to be paid one shilling and sixpence per sheet extra. If on Long Primer or smaller type, one shilling per sheet extra. Forty-eights to be paid two shillings per sheet extra. and Sixty-fours two shil-

lings and sixpence per sheet extra.

10. Works requiring an alteration or alterations of margin, to be paid, for each alteration, one shilling per sheet to the Pressmen if altered by them, and six-pence to the Compositor, as a compensation for making up the furniture; if altered by

There is no justice in bringing leaus or every description under one denomination: we contend, that the thickness of the lead should be guided by the size of the type and width of the measure: what equality is there between an English ismo, and one in Long Primer, or any smaler size; or as to duodecimos and dos. &c. Equity should ever be the standard by which laws and regulations are made; therefore wetrust the above bint will induce gettemen to draw a line in this respect, and not bring leads which are a loss into this sweeping clause.

# Topographia....581

the Compositor, then he is to be paid one shilling for the alcoration, and the Pressmen sixpence for the delay.

This article to be determined on solely at the option of the emplover.

11. Bottom Notes consisting of twenty lines (or two notes. though not amounting to twenty lines) and not exceeding four nages, in every ten sheets, in Ouarto or Octavo :-- one page, for two notes, though not amounting to one page) and not erceeding six pages, in Twelves : two pages (or two notes, though not amounting to two pages) and not exceeding eight, in Eighteens or above, to be paid one shilling per sheet; but under the above proportion no charge to be made. Bottom Notes, consisting of ten lines (or two notes, though not amounting to ten lines) in a pumphlet of five sheets or under. and not exceeding two pages, to be paid one shilling per sheet Quotations. Mottos. Contents to Chapters, &c. in smaller type than the body, to be considered as Notes. [ Where the Notes shall be in Nonpureil or Pearl, in Twelves, the number of pages to be restricted to four; in eighteens to five pages.] This article is intended only to fix what constitutes the charge of

one shilling per sheet for Bottom Notes: all works requiring a higher charge than one shilling for Bottom Notes, are to be

paid for according to their value.

12. Side Notes to Folios and Quartos not exceeding a broad quotation, if only chap, or date, and not exceeding three explanatory lines on an average in each puge, to be paid one shilling per sheet; in Octavo, if only chap, or date, and not exceeding three explanatory lines on an average in each page, one shilling and sixpence per sheet. Cut-in Notes, in smaller Side and Bottom Rotes to many, particularly historical and law works, if attended with more than ordinary trouble, to be set-

tled between the employer and journeyman.

13. Greek, Hebrew, Saxon, &c. or any of the dead characters, if one word and not exceeding three lines in any one sheet, to be paid for that sheet one shilling extru; all above to be

paid according to their value.

14. Greek with space lines, and without accents, to be paid eightpence halfpenny per thousand; if with separate accents tenpence : without space lines, and without accents, eightpence three farthings; with accents, tenpence furthing; the asper not to be considered an accent. [If Dictionary matter, to take one halfpenny advance.]

15. Hebrew, Arabic, Syriac, &c. to be paid double : Hebrew with points to be cast up as half body and half points doubled.

16. Music to be paid double the body of the sonnet type. 17. Index matter, though but one measure, to be paid two

shillings per sheet extra.

18. Booksellers' Catalogues (in whatever lunguage) to be cast up at sevenpence per thousand, not including the number19. Night work to commence and be paid for, from ten o'clock till twelve; one shilling; all after to be paid three-pence per hour extra till six....Morning work, commencing at four o'clock, to be paid one shilling extra....Sunday work, foot exceeding six hours, to be paid for one shilling, if for a

longer time, twopence an hour.

20. Jobs of one sheet or under (except Auctioneers' Catalogues and Particulars) to be cast up at sevenpence per thousand; if done in smaller type than Brevier, to take the proportionate advance specified in Article 1; if in foreign language of one sheet or under, (except Auctioneers' Catalogues,) to be cast up at eightpence per thousand; if done in smaller type than Brevier, to take the proportionate advance specified in Article 1.

21. Where two pages only are imposed, either opposite to, or at the back of each other, they shall be paid for as two pages; but if with an indorse, or any other kind of matter, constituting a third, then to be paid as a sheet if in Polio, a

half-sheet if in Quarto, and so on,

22. Broadsides, such as Leases, Deeds, and Charter-parties, above the dimensions of crown, whether table or common matter, to be paid the double of common matter; on crown and under, to be paid one and one half common matter.—The indorse to be paid one fourth of the inside page, as common matter.

23. All Corrections to be paid sixpence per hour.

24. The Imprint to be considered as two lines in the square of the page.

25. Different volumes of the same work to be paid for distinctly, according to their value.

At a Meeting of Master Printers held January?, 1816, pursuant to notice, for the purpose of taking into consideration the state of the Trade in general, in consequence of the attention in the time:

It was the opinion of this Meeting, that it would be highly expedient, that after the 19th of February, the following modification of the Compositony's Scale of Prices of 1810, as far as regards Reprints, and of the Pressmens' Scale of Prices, as far as regards all Numbers exceeding the first 1000, should take place.

IN THE COMPOSITORS' SCALE.

All Reprinted Works to be paid three farthings per 1000 less than the Scale of 1810. All manuscript or original Works shall continue to be paid for as at present.

IN THE PRESSMENS' SCALE.

Every Token above the first Four Tokens to be paid one

halfpenny per hour less than the Scale of 1810.
Resolved, That the Master Printers be requested to com-

Resolved, That the Master Printers be requested to communicate the above to their respective Journeymen.

# Typographia .... 583

		NORMON	ADIBAGO	DICTIONARIES.	ARIES.	GRAMMARS, &c.	ARS, Lo.	1
		COMMON POREIGN	POREIGN	English.	Languages or Foreign.	English.	Languages or Foreign.	
SCALE.	ENGLISH to \ \ \ leaded	0 <u>14</u> è	22.	224	⊕ o r	t a r	T D P	
TORS'	MINION { Leaded	# °	7 G	7 64	#-			
DMP08	NonPareil { leaded	102	77	##	8 7 4			
THE C	PEARL. { leuded or }		<b>48</b>	<b>8</b>	•		,	13
OF '	Notes constituting the Charge of One Shilling per Sheet.—See Article 11.	uting the	Charge .	of One S	hilling pe	r Sheet.	-See A	1 = 1
LACT	Quarto and Octavo		20 Lines. or 2 Notes		and not exceeding 4 Pages in 10 Sheets.	ng 4 Pag	es in 10 S	1 ==
BSTE	Twelves	~~	1 Page or 2 Notes	and no	and not exceeding 6 Pages in 10 Sheets.	ng 6 Pag	es in 10 S	1 3
	Eighteens or above		2 Pages or 2 Notes	and no	and not exceeding 8 Pages in 10 Sheets.	ng 8 Pag	s in 10 S	1 5
	Pamphlets		10 Lines or 2 Notes	and not	and not exceeding 2 Pages in 5 Sheets.	ng 3 Page	s in 6 Sh	1 a

## 584 .... Tppographia.

# A Table shewing the Price of any Number of Letters from 16,000 to 100,000 at 5d. per Thousand

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17	1 7	1	84	14	2	51	21	3	68	28	4	85	35	5
18	7	6	35	14	7	52	21	8	69	28	9	86	35	10
19	7	11	36	15	0	53	22	۱,1	70	29	2	87	36	3
20	8	4	37	15	5	54	22			29	7	88	36	8
21	8	9	38	15	10	55	22		72	30	0	89	37	ĭ
22	وا	2	39	16	3	56		4		30	5	90	37	6
28	9	7	40	18	8	57	28	9		30	10	91	37	-
		-			-									11
24	10	0	41	17	1	58	24		75	31	3	92	38	4
25	10	5	42	17	6	59	24	7	76	31	8	93	38	9
26	10	10	43	17	11	60	25	Q		82	1	94	39	2
27	11	8	44	18	4	61	25	5	78	82	6	95	39	7
28	11	8	45	18	9	62	25	10	79	32	11	96	40	0
29	12	1	46	19	2	68	26	8	80	33	4	97	40	5
30	12	6	47	19	7	64	26	8	81	83	9	98	40	10
81	12	11	48	20	o	65	27	ī	82	34	2	99	41	3
82	112	4	49	20	- 5	66	27	6	83	34	7	100	41	8
33	l ::	-					12:			35	- 1	-30	-1	۰
133	112	9	50	20	10	67	27	111	84	30	0	!		

We have introduced the above table in consequence of the alteration which took place respecting re-prints; and it is with pain we learn that most of our brethren act too harshly in the construction which they are pleased to put upon it: for our own parts, we do consider that a fair and liberal meaning should always be applied, and not one which bears hard upon the weakest party: our view of it is, that no work can strictly be considered as coming under the denomination of a re-print, unless the compositor can go on fairly and make up his matter regularly, not if he is in the least kept at random; also, if the copy had been printed with a thick letter, and the compositor has to compose a thin one, he would then have the trouble of extra spacing in every line: should hiscopy have been executed with thin, and he have to compose a thick type, he would then be necessitated to thin space each line to get it in, and would sometimes have to overrun the paragraphs down to the break lines, although not a single alteration should have been made; therefore can any one with justice contend that such works come within the strict meaning of the term certainly not: we likewise object to printed copy with any additions, or emenda-tions, however trifling they may be, because the compositor, in such cases, must be at random, and suffer all the inconvenience of an original work; it is too well known to all practical printers, that a compositor is much more retarded in his progress by composing from printed copy with interlineations, than what he would be from any thing like a fair manuscript before him; therefore gentlemen should act liberally in this respect, and not pursue the system of grinding the compositors too close, thereby destroying that reciprocality of interest, which throughout this work we have endeavoured to establish the necessity of it to both parties.

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## PRESSMENS' SCALE OF PRICES.

at Stationers' Hall, Feb. 8, 1810.  FOLIOS.  On Medium or Demy.  Not exceeding fifty-two Pica ems, upon Small Pica and upwards	Agreed upon at a General Meeting of the Master P	<del>ri</del> nt	re	
Not exceeding fifty-two Pica ems, upon Small Pica and upwards		14 F		l
Not exceeding fity-two Pica ems, upon Small Pica and upwards		25		3
Not exceeding fifty-two Pica ems, upon Small   5   5   6   7   1   1   1   1   1   1   1   1   1		25	3	~
Fical and spwards   Signature   Signatur	Not exceeding fifty-two Pica ems, upon Small )			-
All above fifty-two Pica ems, upon Small Pica and upwards	Pica and upwards	1	1 -	6
And upwards.	If on Long Primer, Bourgeois, or Brevier	51	6	7
1f on Long Primer, Bourgeois, or Brevier	All above fifty-two Pica ems, upon Small Pica	54	6	7
Long Primer and upwards, on Copy or Crown. On Medium or Demy.   Not exceeding forty Pica ems, upon Long Primer and upwards	If on Long Primer, Bourgeois, or Brevier	1 -		Ľ
QUARTOS.	Long Primer and upwards, on Copy or Crown			
Not exceeding forty Pica ems, upon Long   Primer and upwards	QUARTOS.	ا " ا	J 2	١
Primer and upwards				
If on Bourgeois, or Brevier				
All above forty Pica ems, and not less than }	Primer and upwards	1 1	1 -	Ι,
Long Primer	If on Bourgeois, or Brevier	5 1	5 1	6
If on Bourgeois, or Brevier.		54	54	7
Brevier and upwards, on Copy or Crown.	Te on Rourgeois or Brevier	آ ۽ ا	_	L
OCTAVOS.  On Medium or Demy.  Not exceeding twenty-four Pica ems, upon Small Pica and upwards				
Not exceeding twenty-four Pica ems, upon   S		ľ	34	٦
Small Pica and upwards   5   5   7     All above twenty-four Pica ems, on Brevier.   5   6   7     All above twenty-four Pica ems, on Brevier.   6   6   8     To rupwards   6   6   8     Brevier and upwards, on Copy or Crown   5   5   6     TweLives.   7   6   6   8     TweLives.   5   6   7     TweLives.   5   6   7     Twelives.   5   6   7     Twelives.   5   6   7     To a Bourgeois, or Brevier   5   6   7     To a Bourgeois, or Brevier   6   7     To a Bourgeois, or Brevier   6   7     Twelives.   6   7     To a Bourgeois, or Brevier   6   7     Twelives.   7   7     Twelives.   7   7     To a Bourgeois, or Brevier   6   7     Twelives.   7   7     To a Long Primer, Bourgeois, or Brevier   6   7     Twelives.   7     Twelives.   7     Twelives.   7   7     Twelives.   7   7     Twelives.	On Medium or Demy.			
If on Long Primer, Bourgeois, or Brevier.   5   5   6   7     All above twenty-four Pica ems, on Brevier.   5   6   6   8     If less than Brevier.   6   6   8     Brevier and upwards, on Copy or Crown   5   5   6     TWELVES.   6   7   8     Twelves.   6   6   8     Twelves.   7   8   6   7     Ton Bourgeois, or Brevier   5   6   7     If on Bourgeois, or Brevier, on Copy or Crown   5   7   8     If on Bourgeois, or Brevier   6   7   8     If on Long Primer, Bourgeois, or Brevier   5   6   7     If on Long Primer, Bourgeois, or Brevier   6   7     If on	Not exceeding twenty-four Pica ems, upon )	5	5 <u>i</u>	6
All above twenty-four Pica ems, on Brevier, or upwards 6 6 8 8 Brevier and upwards, on Copy or Crown 5 5 6 7 8 WELVES.  **On Medium or Demy.**  Not exceeding twenty-one Pica ems, upon Long Primer and upwards 5 6 7 8 1 8 1 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9	Small Pica and upwards)	۱ ,	51	7
or upwards	If on Long Primer, Bourgeois, or Brevier			ſ
If less than Brevier.		54	6	7
Brevier and upwards, on. Copy or Crown		6	6 j	8
TWELVES.   On Medium or Demy.   S   5½ 7	Brevier and nowards on Conv or Crown			
Not exceeding twenty-one Pica ems, upon   Long Primer and upwards   5½ 6 7 8	TWELVES.			
Long Primer and upwards	On Medium or Demy.			
Long Primer and upwards	Not exceeding twenty-one Pica ems, upon }	5	54	7
All above twenty-one Pica ems, upon Long Primer and upwards			-1	
Primer and upwards		- 1		7
If on Bourgeois, or Brevier.		5 1	7	8
Long Primer, Bourgeois, or Brevier, on Copy or Crown	Ten Populacie or Brevier		7	R
or Crown.  EIGHTEENS.  If not less than Small Pica	Tong Primer Bonryeois or Brevier, on Conv.)	- 1		
### EIGHTEENS.   5   54   7   1f not less than Small Pica	or Crown		° 2	7
If on Long Primer, Bourgeois, or Brevier.   5 to 6   6   7   8   8   7   8   8   7   8   8   8	EIGHTEENS.	1	- 1	
If less than Brevier	If not less than Small Pica			
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If not less than Small Pica 6 7 8	If less than Brevier	۳٦	7	8
16 on Long Primer, Bourgeois, or Brevier 6 7 8	TWENTY-FOURS AND THIRTY-I WOS.	6.2		7
It on roug Lumet, Donikaors, & Dicarette	If not less than Small Pica			
If less than Bravier	If less than Brevier			9

#### 586....Covocrandia. POCKET BOOKS. Octano Post or Crown, twenty-one Pica ems wide, thirty-five long.......... Twelves. Pot, such as Ladies and Christian Ladies table part, 6mo, thirty-five Pica ems wide, twenty-six long..... Pot. such as Ladies and Christian Ladies miscellany part, sixteen Pica ems wide, twentv-six long ... ..... Copy, Christian Gentleman's, twenty wide, thirty-five long .......... SCHOOL BOOKS. Twelves. Conv or Crown, not exceeding seventeen Pica) ems wide, and thirty-one long, nor less Octavo. Copy or Crown, not exceeding twenty-one Pica } ems wide, nor less than Long Primer.... } B. School books on Copy or Crown, are defined to be Patziret's French Grammar, Chamband, Salisbury Spelling Book, Fox's Lessons, Ward's Lettin Grammar, and all of a similar description. BILLS IN PARLIAMENT. Almanacks From 4 to any No. un-) Demy do. size Wing or ) Cam bridge..... der 100...... If 100 and under 200..... 5 Goldsmith, calendar forms It 200 or 250.....51 Ditto prog ........ Twelves demy, 19 wide, Above 250 & under 400..44 84 long, cal......

Above 500 & under 700..44 If 700 or 750 ...... 5 All above 750 ...... ALMANACKS. Royal Broadsides.....7

Ditto, prog ...... Ditto Crown, size Rider..5 Octavo Foolscap, 20)

wide. 34 long, cal. &

prog. .... . . . N.B. Side Notes to be reckoned in the width. bottom Notes not to be regarded.

Works on Royal puper to be paid one halfpenny per hour more than the above prices .-- Ditto on Foolscap or Pot. not less number than one thousand, and worked at one pull, fourpence halfpenny .... Ditto in square pages (like Entick's Dic-tionery) and works for the Public Offices, to be advanced one halfpenny per hour on the Scale of 1800.

Fine paper of the same size, if included within the token, not to be charged extra; but if of a larger size, then to be paid

according to the Scale.

# Croographia ....587

Three or more proofs pulled at one time to be charged fourpence per form: and if made ready, to be charged as a token. Cards, large or small, to be paid sixpence-halfpenny per

hundred.

Double Crown or Royal Broadsides, not exceeding one hundred number, to be puid one shilling and sixpence: if more than one hundred, to be paid one skilling per hundred.

Jobs, without points, to be paid fourpence halfpenny

per hour.

Demy Broadsides, not more than 100, to be paid one shilling; above 100, and not exceeding 500, to be paid tenpence per 100; if above 500, to be paid at the rute of one shilling and ninepence per Token.

Broudsides requiring three pulls to be paid one-third more. No form to be deemed a Broadside that comes in at one

pull at the common press.

For Night work, &c. see Compositors' Scale, No. 19.

The following Scale, with the remarks, was taken from a well digested Report of the Committee of News Compositors, which was read July 20, 1820.

ABSTRACT OF THE SCALE. Per Week. Per Galley. Per Hour. Morning Papers . . . . £2 8s. 0d. . . . 8s. 10d. . . . 114d. Evening Papers . . . . £2 8s. 6d. . . . 8s. 7d. . . . 10id.

Assistants on other Journals are paid the same as Evening Papers; the Sunday Papers, having their gallies of vavious lengths, are paid at the rate of 8id. per thousand, or 10d. per hour.

Long Primer and Minion galleys, cast as nigh 5,000 letters as possible (at present varying from that number to 5,200, partly arising from a variation in the founders stand-

ards) are, per thousand, on

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Morning. Evening. Long Primer and Minion ... 9d. .... Nonpareil ..... 94d. .... 94d. 

Or a reduction, in proportion to value, on the galley quantity. The galley on Morning Papers consists of 120 lines Long Primer, and 40 ufter lines ... Minion 88, and 30 after lines ... on Papers 22 ems Long Primer wide; other widths in proportion; and a finish of five hours. Another mode is, one galley and a finish of six hours. Twelve hours on and 12 off (including refreshment time), was the original agreement.

The time of beginning to be the same uniformly as agreed upon by the Printer and Companionship---i. e. either a two. three, or four o'Clock Paper .-- and at whatever hour the Journal goes to press one morning, regulates the hour of commencing work for the next day's publication, provided it should be over the hour originally agreed upon-if under,

### 588 . . . . Typographia.

the time is in the Compositors' favour. The hour of commencing work on Sunday is regulated by the time of finish-

ing on Saturday morning.

Ten hour's composition is the specified time for Evening Papers.—All composition to cease when the day's publication goes to press; any work required afterwards to be paid for extra, or deducted from the first work of the next publication.—This does not apply to Second Editions; they being connected solely with the antecedent Paper, must be paid for extra. Newspapers in a foreign language take, of course, the same advance as is allowed on book-work.

A system termed Finishing having been formerly introduced, it is necessary to state, that no mode of working can be considered fair (except as before stated), otherwise

than by the galley or hour.

N. B. No Apprentices to be employed on Daily Papers.

In 1776 (the commencement of the American War) ap-

peared the first daily Reports of the Debates in Parliament. In 1777, there were seven Morning, eight three times a week, one twice a week, and one Weekly Paper. In 1778, appeared the first Sunday paper, entitled, Johason's Sunday Monitor, which, up to the present day, still continues to stand well in the Public estimation: in a few weeks it was followed by a second; and a third was brought out in the succeeding year. In 1784 another Journal started, in which Minion was first introduced. The old method of display was discarded, and a new taste appeared in the arrangement of the matter in the inner form, and the former advertisement style was completely exploded. Rivalry commenced and the other papers soon made a correspondent change.

In 1788 appeared the first Daily Evening Paper: this

was followed by a second, in 1791.

From 1785 to 1793 the Journals underwent a most material alteration. It was a remarkable epoch, including the most eventful seven years of the last century, which caused a strong political feeling in the public mind; of course information from all quarters was eagerly sought, and party spirit with the Editors, as well as with their Readers, rose to the utmost height. In this period nineteen new Journals put forth their claims for public support---the majority. however, were "born but to die."-Two of the elder papers also expired; but their places were occupied by seven juniors. The number now amounted to eleven Morning and two Evening Papers : seven, three times a week; one Weekly, and five Sunday Papers. An alteration in the method of display, and a new mode in the arrangement of the matter, became now very general. One Journal introduced French rules, the small capitals for paragraphs, and discarded the double letters and the long s.

# Typographia.... + 1

A Table, shewing the Number of Thousands in a Sheet of Thirty-twos, Eighteens, Twelves, Octavo, Quarto, and Folio, of various Sixes.

The figures over each class denote the number of lines long; those in the first column the number of e.e. wide, and those with the asterick and I lattic letters \$\frac{1}{2}, \ell\_1, \ell\_2, \ell\_3, \frac{1}{2}, \text{in the number of e.e.}\$ that the letters \$\frac{1}{2}, \ell\_1, \frac{1}{2}, \ell\_2, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, \text{in the letters}\$ the letters \$\frac{1}{2}, \te

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18	21	11‡		21		51		9				2			1	
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25	20	10	21	21	21	64	21	104	22	23	22	7	22		23	34
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27	22	6	22	104	23	3	23	74	24	0	24	41	24	9	25	1
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33	34	10	35	31	35	9	36	21	36	8	37	11	37		38	0	
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	36	2	36	7 ±	37	01	37	5 1	37	10	38	4	38	9	39	21
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1	1	24		21		21		23	1	24	21	51	51
	2	41	1	43	1	5		54	1	51	54	81	81
1 :	3	61	1	7	1	71		73	1	8	8	111	111
1		9	1	91	1	93		101		104	103		1 21
1 8		114		113	1	01	1	03	1	14	1 11		1 51
1 6			1	21	1	21	1	34	1	33	1 44	- 1	1 81
1		33	1	44	1	5	1	53	1	61	1 7	1 101	1 111
8			1	63	1	7 1	1	81	1	9	1 93	2 1	2 2
1			1	9	1	93	1	11	1	111	2 01	2 4	2 5
10		101	1	114	2		2		2		2 34	2 61	2 71
11			2	13	2	23	2	4	2	43	2 6	2 91	2 101
12	2	3	2	4	2	51	2	61	2	7 1	2 83	3 0	3 11
18	2	54	2	64	2	74	2	9	2	10	2 114	3 3	3 45
14			2		2	10	2	114	3	03	3 24	3 6	
15	2	93	2	111	3	01	3	2	3	31	3 5	3 9	- 1
16	3	0	3	14	3	3	3	41	3	6	3 7 1	0 11	
17	3	21	3	4	3	51	3	7	3	81	3 104	4 2	1 7
18	3	41	3	61	3	73	3	94	3	111	4 1	4 5	4 10
15	3	63	3	81	3	104	4	0	4	13	4 01	4 0	5 0
20	3	9	3	11	4	03	4	21	4	44	4	4 11	92
21	3	111	4	14	4	3	4	5	4	7 1	4 0	5 1	1 61
22	4	14	4	33	4	51	4	71	4	93	9	5 4	2 01
23	4	34	4	6	4	8	4	10	5	04	9	1 5	1 06
24	4	6	4	84	4	101	5	03	5	3	9 0	1 5 10	e 34
25		84	4	104	5	04	5	31	5	53	9 . 1	6 1	8 6 6t
26	4	104	5	11	5	34	5	53	5	84	6 1	1 0	10 - 01
27	5	04	5	31	5	5 1	5	81	5	11	c 4	2 0	7 0
28	5	3	5	6	5	8	5	103	6	1 1	0 7	1 0	1 7 3
29	5	51	5	8	5	101	6	14	6	44	e 1	9	7 6
30	5	7 1	5	101	6	01	6	34	6	63	7	01	7 9
31	5	93	6	1	6	31	6	64	6	91	-	3	3 7 111
32	6	0	6	3	6	6	6	9	7	0	-	51 1	14 8 22
33	6	24	6	54	6	84	6	114	7	23	-	81	21 8 01
34	6	41	6	7	6	103	7	2	7	51	7 1	14 0	51 8 81
35	6	63	6	10	7	14	7	4 1	7	8		3 8 8	8 111
36	6	9	7	01	7	34	7	7	7	101	-	43 . 16	01 9 21
37	6	114	7	24	7	6	7	91	8	14	0	7 2 0 1	14 9 51
38	7	11	7	54	7	84	8	0	8	34	01	04 0	9 81
39	7	34	7	7 1	7	104	8	21	8	64		1 .	1 9 11
40	7	6	7	93	8	14	8	51	8	84	9	31 9	-
41	7	84	8	01	8	34	8	8	8	114			1.154
				-	-	-	-		-				

# Typographia....+29

## THIRTY TWOS.

-	_	_		. T		0	4 17	- C - A	4.		4.4		_	2 .	110	- 6
7	1	28.	12	s6d	1.	3s.	13	<b>s</b> 6d	14	<b>1</b> 5.	14	sod	1	5s.	րթ	<b>36</b> 0
_		4	•	d	•	d	•	d		d		4	•	4	•	d
42	7	101	8	21	8	6	8	101	9	2	9	6 }	9	10	10	2
43	8	01	8	5	8	81	9	1	9	43	9		10	0 1	10	4
44	8	8	8	71	8	11	9	3 1	9	7 4	10		10	31	10	7 1
45	8	51	8	94	9	1 1	9	6	9	10	10		10	6 }	10	10
46	8	7 1	9	0	9	4	9	81	10	0 }	10	5 į	10	91	11	1 5
47	8	91	9	21	9	6	. 9	11	10	8 1	10	8‡	11	0	11	4
48	9	0	9	44	9	9	10	11	10		10		11	3	11	7 4
49	9	21	9	61	9	111	10		10	84	11		11	5 1	11	10
50	9	41	9	91	10	1	10	61	10	11	11	4 1	11	84	12	14
51	9	61	9	114	10	41	10		11		11		11	111		4
52	9	9	10	2	10	61	10	114			11		12		12	7
53	9	111	10	41	10	9	11		11	7	12		12	5	12	94
54	10	14	10	61	10	114	11		11		12		12		13	0
55	10	81	10	9	11	14	11		12		12		12	104		34
56	10	6	10	111	11	41			12	21			18		13	6
57	10	81	11	14	11	61		0 1			12	111			18	9
58	10	104	11	41	11		12	8	12	8	13		18	7	14	0
59	11	01	11	6	11		12	5 1		104			18		14	8
60	11	8	11	9	12		12	8	13	1 1		8	14		14	6
61	11	51	11	111		41		101		4	13	104			14	9
62	11	74	12	1 1	12		13	1	13		14	1	14		15	0
63	11	9}	12	81			18		13		14		14	9	15	3
64	12	0	12	6	1 3	0	113	- 6	114	0	14	_6	15	0	15	6

11								-	_							
3	16	s.	16	s6d	1	7 s.	17	's6d	1	8 <i>s</i> .	18	sód	1	9s.	19	s6d
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12	1 1 1 1 2 2 2 2 3 8	3 6 9 0 8 6 9 0 8	1 1 1 1 2 2 2 2 8 8	4 31 61 91 01 81 61 91 01 4 71 101 14	1 1 1 1 2 2 2 3 8 3	d 31 61 91 01 4 71 101 11 41 8 111 51	1 1 1 1 2 2 2 3 3	3 ± 6 ± 5 ± 5 ± 6 ± 6 ± 6 ± 6 ± 6 ± 6 ± 6	1 1 1 1 2 2 2 3 3 3	d 3 1 6 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	1 1 1 1 2 2 2 2 2 3 8 8	d 31 01 101 13 51 81 7 101 2 51 9	1 1 1 2 2 2 2 3 8 3	4 3 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	1 1 1 1 2 2 2 8 3 8	4 3 4 7 1 1 2 4 6 5 1 0 1 4 5 4 7 1 1 1 4

# +30....Typographia.

## THIRTY TWOS.

H												THE REAL PROPERTY.	-	1950d
H	PES	11	6s.	1	686a	1	78.	17	7860	1 1	85.	18s6d	198.	
1	÷	_		-		-		-					, d	5 6
1		,			d	3	d	3	d	8	d	4 0	4 2	4 31
	14	3		3		3	84	3					4 51	4 65
	15	3		3		4		4		4		- 1	4 9	
	16	4		4		4		4					5 02	5 21
	17	4	3	4	44	4	64	4				- 1	5 41	
	8	4	6	4	8	4	91	4		5		- 1	5 71	
	9	4	9	4	114	5	03	5	2		41	0.1	5 111	0
	0	5	0	5	24	5	34	5	5		7 1	9	6 3	0.0
	1	5	3	5	51	5	7	5	8		11		6 61	100
	2	5	6	5	84	5	104	6	0	6	21	0	6 10	31
	3	5	9	5	114	6	1 1	6	34		5%		7 12	71
1 2	4	6	0	6	21	6	4 1/2	6	6		9	7 2	1 7 52	100
12	5	6	3	6	5 1	6	7 3	6	10	7	01	7 6	7 82	95
12	6	6	6	6	83	6	11	7	11	7	31	7 9	8 0	61
112	7	6	9	7	0	7	24	7	41	7	7 1	8 1	8 32	0 10
2	8	7	. 0	7	3	7	54	7	73	7	101	8 4	8 7	9 14
12	9	7	3	7	6	7	81	7	11	8	2	8 8	8 11	0 54
13	0	7	6	7	9	7	114	8	24	8	51	8 11	9 2	9 9
3	1	7	9	8	0	8	3	8	5 1/2	8	83	9 3	9 0	10 01
1 3	2	8	0	8	3	8	6	8	9	9	0	9 6	9 9	
3	3	8	3	8	64	8	94	9	01	9	3 1	9 9	111	10 8
3	4	8	6	8	91	9	01	9	31	9	63			7 10 123
3	5	8	9	9	04	9	35	9	63	9	101	10	13110	11 31
3	6	9	0	9	34	9	63	9	10	10	1 1	10	91111	111
3	7 🛭	9	3	9	63	9	10	10	11	10	5 84	101	1 7	11 103
3	8	9	6	9		10	14	10	45	10	. 3	11	31 10	12 21
3		9	- 1	10		10		10	73	10	3		1 0 2	112
41		10		10		10		10	113	11	6		0 12 5	12 2
41		0	-	10				11	24	11	9		12 10 9	1 13
	2 1		-			11		11	54	11	1	I 12	0	1 13
4:	1			11		1		1	9	12	4	L 12	8 13 4	2 14 01
44		-		11		1		12	04	12	8	113	01 13 8	14
4				11				2	34	12	11	13	7 13 11	1 × ×1
	1					2		2		12	2		3	14
47		1		12		2				13	6			
	1			12		2	-	3		13	9	I 114	10	110
	1	_	-	12		3	- 4	3		13	0	3 114	1 1	1110
50						3		3		14	4	T 11.4	01 15 5	1 2 2
51	1			3		3				4		LIL	31 15 9	To E
52				3		3		4		4	11	112	71 16 0	116 5
53				3		4		4		4	12	1 15	-	THE PERSON NAMED IN
54	1.	3	6 1	3 1	14 1	4	411	4	9	15	-	-		
-	-	-	-	_	-		-	-	-	-			LA L	

## Cppographia.... + 31

#### THISTY TWOS.

2,	16	3.	10	s6d	1	7 s .	17	s6d	18	s.	18	sõd	15	<b>}s</b> . ∣	19	<b>s</b> 60
_		đ		4	•	d		d		4	•	d	•	4	•	-
55	13	9	14	21	14	7 }	15	0‡	15	54	15	101	16	4	16	91
56	14	0	14	5 ±	14	10 i	15	31	15	y	16	21	13	7 }	17	1
57	14	3	14	84	15	11	15	7	16	04	16	54	16	111	17	4
٥8	14	6	14	111	15	5	15	101	16	34	16	9	17	21	17	8
59	14	9	15	3	15	81	16	1 1	16	7 1	17	04	17	61	117	11:
60	15	0	15	6	15	111	16	41	16	104	17	4	17	91	lı s	3
61	15	3	15	9	16	21	16	8	17	2	17	7 1	18	. 1	113	7
62	15	6	16	v	16	5 1	16	111	17	5 <del>1</del>	17	11	18	5	18	10
63	15	9	16	3	16	9	17	24	17	81	18	24	18	84	19	2
64	16	0	16	6	17	0	17	6	-18	0	18	6	19	oʻ	119	6

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12	1 2	20	s.	20	sod	2	18.	21.	s6d	2	2s.	22	stid	2	35.	23	sód
11-	1-	-										-			<del></del>		[
╢ _	١.	•	d		d	•	d		d		4	٠	4	•	4	٠.	4.
1 1			34		31	l	4		•	l	41		41		44	ł	41
2			7 į	1	74		7	١.	8	١.	81	١.	81		84	١.	83
3	1		111		111	!	111	1	0	1	υį	1	01	L	01	1	11
4	1	l	3	1	3 1	ı	31	1	4	1	41	1	43	1	5 1	1	5 1
1 5			6}	1	7 1	1	7 1	1	8	1	81	1	9	1	91	1	10
1 6		l	104	1	111	1	114	2	0	2	04	2	13	2	14	2	24
7		£	21	2	3	2	3 (	2	41	2	5	2	5 1	2	6	2	61
8	:	3	6	2	61	2	74	2	84	2	9	2	94	2	101	2	111
1	1	2	93	2	104	2	114	3	01	3	14	3	14	3	21	3	34
1110	1	3	14	8	24	3	31	3	44	3	5 }	3	6	3	7	3	8
111	ı I	8	5 1	8	6 <u>1</u>	3	71	3	81	3	94	3	101	3	111	4	01
115	2	3	9	3	101	8	111	4	0 1	4	1 1	4	21	4	34	4	41
11:	8	4	03	4	2	4	3	4	41	4	51	4	64	4	8	4	91
114	4	4	44	4	6	4	7	4	8‡	4	94	4	11	5	01	5	14
111	5	4	81	4	91	4	11	5	01	5	2	5	31	5	41	5	6
11	6	5	o T	5	14	5	3	5	41	5	6	5	74	5	9	5	101
1	7	5	34	5		5	63	5	81	5	101	5	111	6	11	6	21
1	8	5	71	5	91	5	101	6	οį	6	24	6	31	6	54	6	7 1
11	ы	5	111	6		6	21	6	41	6	64	6	8	6	94	6	111
2	0	6	3	6		6	62	6	8	6	104	7	04	7	21	7	4
12	1	6	63	6		6	104	1 7	οi	7	21	7	41	7	G	7	81
2	2	õ	104	1 7		7	24	7	44	7	61	7	81	7	104	8	03
	3	7	23			7	64		81	7	11	8	1	8	8	8	51
	4	7	6	17		7	10		01	8	3	8	51	8	74	8	93
	5	;	93			8	2	8	41	8	71	8	91	8	111	9	2
	ā	ė	14			l ĕ	61	8	и:	1 8	112	9	11	9	4	10	G.

# +32....Cypographia.

### THIRTY TWOS.

PES	2	Os.	20	s6d	21	ls.	21	s6d	2	28.	25	2860	1	238	-	238	60
		d		d		d		d		d	8			s d		,	1
27	8	51	8	74	8	101	1	01			9			9 8		9 11	
28	8	9	8	114	9	21	9	43			9		10				
29	9	01	9	34	9	6	9	83			16				1		
30	9	4 1	9	7 4	9	10	10	03			10						/
31	9	81	9	114		2	10	5	10		10		11				
32	10	0	10	3	10	6	10	9	11	0	11	3	11		11		И
33	10	31	10	63		94	11	1	11	41	11	7	11				
34	10	7 1	10	104	11	13	11	5	11	81		111	12				
35	10	114	11	21	11	53	11	9	12				12			101	17
36	11	3	11	6‡	11	94	12	1	12	41	12		12			21	U
37	11	64	11	101	12	1 1	12	5	12	83	13	0	13	31		7	
38	11	101	12	2	12	51	12	9	13		13	44	13	74		114	а
39	12		12	G	12		13		13	5	13	81			14	31	и
40	12	6	12	94	13	11	13		13		14		14	41		81	П
41	12		13	1 1	13	51	13		14		14	43	14	83		01	Н
42	13		13		13	91	14	14			14		15		5	5	1
43	13		13	94	14	14		54			15	14	15	51			
44		9	14	1	14	54		94	15		15		15	93			
	14		14	5	14	9	15		15		15	93	16		6		
	14		14	84		1	15	54			16	2	16		16		
	14		15		15	5	15	91			16	61			17		
	15	0	15		15		16	1 1/2			16	104	17	3	17		
49			15		16	03	16	5 1	16		17	21	17	74	17		
50			16		16		16		17		17	63	17		18		
	15		16		16	84		14			17		18		8	81	1
52			16	73			17		17	101	18		18	84 1	9	1	1
53					17		17	91			18		19		9	51	1
-			17		17		18		18		18		19	43 1	9	93	H
	17	24		7 1			18				19		19	9 2		21	
66				114			18	93			19		20	1 2 20		61	
	17		18		18		19		19		20	01 2		51 20			
	18		18		19	01			19		20			10 21		34	1000
59		54		104			19		20		20	83		21 21 22	8	1	13
60			19		19		20		20		21	51:		61 25		184	1
	19		19		20		20				21	91		11 /	2	141	1
	19				20		20		31	33		23	22	31	10	8 8	1
	19	84			20		21		21		22		22	71	1/		1
4	20	0	20	6	21	0	21	6	22	0	21	1	23	0			1

-MINN

# Cypographia. . . . . t33

### THIRTY TWOS.

24s6d	25s.	25s6d	26s.	26 <b>s</b> 6d	278.	27 s6d
100	( a	\ <u> </u>		. d	. d	, d
4 1 4 1	\	4\	5	5	51	54
8 / 8	t/ 8	<i>i</i> / 84		91	101	10‡
JZ J 2 2	2 1 2	1 1 2		1 2	1 84	1 84
6 1	6{\ 1 \	63/ 1 7	1 74		1 8	1 8
1 10 <del>1</del> / 1 1	11 / 1 1	.1 <u>1</u>			2 11	2 14
2 3 / 2	8 f / 3	41/2 4	1 2 5	2 51	2 61	2 61
3 33/ 3	8 2	9 2 1	2 10		2 114	8 0
8 8 0 8			21 8 8	8 81	8 41	8 51
10 3 44	8 14 8		7   8 8	8 84	8 93	3 104 4 34
	8 10 / 8		13 4 0		4 23	4 3½ 4 8¾
11 4 14	4 23	4 83 4	41 4 5		5 01	5 13
	1 4 73	4 81 4	91 4 10		5 6	5 7
13 4 10	1 4 113	5 1 5			5 11	8 0
15 5		5 54 5		1 5 91 1 6 21	6 4	6 51
		5 10½ 5			6 9	6 101
16 6		6 73 6			7 21	7 34
118 8	4½ 6 6 8 10	4 7 04		7 51	7 71	7 81
119	1 14 7			81 7 101	8 01	8 2
		8 7 93		14 8 84	8 51	8 7
	7 101 8	01 8 21		61 8 81	8 104	9 01
	8/8 8	5 8 7H		11 9 11	9 84	9 54
	8 14 8	91 9 0		41 9 61	9 84	9 104
St 16 4 "		21 9 41	9 61 9			0 34
	5 9 41 9	7 9 91	9 114 10		10 61 1	0 9
V 544 11 11	30 0 0/2		10 41 10		10 111	1 2
1 to \$10 (1 to 1)		0 41 10 6			1 4 1	1 71
41. 10. 40. 10. 10. 10. 10. 10. 10. 10. 10. 10. 1		0 83 10 11				2 01
41. 11. 14. W. A.		11 11 11 4	11 64 11			2 51
44 44 44	30/11 3		11 111 12			2 10
	3111 74	11 101 12 1				3 37
	32 12 0	12 8 12	8 12 9 18	0 13 8		3 9
14 97 7	8312 4	1 12 73 12 1	01 13 11 13			4 21
1119 "	" " " salza "	9 /18 01/13	31 13 61 13			4 74
10 11 19 11 11	35 13	11/13 5 13	81 13 114 14		14 91 1	5 01
	3613	6 13 94 14	03 14 4 14			5 51
		101/14 2 14	51 14 81 15		5 711	
Later Car Statute 4	3814	8 14 64 14	101 15 11 15			6 3
9 4 9 31	39 14	7 14 111 15	3 15 61 15	1041-0 -41		6 9
101	1 4015	0 15 31 15	71/15 111/16		16 1011	
11 0 11 6 11 0 11	41 15	41 15 81 16	01 16 4 11	8 16 114	17 31 1	7 71
8 1 11 × 11 × 11 × 11 × 11 × 11 × 11 ×	- 1					

# t34.... Typographia.

200	2	18.	24	s6d	2.	Ss.	25	s6d	2	6s.	20	sod	2	75	. 1	27	50
П	3	đ		d	8	d	5	d	8.	d.	8.	d.	-5	. d		6.	
42		9	16	1	16	5	16	81	17	03	17	41	17	8	3	18	-
43	16	1 1	16	54	16	91	17	11	17	53	17	91	18	1	3 1	18	5
	16	6	16	104	17	21	17	61	17	101	18	24	18	6	3 1	8	10
	16	101	17	23	17	7	17	11	18		18	7 1	19	0	1	9	4
16		3	17	71	17	113	18	34	18	81	19	01	19	5	- 1	9	9
	17	7 1	18	0	18	41	18	83	19	11	19	5 1	19	10	2	0	2
	18	0	18	41	18	9	19	14	19	6	19	101	20	3	2	0	7
	18	41	18	91	19	11	19	64	19	11	20	34	20	8	1/2	1	1
	18	9	19	13	19	61	19	11	20	33	20	84	21	- 1	1 2	1	7
	19	11	19	61	19	114	20	33	20	83	21	14	21	6	1 2	2 (	01
	19	6	19	11	20	33	20	81	21	1 1	21	64	21	11	1 2	2 4	H
	19	104	20	31	20	81	21	11	21	61	21	111	22	4	25	10	I
	20	3	20	8	21	11	21	6	21	114	22	41	22	9	25	3	4
	20	7 1	21	04	21	6	21	11	22	44	22	91	23	2	23	8	E
	21	0	21	54	21	101	22	34	22	9	23	24	23	74	24	2	1
	21	41	21	10	22	31	22	81	23		23	7	24	03	24	7	
	21	9	22	24	22	8	23	14	23	64	24	0	24	53	25	01	1
	22		22	71	23	03	23	6	23	114	24	5	24	104	25	. 54	ij
	22		22	113	23	54	23	101	24	41	24	10	25	34	25	104	ij.
	22		23	44	23	10	24	31	24	91	25	3	25	9	26	31	1
	23		23	83	24		24	81			25		26		26	81	1
	23		24	14	24	7 1	25	1	25		26	1	26	7	27	1	1
64	24	0	24	6	25	0	25	6	26	0	26	6	27	0	27	6 /	I

Pes	2	8 <b>s.</b>	28	s6d	2	9s.	29	s6d	3	0s.	30	)s6d	5	61s.	100	3186
	8,	d.	8.	d.	5.	d	5.	d.	8	d	8	d	8	d	1	d
1		51		54		51		51		53		53		51	1	5
2		101		104		104		11		114		114	4	114	1	11
3	1	33	1	4	1	41	1	41	1	5	1	51	1	51	1	5
4	1	9	1	91	1	91	1	10	1	101	1	103	1	111	1	11
5	2	21	2	23	2	31	2	34	2	44	2	41	2	5	2	5
6	2	71	2	81	2	81	2	9	2	93	2	101	2	101	2	11
7	3	03	3	14	3	2	3	21	3	3 1	3	4	3	41	3	5 1
8	3	6	3	63	3	7 1	3	81	3	9	3	91	3	101	3	111
9	3	114	4	0	4	1	4	14	4	23	4	34	4	41	4	5
0	4	44	4	51	4	61	4	71	4	81	4	91	4	10	4	11
ı	4	93	4	103	4	113	5	03	5	2	5	3	5	34	5	43
4	5	3	5	41	5	51	5	61	5	74	5	84	5	91	5	113
1	5	81	5	91	5	103	5	113	6	11	6	21	6	34	6	54

# Typographia.....t35

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_						7	HII	RTY	TW	)8,						
28.	28	s. ·	28	stid	2	9s.	29	sód	3	()s.	30	s6d	3	1s.	31	<b>s</b> 6d
14	6	d 14	. 6	d 8	6	4		d 5 t	6	d 61	6	8	:	d 91	8	111
15	6	61	6	81	6	94	6	101	7	01	7	11	7	3	7	51
16	7	0	7	14	7	8	7	4 5	7	6	7	7 1	7	9	7	10
17	7	51	7	61	7	8 1	7	10	7	111	8	11	8	21	8	41
18	7	104	8	01	8	11	8	3 1	8	51	8	7	8	8	8	101
19	8	3}	8	5 [	8	7 j	8	9	8	11	9	01	9	21	9	3
20	8	5	8	11	9	03	9	2 1	9	4 5	9	6‡	9	81	9	91
21	9	21	9	41	9	61	9	8	9	10‡		0	10	2	10	3 1
22	9	7 4	9	91	9	114	10	11	10	81			10	7 3	10	91
23	10		10	3	10	5	10		10		10		11	11	11	3 }
24			10	81	10	101	11	01			11	51		7 1	11	91
	10	111	11	1 1	11	. 4	11	61	11	81			12	11	12	31
$\frac{26}{27}$		44	11	7	11	9 1	11	111		21		41		7	12	91
27 28		91	12	0 <u>1</u> 5 <u>1</u>	12	2 { 8 }	12	5± 10±		8 1 <del>1</del>	12	10½	13	01 61	13	31
28 29		81	12	11	12	11	12 18	41		7 1		91		0	13	91
30			13	41	13	7	13	91		01	14	31	14	61	14	8
31			13	91	14	04	14	8i		64		91		0,	15	21
32		0,1	14	3	14	6	14	9	15	0.2	15		15	6	15	9
33		- 1	14	81	14	111	15	21		51		81		111	16	21
34			15	11	15	41	15		15	111			16	61	16	81
35			15	7	15	101	16	14	16	5	16	81		114	17	24
36		9	16	01	16	81	16	7	16	104		11		5	17	81
37	16	21	16	5 1	16	91	17	0 5	17	41		7 1		111	18	21
38	16	7	16	111	17	21	17	6	17	91	18	14		5	18	81
39	17	01	17	41	17	8	17	111	18	34			18	101	19	2
40	17	6	17	94	18	1 1	18	51	18	9	19	01	19	41	19	81
41		111	18	8	18	7	18	101		21	19	61	19	101	20	2
42			18		19	0 7	19	41	19	81	20	04	20	4	20	8
43			19		19	5 1	19	91	20		20	6	20	94	21	13
44		3	19		19		20	81	20	7 1		111		81	21	71
45			20	0 1	30	43	20	81			21	51		9 }	22	11
46			20	6	20	10	21	21	21	61		11	22	31	22	7 1
47		61		111	21	8 1		7 3	22	01			22	9	23	11
48 49			21	44	21	9	22	14	22		22	10 l		8	23	7 1
50		5‡ 10‡		91 81	32 22	73	22 23	7	22 28	111 51		10	23	81	24	11
5 I		81		81	23	73 11	28	6	23	11	28		24			71
51 52			23	2	23		23	114	24	41		91		21	25 25	7
53		21		71	24	01	24	5	24	101		8	25	8	26	01
54			24		24		24	104		33			26	11		61
- 71		. 1		- 01		- 24								- 41		- 01

# t36....Typographia.

THI	RTY	TWC	S.

Pgs	28	s.	28.	s6d	29	s.	298	6 <u>d</u>	30	s.	30s	6 <b>a</b>		-	0
	5	d	8	d	8	d	8	d	8	d	8	d 2 1	10	7 ½ 27 1 ½ 27	61
55		03	24		24	11	25	_	25	- 4	26	84	27	71 28	0
	24	6	24		25	4 2	25		26	3	26		27	74 08	6
	24			- 2		10	26		26	83		- 1		13 28	0
	25	4 5		10	26				27		27	73		61 29	6
	25		26		26				27	8		12	29	0 1 25	0
	26	3	26	83	27	21	27	73	28	1 1		-1		64 30	6
	26		27	2	27	73	28		28	7 1		01		01 30	
	27		27	7	28	1	28	63	29	0	29	61	30	6 30	c
	27	63	28	0	28	64	29	01	29	6	30	0	80	0 31	6
64	28	0	28	6	29	0	29	6	30	0	30	. 6	31	-	

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							-04	10					_	OF	s6d
Pgs	32.	s.	32s	6d	339	. 3	3386	d	34	8. 3	34s6	id 3.	js.	30	-
	8	d	s	d	5	d.		d	8			d. 8	6	5	61
1		6		6		6		64		64		61		1	11
2	1	0	1	04	1	04		01	1	03	1	- 4	1 1	١.	1
3	1	6	1	64	1	61		63	1	7	1		1 7	2	
4	2	0	2	01	2	03	2	1	2	1 1	2		2 2	4	
5	2	6	2	64	2	63	2	71	2	73	2	81		4	
6	3	0	3	03	3	1	3	1 1	3	24	3	23		2	3 10
7	3	6	3	63	3	7	3	73	3	83	3	9 3		121	6 5%
8	4	0	4	04	4	1 1	4	21	4	3	4	33		41	-
9	4	6	4	6	4	7 1	4	8 1	4	91	4	104	4 1	1	45
10	5	0	5	03	5	13	5	23	5	34	5	41/2		51	
12	5	6	5	63	5	73	5	9	5	9 4	5	10	6	0	6 1
13		0	6	1	6	24	6	34	6	41/2	6	5 1	6	63	
14		6	6	7	6	81	6	9 1		103	6	11	7	1	7 2
		0	7	11	7	21	7	23		5 1		63	7	73	7 9
15		6	7	7 1	7	81	7	10	7	111		01	8	21	8 3
		0	8	1 1	8	3	8	4		6	8	7 1	8	9	8 10
17		6	8	7 1	8	9	8	10		04		1	9	31	9 4
1:		0	9	1 4		31		5	9	63		81		10	9 11
20		6	9	7 1		91		11:			10	~ 4	10		10 7
2		0	10	13		33		5						111	11 1
2		6	10	7 3		9		11					111	51	
2		0	11	2	11	4	11	6	11			10	112	01	
2		6	11	8	11	10	12					4	112		12 8
	5 12		12	2		4			3 12		119	5 11	1 13		100
12	6113	0	12	8		10					1 1	3 5	3 13	8	100
1	- 10	U	13	2	113	4	113	7	1 1	3 9	1 1	4 0			13

# Typographia.....t37

#### THIPTY TWOS

_															_	
980	32	5.	32	s6d	3	38.	33	s6d	3	4s.	34	söd	3.	58.	35	s6d
		d	•	4	:	d	14	d 1 j	14	d 4	•	4 64	14	9		4
27 28	13 14	6	13	81	13	104	14	71	14	104	14	1	15	81	14	111
	14	0	1	2 <u>1</u> 8 <u>1</u>	14	111	15	2	15	41	15	71	15	101	15	6 ‡
	15	6	14	21	15		15	81	15	111	15 16	2	16	41		01
31	15	6	15	81	15	114	16	21	16	54	16	81		111	16	7 1
32		0	16	3	16	6	16	9	17	0	17	8	17	6	17 17	2
33		6	16	9	17	ő	17	31	17	6 ±		91	18	1		9
34	17	0	17	. 3	17	61	17	94	18	01	18	31	18	7	18	8 1
	17	6	17	9	18	01	18	84	18	7	18	91		iş	18 19	101
	18	0	18	31	18	61	18	10	19	14	19	41		81	19	41
	18	6	18	91	19	oi.	19	41	19	73	19	111	20	21	20	111
	19	0	19	34	19	7	19		20	24	20	5 1	20	91	21	6
	19	6	19	91	20	1	20	41	20		20	111	21	31	21	01
	20	o	20	31	20	7 5	30	111	21	3	21	61		104	22	7 ±
	20	6	20	91	21	14	21	54	21	94	22	01	22	1	22	81
42		o	21	31	21	7 1	21	111	22	81	22	7 1	22	114	28	81
43		6	21	91	22	14	22	6	22	10	28	2	28	6	23	10
44		ŏ	22	4	22	81	23	01	23	41	23	81	24	01	24	41
	22	6	22	10	28	21	23	64	23	101	24	8	24	7 1	24	111
	28	ō	23	41	23	8 1	24	01	24	51	24	9 1	25	. 14	25	6
47	28	6	23	101	24	21	24	7	24	111	25	4	25	81	26	ŏ
48	24	0	24	4 1	24	9	25	1 1	25	6	25	10ŧ	26	3	26	7 4
49	24	6	24	104	25	8	25	7 1	26	01	26	5	26	9 }	27	2
50	25	0	25	4 1	25	91	26	2	26	64	26	114	27	4	27	81
	25	6	25	101	26	3 1		81	27	1	27	51	27	10½		8
	26	0	26	41	26		27		27	7 1	28	01	28	5 1	28	10
	26	6	26	101	27	81	27	81	28	11	28	61	28	114	29	41
	27	0	27	.5	27	10	28	3	28	81	29	14	29	61	29	111
	27	6	27	11	28	4	28	91				7 1		01	30	51
	28	0	28	51	28	10	29		29	9	30	21	30	7 1	,	01
57		6	28	114	29	103	29	10	30	31	30	81	31	2	31	7 1
58		0	29	5±	29	103			30	9 1	31	3	31		82	2
59		6	29		30	111	30 81	10 ļ 41	31	101	31 32	9 1	32 32	8	82	8 [
60		0	80	5 <u>i</u> 11 i	30 31		31	10	31 32	44	82	10 į	32	41	33	8 1
01	30	6	30	51	31	114	31		32 32	111	33	5	33	101		91
62	81 81	0	31	111		54	32 32	114		51	38	114	34	51		. 1
	32	6	31		33	0.	33	6	34		34	6	35	0 2	34	11
04	162	<u> </u>	102			<u> </u>		ů	107	<u> </u>		<u> </u>	,55	<u> </u>		<u></u>

# +38....Typographia.

						Т	нік	TY	IWO	,,,,		_	1 3	98.	13:	1800
2	36	s.	36s	6d	37	s.	37	s6d	3	8 <i>s</i> .	38	3860	1-	d	5	d 71
_	8	d	5	d	8	d	5	d	3	d		d	1.	7		21
1		63		63		63		7		. 7		. 7	1 1	2	1	10
2	1	14	1	14	1	13	1	2	1	2	24 1	2	3 4	94	1 0	5
3	1	81	1	81	1	81	1	9	1		91	1 9	2 0	51	0	01
4	2	3	2	3 1	2	33	2	4	2			2 4	4 0	0		81
5	2	93	2	10	2	101	2	11	2	1	14	2 11	3	73	3	3
6	3	44	3	5	3	51	3	6	3		63		4	2	4	114
7	3	114	3	113	4	04	4	1	4		13	4 2		10	4	6
8	4	6	4	61	4	7 1	4	81	4		9		73	5	9	2
9	5	03	5	11	5	21	5	31	5	,	4	5	13 5	1	6	9
10	5	7 1	5	8	5	91	5	10	5	1	11	6	0 6	8	6	
11	6	21	6	3	6	4	6	5			61		7 6	3		7
12	6	9	6	103	6	113	7	0		7 -	14		2 7	11	8	0
13	7	33	7	44	7	6	7	7	1	1	81	7	91 7		1 8	6
14	7	101	7	113	8	1	8	2	1 8	8	33	8	51 8	' -		2
15	8	5 1	8	6	8	7	8	9	1	8 1	13	9	01 5			10
16	9	0	9	1	9	3	9	4	1	9	6	9	71	9 9		
17	9	63	9	8	9	9	9				1	10	21/1		121	
	10	14	10	3	10	4	10				81	10	93 1	0 1		
	10	8	10	9	10	11	11	1	1	1	3	11	43 1		61 1	1
20	11	3	11	4	11	6	11	8	1 1	1 1	104	12	01	2	21 1	
21		9	11	11	12	1	115	3	1 1	2	51	12	7	12	911	
22		4	112	6	1 12	8	11:	2 10	1 1	3	03	13	23	13	43 1	
	12	11:	1 12	1	1 13	3	1 1:	3 5	Į 1	3	7	13	93	14	0 1	
24	13	6	13	8	1 13	10	1 1.	4 0	3 1	4	3	14	51	14	741	
25	14	0	14	3	14	5	1 1	4 7	4 1	4	10	15	04	15	24 1	5 5
	14	7	14	9	115	0	1 1	5 5	3 1	5	54	15	71	15	10	6 0
27	15	2	1 1 5			7	1	5 5	3 1	16	01	16	21	16	51	16 7
	15	9	15			3 2	4 1	6	13	16	7 1	16	10	17	03	
	16	3					. 1	6 1	14	17	21	17	5	17	81	
	16				4 17				34	17	93	18	01	18	31	
31		5			17		3 1			18	4	18	7 1		103	
	18		18						9	19	0	19	3	19		19 5
33					1 1			9	4.	19	7	19	10	20	11	
34		_			1 1			9 1	1	20	2	20	51	20	81	
35		_					21/2	0	6	20	91	21	01	21	34	
36		-			1 2	0	94	21	1	21	4	21	73	21	111	
37		_	1 2				11	21	7	21	11		34	22		
38		_	1 2		3 2	1 1	01	22	3	22		22	10	22	64	
	21					2			0	23	1	23		23	14	
40		_			03 2		14			23		24		24		24
41	28	0	1/2	3	41 2		81			24		24		24	4	24
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.3 d	3	6s.	36	<b>s</b> 6d	3	78.	37	s6d	3	8s.	38	s6d	3	9s.	39	s6d
	•	-		4	•	ď		ď		d	•	ď		4	•	4
42	28	7 1	28	114	24	3 ‡	24	7 ‡	24	11‡	25	8	25	7	25	11
43	24	21	24	6	24	10	25	21	25	61	25	10	26	21	26	6‡
44	24	9	25	1	25	51	25	91	26	14	26	5 1	26	91	27	11
45	25	81	25	71	26	0	26	41	26	81	27	0 1	27	5	27	9
46	25	104	26	24	26	7	26	111	27	81	27	8	28	04	28	41
47	26	5 1	26	9 1	27	11	27	61	28	101	28	3	28	74	28	111
48	27	0	27	41	27	9	28	1 1	28	6	28	101	29	8	29	7 1
49	27	61	27	111	28	31	28	8	29	1	29	5 1	29	101	80	21
50	28	14	28	6	28	101	29	84	29	81	30	01	30	51	80	104
51	28	81	29	01	29	5 1	29	101	30	3 }	30	7 1	31	1	31	5 1
522	29	8	29	71	80	01	30	5 1	30	104	31	81	81	81	32	1
53 2	29	94	30	24	80	7 1	31	0 1	31	54	31	101	32	84	32	7 1
54 2	30	44	30	9 [	31	2	31	7 1	32	01	32	51	32	101	83	41
55 3	3()	111	31	41	31	91	32	21	32	71	33	04	33	6	88	11
56 2	1	6	31	111	82	41	32	93	33	8	38	81	34	11	34	61
57 8	2	04	82	6	32	111	88	41	33	10	34	3 1	34	9	85	2
58 3	2	7 1	33	01	38	61	88	111	34	5 1	34	104	31	4	85	9‡
598	3	21	88	7 1	34	1	34	61	35	01	35	5 1	35	111	36	51
30 <b> </b> 3	3	9	84	2 4	84	81	35	11	35	7 1	36	1	36	64	87	04
31 3	4	81	84	91	35	8	35	81	36	21	86	8	37	2	37	71
328	4	104	35	41	35	10	36	31	36	9	37	81	37	9‡	38	8
333	5	51	35	11	36	41	36	101	37	4 1	87	10	38	41	38	101
:4/3	6	0	86	6	37	0	87	6	38	o T	38	6	139	0	39	6
-	_	_	_	_	-	_	_	_	-		_	_	_	_	-	_

7	4	Os.	40	stid	4	1s.	41	söd		28.	42	s6d	4	3s.	43	sód
	•	4	•	ď	•	d	•	d	,	d	•	d		ď	•	ď
3		7 1	ŀ	7 1		7 1		71		71		7 1		8	1	8
2	I	8	1	*	1	81	1	31	1	81	1	81	1	4	1	41
2 3	1	104	1	101	1	11	1	111	1	114	1	114	2	0	2	0
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5	8	14	3	14	3	21	3	21	3	34	3	34	8	41	8	4
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27	30	44	30	7	30	101	31	0	31	2 1	31	5	31	7 1	31	10
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55	41	8	41	8	42	1 1	42	61	42	114	43	31	43	91	44	8
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57	42	9	48	21	43	7 1	44	1	44	6 1	44	111	45	5 4	45	10‡
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59	44	3	44	8 1	45	2	45	7 1	46	1	46	61	47	0	47	6 1
60	45	0	45	54	45	111	46	41	46	104	47	4	47	91	48	8 1
61	45	9	46		46	8 1	47	2	47	74	48	14	48	71	49	1
62	46	6	46	114	47	54	47	114	48	51	48	11	49	41	49	10 į
63	47	8	47	81	48	21	48	84	49	24	49	81	50	21	50	8‡
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2 8	2	5 1	2	6 1	2	51	2		2	61	2	6	2	6	2	7
4	8	3	8	8 1	8	8 1	3	4	3	44	3	41	8	6	3	5
5	4	03	4	11	4	14	4	2	4	2 1	4	8	4	81	4	4
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2			34		34		35	11	86	51	35	9	86	1	36	5
8			35		35	7 1		111	36	81			86	111		8
4	15	9	36	1	36	51	36	91	37		37	51	37	91		1
5 8		61	36	101	37	8	37	7 4	37	111	88	81	88	8	89	0
6			37	81	88	1	38	5 ‡	38	91	39	2	39	6‡	39	10
7 3		21	88	61	38	11	39	81	89	74	40	01	40	41	40	9
8 8			89	44	39	9	40	14	40		40	10 ±	41	8	41	7
9 3		91		21				114	41		41	81	42		43	5
0 4			<b>L</b> 1		41		41	91	43		42	61	42		48	4
14				101		24		74	48		48	44	48	91	44	2
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# † 46....Cppographia.

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6	44	81	45	14	45	61	45	114	46	43		94	47	8	47	8
	45	6	45	111	46	44	46	94	47	8	47	81	48		48	6
	46	81	46	9	47	21	47	73	48	ī	48	61	48		49	5
	47	14	47	61	48	0 i	48	51	48	11±	49	44	49	10	50	
ı	47	111	48	41	48	101	49	81	49	91	50	21	50	81	51	1
	48	9	49	24	49	81	50	11	50	7 4	51	1	51		52	0
ı	49	61	50	0 1	50	6	50	114	51	54	51	111	52			10
ı	50	41	50	101	51	4	51	93	52	81	52	94	58	81	58	9
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-1	12	8	12		1	5 1			12	81		9 1	12		18	
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	14	104		0	15	14	15		16		15		15		15	
	15	9	15	10		0‡	16		16	81		51	16		16	
	16	7 1			16	11	17		17	2	17	41	17	6	117	
	17	6	17		17	94	17		18	14	18	81			118	
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# Eppographia.... + 47

	50	5 <b>s</b> .	56	s6d	5	7 s.	57	<b>s</b> 6d	5	8 <i>s</i> .	58	<b>s</b> 6d	5	95.	59	<b>s</b> 60
	•	d	•	d	•	d	•	ď	•	4		d	•	ď		4
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	24	6	24	81		111	25	11	25		25	7	25	93	26	0
	25	4 1		7	25	84	26	01	26		26	6	26	84	26	11
	56	3	26	51		8 1	26		27		27	5	27	71		10
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32		0	28		28	6	28	9	29	0	29	8	29	6	29	y
	28	101	29		29	4 1	29	74	29	101	30	11		5	80	8
	29	9	30		30	3‡		61	80	91	31	03		4	81	7
	30	7 1	30	101		2	81	51	31	8 1	31	111	82	8	82	6
	31	6	31		32	0\$		4	32	7 1	32	101		21		5
	32		32		32	111		21	33		33	91		11		4
	33	8	83		38	10	84	11	34	5.	84	81	35		35	8
	34	14	34		34	81	85	04	35	4	85	71		114	36	8
	35	0	35		35	7 1	35		86	3	86		36	104		2
41		104	56	21		6	86	10	87	14	37	5 1			38	1:
42		9	37	01		41	37	81	38		38	41	38		39	0
48		7 1		111		8 1			38		39		39	7 4	39	11
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	39	44	89		40	04	40	5	40		41	11	41	51	41	10
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		101	43	3	43	74		01				91		2	45	6
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	2 45 8 46	-	45 46		46 47	21	46 47	8 <u>1</u>	47 48		47 48	61	47	111		4
	147	4 <u>1</u> 8	47	8	48	1	48	63	48	111		41	48	10‡ 9‡		8:
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	7 49		50		50	9	51	24	51		52	1	52		52	111
	850		51	21		73		11			53	o	53	51	58	11
	951	74			52	6	53	0,1	53		53	11	54	44	54	10
	052		52		53	51	53	101	54		54	10	55		55	9
	1 52				54	31	54	94	55	81		9	56		56	8
	2 54		54	81		2	55	81		21		8	57	11		7
1	8 55	_			56		56	7	57	1	57	7	58		58	6
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# † 48 . . . Cppographia.

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į	3	6	()s.	64	)s6d	6	1 s.	61	sod	6	Zs.	65	sod	638.	03964	142
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ł	5	4	81	4	8 1		9	4	91		10	4	10 1 10 1	5 10	5 11tg	14
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١	7	6	61	6			8	6	8 1	6	9‡	6	10 91	7 10		1 .3
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P	60	s.	60.	s6d	6	15.	61	86d	6	2 <b>s</b> .	62	süd	6	Ss.	63	s6d
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42	39	44	89	8 1	40	04	40		40	81	41	õ	41	4	41	8
43	40	81	40	7 1	40	114	41	81	41	7 4	41	111	12	3 1	42	71
44	41	8	41	7	41	111	42	8 1	42	74	42	111	43	31	43	71
45	42	21	42	61	42	104	43	21	43	7	43	111	14	3 4	44	7 1
46	48	14	48	51	43	10	44	21	44	63	44	11	15	31	45	7 1
47	144	04	44	5	44	9 4	45	13	45	61	45	101	46	8	46	7 4
48	45	o ·	145	41	45	9	46	1 }	46	6	46	10	47	8	47	71
49	45	111	46	31	46	81	47	1	47	5 1	47	10	48	21	48	71
50	46	104	47	8	47	71	48	04	48	51	48	91	49	21	49	71
51	47	9	48	2 1	48	7 1	49	0	49	41	49	9 1	50	21	50	7
52	48	9	49	11	49	61	49	114	50	41	50	91	51	21	51	7
58	49	81	50	1	50	6	50	11	51	4	51	9	52	2	52	7
54	50	7 4	51	01	51	5 1	51	101	52	81	52	84	53	14	53	61
155	51	6	51	111	52	41	52	10	53	34	58	81	54	14	54	63
50	5 2	6	52	111	53	4 1	53	91	54	8	54	8.1	55	14	55	61
	58	5	58	10	54	31	54	61	55	21	55	7 3	56	14	56	61
	3 54	4	54	93	55	3 }	55	81	56	21	56	7 4	57	1	57	64
	) { 5 5	8	55		56		56	81	5 <b>7</b>	13	57		58	01	58	61
	0   56		56		57	21	57	73	58	14	58		59	01	59	64
	1 57	2			58	- 11	58		59	1	59		60	0 1		64
	2 58				59	1	59	1	60	03	60	- 21	61	01		6
	3[59				60	04			61	01			62		62	6
1 6	4160	0	166	6 1	61	0 1	61	6 1	62	0	62	6	63	0	63	6
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3	64	· S .	64	s6d	6	bs.	65	<b>s</b> 6d	6	6 <b>s.</b>	66	<b>s</b> 6d	67	s.	67	s60
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2	2	0	1	0	2	0 0±	1 2	0 į	1 2	01 01	2	01	2	04 1	2	1
8	8	0	8	01	3	0 1		04	3	1	8	11	3	1 }	8	13
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9	9	ō	9	04	9	14	9	2 1	9	81	9	4	9	5	9	5
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# † 50 . . . . Eppographia.

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	6.	ls.	64	s6d	6	5 <b>s</b> .	65	s6d	6	όs.	66	s6d	6	7 s.	67	<b>s</b> 6
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	16 17	ö	16	14		3	16		16	6	16	7 § 7 §		9	16	i
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	20	ŏ	20		20		20		20		20	91			21	
	21	ŏ	21		21		21		21	73		91		111		
	22	ō	22	2	22	4	22	6	22		22	101			23	
	28	ō	23	2	28		23	61			3	104			24	
	24	ō	24		24		24		24	9	24	111			25	
	25	0	25		25		25	7	25		25	114		2	26	
	26	ō	26		26		26	71		91		0	27	21		
	27	ō	27		27	5	27	7 1		10	28	01		3	28	
	28	ō	28		28		28		28	104		1	39	31		
	29	ō	29		29		29	8	29	101		14	30	41		
	180	ō	80		80		30	-	30	111		2	31		31	
	81	ō	31		31		31	84		111		24	32	5 <del>1</del>		
	32	ō	32	3	32		82	9	33	0	33	3	88	6	33	
	88	ō	38	8	88		23		34		34	81	34		34	
	34	0	34	8	34	61	34		85		35	31		7	35	1
	35	0	35	81	35		35		36	1	36	9	36		36	ī
6	36	0	86		36	61	36	10	37	14	37	43	37	8 <del>I</del>	37	1
7	27	0	37	81	37	61	.87	101	38		38	51	38	81		
8	38	0	38	34	38	7	88	104			39		89	91	40	
9	39	0	39	3 1	89		39	101	40		40		40	94		
0	40	0	40	81	40	7 1	40	111	41	8	41	63	41	104		
	41	0	41	31	41	7 4	41	114	42	81	42	7	42		43	
2	42	0	42	3}	42	7 1	42	111	43	83	43	71	48	114	44	
	48	0	43	4	43	8	44	0	44	4	44	8	45	0	45	
	44	0	44	4	44		45	01	45	4 1	45	81	46	0į	46	
	45	0	45	4	45		46		46		46	9	47	1 ;		
	46	0	46		46		47		47		47	91		13		
	47	0	47		47		48	1	48		48	10‡		21		
	48	0	48		48	9	49	1 1	49	6	49	10±		3	50	
	49	0	49	4 į		9	50	13	50		50	101			51	
	50	0	50	41			5 L	2	51	64		111		4	52	
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### THIRTY TWOS.

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	•.	ď	•	d	•	4		d	•	4	•	4	•	4.	•	
55	55	0	55	5	55	10‡	56	81	56	8 ‡	57	11	57	61	58	0
56	56	0	56	5 <del>1</del>	56	104	57	8 }	57	9	58	21	58	7 1	59	01
57	57	0	57	5 <del>1</del>	57	104	58	4	58	9 į	59	21	59	8	60	1 ‡
58	58	0	58	51	58	104	59	41	59	91	60	51	60	84	61	2
59	59	0	59	54	59	11	60	41	60	10	61	61	61		62	2 1
60	60	0	60	5 1	60	111	61	41	61	104	62	3	62	91	63	81
61	61	0	61	5 4	61	111	62	5	62	104	63	0	63	101	64	4
62	62	0	62	51	62	111	63	5 }	63	111	64	0	64	10	65	4 1
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### THIRTY TWOS.

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9	11	3	25	81	8	41	51	3	57	71	3
10	12	6	26	82	6	42	52	6	58	72	6
11	13	9	27	88	9	43	58	9	59	78	9
12	15	0	28	35	0	44	55	0	60	75	0
13	16	3	29	86	3	45	56	8	61	76	8
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### CHAP. XIX.

#### ON PINB PRINTING.

We are grieved to find, on entering upon this subject, that we are deprived of the power (by the conduct of the majority of the Profession) of complimenting our brethren for the advance which they have made in the improvement of our Art. About twenty years back we were highly gratified with many of the productions of that day, and we then lived in hopes (from the spirit of caulation which was then abroad), that we should find the printers of the British Metropolis still persevering in the laudable career in which they had embarked, until they should bave attained the grand summit of perfection. It was boasted, formerly, that the press of this country had arrived at a degree of excellence equal to that of any portion of the globe: but, alas! we must now say, that, latterly, the Art has made a retrograde, instead of a progressive movement. We can fancy that we hear our readers calling upon us to account for this falling off in the Profession; this we shall briefly do : the first blow was the disputes with the men, which ended in that ruinous sys-tem, the general introduction of out-door Apprentices: the second was the revival of the Stereotype process: and, lastly, the baneful effects of the Steam and Hand Machines, which have created such competition for low prices, that it is completely out of the power (except in a few instances) of the fair tradesman, and those who wish to improve the Art, to pursue that career by which alone a lasting fame can ever be attained. Notwithstanding what we have here advanced, there are a few individuals to whom our praise is justly due, for their steadily persevering in the course of improvement: this they have been enabled to do by uniformly adhering to the usual practice of the Profession.

The first step towards improvement was ventured (many years ago) by Mr. Baskerville, since which, others have made further advances towards perfection: but it is to be regretted, that uncontrolable causes preclude us from partaking of those benefits, which are so essentially necessary in the production of Fine Printing; we allude to the very changes the production this climate, the temperature of which is so variable, that accs powerfully upon the oil of which our ink is composed, disposing it at one hour to spread equally over the bells, and at another rendering it so glutinous and stiff, as to tear the surface of the paper, and thereby beffle the utmost efforts of the pressman; even though he raise the temperature to summer heat, if the frost be intense, it will be of little avail: it has been proved, that heat will not entirely counteract the effects of a freezing atmosphere upon some kinds of printing ink. It is not the ink alone that is thus affected, but also the skin and composition balls, and likewise the rollers, which are so out of order at certain times, that it is uttery impossible for the pressmen to produce even passable common work, much less that of a superior kind: of these evils the public are little that of a superior kind: of these evils the public are little

### 646 .... Tppographia.

aware, but they are severely felt both by the employer and the But there are other obstacles against the production of Fine Printing, or indeed work of any description; we allude to the introduction of cotton rag, and likewise ground Plaster of Paris (called gypens) into the manufacture of fine and other papers, also the application of the oxygensted muriatic acid for the purpose of obtaining dispatch and delicacy of colour, and thereby producing a good paper in appear ance, from an inferior staple. Nothing can be more perplexing to a printer, nor more detrimental to his labours, than what is termed bleached paper: for although it may be thick and seem strong in the ream, no sooner does the water penetrate through it, than it loses its adhesive quality, and becomes so loses and soft, as scarcely to bear handling, and in working sinks down into the letter, leaving a portion of its substance on the form after the impression, until it so clogs the type, that the work is often rendered scarcely legible. Nor is it less exceptionable in point of durability, as it must moulder away in a little time, with the common use which popular works generally un-dergo. It is well known to the Profession, that the best paper produced in this country is very inferior to that manufactured in France; the latter is very tough, and at the same time possesses a softness of texture which is well adapted for taking off fine impressions, and is far superior (in every point of view) to any description of paper which we can boast: but even this (great as are its advantages for Fine Printing) is far eclipsed by that which is manufactured in China, most particularly for wood engravings, although we cannot recommend it for strength or durability. There is paper made by Messrs. Longman and Dickinson, which approaches much nearer to that of the Chinese than any other, but it is also liable to similar objections with the last mentioned.

The ever-varying changes of taste have caused strange revolutions in the appearance of our printing types; the thin and meagre-faced letter formerly in use, was supplanted (some years back) by that of a broad face, and no work was considered handsome if it was not printed with this bold type. It is sufficiently manifest that there was ample scope for improvement, previous to the discarding of the double letters; but, unfortunately, the rage carried them into an opposite extreme; some charged the face so full upon the body, that the letters appeared like an indistinct mass of black, which was unpleasant to read, and much fatigued the eye; others, in order to give their types the appearance of standing well in line, which is certainly a great perfection), carried the horizontal ine, at the top and bottom of the letter so far out on each side of the stem, that the page had somewhat the appearance of having been faintly ruled. Truly obvious must be the disadvantages attending the working of such letter, which could not possibly last so long as that of the old cut, because the slightest use would destroy the faint lines at the top and bottom of the letter, when it would exhibit the appearance of worn out type: besides, by presenting a much larger surface to the orreassman, to be covered with link, more care is required in healing and pulling; without which, it would appear worse than letter from the old matrices. We are happy to find that

time has began to correct the above evil, and types are now peroduced exhibiting that strength, grace, and lightness, which

The art of Engraving on Wood, which is so closely conmeeted with printing, also kept pace with it in improvement;
and it is highly creditable to those gentlemen who have thus
persevered in the advancement of the Art. We are of opinion,
that the persons who formerly stated that a capricious state
was produced (from the attempts of the first-rate artist so rival copper) will now think otherwise, after viewing the most
extraordinary productions which have appeared during the
last twelve years: it was also asserted, that softness and deticacy could not be produced from them at the press; but in
this their expectations have been disappointed, and we trust
that we shall still witness much greater efforts towards perfection in this curious branch of Art, and that the printers will
not be behind hand in executing their part, to the satisfaction
of the admirers of Art, and all real judges.

It has been observed, that "no kind of engraving is better

calculated to preserve the real outline and proportion of the designer, than that of which we are now speaking: this will be easily credited, when it is stated, that he generally makes the drawing with pencil upon the block, and the duty of the engraver is, with the greatest exactness, to leave those lines standing, by cutting away the interstices. Thus, as the most unfinished etchings on copper of the ancient masters are more valuable than any imitation of them by a second hand, the powers of the engraver on wood can always be depended upon, for giving, as far as the drawing and proportions are concerned, a faithful transcript of the performances of the designer."

The difficulties attending the printing of wood engravings are such as to require the greatest care and attention in the printer, otherwise, all the labour previously bestowed by the designer and engraver will prove abortive; the printer of fine wood engravings should have some knowledge of light and shade, without which he must of necessity find himself at a loss in preparing his subjects for the press, however great his skill may be in other respects; for it is from the nice touches whom that the beauty and effect of the engravings are brought out; of these difficulties the public are not sware, otherwise they would more highly prize works of Art on wood, than they have hitherto done.

There has been a most extraordinary demand for engravings on wood within the last welve months, but we are sorry to observe, that by far the greater portion are of an inferior class, which reflect no credit on the eminent artists under whose names they are sent forth.

A difference of opinion exists respecting the colour of printing ink; some admire the glaring effect of a dark black, while others prefer the softened richness and warmth of a deep mellow tone, which is always pleasing to behold, without in the least being fatiguing to the sight. Ink-making being formerly confined to one or two persons, they troubled themselves little about improvement, until others started up, aince which it must be acknowledged, very superior inks have been manu-

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factured; and we humbly hope they will persevere in their career of improvement. The printer must exercise his judgment respecting the colour and the quality of the Ink.

With respect to the Press nothing need be advanced; in several of them, every requisite for Fine Printing is attained. The paper to be wet in such a manner as to retain its firmness, yet be sufficiently soft to apply closely to the surface of

the letter, and take up all the ink

The Balls, on which so much depend, ought to be particularly attended to: those made with skins are now rarely used, they were supplanted by those of the composition, which are infinitely superior in every point of view; even the last-men-tioned have been generally laid saide, and have given place to the Rollers, very many offices not having a single Ball in them. With respect to the Rollers, our ideas still remain the same, having pronounced (long before we had seen them in action) that they would not execute the work equal to the Balls: this opinion time has fully verified: we are ready to admit their excellence for heavy forms and the general run of work, but not for fine work, or wood engravings, for neither of which are they so well adapted as the Balls; as to the last, they are totally unfit to produce any impressions worthy of notice.

The tympans should always be kept in a state of tension, by changing or drying the blanket, and the inner tympan, and removing the slip-sheets, as they become damp.

The blankets must be of fine broad cloth, or kerseymere,

and only one to be used.

When printing large letter, the surface of which requires to be well filled with ink, a sheet of tissue paper, or common paper damped, should be laid between every impression, to prevent the sheets from setting off on the back of each other.

Different opinions exist respecting what constitutes Fine Printing; some imagine, if they make their pages sufficiently black, that the end is answered; others, if they are pale and clear; so that each has a style peculiar to himself: therefore persons contend on this head, as though they were criticising

a painting or an engraving.

It has been remarked, that "however laudable it may be to cultivate the art to perfection, it is to its common and more general application that we are to look for its great and beneficial effects upon the human intellect, and upon nations and The Press is the great engine by which man is enabled to improve the faculties of his nature :-it is the preserver of the knowledge and acquirements of former generations, and the great barrier, when not perverted by the hand of power, against the debasement of the human mind, and the equalizing effects of despotism."

" Ages remote by thee, Volition, taught, Chain'd down in characters the winged thought; With silent language mark'd the letter'd ground, And gave to sight the evanescent sound. Now, bappier lot ! enlighten'd realms possess. The learned labours of the immortal Press; Nors'd on whose lap the births of science thrive, And rising arts the wrecks of Time survive."

Darwin's Temple of Nature.

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### CHAP. XX.

### ALPHARETICAL LIST OF PRINTERS, AND THE PROFESSIONS CONNECTED WITH THE ART. IN THE BRITISH METROPOLIS AND ITS ENVIRONS.

### Printers.

Abrahams, Clement's-1. Lomb.-st. | Causton, Birchin-lane. Adlard, Bartholomew close, Alexander, Whitechapel road. Algar, Charles st. Hatton garden. Andrews, Garlick hill, Thames st. Applegath, Duke st. Blackf. road. Archer, Wilderness row. Arliss, Staining-lane. Baldwin, Union-st. Bridge-street, Barfield, Wardour-st. Soho. Barker, Crane court, Fleet street. Barlow, Cannon street. Barnard, Skinner-st. Snow-hill. Barnes, Kent-street, Borough. Batchelar, Long Alley, Moorfields. Bates and Son, Howland-street. Baynes, Cook's ct. Serle st. Bedford, Bethnal Green. Bennett, Cross-st. Carnaby-market Bensley, Bolt-court, Fleet-street. Bensley, Crane-court, do. Bentley, Dorset st. Fleet st. Bliss, Water-lane, Fleet street. Bore, Stepney green. Brettell, Rupert-st. Haymarket. Bridgewater, S. Molton-st. Oxf.roa Bridges, Mrs. St. John's-st. Smithf. Briggs, Bread st. Cheapside. Brimmer, G. Strand lane. Briscoe, Whitecross st. Briscoe, Angel-st. St. Martin's le Broadhead, Artillery ct. Chiswell st Brook & King, Upper Thames st. Brooke, Paternoster-row.
Brown, Moor st. Soho.
Brown, Broad court, Drury lane. Brown, Chandos-st. Covent-gard. Brown&Conn, Tyler-st. Carnaby m. Bryan, Grocer's hall ct. Poultry Bryer, Bridewell, Bridge-st. Blackf. Bullock, Lombard st. Fleet st. Burton, Mrs. Fleet-market. Burton&Co.Devonsh.-st.Bishopsg. By, George yard, Lombard street. Carpenter, Fetter lane. Carpenter, Aldgate High-st. [sq. Cartwright & Co. Brewer-st. Gold. Cartwright, Bartholomew-close. Catline, Rotherhithe.

Cave, Islington green. Chaplin, Crane-court, Fleet-st. Clarke, Well-st. Jewin-st. Clarke, J. & T. St. John's-square. Clowes, Northumb.-court, Strand. Coe, Knowle's ct. Little Carter I. Compton, Middle-st. Cloth-fair. Cordeux, 14, City-road. Corrall, 38, Charing-cross. Couchman, Throgmorton-street. Cowell, 22, Terrace, Pimlico. Cox, Son, & Baylis, Gt. Queen-st. Cox, Westminster-road. Craft, Well-st. Oxford-st. Darton & Harvey, Gt. Eastcheap. Darling & Co. Leadenhall-st. Davis, Minories. Davison, Lombard st. Fleet-st. Davidson, Old Boswell-court. Davy, Queen-st. Seven Dials. Davy, James-st. Oxford-st. Day, Goswell-street. Dean & Munday, Threadneedle-st. Delahoy, Mrs. Deptford-bridge. Denham, Great Windmill-st. Dennett, Union-build. Leather-I. Dewick, Mrs. 46, Barbican. Dolby, Catherine st. Strand Diggens, St. Ann's-l. St. Martin's Dove, St. John's-sq. [le grand. Downes, 240, Strand. Drake, Ratcliff Highway. Drury, Fleet street. Dutton, Red Lion ct. Fleet st. Eaton, Tabernable-walk, Finsb. Edwards, Crane-court, Fleet-st. Ellerton & Henderson, Gough-sq. Embleton, Goldsmith's row, Hack. Evans & Ruffy, Budge-row, Walb. Evans, J. & C. Long-lane, Smithf. Fawcett, Peter's hill, Doctor's Com. Fisher, Bartholomew close. Fremont, Brown's 1. Spitalfields. Free School, Gower's-walk White-Fry, Clifton-st. Sun-st. [chapel. Gardiner, Princes st. Oxford st. Gilbert, Badger-yard, St. John's-sq. Gilbert, Salter's-hall-ct. Cannon-st

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Gilmour, King-st. Borough. Gleudinning, 25, Hatton-garden. Glindon, Rupert-st. Haymarket. Gold, Wardour-st. Soho. [Inn-f. Gosnell, Little Queen-st. Lincoln's Gosnall, Oxford market. Goyder, Strand. Grav, 2, Barbican. Graves, W. & S. Sherbourne-lane. Circy, Z. Barbican.
Girves, W. & S. Sherbourne-lane.
Gircen, Leicester at Leicester fields
Gircenlaw, High Holborn.
Gunnell, Salisbury-sq. Fleet-st.
Grad Ballen, Graccchurch-st.
Haddon, Tabernacle-walk, Flasb.
Hall, Wardour-st. Soho.
Hamblin, Sugar-load-ct, Garlick-h.
Hancock, Silver-st. Wood-st. Ch.
Hancock, Mid.-row-passage Holb.
Handy, Whitcomb-street.
Hansard, L. Gt. Turnstile, Holb.
Hansard, L. Jun, Parker's-l. Drury-l.
Hansard, T. Paternoster row.
Harjette, Bedford at. Covent gard.
Harriton, Lancaster-ct. Strand. Harriso, Lancaster-C. Strand. Harrison, Lancaster-C. Strand. Hartnell, Wine-office-ct. Fleet-st. Harvey, 22, Blackfriars'-road. Hayden, Little College-st. Westm. Hayes, Dartmouth-st. Westminst. Hazard, London-wall, Moorfields. Helder, Little Britain. Hersee, 5, Goswell street. Hewitt, 145, High Holborn. Hex, Old street. Hildyard, Poppin's ct. Fleet st. Hodson, Fleet-atreet. Hollis, Shoemaker row, Blackf. Holmes, Long Acre. [town, Holstead, Ossulaton-et. Somers'-Howlett, Frith-st. Sobo. Howlett, Upper Thames-st. Hughes, Malden-lane Covent-gard. Hughes, Malden-lane Covent-gard, Hughes, Paternoster-row, Innes, Well-st. Oxford st. Jaques, Lower Stoane-st. Chelsea, Jaques & Wright, Newington butts Johnson, Brookest. Holbox, Justins, Warwick-sq. Newyaste-st. Justins, Warwick-sq. Newyaste-st. Kayzill, Frith street, Soho. Keating, Duke at. Grozvenov sq. Kelly, Houndsditch. Frond, Kerwood & Gox. Johnses Klewy. Kerwood & Cox, John-st, Edgw.-Kinnersley, Kingsland-road, King's Office, Printers st. Shoe l. Knight, St. Catharine's. Learrance, Dorset-st. Salisbury-sq. Lee, Half-moon-street. Lewis, Finch-lane, Cornhill. Lewis, John-st. Crutched Friars. Limbird, Strand.

Lindsay, Portpeol-1. Gray's Inn-1. Livermore, 50, Fetter lane, Holb-Low, Gracechurch street.
Lowndes, Marquis-et. Drury-lane.
Lyon, John st. Edgware road.
Wortery, Took's-ct. Chancery-l.
Macdonald, Gt. Sutton-st. Clerk.
M'Dowall, Leadenhall-st.
M'Dowall, Pemberton-row, Gogh
Mackinton, New-st. Gough-sq.
M'Gowan, Gt. Windmill-st. Haym.
Macpherson, Cross-ct. Russell-ct.
M'Millan, Bow-st. Covent-garden.
Maiden, Sherbourne-l. Lomb.-ct.
Mailett, Wardow-st. Soho.
Mantt, Brick-lane, Spital-selds. Livermore, 50, Fetter lane, Holb. Maiett, Wardour-st. Soho.
Mants, Brick-lane, Spital-śelds.
Marchant, Ingram-ct Frenchurch-st
Marshall, Kenton-st Brunswick-sq
Marsland, Castle-ct. Birchin-lase.
Mason, Clerken-well-green.
Mason, High-st. Borough. [st.
Maurice, Howford's-bgaPenchurch
Massacht. I. Isla Brazell. Lenset Messeder, Little Russell street. Mills, Shoe-lane. Milne & Banfield, Swan ct. Fleet st. Mitcham, Whitechapel road. Molineaux, Bream's-bldgs. Chan Molineaux, Bream's-Daugs, Unna-Moore, Druy-lane. [cery-l. Morgan, 25, Fleet street. Moyes, Greville-st. Leather-lane. Myers, Bedford-pl. Commercial-r. Newman, Widegate-st. Bishopag. Nicholls, Karl's-ct. Leicest.-sq. [st. Nicholls | Warwickan, Newwate. Nicholla, Karl's-ct. Leicest.-aq. [c. Nicholla, Warwick-aq. Newyast-et Nichola & Son, King-ett. Westm. Nicholla & Grub-street. Nicholla, Hampstead-road, Nicol, Russel-ct. 83 James. Norton, Charlotte-st. Fizroy-aq. Coglive, Crooked-l. Cannon-et. Osborne, Tooley-at. Borough. Page, Commerce-row, Blackf.-d. Papineau, Hart et. Mark lane. Paris, Long Acre. Peart, St. John's-street. Pesman, Butcher-row, Smithfeld. Pesman, Butcher-vow, Santhédel, Pewtress & Low, Gracechurchet. Phillips, George-pard, Lomb.-st. Phillanthropic Reform, London rd. Pigotts, Ondon rd. Pigotts, Ondon-rd. Pigotts, Ondon-ves. Seven Disis. Pittas, St. Andrew-ss. Seven Disis. Pittas, Warrwick-sq. [Eastchess, Pittas, Warrwick-sq. [Eastchess, Pittas, Warrwick-sq. [Eastchess, Pople, Chancery-l. Holb. [lebost-polity, Chesterfeld-st. May-Redford & Robins, London-roof, Reed, Johnson's-ct. Fleet-st. Reynell, Broad-st. Carnaby-mark.

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Reynolds, Denmark et. Strand. Rhynd, Mrs, Ray-st. Clerkenwell. Richards, St. Martin's-l. [Poultry. Richards & Co. Grocer's-hall-ct. Richards, Warwick st. Golden sq. Richardson, High Holborn. Rider & Weed, Little Britain. Rider & vecu, tame street.

Robairs, Shoe-lane.

Robins, Tooley-st. Borough

Robins, 1vy lane, Newgast street.

Robins, 422, Strand. [Tower-st.

Robson & Co. St. Dunstan's-hill. Rogers, Red Lion-st. Clerkenwell. Romney, Bridge-road, Lambeth. Rothery, Minories. Rothwell, Lime street. Rowe, Warwick-square, Boworth, Bell-yard, Temple-bar. \_\_\_\_, Shacklewell. Sabine, Shoe-lane. Schulze, Poland-st. Oxford-st. Sculthorpe, Chapel st. Cripplegate. Severn, Sweet-apple-ct. Bishopsg. Seyfang, Walworth, Shackell, Johnson's-ct. Fleet-st. Shanly, Gt. Guildford st. Southw. Shaw, Fetter Lane. Shuttleworth & Co. Poultry. Sidney, Northumberland-st. Strand Silver, Newman st. Oxford st. Skirven, Ratcliff highway. Slater, Newton st. Holborn. Smales, Aldersgate street. Smeeton, Arcade, Pall Mail. Smith, King-st. Seven Dials. Sorrell, Bartholomew-close, Soulby, Savage-gardens, Tower-h. South, Coppice row, Clerkenwell. Spencer, East-st. Manchester-sq. Spragg, Bow-st. Covent-garden. Stokes, Lombard-street. Stower, Mrs. Clapton. Sufferson, Lit. Warner-st. Clerken.

Sutton, Lucas-st. Gray's-Inn-l.-rd. Swan, Fleet street. Taylor, Lamb's-condult-passage. Taylor, R. Printer's-ct. Shoe-lane. Taylor, A. Basinghall street. Teape & Son, George-yard, Tower-Teulon, Whitechapel. Tew, Queen-st. Cheapside. Thetford, Skinner-st, Bishopsgate. Thiselton, Goodge-st. Tottenham-Thompson, Gt. St. Helens. [ct. rd. Thomas, Red Lion st. Borough. Thomas, High st. Bloomsbury. Thomas, Denmark ct. Strand Thorowgood, Addle st. Cheapside. Tilling, Grosvenor row, Chelsea Topping, Play-house-yard, Blackf. Turner, Aldersgate-street. Twigg, Fleet street. Tyler & Honeyman, Well-st. Tyler, Rathbone-place, Oxf.-road. Tyler, Bridgewater-sq. Barbican. alpy, Red Lion-ct. Fleet-street. Vogel, Castle-st. Falcon-sq. Wadham & Co. Upper Thames-st. Wallis, Camden Town. Walwyn, West Harding st. Fetter 1. Warr, Red Lion-pass. Red Lion-sq. Warwick, Brook st. Holborn. Watts, Crown-ct. Pickett-st. Strand Whiting, Lombard-street. White, New-st. Bishopsgate-st. Wilkins, Brunswick st. Blackf. rd Williams, 13, Strand. Wilson, George-ct. Piccadilly. Wilson, Greville-st. Leather-lane. Whittingham, Chiswick.
Woodfall, T. York-st. Westminst.
Woodfall, G. Angel-ct. Skinner-st.
Woods, Swan-court, Fleet-street.
Woods, Hart-st. Grovenor-sq.
Wood, Poppin's-court, Fleet-st. Wood, Swan yard, Strand.

NEWSPAPER PRINTING OFFICES. Daily Morning. British Press, 181, Strand. Morning Chronicle, Strand. Morning Herald, Catherine st. Str. Morning Post, 335, Strand. Morning Advertiser, 127, Fleet st. New Times, Crane ct. Fleet street. Public Ledger, Warwick sq. Times, Printing house sq. Blackf. Daily Evening.
British Traveller, Black horse et.

Fleet street. Courier, 348, Strand. Globe and Traveller, Strand. Star, Picket place, Strand. Sun, 112, Strand.

Three times a Week. English Chron. Catherine st. Str. Evening Mail, Printing house sq. London Packet, Bridge st. Blackf. St. James'sChron, Bridge st. Black. Twice a Week.

Courier de Londres, Gt. Queen st. London Gazette, Cannon row, West. Weekly.
Baldwin's Journal, Bridge st. Black.

Bell's Messenger, St. Bride's pass. British & Indian Observer, Strand. British Monitor, Catherine street. County Chronicle, Warwick sq. County Herald, Warwick sq. Egan's Life in London, Strand.

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Englishman, Strand. Examiner, Tavistock st. Cov. gar. Farmer's Journal, Budge row, Walb. Fleming's Weekly Express, Fleet st. Guardian, Fleet st. (Strand. Bell's Life in Lond. One Bell yard, Imperial Weekly Gazette, Lomb. st. John Bull, Johnson's ct. Fleet st. LawChron. Peter's hill, Doct. Com.

Literary Gazette, Strand. Literary Chron. Surry st. Strand.

Letter Founders.

Austin & Son, Worship-st. Shored. Barton, Stanhope-st. Clare-market. Caslon & Co. Chiswell-st. Finsbury Catherwood, Charles-sq. Hoxton. Figgins, West st. Smithfield. Fry & Son, Type-st. Chiswell-st. Hughes, Dean st. Fetter l. Holb. Pouchée, Little Queen-st. Holborn.

Thorowgood, Fann-st. Aldersg.-st. Iron Press Makers. Brooks, Wild ct. Lincoln's Inn f. Clymer, Finsbury st. Finsbury sq. Cogger, Wardrobe ter. Doct. Com. Cope, North st. Chapple st. Finsb. Shield & Co. High Holborn.

Taylor & Co. City road, nr Canal. Walker, (first Maker of the Stanho-pean Press), Dean st. Oxford st.

Printers' Joiners, &c. Arding & Son, Dorset-st. Fleet-st. Baker, Leather lane. Brazier, Castle st. Southwark. Granger, Sea coal I. Fleet market.

cranger, Sea Coal I. Fleet market. Hampson, Long-lane, Smithfield. Mead, Cow Cross-st, Smithfield. Matthews, Duke-st. Lincola's Inn-f. Paul, Saffron-hill, Hatton-garden. Sperry, Heshlock et. Carey st. Toovey, Chichoster rents, Chanc. I. Printen Int. Makers

Printing Ink Makers.
Bell, Brunswick-st. Blackf.-road.

Bishop, 10, Fisher-st. Red Lion-sq. Agent for Martin & Co. Birming. Clark, 22, Lit. Queen st. Agent for Thornley & Co. Birmingham. Colvil, King-st. Compton-st.Clerk. Dickson, St. James's walk, Clerk. Griffiths, Coppice-row, Clerkenwell Wimble, Southampton st. Camb.

Printers' Smiths. Brooks, Wild et. Lincoln's Inn f. Coates, Leather lane, Holborn. Cook, Brook st. Holborn. Cope, North st. Chapple st. Finsb. Medbury, Seacoal lane. Townsend, Bell ct. Gray's Inn lane

Literary Museum, Bridges st. News, Brydges st. Covent garden. Observer, 169, Strand. Philanthropic Gazette, Leather 1. Sunday Times, Fleet street. Sunday Monitor, Lombard street. Sunday Morn. Herald, Catherine st. Weekly Dispatch, Wine office ct. Weekly Register, 127, Fleet st. Weekly Globe, Strand. Wooler's Gazette, 76, Fleet street.

LIST OF TRADES CONNECTED WITH THE ART.

Composition Ball, &c. Makers. Foster, Ship court, Old Bailey Harrild, Friday street, Cheapside. Izod & Hubbard, Fleet market.

Designers. Mills, Brooke, Newman st. Oxford street. Corbould, Burton Crescent.

Craig, Cruikshank, Pentonville. Fussell, Lloyd's row, Islington. Harvey, 47, Foley st. Cavendish sq. Stothard, R.A. Newman st. Oxf. rd.

Engravers on Wood. Armstrong, Guildford st. E. Spaf. Austing Paul's Alley, Barbican. Berryman, Cursitor st. Chancery l. Bonner Canterburyrow Kennington Branston, Beaufort bldgs, Strand. Byfield, Ashton place, Islington. Byfield, Mary, Ashton place, do. Dodd, Branch Terrace, Hoxton. Hughes, Hatfield st. Blackf. road. Lee, Union place, City road. Mason, Penton place, Pentonville. March, Gough square. Mosses, White Cross st. Crippleg. Scars, Angel Terrace, Islington. Scars, Angel acreacy, istingion.
Thompson, Wiple place, Kensingt.
Walker, Charles st. Hatton garden
Walker, Charles st. Hatton garden
Williams, Harrison st. Gray's Ins. I.
William, Market st. Islington road.

Bissagu, 597, Strand.
Cook, Brook street, Holborn.
Francis, Dean st. High Holborn.
Scott, 302, Strand.
Pans, High Holborn.
Timbure. Batten 1---

Timbury, Fetter lane. Skin Dealers.

Brown, Long lane, Bermondsey. Youd, Russell st. do. Auctioneers.

Delahoy, Deptford Bridge. Richardson, Hoston road. Saunders, Fleet street.

### CHAP. XXI.

#### TECHNICAL TERMS MADE USE OF BY THE PROPESSION.

We have here introduced the whole of the Technical Terms, that poeterity may know the phrases used by the early nursers and improvers of our Art.

Abbreviations. Marks to contract- | Bur. When the Founder has neged words.

Accents. Marks over vowels. Ball-knife. A blunt knife used to scrape balls.

Ball-nails. Tacks used in knocking-up balls. Bank. A stage about four feet high,

placed near the press. Beard of a Letter. The outer angle

of the square shoulder of the shank, which reaches almost to the face of the letter, and commonly scraped off by founders.

Bearer. A piece of riglet to bear the impression off a blank page. Bienvenue. The fee paid on admit-tance into a chapel.

Bite. Is when the entire impression of the page is prevented by the frisket's not being sufficiently cut

out. Blankets. Woollen cloth, or white

baize, to lay between the tympans. Body. The shank of the letter. Bottled-Arsed. When letter is wider at the bottom than the top.

Bottom-line. The last line of the page preceding the catch line. Brace. Is a character cast in mettle

marked thus ~~ of several breadths.

Brayer. Is a round wooden rubber, almost of the fashion of a ballstock, but flat at the bottom, and not above three inches diameter : it is used in the ink-block to bray or rub ink.

Break. A piece of a line. Broad-side. A form of one full page, printed on one side of a

whole sheet of paper. Broken Letter. By broken letter is not meant the breaking of the shanks of any of the letters, but the breaking the orderly succession the letters stood in a line, page, or form, &c. and mingling e letters together, which mingled letters is called pye.

lected to take off the roughness of the letter in dressing.

Cards. About a quire of paper,

which Pressmen use to pull down the spring or rising of a form, which it is many times subject to by hard locking up. Cassie Paper, Broken paper,

Choak. If a form be not washed in due time, the ink will get into the hollows of the face of the letter : and that getting in of the ink is called choaking of the letter, or choaking of the form.

Clean Proof. When a proof has but few faults in it, it is called a clean proof.

Close matter, Matterwithfe w breaks. Correct. When the Corrector reads the proof, or the Compositor mends the faults marked in the proof, they are both said to cor-rect; the Corrector the proof, the Compositor the form.

Corrections. The letters marked in a proof are called Corrections. Devil. The Errand-boy of a Printing-house.

Direction. The word that stands done on the right hand in the bottom line of a page. Direction-line. The line the direc-

tion stands in.

Double. Among Compositors, a repetition of words; also, among Pressmen, a sheet that is twice pulled and lifted ever so little off the form after it was first pulled, does most commonly (through the play of the joints of the tympans, take a double impression: this sheet is said to double. Doubling also happens by the loose hang-ing of the plattin, and by too much play the tenons of the head may have in the mortises of the cheeks, and indeed may be occa-sioned by the decay of several parts of the press.

Dressing a Chase or Form. The stting the pages and chase with furniture and quoins. rive out. When a compositor

Drive out.

sets wide. Empty Press. A press that is unemployed; in general every printing-office has one for a proof press. Even page. The 2d, 4th, 6th, or any

other even numbered page. Fat face, or fat Letter, is a broad

ed letter. stemm Fat work. Is when there are many

white-lines or break-lines in work.

Fat form. When the pressman has

a single pull.

First Form. The form the white paper is printed on, which generally has the first page of the sheet in it.

Fly. The person that takes off the sheets from the press in cases of

expedition.

Follow. That is, see if it follows; is a term used as well by the cor-rector as by the compositor and pressman. It is used by the corrector and compositor when they examine how the beginning matter of a succeeding page agrees with the ending matter of the preceding one; and how the fo-lios of these pages properly and numerically follow and succeed one another, lest the pages should be transposed. But the pressman only examines whether the folio and beginning word of the second page, and signature of the first and third page, when the reiteration is on the press, follows the folio and direction of the first page, and the signature of the third page follows the signature of the first page, lest the form should be laid wrong on the press. Foot of a Page. The bottom or end

of a page. Form. The pages when fitted into a

chase. Foul Proof. When a proof has many faults marked in it. Fount. Is the whole number of let-

ters that are cast of the same

body and face. Frier. When the balls do not take, the un-taking part of the balls that touches the form will be left white, or if the pressman skip over any part of the form, and touch

it not with the balls, though they do take, yet in both these cases the white places are called friars. Full Form or Page. A form or page with few or no breaks, or white

lines. Full Press. When two men work at

the press.

Fudge. To contrive without necessary materials, or do work in a bungling manner.

Get-in. Matter is got in in a line, page, sheet, or book, if letter be thinner cast than the printed copy the compositor sets from.

matter is got in if the compositor sets closer. Good Colour. Sheets printed sei-

ther too black nor too white.

Good of the Chapel. Forfeitures and other chapel dues collected for the good of the chapel, to be spent as the chapel approves. Good Work. Is called so in a two-

fold sense; the master printer calls it good work when the compositors and pressmen have done their duty; and the workmen call it good work, if it be light easy work, and they have a good

price for it. Half Press.

works at the press. Half Work. He that works bu three days in the week, does but

half work. Head Page. The beginning of a

subject. Heap. So many reams or quires as are set out by the Warehousekeeper for the pressman to wet. Heap holds out. When it hath its full number of sheets.

Holds out, or holds not out. These terms are applicable to the quires of white paper, to wrought off of white paper, to wrought on heaps, to gathered books, and sorts of letter, &c. If quires of white paper have twenty-five sheets each in them, they say the paper holds out five and twenties. Of wrought-off heaps, the heap that comes off first in gathering is said, not to hold out. Of gathered books, if the intended number ed books, it has intensed attensed of perfect books are gathered, they say the impression bolds out but if the intended number of perfect books cannot be gathered off the heaps, the impression holds not out. And so of letter.

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Horse. The stage pressmen set the heaps of paper on their banks.

Horse. If any journeyman set down in his bill on Saturday night more work than he has done, that surplus is called horse.

Hours. Pressmen reckon their work by hours, reckoning every token to an hour's work: and though it be the same effectually with tokens, yet they make their prices of different work by the hour; and it passes current for a token. If two men work at the press ten quires is an hour; if one man five

quires is an hour. Imperfections of Letters. When the founder has not cast a proportionable number of each sort of letter, it is making the rest of the

fount imperfect.

Insertion. If the compositor has left out words or lines, the corrector inserts it, and makes this mark a where it is left out.

Keep in. Is a caution either given to, or resolved on, by the compositor, where there may be doubt of driving out his matter beyond his counting off, wherefore he sets close, to keep in.

Keep out. A caution either given to or resolved on, by the compositor, when there may be doubt of getting in his matter too fast, wherefore he sets wide, to drive or keep out.

Kern of a Letter. That part which hangs over the body or shank.

Lean Face. A letter whose stems and other strokes have not their

full width. Letter Hangs. If the compositor is careless in emptying his compos-ing stick, so as to let the letter loosely down in the galley, and they stand not perfectly square and upright, the letter hangs: or if after overrunning on the correcting stone he has not set his letters in a square position again, before he locks up, the letter

thus out of square, is said to hang. Long Pull, is when the bar of the press requires to be brought close to the cheek to make a good im-

pression.

Low Case. When the compositor has composed almost all his letters out of his case. Mackle, when part of the impression on a page appear double, owing to the plattin's dragging on the frisket.

Matter. The series of the discourse of the compositor's copy.

Measure. The width of a page, Monk. When the pressman has not

distributed his balls, and the ink lies in blotches, it is called a monk.

Naked Form. When the furniture is taken from about all the sides

of the pages. Odd Page. The lst, 3rd, and all un-

even numbered pages. Off. Pressmen are said to be off

when they have worked off the designed number from a form. Out. A compositor is said to be out,

when he has set all his copy. Out of Register. When pages are not worked even on each other. Pale Colour. When the sheets are

worked off with too little ink. Pelts. Untanned sheep skins used for balls.

Picks. When any dirt gets into the hollows of the letter, which choaks up the face of it, and oc-

casions a spot. Point Holes. Holes made by the points in a worked off sheet of

paper. Press goes. When the pressmen

are at work. Press stands still. When they are not at work.

Pye. When a page is broken, and the letters confused.

Quarters. Octavos and twelves forms are said to be imposed in quarters, not from their equal divisions, but because they are imposed and locked up in four parts.

posed and society in four paris, Register sheet. Sheet or sheets printed to make register with. Reitzration. The second form, or the form printed on the back side of the white paper. Riglet. Is a thin sort of furniture,

of an equal thickness all its length. It is quadrat high, and made to the thickness of type.

Rise. A form is said to rise, whe in rearing it off the correcting stone, no letter or furniture, &c. drop out. Runs on Sorts. When matter uses

only a few sorts of letter. Set off. Sheets that are newly work-

ed off at the press often sets off 

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and more particularly so when beaten with soft ink.

Shank. The square metal the face of a letter stands on.

Signature. Any letter of the alphabet used at the bottom of the first page of a sheet, as a direction for the binders to place the sheets in a robume.

a volume. Slur. When the impression of the

sheets appear smeared.

Smout. When either compositors or pressmen are employed for a short time and not engaged for a constancy.

Sop the balls. When a pressman has taken too much ink.

bas taken too much ins.

Sorts. The letters that lie in every
box of the case are separately
called sorts in printers and founders' language; thus a is a sort, b

ders' language; thus s is a sort, s is a sort, s. is a sort, s.c. Squabble. A page or form is squabbled when the letter of one or more lines are got into any of the adjacent lines; or that the letter or letters are twisted about out of their suare position.

of their square position. Stem. The straight flat strokes of a straight letter is called stem.

straight letter is called stem. Superior Letters are often set to marginal notes, references or authorities; they are letters of assaulf face, justified by the founder in the mold near the top of the line.

Thin spaces ought, by a strict orderly and methodical measure to be made of the thickness of the seventh part of the body; though founders make them indifferently thicker or thiner.

thicker or thiner.
Turn for a letter. It often happens
when matter runs upon sorts, es-

more happens in a shoet, the compositor calls that vantage: so does the pressman, when a form of one pull comes to the press.

Underhaud. A phrase used by presmen for the light and easy, or heavy and hard running is of the carriage. Thus they say, the presgoes light and easy under hand, or it goes heavy or hard under hand. Upper hand, when the spindle goes soft and easy, the pressmen say, it goes well under hand, or above hand. But the contrary if it goes

hard and heavy.

White-line. A line of quadrats.

White page. A page that no matter

comes in.

White paper. Although the first form be printed off, yet pressmen call that heap white paper, till the reiteration be printed



### CHAP. XXII.

#### ON STEREOTYPE, AND STEAM AND HAND MACHINES.

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Bring now arrived at the period when we are called upon to perform a most serious and important part of our duty, and it is with a degree of pain that we find ourselves reluctantly compelled to advert to it: we allude to the very peculiar and most extraordinary transactions which have taken place in the profession (particularly within the last twenty years) since the partial introduction of the Stereotype process; and, latterly, that of Steum and Hand Machines for the purpose of printing, instead of following the old, sure, and beaten track, by means of Presses, which are, unquestionably infinitely superior in every point of view: and we boldly assert, that there are presses now in use, as far superior to the machines, as is the meridian sun's bright rays, when placed in competition with the murky clouds of night; which assertion we doubt not we shall most satisfactorily establish (in the opinion of all candid and unbiased minds) before we have concluded this brief article.

It appears that the invention of Stereotype, like that of Printing, is somewhat involved in mystery; all doubts respecting the latter we flatter ourselves have been fully solved in our arguments on that subject in Vol. I.; but, with respect to the former, we conceive that its author is not worth the pains of our tracing; and more particularly when we reflect, that so many of our brethren who well deserve (from their ability) a comfortable subsistence, and who ought to be enabled (from their profession,) to move in a respectable sphere of life, are now, through this process, reduced to a very humble pittance, thereby bringing the first Art in the world down to a level with the lowest; and, at one season of the year, nearly one half of the valuable body of men alluded to may be considered as totally destitute of employ, on account of the standard works, which was the summer's stock work, having been Stereotyped.

We find that William Ged, a goldsmith of Scotland, from the suggestion of a friend (a printer) left his business in 1726, and turned his attention to this subject; having spent all his property in experiments, he engaged with a person to advance him money, who did not fulfil his engagements; he afterwards entered into a contract with two others, named Fenner and James, who obtained the patent for the University of Cambridge, which was made out in the name of Fenner; they soon after disagreed, when Ged was turned out: on the death of Fenner, the University refused to renew the patent to his widow. The new Patentee was ordered to resort to the old process of printing; and we find that all the plates of the Bible and Common Prayer were sent to the

Chiswell Street Foundry, and there melted down in the

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presence of a confidential agent appointed by the University. Ged died in poverty soon after, and his companions failed in realizing their fancied expectations; thus ended Stereotype at this period, in the total failure of all concerned. Experiments were afterwards made upon it by several others, but not continued: about 1804, it was again revived by the late Earl Stanhope, assisted by Mr. A. Wilson, a printer, who turned his whole attention that way, and entered very extensively into it : His Lordship's idea was, that Stereotype editions should be sold very cheap; but we find that the first Stereotype works were charged full as high, or higher, than by the regular mode. In the Monthly Magazine for April, 1807, it is stated, "that Stereotype had not been adopted by the Booksellers of London, and that it does not appear that more than twenty or thirty works would warrant the expense of being cast in solid pages, consequently the loss would greatly counterbalance the advantages," &c. To this, Mr. Wilson rather angrily replied, and accused them of making mistakes, which were calculated to mislead the public; but from his account we are fully satisfied, if the Editor went to one extreme, Mr. Wilson's argument carried him into the other; and we boldly assert, that it does not possess those advantages that Mr. W. would lead us to imagine, for we find that he overstocked himself with copies of various standard works, the sale of which was very slow, whilst those from types were in high repute: having failed in his attempt to force a market, he at length resolved to leave the business altogether, when he sold every thing off, not being able to find a person to continue it: therefore he made little or nothing of this boasted discovery.

The following arguments have been advanced in opposition to the practice of this invention; First, the expense of composition, and the trouble of proving each page separately for several times, is much greater than in the common mode: Secondly, the composition is charged a higher price, and the expense of Stereotyping, together with the weight of metal (which may be taken at about one-fourth that of type) must of necessity make the first edition come

<sup>•</sup> Mr. Tilloch and Mr. Foulls of Glasgow brought Stereotype to a degree of perfection, without knowing, as they state, of the discovery bed; and for which they took out patents both for England covery the design of the discovery bed; and Scotle and Sc

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wery high: Thirdly, Stereotype plates must always be done at iron presses, on account of the vast power required to bring them off; the price for printing is necessarily higher than that of type: Fourthly, the plates once cast must ever remain so, as no alteration in the size of the page, or cut of the type can ever take place, without incurring all the original expense: Fifthly, Stereotype work is never taken by pressmen from choice, on account of the trouble and additional labour required; also from the great impression necessary, the plates are more liable to injury; when the pressman must stop while they are repaired, and should several others be before him, he must wait his turn, which is sometimes a day, or more, before he can go on again; consequently the pressmen never observe a butter (unless it be very glaring), because they would be stopped in their progress; hence numerous errors are likely to arise, even by that process which was stated to be perfection itself, and also one of its greatest advantages: Sixthly, the bookseller has, by the old mode the certainty, or nearly so. of detecting, particularly in town, any unjust advantage which might be taken of him, in point of number, by those with whom he entrusts his work : that important security will be wholly done away by plate-printing. He must also be subject to the loss sustained by the damage of the plates. together with fraud by the "facility with which Stereotype plates are cast from Stereotype plates," We conceive this last objection which is so highly important, and which will bear the strictest examination, is in itself quite sufficient to deter all persons from giving it the least countenance or support in any way whatever.\* Having briefly touched upon the subject of Stereotype,

Having briefly touched upon the subject of Stereotype, shall now take a glance at its allies, the Steam and Hand Machines. The first known attempt at the former was made by two Saxons, of the names of König and Baur, who, we understand, were assisted by three opulent Master Printers: a considerable sum must have been expended, from the length of time that the project was in hand before it was completed; during which period different patents were taken out, because they varied from the original specifications, thus making surety doubly sure: at length this machine, which had been made in obscurity, was brought forth (in 1813-14) to astonish the world by its wonderful action, in receiving and delivering an almost incredible number of sheets per hour; the place selected for this experiment was the Office of The Times Newspaper, where were extraordinary impression that is daily taken of this

•According to an estimate, in an edition of the Origin of Stereotype, printed for the Typographical Society at Newcastle-upon-Tyne, we find that there is little return under ten years, upon an edition of 4000, at one 1000 per year; taking interest and all other items, which is a strong proof of our opinion.

'leading Journal,' was struck off in a very short space of time, compared with what would have been necessary by manual labour at the presses, which required such great exertion, that the stoutest constitutions fell asacrifice to it in a few years, yet others were eager to fill their stations; therefore this could not be assigned as an excuse for their introduction. For the sake of humanity, there is no one, we believe, that would object to the adoption of these machines for Newspapers of an extensive circulation, provided the Proprietors preferred the loss from the destruction of their types, &c. to the advantage derived to them in point of time.\* This machine was followed by others, which were erected on the late premises of Mr. T. Bensley, in Bolt Court ;† and one was made for Mr. R. Taylor of Shoe Lane.: It was expected, no doubt, that these machines would engross the principal works of a long number, from the price at which they offered to take them; but, alas! their castles, which were built in the air, vanished in the clouds on the appearance of an enemy in the field; who, notwithstanding the security, simplified their machine and evaded their patents: these persons, although not printers. set up an office for stereotype and printing by steam, in opposition to the two first, who had steam only; they also made machines for others: from this period rivalry commenced. and each party endeavoured to supplant the other, not as to excellence, but as to cheapness, no matter how it was done; thereby basely tearing down that beautiful fabric of our Art, which had caused so much labour and expense to rear, and those through whose talents and industry it was upheld, are sent as wanderers in our streets! yes, even the very men from whose ability, and the sweat of whose brows, by far the greater portion of the masters derived not only their fame, but also their wealth! Had they followed the doctrine of conciliation, in their disputes with the men, instead of coersion, and steered clear of the new-fangled articles which have been introduced, we should not now have persons commencing printing who know not the right end of a composing-stick: all this is owing to the above causes. by which the men are deprived of employment: had the

<sup>•</sup> We are given to understand that the types will not last more than half the time by the machines, consequently the draw-back upon them must be great indeed.

<sup>\*</sup>About five year ano, this gentleman's office was unfortunately destroyed by fire; but the machines (which were in a building in the yard) were the principal articles that escaped devastation: he declined rebuilding the premises, when his son took it upon himself, together with the machines, at which he is now driving an extensive business.

<sup>2.</sup> Although Mr. R. Taylor has got a machine, yet all his book-work is done by presses, this gentleman not finding it answer his expectation in that respect.

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masters not acted so hastily, we do not believe that any man of character would have lifted a space for those not practical printers; but, alas! the deed is now done.

These machines are composed of large iron cylinders. by which the impression is produced from the form passing under; there are also small rollers, one above the other, covered with composition, which work against each other, and so distribute the ink which falls upon the upper ones. from a box with small holes in the bottom; the cylinders for the impression are covered with blankets, similar to those used at the presses; the sheets are kept to the cylinder with tapes, and when one side is printed, it revolves by means of the tapes and additional rollers, from one cylinder to the other, and is then perfected by the second form: there is great danger attending these machines, accidents not unfrequently happening; therefore the boys employed have a subscription for the support of each other in such cases. At first the cylinder pressed very heavy on the heads and bottoms of the pages, and thereby not only battered the types, but also spoiled the work : but we understand that this objection is obviated by means of iron bearers, which receive the cylinder before it touches the form; there is an evil in this, because they prevent the cylinder from giving that impression which is necessary, therefore this deficiency of power is supplied by an extra quantity of ink. There can be no question but that the types are very much destroyed by them, because the form must tear as it passes under, and consequently force the cylinder round, similar to the action of the copper-plate presses. The works of these machines are very complicated, and of course are often wanting repairs. We are given to understand that the Hand Machines are as various in their constructions as the different presses; they are turned by a man, instead of being worked by steam; of course the impression is produced by a cylindrical power, similar to the former: from what we have understood respecting them, it would require a very considerable unnecessary space to attempt any thing like a faint description of them, therefore we shall content ourselves with observing, that the labour of working them by far exceeds that of the heaviest presses ever used, and so violent is the exertion, that the stoutest men that can be found, are not able to stand at them for more than a quarter of an hour, or twenty minutes at a time; there are two men, and they relieve each other alternately : yet we doubt not, but they will in time convince all those that have had any thing to do with them, that they would have acted wise had they not introduced them into their premises.

We are much surprised at the apathy and supineness shewn by the body of Master Printers, with respect to the subject under discussion; they most assuredly had good and sufficient grounds for an application to Parliament, for

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a tax that should bring the work so executed, upon an equality with that done by manual labour. We are well aware that machinery is encouraged by Government, but that is done on account of the low price at which the article is vended; but in this case the price is kept up, as neither the printer nor the public receive the benefit : and the families of the men thus thrown out of employ are compelled to seek parochial relief; for it appears that printers, above all other men, are least inclined to turn their hands to any thing out of their own branch of Art; likewise it is a complete bar to improvement, and of necessity damps and destroys that laudable spirit of emulation by which alone perfection is expected to be attained. We feel satisfled that the above would not have met with encouragement from a British Public, had they been aware of the evils attendant on it: they have not only to pay a full price for the work, but also extra poor's rates in consequence of the men being thus out of employ; likewise, they are countenancing the breaking up and destruction of all the energy and talent of that art which was England's proudest boast. and her shield against all the threats of her foreign foes.

From the present state of things, what can reasonably be expected but disorder and confusion, when each master is endeavouring to supplant his neighbour, not as to excellence, but as to cheapness; this they endeavour to do by means of the new-fangled articles\* which have been produced; we firmly believe, that if the individuals who have gone out of the beaten road would calmly sit down, and cast up the sums thus unnecessarily laid out, they would be induced to order all such articles off their premises. We should rejoice with the admirers of our Art, could we witness them fired with a spirit of emulation for improvement, instead of the conduct just alluded to, thereby earning that honourable and praise-worthy fame which ought to be the proudest boast of man. They appear to have forgotten, if ever they gave the subject a moment's thought, that they merely hold the Profession in trust for their successors, to use fairly, but not to abuse; so that, when they are called upon to render it up, they may appear in the character of good and faithful stewards; on which account, their names will ever be dear to all those who may hereafter follow them.

In proof of what we have just advanced, we beg to observe, that we have seen several land machines (which must have cost considerable sums of money) laying (ide, whilst the presses were all full of work; now, is it reasonable to suppose, that a printer would pay pressmen for work, if it could have been executed as well, and so much quicker, by his idle machines: no, no, this will not do: there is one of these toys now at a press manufactory, to be broken ap; it was offered to us for Right Gwisses, the price of old iron; although we doubt not but it coul a few hundreds!!)

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We never hear honourable mention of the names of those deceased worthies to whom we are indebted for the guardianship and early improvement of printing, but we immediately ask ourselves, in what light will succeeding generations view the feelings and public spirit of the printers of the niueteenth century, when contrasted with the lasting remembrance of those eminent men of former days, who, from their laudable exertions in improving our Arthave built for themselves and their posterity an imperishable monument; which, to the noble and aspiring mind, is far beyond the diadem of a prince: wealth, compared with this honest and praise-worthy earned fine, is altogether light as a feather when placed in the balance.



# HERE LIETH

THE OUTER FORM OF

# TYPOGRAPHY PAGE,

# A Printer

OF THE FIRST MAGNITUDE,

who for

Distributing the Pearl of Charity, was perhaps a Nonpareil. He was faithful and honest to his Companions. though nearly brought to the Gallones by them. His humanity was great. and his Life truly Justified with good Rules. Early in Life he was called to the Bar, and was happy when employed for the service of his Country. He was always bold to face the French Cannon with a Broadside : but was sorry to have the English destroyed. He was not bigoted to any Religion; but a strenuous advocate for Justification, and an enemy to Monks and Friars. He often Imposed on himself for the benefit of others. He was no Critic:

though he Corrected the errors of other Persons, he did not forget a proper attention to his own. His character through Life was of a good bright Colour: He seldom went too far in his Pull.

When laid up in the Sink Room of Disease, he complained his head was in Pie.

Death locked up his Mortal Form, on the tenth Quire of his last Token, when he had patiently pulled off his White Paper,

with hopes of a forous Reiteration; in full assurance of a second Edition being better than the first. His Light being out, he was papered up in his Coffin, and his remains solemnly interred

in the peaceful Wool-Hole,

Abax, Abbrev Latin maki cord

cord read Aboul Abrahi 303, Abyssi

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Acts of ters lets Acute Admi Eolid Aldus 7. Alexa pha

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### THE ORIGIN OF PRINTING.

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#### A CANTATA.

## WRITTEN BY MR. DODD.

#### Recitative.

When on the Greeks and Romans learned page, The barb'rous Goths (the scandal of that age) Plac'd their destroying hands, fair Science mourn'd, And Learning was to deepest ign'rance turn'd. Long in the darksome womb of hiding Time, The Arts lay hid, banish'd from ev'ry clime; But when the Medician herbes liv'd. The blooming Science once again reviv'd.

#### Air.

Tuse....Stepherd wass you see me. fs.
See the Arts erect their heads!
See the Muses tune their song!
Learning o'er each clime now spreads
Where the Goths had triumph'd long;
Every scribe resumes his pen,
Brutes are polish'd into men.

### Recitative.

But sage Minerva thought the pen too slow,
To make each useful Art and Science flow
Through evry state, with necessary haste,
To recompense the days of darkness past,
Then she to Faust and Schaffer did impart,
That friend to Learning's cause, the Typographic Art.

### Air.

Tune....I'll range round the shady Bowers. Hall noble Art, by which the world, Though long in barbarism hurl'd, Sees blooming Learning swift arise, And Science wasted to the skies.

Aided by thee, the printed page, Conveys instruction to each age; When in one hour more sheets appear, Than Scribes could copy in a year. Tune .--- Beast beef of Old England.

Then all who process here that heaven-taught Art,
And all who have Learning and Science at heart,
Come join in my ditty, and each bear a part,
To sing in the praise of good Printing,
And to sing in that noble Art's praise.

Though ev ry Composer a Galley must have, Yet think not by that a Composer's a slave, For freedom he labours, and freedom will have, To sing in the praise of good Printing, And to sing in that noble Art's praise.

Though he daily Imposes, 'tis not to do wrong,
And, tike Nimrod, he follower Chace all day long,
And heloves a good Sice, or he's much in the wrong,
To sing in the praise of good Printing,
And to sing in that noble Art's praise.

Though Correction he needs, all mankind does the same, If he Quadrats his matter, he is not to blame, For to heatification he lays a strong claim,

Then sing in the praise of good Printing,
And sing in that noble Art's praise.

To complete this great Art, the Pressmen all come, And each handles his Balls, his Frisket, and Drum, And to make good impression the Plattin pulls home. While he sings to the praise of good Printing, And sings in that noble Art's praise.

But, as the old proverb relates very clear,
We're the furthest from good when the church we are near,
So in each Printers Chapel do Devils appear;
Who roar in the praise of good Printing,
And sing in that noble Art's praise.

Then let us regard, as the aider of Art,
Each one who in Printing doth bear the least part,
And whoe er would oppress it must have a vile heart,
Then sing in the praise of good Printing,
And sing in that noble Art's praise.

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